PanSIG Journal 2019

Edited by Debopriyo Roy & John Blake

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

MESSAGE FROM THE EDITOR

The 18th Annual PanSIG conference was held at the Konan University, CUBE Campus (Nishinomiya) in Hyogo on May 18-19, 2019. The conference was a big success attended by participants from all over Japan and abroad. An important goal for PanSIG 2019 was to significantly reduce its environmental footprint, and we were successful to a large extent.

PanSIG 2019 features over 250 presentations and forums ranging across teaching contexts, methodologies, pedagogies, and SIG topics. The conference was a collaborative effort from 26 Special Interest Groups (SIGs) within the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). The conference enabled participants to attend presentations on a variety of topics from a wide spectrum in the fields of language teaching and learning.

This journal represents the fifth 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 from the 2019 conference. With a comprehensive blind and detailed peer review process, including the new policy of allowing authors to take on the role of a reviewer, dedicated reviewing and editing committees, along with motivated and professional authors, and proper time management, the quality of the articles submitted to the 2019 PanSIG Journal were consistently high. The articles finally selected for publication in the 2019 PanSIG Journal demonstrated a comprehensive and robust representation of the work presented at the PanSIG conference from a number of different SIGs on a diverse range of topics. More importantly, the range of research ideas highlight the effort and creativity of the participants of the conference and the members of the SIGs, and clearly demonstrated that PanSIG as a language research, teaching and learning community is constantly evolving and seeking to find new patterns, designs and structures in language pedagogy.

Heartiest thanks to John Blake, the associate editor of the 2019 PanSIG journal for his immense help. Congratulations to all previous editors for maintaining the quality of the journal, and allowing me to take over smoothly. Special thanks to Michael Hollenback, James Dunn, and Aleda Krause for their continuous support, feedback, dedication and commitment in reviewing and advising.

This edition of the journal truly stands out due to the commitment shown by the volunteer reviewers, authors who showed so much interest in reviewing papers from peers in the community, providing scholarly feedback for improvement, and importantly, timely submission by both authors and reviewers alike. I would also like to thank the authors for submitting their articles for this publication. The success of this collection is a cumulative effort from a number of hard-working volunteers who dedicated large amounts of their precious time into putting together such a quality journal. We hope that you will enjoy reading the articles, explore opportunities for research collaboration and gain insight for your professional development. Congratulations to all the contributors to this edition of the PanSIG Journal.

June 5th, 2020
Debopriyo Roy

Editor-in-Chief, PanSIG Journal 2019

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.

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1 Learner Attitudes Towards a Global Approach in Eikaiwa

Tim Andrewartha
The British Council

It is a concern that English schools in Japan, known as eikaiwa, focus too much on native English and western culture. However, for change to take place, it is necessary to consider the attitudes of the learners. Therefore, this study measured learner attitudes in an eikaiwa to a global approach to studying English. This approach aims to prepare Japanese learners to communicate with people from all over the world by incorporating elements from global Englishes, based on suggestions that they should listen to examples of world Englishes and English as a lingua franca, and from intercultural communication, based on suggestions that they should develop an awareness of and appreciation for cultural differences. Eighty-four learners at an eikaiwa in Tokyo completed a questionnaire with multi-item Likert scales and while statistical analysis revealed some mixed feelings, overall there was a positive tendency suggesting the approach should be implemented in the eikaiwa classroom.

日本の英会話スクールがネイティブ英語や西洋文化にフォーカスしすぎていることは懸念すべき実情である。これを変えるためには、学習者の考えを考察することが必須となる。本研究では、英語学習における“グローバルなアプローチ”に対して学習者が持つ考えを分析した。このグローバルなアプローチは日本人学習者が世界中の人々とコミュニケーションできるよう手助けすることを目的としており、そのために、１）世界諸英語やリンガ・フランカとしての英語を聞くべきとされるグローバル諸英語の要素、２）文化の違いを認識し好意的に捉えるべきとされる異文化間コミュニケーションの要素を取り入れている。リッカート尺度を用いたアンケートには都内の英会話スクールに通う 84 人の学習者が回答した。統計分析では学習者の入り混じった考えが明らかとなる一方、英会話レッスンにはグローバルなアプローチを導入すべきであるとの肯定的な考えも導き出されている。

English is spoken by people all over the world, with the majority of its speakers being multilingual and multicultural, and its most common use as a global lingua franca (Galloway, 2017; Jenkins, 2015). Kachru’s three circle model (1992), including the inner circle where English is spoken as a first language, the outer circle where English is an official language in post-colonial countries, and the expanding circle where English is learned as a foreign language, is frequently given importance in the literature (Galloway, 2017; Galloway & Rose, 2014; Liu and Fang, 2017; Ren, Chen & Lin, 2016) and it is commonly accepted that there are far more speakers of English in the outer and expanding circles than in the inner circle (Galloway, 2017; Jenkins, 2015). Considering these points, it is argued that there needs to be changes in the way that English is taught, particularly in expanding circle countries, such as Japan, where so-called native English remains the target in the TEFL classroom (Galloway, 2017; Galloway and Rose, 2014). While efforts to make lessons more global have been carried out in the university context (ibid), one area which may be neglected is the eikaiwa industry.

The Eikaiwa Industry

In Japan there are many private English language schools, known as eikaiwa, which offer lessons to both young learners and adults. These schools tend to use the feature of having so-called native teachers as a selling-point to attract learners, or customers as they are more accurately seen. Therefore, the lessons and materials often focus on British or American English and the culture which is included in the topics and contexts is usually from a western perspective. This creates concern that learners are not adequately prepared to communicate with people from all over the world. However, it may be difficult to make changes if learners have been socialised into believing that focusing on inner circle English and western culture is the best way to study English. This means it is important to investigate the attitudes of learners towards a global approach.

Global Englishes

One area from which suggestions for change have come is the field of global Englishes. Global Englishes includes world Englishes and English as a lingua franca (ELF) (Galloway, 2017; Jenkins, 2015). World Englishes includes varieties of English from the outer circle, where they have developed in Asia, Africa and the Caribbean, each with unique characteristics reflecting their national and cultural identities, as well as from the expanding circle, where varieties are also starting to develop in countries such as China, where some estimations suggest that 400 million people are learning English (Jenkins, 2015). However, ELF is the most common use of English (Galloway, 2017), and it is used in a flexible way which speakers from the inner circle struggle to emulate (Jenkins, 2011). Despite the implications this has for the ownership of English, recent research suggests many learners still believe English belongs to the inner circle (Galloway, 2017; Liu & Fang, 2017; Ren, et al. 2016). Therefore, changes need to be made in the way English is taught. Galloway, who has conducted research in a Japanese university, suggests that there is a need to “raise awareness of Global Englishes” and “emphasise respect for diverse culture and identity” (2017, preface), and, as shown by Galloway and Rose (2014), an effective way to do this is through listening to global Englishes.

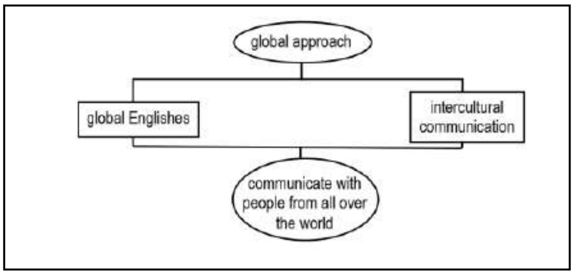
Intercultural Communication

Another area from which suggestions for change have come is the field of intercultural communication (ICC), and, while this area does not focus specifically on language but rather feelings, thoughts and behaviour, it is felt that it is necessary to incorporate elements from this field into the English language classroom (Lui & Fang, 2017). In ICC, both Hall (1976) and Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov (2010) are given importance in the literature (Chiper, 2015; Servaes, 2016; Yeo and Pang, 2017). Hall (1976) states that people are usually unaware of their own culture and to understand other cultures they first need to develop a deep awareness of their own culture. This has recently been addressed by Lui and Fang (2017) who argue learners should study about their own culture as well as other non-Anglo cultures in the English classroom. In order to compare different cultures, the six cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede, et al. (2010) can be used, and the individualism versus collectivism dimension is seen as essential in understanding the difference between Western and Asian cultures (Servaes, 2016). However, of particular relevance in this study is research carried out in Japan by Yoshida, Yashiro and Suzuki (2013) who conducted a focus group with Japanese business people in which they discussed how ICC should be taught in the Japanese context, and, based on their findings, they devised a framework for teaching ICC in Japan which suggested that Japanese learners should develop “awareness of themselves”, “their own culture” and “cultural differences” (2013, p. 79).

A Global Approach

The global approach in this study (diagram 1) combines elements from global Englishes and intercultural communication by aiming to prepare learners to communicate with people from all over the world by teaching them global communication skills. These global communication skills include the ability to listen to global Englishes and the ability to understand cultural differences.

Diagram 1 Global Approach



Research Questions

This study aims to measure the attitudes of learners towards such an approach by asking the following questions.

1) What attitudes do learners have towards a global approach in the English classroom?

2) Do learners think they should learn how to communicate with people from all over the world?

3) Do learners think they should listen to different varieties of English from all over the world?

4) Do learners think they should learn about cultural differences from all over the world?

Methods

Participant Information

This study included 84 learners at an eikaiwa in Tokyo, part of a chain which has many schools in Japan. The majority were female (69%), 50 years old or over (67%) and studying at the intermediate – advanced levels (82%). The most usual purpose for studying English was as a hobby (52%).

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used as it was felt that for changes to be implemented it was necessary to measure attitudes on a larger and more accurate scale than if more qualitative methods were used. The questionnaire used Likert scales, (from 1 disagree to 5 agree), and comprised of 18 items, some of them positive about the global approach and some of them negative. All 18 items were combined to create the global approach variable which aimed to answer research question 1 which was about the approach as a whole. Then the 18 items were split into three groups. Items 1 – 6 were combined to create the global communication skills variable which aimed to answer research question 2 which was about the idea of learning how to communicate with people from all over the world. Items 7 – 12 were combined to create the listening to global Englishes variable which aimed to answer research question 3. Items 13 – 18 were combined to create the cultural differences variable which aimed to answer research question 4. As well as the multi-item variables, there were three open-questions, included so they could express themselves in a more personal manner, which asked the participants to write in either English or Japanese about their attitudes towards learning global communication skills, listening to global Englishes and learning about cultural differences.

Reliability

The questionnaire was written in English and then translated into Japanese by a professional translator. Then a pilot study was done with four participants who provided feedback which was used to improve the questionnaire. After the questionnaires were completed in the main study, and the negative item results were recoded, reliability tests were run on SPSS. According to Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010), while it is preferable for the Cronbach Alpha (α) to be over 0.70, it should not be below 0.60. Whereas the global approach variable (α = .76), the listening to global Englishes variable (α = .77) and the cultural differences variable (α = .69) had good reliability, the global communication skills variable (α = .58) was slightly low. Therefore, it was decided to remove item 3 from the global communication skills variable to improve the reliability (α = .60).

Results and Discussion

Attitudes Towards the Global Approach as a Whole

Research question 1 was answered by the global approach variable. As shown in table 1, the mean was 3.5 and the standard deviation was .49. This reveals a tendency in their attitudes which, although close to neutral, is positive towards the global approach as a whole. The other variables give further insight into their attitudes towards the different elements within the approach and are discussed while answering the other research questions.

Table 1 Variables

	n	α	M	SD
Global Approach	84	.76	3.5	.49
Global Communication Skills	84	.60	3.4	.72
Listening to Global Englishes	84	.77	2.8	.83
Cultural Differences	84	.69	4.0	.61

Attitudes Towards Learning Global Communication Skills

Research question 2 was answered by the global communication skills variable. As shown in table 1, the mean was 3.4 and the standard deviation was .72. This also reveals a tendency in their attitudes which, although close to neutral, is positive about learning how to communicate with people from all over the world. However, the standard deviation indicates there was a larger variation in their attitudes towards learning global communication skills than towards the approach as a whole.

Looking at the individual items (table 2) there was a strong tendency to agree with the items which are positive about learning global communication skills (and in the case of item 3 the level of agreement was so high it was removed from the variable to improve the reliability). However, looking at the items which are negative about learning global communication skills, we can see more variation, which suggests that there are some conflicting attitudes. These seemingly contradictory attitudes suggest that while learners may want to communicate with people from all over the world in English, some learners may believe that they can do this by learning how to communicate with people from the inner circle.

The following two comments which participants wrote (originally in Japanese) as answers to the open-question show that while one participant was positive

Table 2 Global Communication Skills

Items	1	2	3	4	5
1. Inner circle countries (UK, US, etc.) treat English as a mother tongue, so the people who I want to communicate with in English the most are English speakers from these countries. (negative)	8%	7%	12%	35%	38%
2. English is often used not only when I speak to people from inner circle countries (the UK, the US, etc.), but also when I speak to people from outer and expanding circle countries (India, China, etc.) so I want to be able to communicate with people from all over the world in English. (positive)	4%	1%	0%	25%	70%
3. I think being aware of the fact that there are many cultural differences in the world and also there are different kinds of English will help me to avoid misunderstandings or trouble when I have communication with foreign people in English. (positive)	1%	0%	0%	11%	88%
4. If I understand English and culture from the inner circle countries (the UK, the US, etc.) I will be able to have smooth communication in English with people from the outer and expanding circles (India, China, etc.) too. (negative)	19%	17%	20%	27%	17%
5. I think the English language belongs to everyone around the world who uses it. If there are any skills I should learn to be able to communicate smoothly in English with people who are not from the inner circle countries (the UK, the US, etc.), I want to know them. (positive)	2%	6%	5%	33%	54%
6. I think the English language belongs to people from the inner circle countries (the UK, US, etc.). So, I mainly want to be able to have communication with English speakers from these countries. (negative)	15%	26%	29%	17%	13%

towards learning global communication skills, another had mixed feelings.

> I want to learn how to communicate with people from all over the world. People who we meet in Japan or in other countries are not always from the UK or the US, so I want to learn it as a tool to communicate with more people.

> I want to learn how to communicate with mainly people from the inner circle countries. I want to learn the basics first. If I could speak the language correctly, then I would be able to communicate with people from many different countries smoothly. It doesn't mean I don't want to communicate with people from non-inner circle countries.

Research questions 3 and 4 give further insight into their attitudes towards learning how to communicate with people from all over the world by looking specifically at their attitudes towards listening to global Englishes and learning about cultural differences.

Attitudes Towards Listening to Global Englishes

Research question 3 was answered by the listening to global Englishes variable. As shown in table 1, the mean was 2.8 and the standard deviation was .83. The mean reveals a tendency in their attitudes which, although close to neutral, is negative towards listening to different kinds of English from all over the world. The standard deviation shows the largest variation in their attitudes of the four variables.

To try to understand the variety in their attitudes more, we can look at the individual items (table 3) which

Table 3 Listening to Global Englishes

Items	1	2	3	4	5
7. I think listening CDs should also include English by people from outer circle countries (India, Singapore, etc.). Then I can experience different kinds of English and learn about its diversity. (positive)	17%	23%	23%	21%	17%
8. I think listening CDs should also include people from different countries in the expanding circle (Brazilian, Chinese, Russian, etc.) speaking to each other in unconventional but smooth English. Then I can hear flexible English which gives priority to understanding one another as well. (positive)	18%	31%	20%	21%	10%
9. English from the inner circle countries (the UK, the US, etc.) is correct and natural, so listening CDs should mainly use English by English speakers from these countries. (negative)	1%	6%	12%	42%	39%
10. If I experience English by people from expanding circle countries (Brazil, China, Russia, etc.) on listening CDs, I think there will be an unfavourable influence on my English. (negative)	20%	21%	29%	21%	8%
11. Varieties of English by people from outer circle countries (India, Singapore, etc.) are not really correct and are difficult to understand, so I don't think I want to listen to them on listening CDs. (negative)	11%	20%	24%	29%	17%
12. If I only listen to English from inner circle countries (the UK, the US, etc.) on listening CDs, then when I actually communicate with people from the outer and expanding circles (India, China, etc.) I think I might not be able to understand their English. (positive)	19%	19%	19%	35%	8%

reveal some complex and seemingly contradictory attitudes. While an almost equal number agreed and disagreed with item 12, there was a strong tendency to agree with item 9. This suggests that while some learners are aware that there is a practical need to listen to different varieties of English, there is still a clear preference for inner circle English. Additionally, despite an almost equal number agreeing and disagreeing with item 7, there was a tendency to agree with item 11. This reveals contradictory attitudes suggesting that while some learners understand it is importance to listen to outer circle varieties to appreciate the diversity of English, at the same time they may hesitate to do so because of negative attitudes. Furthermore, although there was a tendency to disagree with item 8, there was a slight tendency to disagree with item 10. This also seems to show some contradictory attitudes. It seems that while there is a slight tendency to think expanding circle English will not have a negative effect on their English, they do not think it should be included. Possibly they hesitated to agree with item 10 because they felt it was too negative about expanding circle English, but it could also indicate the complexity and contradictory nature of their attitudes.

The following two comments which participants wrote (originally in Japanese) as answers to the open-

Table 4 Cultural Differences

Items	1	2	3	4	5
13. I think there is no need to study about cultural differences around the world during an English conversation school class in English. It should be fine if I learn that kind of thing in Japanese, separate from my English conversation school class. (negative)	44%	44%	6%	4%	2%
14. I think different countries have different cultures, and because of that people's thinking, feeling and behaviour change. During an English conversation school class, it's important to study that kind of thing. (positive)	1%	1%	6%	31%	61%
15. I think it's necessary to learn about cultural differences between Japan and other countries during English conversation school classes. I believe that kind of knowledge can be useful when I communicate with people from all over the world. (positive)	1%	1%	5%	29%	64%
16. The English language belongs to people from the inner circle countries (the UK, the US, etc.), so if I learn about cultural differences in an English conversation lesson, I think I should mainly learn about cultural differences between Japan and inner circle countries. (negative)	21%	25%	32%	17%	5%
17. If I learn cultural differences between too many countries and get too much culture shock, I think other stuff I should remember in English learning will be neglected. So, if I learn about cultural differences in English conversation school classes, it should be enough just to learn about cultural differences between Japan and inner circle countries (the UK, the US, etc.). (negative)	43%	39%	11%	5%	2%
18. If the only culture I learn about in English conversation school classes is from the inner circle countries (UK, the US, etc.), I think it would be difficult to communicate smoothly with people from the outer and expanding circles (India, China, etc.). (positive)	15%	13%	27%	32%	12%

question show how two participants had negative attitudes towards listening to global Englishes.

> I think it's not good to learn broken English or quirky English before you learn the basics. Therefore, listening should use English by people from the inner circle countries. Otherwise you don't know what the correct pronunciation is or you get confused.

> I want listening to use English by people from the inner circle countries, which is correct and basic. Because I think people from the outer/expanding circle must be making efforts to be able to listen/speak like people from the inner circle countries.

Attitudes Towards Learning about Cultural Differences

Research question 4 was answered by the cultural differences variable. As shown in table 1, the mean was 4.0 and the standard deviation was .61. The mean reveals a clearly positive tendency in their attitudes towards learning about cultural differences between Japan and countries all over the world. The standard deviation shows there was less variation in their attitudes towards cultural differences than for listening to global Englishes.

Looking at the individual items (table 4), the positive items show a clear tendency to agree that they should learn about cultural differences because people's thinking, feeling and behaviour change because of their culture (item 14) and that it would help them to communicate with people from all over the world (item 15) whereas, although there was a tendency to agree, more variety was revealed towards the idea that only learning inner circle culture would mean not being able to communicate with people from the outer and expanding circle (item 18). Looking at the negative items, there was a strong tendency to disagree that there was no need to learn about cultural differences in English lessons (item 13) or that they would get culture shock (item 17) whereas, while there was still a tendency to disagree, there was a noticeable number of people who selected neither agree nor disagree that they should mainly learn inner circle culture because English belonged to the inner circle (item 16). Despite detecting some ambiguous attitudes (items 16 and 18), suggesting some learners might believe that inner circle culture is universal, this variable shows that in general the learners are clearly interested in studying about cultural differences from all over the world. This indicates that learners consider culture to be different from global Englishes. While some learners believe English still belongs to the inner circle, they are aware that English is used in different cultural environments.

The following two comments which participants wrote (originally in Japanese) as answers to the open-question show how two participants had positive attitudes towards learning about cultural differences.

> I think I should learn about cultural differences between Japan and countries all over the world equally. Because to communicate with people from different countries, it's better to know the cultures of these countries.

> It's important to know the difference of culture on Earth. Because we have to know each other for the peace of the world.

Conclusion

The findings in this study show that while there are some variations in the attitudes of the learners towards a global approach, particularly towards listening to global Englishes, overall there is a positive tendency. Therefore, it is felt that the approach could be implemented with the learners in this study or with similar groups of learners. Furthermore, it is felt that the clearly positive tendency in their attitudes towards learning about cultural differences should be used to encourage learners to listen to different kinds of English from all over the world by finding suitable listening material which has people from different countries talking about different cultural issues and topics. Then, through the implication of the approach in the eikaiwa classroom, it is believed that the learners will be better prepared to communicate with people from all over the world in English. While there may be reluctance to make major changes such as course and material design at the top level, it is felt that if more eikaiwa teachers attempt to find ways to introduce the global approach in their classrooms, and more research is conducted, then it will help pave the way for a more global future in the eikaiwa industry.

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2 Teaching Assistants (TAs) in the English Language Classroom: Successes and Challenges

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Teaching assistants (TAs) play an important part in the teaching and learning activities of many universities (Fisher et al., 2015; Sargent, Allen, Frahm & Morris, 2009), where they are employed across a variety of academic disciplines (Fingerson & Culley, 2001; Weidert, Wendorf, Gurung & Filz, 2012). An international university in Japan recruits undergraduate non-Japanese English speakers as Teaching Assistants (TAs) in English as a Second Language classes. This paper presents survey results from TAs and their partner teachers about the successes and challenges of the TA role. TA success was reported with respect to punctuality, friendliness, willingness to help, building rapport with students, modelling the use of English, answering students' questions, and completing administrative tasks. The prevailing areas cited as needing improvement include taking initiative, interacting effectively with students, communicating with partner teachers, and understanding the TA role. Based on the results, recommendations are made for the development of a list of expectations for the TA role, and of a corresponding training program, to help equip TAs with necessary skills to be more effective working with teachers and students.

ティーチング・アシスタント（TA）は、多くの大学の指導及び学習活動において重要な役割を担っており（Fisher et al., 2015; Sargent, Allen, Frahm & Morris, 2009）、多様な学問分野で利用されている（Fingerson & Culley, 2001; Weidert, Wendorf, Gurung & Filz, 2012）。ある日本の国際大学では、第二言語としての英語の授業のために、日本人でない英語話者の学部生をティーチング・アシスタント（TA）として採用している。TA とそのパートナーである教員とを対象に、TA の役割に関する成功事例とその課題についての調査が行われた。その調査結果をまとめたものが本論文である。TA の成功事例として報告された事項としては、時間厳守、親しみやすさ、積極的な支援、学生との信頼関係の構築、英語使用の範例、学生からの質問対応、管理業務などが挙げられた。向上が求められる領域としては、率先的な行動力、学生との効果的な交流、パートナー教員との意思疎通、TA の役割についての理解などが主に指摘された。この結果に基づき、教員及び学生とより効果的に協働するために必要な技術を TA に習得してもらうために、TA に求められる役割リストの作成、及びそれに対応するトレーニング・プログラムの開発についての勧告をまとめる。

TAs help teachers and students have a more successful lesson and classroom environment. As a result, they play an important part in the teaching and learning activities of many universities (Fisher et al., 2015; Sargent, Allen, Frahm & Morris, 2009). Although the usual tendency at higher education institutions is to employ graduate students as TAs, "undergraduates have long held a role in teaching at liberal arts colleges and universities" (Romm, Gordon-Messer & Kosinski-Collins, 2010, p. 81). Undergraduate TAs have been used successfully (Fingerson & Culley, 2001), in different disciplines across many colleges and universities. (Herrman & Waterhouse, 2010).

Roles of TAs

Undergraduate TAs fill a number of different roles, depending on the faculty, department, and institution (Estrada & Tafliovich, 2017; Hogan, Norcross, Cannon & Karpiak, 2007). Some take on considerable teaching responsibilities, including keeping attendance records, grading student work, and maintaining office hours (Rodriguez-Sabater, 2005). Other TAs have less significant tasks, as they work alongside classroom instructors to lead discussion groups and help students either in class (Karpenko and Schauz, 2017), or during office hours (Chandler, 2005). The TAs with which this paper is concerned work in the classroom alongside instructors, to facilitate English language discussions and model the use of English.

Influence of TAs

Studies show that TAs can have a positive effect on students, teachers, the institution, and TAs themselves (Crowe, Ceresola & Silva, 2014; Dickson, Dragon, & Lee, 2017; Haswell, 2017; Hogan et. al., 2007; Karpenko & Schauz, 2017; Murray, 2015; Rodriguez-Sabater, 2005; Weidert, Wendorf, Gurung, & Filz, 2012). For example, a TA's support can lead to better student performance and increase in course grades (Crowe et al., 2014). At the institution in this study, 65% of students reported that having a TA helped their learning (Saunders & Roux, 2013). TAs can become role models, who exemplify good student practices (Dickson, et al., 2017), and promote learning as a worthy endeavour (Hogan et al, 2007). Moreover, students can perceive TAs as more approachable and understanding of their concerns than faculty members (Fingerson & Culley, 2001; Hogan et al., 2007). Thus, they can bridge the gap between faculty and students, and help departments and institutions become more integrated (Dickson et al., 2017). In addition to helping instructors with administrative tasks, TAs can provide added feedback and perspective on teaching (Fingerson & Culley, 2001, p.45). Finally, TAs themselves can acquire "a recognizable professional benefit from the work experience and some personal benefits as well." (Haswell, 2017, p. 32). For instance, it has been shown that TAs gained "an increased and accelerated sense of self-confidence, ownership, and initiative concerning their continued professional development." (Murray, 2015, p. 72).

However, despite the benefits the TA role procure, it is not without its set of challenges. Most research available report the negative impact TAs can have on students, but not the challenges TAs themselves face in fulfilling their duties. Liao (2018) in a study of second-year Taiwanese students' perceptions of third-year TAs' effectiveness showed that students were dissatisfied with the TAs' subject knowledge, preparation, organization, and helpfulness. This is similar to reactions from students with TAs in an undergraduate engineering laboratory course, who expressed disappointment with the TAs' inability to answer questions due to lack of preparation (Reck, 2017). However, there is little information on the challenges TAs face in classrooms. This paper will make some contribution to this area.

Background of the Institution

The institution where this study was conducted is a relatively new - less than 20 years old - mid-sized, private international university in Japan. One of its distinguishing features is that the student body is fifty percent Japanese, and the other half are students from over 90 countries and regions ("Student enrolment by country/region", 2019). Another important characteristic is its bilingual education ("Bilingual Education", n.d.). Japanese students are required to acquire English language skills, while foreign students must learn Japanese. Consequently, the English language department hires TAs to assist in the English language classroom.

Background of the English TA program

The program is over ten years old, with about forty to fifty TAs recruited each semester. Most TAs are undergraduate non-Japanese students, with excellent English language skills, but limited or no prior experience in teaching English. They are paid not only to perform administrative tasks such as taking attendance or giving out handouts, but also to facilitate second language acquisition- by engaging Japanese students in one-one and group discussions and modeling English language use. Prior to commencing their duties, TAs attend an information and training session. English TAs are assigned to one or two English language classes. They visit each class twice a week, for a period of 95 minutes at a time.

Study Motivation and Method

The study was conducted because the English TA program lacked a formal feedback system. Furthermore, there was an undercurrent of dissatisfaction among teachers and TAs about the program. TAs complained of feeling ill-prepared for their roles, while some teachers complained of being too busy to train and mentor TAs. Therefore, surveys were developed and distributed in the Fall 2017 and Spring 2018 semesters.

Both teachers and TAs were provided with separate questionnaires (see Appendix), comprised of questions about the TA program. The surveys asked respondents about their impressions of the TA role, its successes, and challenges. All English TAs and teachers who worked with TAs received the survey by email once at end of the Fall 2017 semester, and twice in the Spring 2018 semester – at the end of Quarter 1 (Q1) and again at the end of Quarter 2 (Q2). A total of 17, 36, and 18 responses were received from TAs, while 35, 40, and 38 responses were received from teachers, in the Fall 2017 and Q1 and Q2 of the Spring 2018 semesters respectively. TAs with more than one class and teacher also completed the survey more than once.

The low response rates on the part of TAs at the end of Fall 2017 and Spring 2018 Q2 is attributed to the fact that questionnaires were sent out at the end of the semester, when TAs are busy with exams and reports. Amidst these, and preparations to travel back to their home countries for the holidays, it would have been easy to forget to complete the surveys. Whereas, the Spring 2018 Q1 survey has a higher rate because students were less busy, and could be reminded because they were still coming to English classes. The survey responses were analyzed for common trends, which are summarized below. A descriptive, as opposed to a formal analysis in the form of a statistical test, has been applied to results. This has been done firstly because, the survey questionnaires were not uniform across the study periods; there are variations in the order and content of questions. Furthermore, due to the nature of the TA program, some teachers and TAs completed the surveys twice because they had two different TAs and teachers respectively. Consequently, a statistical analysis has not been performed, but instead, the aggregate of responses has been analyzed for prevalent themes in terms of successes and challenges in the TA program.

Results and Discussion

TA and Teacher's Overall Experience

94% of TA respondents rated their TA experience as either good or excellent in Fall 2017 (Figure 1). This was an unexpected positive result, considering the undercurrent of dissatisfaction which initially prompted the launch of the program evaluation. Unfortunately, this same question was not asked in Spring 2018 semester, therefore results across years cannot be compared. As results for 2017 could be an isolated occurrence, it would have been interesting to note if TAs' satisfaction remained equally as high in 2018. Moreover, given the low response rate (only 17 TAs), it is possible that TAs who completed the surveys were those mostly satisfied with their experience, and those who were not content did not make an effort to answer the questionnaires. Nevertheless, the results appear to suggest that TAs' experience was an overall positive one.

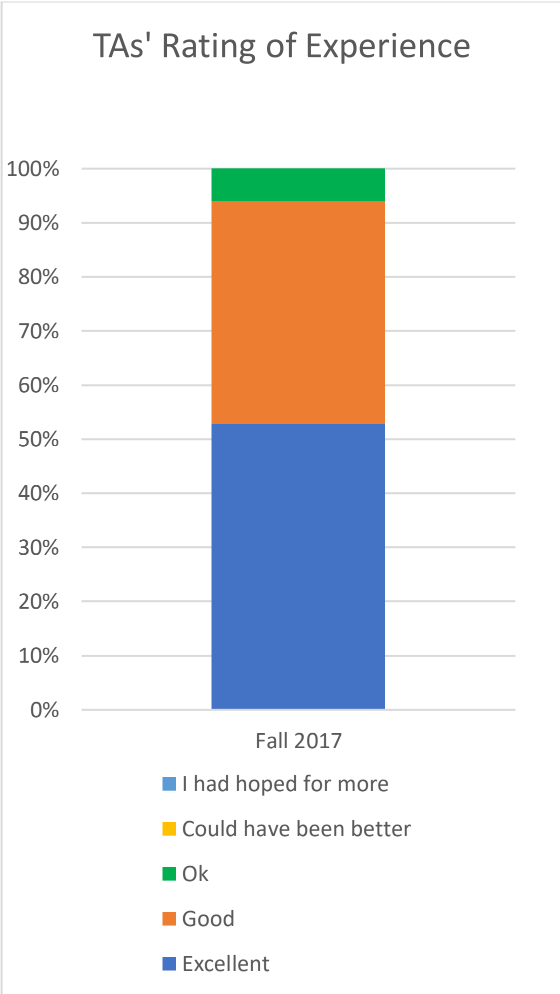
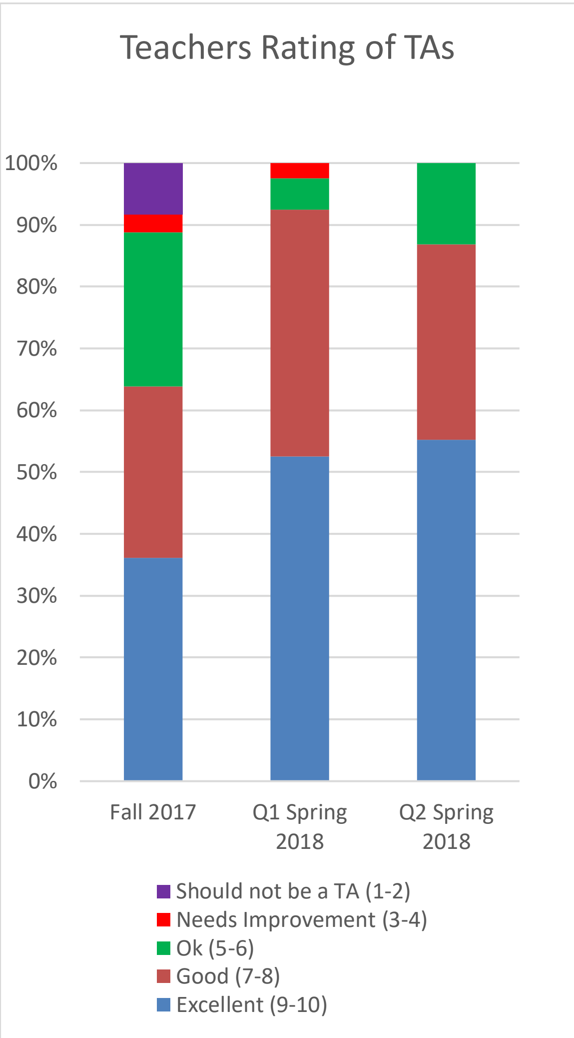


Figure 1 TAs' rating of their experience (Question: How would you rate your experience as a TA in these classes?)

On the other side, 66% of teachers gave TAs a score of 7 or higher in Fall 2017, and this percentage increased to 79% in the first quarter of Spring 2018, and to 87% in the second quarter (Figure 2). Even more positive is that scores between 1 and 4 gradually decreased and were not given at all in the second quarter. The reason for these positive and encouraging results is not completely clear. One possible explanation is that they arose from adjustments made to the TA program based on results from the 2017 survey. The training TAs received at the beginning of the Q1 Spring 2018 was adjusted to respond to the needs TAs and teachers specified, and recruitment procedures were also modified to hire more suitable candidates.

Figure 2 Teachers' rating of their TA (Question: On a scale of 1-10, rate your TA. 10 being the best).



Overall, TAs and teachers rated TAs as being successful in the following seven areas:

i) punctuality – arriving to class on time

ii) professionalism – many TAs were organized and self-motivated

iii) friendly and positive attitude – both TAs and teachers reported TAs as being friendly, open, enthusiastic, and energetic

iv) willingness to help students and teachers – TAs were eager to help and do as they were told; they helped students with both English tasks and other general concerns

v) building rapport with students – many TAs succeeded in connecting with and engaging students

vi) modelling the use of English – TAs showed students how to use English, and were able to answer most students' questions

vii) fulfilling administrative tasks - such as taking attendance, and checking homework completion

Challenges and Areas of Improvement

When TAs' and teachers' responses are compared, the lower teachers' rating suggests that they were less satisfied with TAs' roles than TAs were with themselves. This could be because there were areas of need that teachers had, but which TAs were unaware of and were not quite able to meet. This is in line with results from other researchers who state that TAs tend to overestimate their competence, especially when inexperienced and untrained, as they are unable to accurately judge their own performance (Tulane & Beckert, 2011).

Furthermore, even though ratings seem to register TAs' overall satisfaction with their experience, and teachers' general satisfaction with their TAs, a closer examination of respondents' answers to other questions in the questionnaires reveal concerns that should be addressed. Table 1 summarizes the top issues which both TAs and teachers mentioned as challenges and areas needing improvement.

These include:

i) taking initiative - being proactive, not always waiting for direction from teachers, anticipating needs and integrating better into lessons

ii) interacting effectively with students - engaging, supporting, and keeping students motivated in English studies; joining small-group discussions; interacting with shy or passive students

iii) communicating with teachers - what to communicate with teachers, giving feedback on students issues; knowing teacher expectations, course content, goals, and progression

iv) giving students feedback – when, how, and what kind of feedback to give

v) supporting students' English use - how to encourage students to use English more in class, with each other, even after completing tasks

vi) understanding the TA role - gaining a clear understanding of TA role and responsibilities in the English classroom

vii) having TAs' skills used better - teachers to use TAs' strengths better, integrate TAs more into lessons

viii) making use of free time - what to do during down-time in class, either when teacher is in front lecturing, or students are testing or doing a task that does not require TA involvement

ix) TAs grading their language - simplifying language and using appropriate English level with students

These results illustrate that both TAs' and teachers' responses overlapped; similar issues were mentioned by both groups. TAs and teachers had similar concerns, which need to be addressed.

Both groups wanted TAs to improve their interactions with students, this was a top concern in all three survey periods. For instance, a teacher respondent wanted TAs to be comfortable "Integrating more with students (knowing how to mix in with them when they're in small groups or doing other classroom activities)" (Spring 2018 Q1), while another would like TAs to "learn to walk around and engage with all students, not just one group or two the whole period. Be more dynamic in the classroom" (Spring 2018 Q1). Similarly, although most TAs were successful in building rapport with students, they wanted to know how to effectively keep students engaged and motivated so that they could help them improve their English skills. On the Spring 2018 Q2 questionnaire, a TA asked, "what is the best way to engage the students in the class? how to motivate each student to have passion in

Table 1 Areas TAs and Teachers reported TAs need improvement

Areas TAs need to improve	TAs			Teachers		
	F2017	Q1 S 2018	Q2 S 2018	F2017	Q1 S 2018	Q2 S 2018
taking initiative	✓			✓	✓	✓
interacting effectively with students	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
communicating with teachers	✓		✓	✓		✓
giving students feedback		✓				✓
supporting students' English use		✓				
understanding the TA role	✓		✓			✓
having TAs' skills used better	✓					
making use of free time		✓				
TAs grading their language					✓	

Note. ✓ signifies that an issue was brought up by a majority of respondent learning English". Another TA specified on the Fall 2017 survey, "... maybe the TA programmer can teach and train TAs to be better at joining the class and facilitate the class beside a good proficiency in English." It is heartening that TAs recognized that they should be more engaging, but also discouraging that they did not already know how to do this, as this is a significant component of their duties.

TAs also sought to take the initiative more and teachers desired for them to be more proactive, and not wait to be given every directive. A Fall 2017 teacher survey participant asserted, "…I don't need another person who I constantly have to watch or tell what to do in my classes." Instructors wanted TAs to anticipate classroom needs by "reading hints and cues that the teacher would need the TA to take action" (Fall 2017 Teacher respondent), and not simply rely on instructions. But TAs did not understand how to fulfill this expectation, and required teachers to help them integrate better into lessons. A TA respondent disclosed, "I'm having a bit of trouble trying to figure out when to talk to the students or not. So I think it'll be helpful for going over situations regarding when the TA should step in or not" (Spring 2018 Q1 responses). This typifies a challenge which many new TAs experience.

The issues of interacting with students and taking initiative were compounded by the fact that TAs, and teachers, did not have an established list of TA role. This was another top concern on the surveys, which was raised by both groups. TAs lamented not having a clear understanding of their role in the classroom, or a set of guidelines to follow. This prompted a TA respondent to comment, "I think discussing about the job description in more detail for TA is necessary…" (Spring 2018 Q2 responses), and another to ask for "…some universal basic tasks that every TAs could expect to be asked to do in EVERY classes" (Fall 2017 responses). Given this lack of guideline, it is not surprising that TAs found it difficult to take initiative – they were uncertain as to what was required of them. It also made it difficult for TAs to make appropriate use of any free or down time that arose in class, as they were unsure of what to do in the first place.

Teachers also, fell into a similar demise, as some admitted not knowing how to make use of their TAs. This in turn made it difficult for teachers to make use of TAs' skills and strengths appropriately, which TAs reported as an area which needed improvement in Fall 2017. According to one instructor, "It is not always clear what role the TA is supposed to have in class. Thus sometimes, integrating them appropriately is challenging" (Fall 2017 teacher responses). Thus, although they wanted TAs to be better integrated into lessons, teachers themselves were unsure of how to do this and therefore could not give effective directions in this regard. As a result, instructors reported a desire for "more standardized requirements for TAs for each level" (Spring 2018 Q2 teacher responses).

Possible Solutions

Better communication between TAs and teachers would have mitigated many of these issues. On the one hand, TAs' comments revealed that they not only desired general instructions on what and when to communicate with students, but they also needed specific information such as course content, goals and progression. For example, a TA respondent stated, "At what pace the class is and should be progressing and what are the expectations from the students of a specific class should be explained to the TAs more properly" (Fall 2017 TA responses). On the other hand, teachers simply wanted TAs to communicate with them more, especially about general observations on students and student concerns: "[my TA] could be more proactive telling the teacher about student weak points/issues" (Spring 2018 Q1 teacher responses).

More efficient communication between both groups would have also alleviated other challenges, including understanding the specifics of the TA role, and how to provide students feedback, encourage students to use English more with each other and grade TA language to students' level. According to Haswell (2017), TAs have "linguistic as well as cultural value. However, for TAs to provide adequate and organizational support for both teachers and students, clear communication of aims, expectations, and opportunities for feedback are required" (p.63). Teachers may not always be able to sit down with TAs, or devote significant time to TA-teacher conferencing in a 95-minute period. However, it is still very important that they regularly make time before or after class, or during class break time, to discuss student issues and lesson goals. As an added means, some of this communication could take place via email.

Also as important as communication between TAs and teachers, is the requirement of a guideline for the TA role as a reference tool for TAs and teachers. Survey results and the preceding discussion illustrate the necessity of this. It would help delineate clear tasks, and keep both TAs and teachers on the same page throughout the course of the semester. Having TAs and teachers refer to this list at the beginning of the semester, and regularly communicate about it and other issues that come up, will help prevent uncertainty, and avoid confusion.

Finally, the use of an established set of TA roles could be strengthened by TA and teacher training in incorporating TAs into English language classes. A major reason for TAs' lack of knowledge in many of the areas mentioned is due to lack of experience and training. As previously stated, most TAs are recruited with minimal prior experience and training in teaching English. There is an expectation that they would learn on the job, which has unfortunately not been possible due to time constraints on the part of teachers. One of the questions on the Fall 2017 survey pertained to TAs and teachers desire for training. When asked, "Would you like to have training in becoming a better TA for English classes?", 47% of TAs responded yes. Comparably, 40% of teachers responded yes to the statement, "If I had extra time, I would be interested in having further training to work with TAs". Therefore, both groups perceive a need for training to fill their knowledge gap – TAs on their roles in the classroom, and teachers on how to make better use of TAs. Therefore, it is recommended that more training and guidance sessions be used to globally address the issues raised.

Conclusion and Study Implications

The TA role can bring many benefits to teachers, students, and TAs themselves. At this institution, TAs and teachers reported TA success in professionalism, connecting with students, modelling the use of English, and completing administrative tasks. In fact and contrary to expectations, both groups expressed relatively high satisfaction rates with the TA position – 94% of TAs reported being satisfied with their role in the Fall 2017 semester, while 66%, 76%, and 87% of teachers gave TAs a score of seven or higher out of ten, in the Fall 2017, Q1 and Q2 Spring 2018 semesters respectively.

However despite these achievements, certain key areas of challenge were also acknowledged. Specifically, both TAs and teachers wanted TAs to interact better with students to help them improve in English and achieve their language goals. There was a need to integrate TAs more in lessons, and make better use of their strengths. Teachers desired for TAs to be able to take more initiative in the classroom- without waiting for directions. However, a lack of clear TA role, and inadequate communication between TAs and teachers prevented TAs from being as effective as they could be. And although the TAs have a high level of English language ability, they were recruited with little prior experience and training. Both TAs and teachers reported needing further training.

As a result of the results, the author recommends that the department develop a list of expectations for the TA role. Additionally, there should be a corresponding training program, to help equip TAs with the necessary skills so that they can be more effective working with teachers and students in English language classrooms. Offering better preparation and training to TAs would increase their positive impact on students.

Study Limitations and Future Considerations

The results presented in this paper are from only two semesters of data, and from surveys that did not contain exactly the same set of questions. A future improvement would be to conduct the same questionnaires, over several semesters. This would provide more reliable results, which might well be different from those reported here. However, TAs and teachers' responses overlapped in many areas and similar issues came up, which suggest that these are valid issues that should be addressed.

Additionally, having self-reported data might have affected participants' response validity and reliability. Participants may have not remembered all information, or remembered accurately. The fact that some TAs and teachers completed the survey multiple times could also have affected their response and its validity. Moreover, the method of analysis was also somewhat subjective in some respects – the areas needing improvement were summarized from survey data based on the interpretation of the researcher. Therefore, results might vary depending on researcher.

Finally, as this study focuses only on one institution and on one of its departments, findings may not be representative nor generalizable. Therefore, there is need for further research to see if these are applicable to other institutions.

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Author biography

Abidemi T Bankole has worked with Teaching Assistants (TAs) for almost 5 years. In that period, she has come to appreciate the attributes TAs bring to the classroom, and understand some of the unique challenges which the TA-teacher relationship pose. She is researching into improving the TA-relationship for the benefit of students. *Email demibank@yahoo.com*

3 Usefulness Analysis of the Zenshō Eiken Test

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Zenshō Eiken is a standardized English test offered to commercial high school students in Japan. Despite being taken by over 140,000 students each year, there is little information or analysis done of this test. This analysis of the test was carried out using Bachman and Palmer's (2010) framework of test usefulness. The content of the test was examined, as was the time spent by students and teachers preparing for the test, and the use to which the scores are put. It was found that while the test is of use to students as a qualification, the content of the test and the time spent preparing for it could be better spent on more communicative activities in the classroom. This research may be of interest to those interested in standardized testing in Japanese schools.

全商試験は日本の商業高校生に提供される全国共通テストであり、毎年 140,000 名以上の学生が受験している。このテストの分析は Bachman & Palmer's (2010)のテスト有意義性のフレームワークを使って行われた。テストの内容と、学生と教師がこのテストの準備に掛けた時間、さらにこのテストの点数がどのように使用されたかについての調査を行った。結果として、このテストを学生の資格試験として使うことは有意義であるが、テストの内容とテストの準備に費やされた時間は教室内でのよりコミュニカティブな活動に使われた方がより有益であったであろうということが明らかとなった。この研究は日本の学校の全国共通テストに興味のある人々に興味を引くものであると考える。

Testing is an important part of the lives of both students and educators, and as such it is important to evaluate whether the test is achieving its desired goals. Usually only aspects of reliability and validity are considered in this type of analysis. This paper reviews the first grade of Zenshō Eiken, the commercial schools English proficiency test, and uses Bachman and Palmer's (1996) framework of usefulness to view the test more completely, looking not only at the linguistic content and goals of the test, but also talking into account how the test is administered, but also how the qualification is used by the students.

Usefulness

According to Bachman and Palmer (1996), usefulness consists of six elements: reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality. By including each element, Bachman and Palmer ensure that a test is judged by all elements together. It is not reasonable to maximize each element, but rather to balance each to suit the testing context (Weigle, 2010). Thus, the testing environment is important to consider. The elements which comprise usefulness are discussed below.

Reliability

Reliability is the 'consistency of measurement' of a test (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 19). A single test given to the same test-taker at a different time should provide the same results. If there is any variation in the score, it is said to have low reliability.

Construct Validity

Of the varieties of validity, Bachman and Palmer (1996) only consider construct validity to evaluate usefulness, as construct validity is the most unifying concept within validity (Messick, 1998). Construct validity is the 'meaningfulness and appropriateness of the interpretations we make on the basis of test scores'

(Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 21). Thus, construct validity seeks to ensure constructs being tested are those claimed by the test (ibid).

Authenticity

Authenticity is the relationship between the Target Language Use (TLU) domain and the tasks a student is required to do in the test (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). The TLU domain is the set of TLU tasks that a learner may engage in outside of the test. Thus, if the skills test-takers perform in the test are the same skills they perform outside the test, then the test is said to have authenticity.

Interactiveness

Bachman and Palmer (1996) define interactiveness as the individual characteristics of the test-taker being involved in achieving a task. An example of a non-interactive task is requiring students to change sentences from the past tense to the future tense as this task requires knowledge of the language, but nothing beyond it. An interactive task builds context and requires students to formulate a response, engaging students' understanding of the context, and requires students to plan and execute a response.

Impact

Impact is the effect the test has on the individuals and systems they are a part of (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). There are two levels of impact: micro and macro.

Macro impact is the effect a test has on educational systems or society as a whole (Bachman & Palmer, 1996), as results can be used to make decisions about future curricula, qualification standards, and textbook production (Taylor, 2005). Micro impact is the effect on those involved in the test, whom Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.31) refer to as 'stakeholders'. Students taking the test, and teachers who help prepare the students are significant stakeholders.

Practicality

Practicality is the balance between the resources the test requires for development and administration, and the resources available (Brown, 2007). Bachman and Palmer (1996) represent this as a balance between required and available resources. If the required resources exceed available resources then the test is not practical, but if the required resources do not exceed available resources then the test is practical. Resources include money, human resources, materials, and time (Weigle, 2010), thus, practicality is a consideration at every stage of the test, from test development.

This concludes the introduction of usefulness. It is not necessary to score highly on all elements in order to have a useful test, however, all elements should be considered in a test to maximize usefulness.

The Test

Zenshō Eiken is the name given to the English Proficiency test organized by the National Commercial Schools Association, known as Zenshō, Zenshō was created in 1951 with the aim of developing commercial high school education in order to develop industrial society in Japan. (Zenshō, 2017a). Zenshō provides standardized tests for eight subjects taught at commercial high schools including English

Zenshō is a Public Interest Incorporated Association and as such may not make a profit. It generates income through fees from testing and its 1,404 member schools (Zenshō, 2017b). Zenshō also provides support to secondary and tertiary students to promote the study of commercial subjects, and in 2016-17, gave ¥25,358,000 in scholarships. Tests are conducted twice annually in September and December. The test is called Zenshō Eiken, henceforth known as the test. The test consists of 4 grades, with grade four lowest and grade one the highest. The most recent statistics regarding the number of test-takers and pass rates are from 2018 and are shown in table 1.

As table 1 shows, a total of 65,270 students applied for all grades in September 2018, while only 60,438 students sat the test, with 24,860 passing, giving a pass rate of 41.1%. This research analyses grade one of the test, which has the fewest number of applicants.

Grade Level	No. of Applicants	No. of Test-takers	No. of Passing Students	Pass Rate
1	10,073	9,323	1,308	13%
2	23,285	21,565	3,019	14%
3	29,958	27,944	19,758	70.7%
4	1,950	1,606	784	48%
Total	65,270	60,438	24,869	41.1%

Table 1 *Test Attendance*

The pass rate for grade one is 13%, the lowest amongst the grades. This analysis uses the test held on December 18th, 2016. The following sections will detail the clientele, administration, and contents of the test.

The test is taken by commercial high school students in Japan, but any high school student may apply. Henceforth, all test-takers are referred to as students. Commercial schools are a type of vocational school preparing students for a career in business. The demographics of Commercial schools are different from standard high schools, with females making up around two-thirds of students. Commercial students also have historically lower rates of university entrance (Yoneyama, 2012).

The test is administered twice annually, with the member schools providing facilities and staff. The test is carried out on a Sunday, outside of school hours. The test is multiple-choice and involves the students reading questions in a question booklet, recording their answers on a separate answer sheet. During the listening section, audio is played from a CD player at the front of the room, but written questions are still found on the answer sheet. The Monday following the test answers are posted online, and official scores are sent out to schools within two weeks of the test.

The test takes 90 minutes and consists of 60 questions in 12 sections. Sections two to six are listening, for which a CD is played, lasting 30 minutes. Listening questions are repeated twice, and time is given for students to pre-read questions. The remaining content is written in the question booklet. All questions are multiple-choice, and details of question types are shown in table 6.

The School

The concept of usefulness of a test is only valid when discussed in the context in which the test takes place (Bachman and Palmer, 1996), thus, the school is also described. The school described in this research is a large commercial high school in a metropolitan area of Japan. The school specializes in accounting and computing courses to prepare students for careers in business. There are 960 students and 91 teachers.

Two to four weeks prior to each test, the school holds test preparation seminars. They are held after classes, and last 60-120 minutes. Two separate classes are held each day, covering different skill levels. The Saturday before the test there is one long final seminar preparing for the next day's test. Attendance at these seminars is optional, but students are encouraged to attend.

Universities that have a relationship with the high school reserve positions for students admitted through the recommendation system. In 2017, 216 of 320 graduates proceeded to tertiary education, 197 of which, or 91%, were through the recommendation system. Similarly, businesses with a relationship with the school hire students in their final year provisionally based on their results. The school contains a career guidance department, who develop these relationships with tertiary institutions and the business community. Of the 104 students who sought employment after graduation, 100% found employment before graduation.

Analysis

In this section, the introduced framework is applied to the test and the school environment. Each of the elements of usefulness is analyzed, and conclusions about whether it rates high or low are made.

Reliability

A full analysis of the test's reliability requires comparison of the results of multiple instances of the test (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). As Zenshō does not publish statistics of the tests beyond pass rates, such an analysis is not possible. If these statistics are not available, other less quantifiable factors in the development, administration, and scoring of a test can influence its reliability (Brown, 2007). Therefore, this research uses these elements determine reliability.

The development of the test questions influences reliability. The multiple-choice nature of the test is easy to understand, and instructions for questions are written in clear and precise Japanese. Multiple-choice questions reduce the ability of students to answer in correct yet unpredictable ways. However, in a previous study, Blaker (2017) identified instances of ambiguity in available answers. An example is question 7b from the December 2016 test, shown in table 2. The question is long written passage, followed by a summary of the passage with missing phrases. Students must select the correct phrases to complete the summary sentences.

Passage	…the baker put paper fortunes on the outside of the cookies, not the inside like the fortune cookies we are used to. The reason why Takeshi Matsuhisa, the baker, did that was to make sure that people did not accidentally eat the paper!
Summarised Passage	The baker put the paper fortune on the outside of the cookie so that people ( ) the paper.
Possible answers	1) could easily see 2) could eat 3) would not eat 4) would not read

Table 2 *Question 7b*

Two available answers (numbers 2 and 4) are easily discarded, but table 3 shows why the remaining answers are both valid options. This is done by adding an extra sentence showing the implication of each sentence.

	Completed Sentence	Implied by Sentence
Option 1	The baker put the paper fortune on the outside of the cookie so that people could easily see the paper	and so not eat it.
Option 3	The baker put the paper fortune on the outside of the cookie so that people would not eat the paper	because they saw it.

Table 3 *Possible Answers to Question 7b*

The answer sheet indicates the correct answer is option 3, stating 'for each question, answers other than the correct one will be given 0 points'. A student that chooses option one does not necessarily misunderstand the question, but still receives zero points. Ambiguity in responses has a negative impact on the test's reliability (Hughes, 2003), thus this is an indication of low reliability of the test's development.

Each school administering the test does so according to guidelines set by Zenshō. The school provides the room, a CD player, and a teacher to manage the test, while Zenshō provides the test papers, a CD containing the listening, and a script for the listening section in case of problems with the audio. This uniformity of experience results in high reliability for the test.

Subjective marking has a negative effect on a test's reliability (Haladyna, 2004), but the multiple-choice nature of the test removes the subjectivity of the marker, providing more efficient administration. Thus, as a multiple-choice test with an automated scoring system, the test has positive reliability.

The only issue causing an issue with reliability was regarding development. This was one question of 60 and was not a problem seen throughout the test. The strong aspects of administration and scoring result in high reliability of the test.

Construct Validity

The analysis of construct validity requires identification of the constructs being tested (Haladyana, 2004). Zenshō's literature provides no details regarding constructs tested. The constructs of each section of the test were identified in a previous study (Blaker, 2017) and are shown in Table 4, along with a description of the task the student should perform.

Section one is designated as a pronunciation test, but as there is no practical speaking component of the test indirect pronunciation testing is used. This indirect method requires students to identify which one of the four presented words is spoken with the stress on the specified syllable. An example of this style is shown in table 5.

Indirect testing of pronunciation is not a predictor of oral pronunciation ability (Taniguchi & Tara, 2005) and is an indication of weak construct validity.

Questions 9-12 are identified as reading questions, but the nature of these questions is to test writing skills indirectly by either selecting an appropriate word, or ordering several different words into an appropriate phrase. The type of format in questions 9-12 is an interlinear item set, which does not measure knowledge or ability, but only cognitive skills (Haladyna, 2004), and is an indication of weak construct validity. Five of the 12 sections were found to have weak construct

Section Number	Skill Tested	Detailed Contents
1	Pronunciation	Students select one of four words that has the stress on the second syllable for each of the 5 questions.
2	Listening	Responses. Students listen to five situations and determine the most appropriate responses from four possible answers.
3	Listening	Responses. Students listen to five spoken sentences and determine the most appropriate response from four options.
4	Listening	Comprehension. Students listen to five conversations and select the most appropriate response from four possible options.
5	Listening	Comprehension. Students listen to a long, spoken article and select the most appropriate response from four possible options to complete five sentences about the article.
6	Listening	Comprehension. Students listen to a long dialogue and select the most appropriate response from four possible options to answer to the 5 questions about the article.
7	Reading	Gap-fill. Students read a one-page article and must choose from 4 options for each of 5 sentences to complete a summary of the reading.
8	Reading	Gap-fill. Students are given six sentences and must choose five to place in a written dialogue to complete it appropriately.
9	Reading	Gap-fill. Students are asked to choose between four different words in order to complete each of five sentences.
10	Reading	Gap-fill. Students read a one-page story and must choose the most appropriate word from four for each of the five gaps.
11	Reading	Synonyms. Students are given 5 sentences and must choose from 4 different options which is the closest in meaning for each.
12	Reading	Word order. Students are given five sentences where each has a four-word phrase scrambled and must choose the correct order.

Table 4 *Identification of Skills Tested*

validity; thus the test is found to have weak construct validity.

For each of the following questions, choose the number of the words which have a stronger stress on the 2nd syllable:

a.
1. au-thor
2. ca-reer
3. jus-tice
4. wel-fare

b.
1. back-ground
2. ex-tra
3. li-cense
4. re-place

Table 5 *Pronunciation Question*

Authenticity

Analysis of authenticity requires an understanding of the students' TLU domain. In determining the TLU domain, two sources are considered: Zenshō, and MEXT. Zenshō states that the students who pass this test are capable of business communication. In Blaker (2017), the test was not found to require knowledge of business English. If the TLU domain is one of business English, yet business English is not required, this test is found to be inauthentic. MEXT (2003) states that the goal for high school students learning English is the ability to communicate. Construct validity analysis showed the skills required for this test are primarily receptive. Communication requires both productive and receptive skills, therefore in the case of communicative English as a TLU domain, this test is found to be inauthentic.

Authentic texts should be contextualized, and not rely on single answers to static tasks (Wiggins, 2011). Each section presents a new situation, and so does not provide a continuous TLU domain for the students to demonstrate their skills, which results in low authenticity. Considering the different TLU domains, the format of the test, and uncontextualized content, this test is found to have low authenticity.

Interactiveness

Interactiveness requires engaging more than students' language knowledge when answering questions. Two issues are identified in the test achieving interactiveness: format, and student interest. Each question in the test was analysed for interactiveness and found to be one of three levels: interactive, low-interactiveness, and non-interactive. The results of this analysis are found in Table 6.

	a	b	c	d	e
1	×	×	×	×	×
2	△	△	△	△	△
3	△	△	△	△	△
4	△	△	△	△	△
5	×	×	×	×	×
6	×	×	×	×	×
7	×	×	×	×	×
8	○	○	○	○	○
9	×	×	×	×	×
10	×	×	×	×	×
11	×	×	×	×	×
12	×	×	×	×	×

Table 6 *Interactiveness Analysis*

Table 6 shows how each of the 60 questions has been determined, a circle indicates interactive, triangles indicate somewhat interactive, and crosses indicate non-interactive. Interactive questions comprise 8.3%, low-interactiveness 25%, and non-interactive 66.7% of the total. The majority of the questions in the test have either low or no interactiveness, therefore the test is found to have low interactiveness.

Impact

Both macro and micro impacts are discussed in this analysis, and two of Shohamy's (1996) factors of influence are used: the status of the subject-matter tested, and the use to which the test scores are put.

Macro impacts involve the effects of the test on the education system or the greater society. Tests can be used to determine curriculum, but the influence of the results on the curriculum is only as good as the accuracy of the results themselves. If, as shown in the construct validity section, skills such as speaking and writing are only indirectly tested, the results of the test do not give a clear picture of students' ability. Thus, any decisions made based on those results will be inappropriate.

Micro impacts involve the effects on stakeholders. Teachers are involved in the seminars before each test is held. Each school day between two to four weeks before each test, and at 90-120 minutes per seminar, the twice-yearly impact on teachers is significant. The same is also true of students. Blaker (2017) showed 56.7% of students found the seminars to be the most useful preparation method, so while seminars are not compulsory there is motivation to attend.

Time spent by students preparing for the test may have a negative effect on understanding of the TLU domain (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). The time spent on the preparation for each test is significant, thus a further investigation on how this preparation is done, and therefore what effect it has on students' TLU is required.

Status of subject matter tested is relevant in understanding the test's impact further. In Japan, English scores are considered cultural capital with which students can advance in society (Shintani, 2013). English ability is often correlated with academic ability (Takahashi, 2000) and is therefore heavily weighted in entrance tests (Hagerman, 2010), showing the high status of English. The higher the status, the higher the impact of a test will be (Shohamy, 1996). Given the primary role of English in academic measurement, it follows that the impact of the test is high.

When looking at the uses to which the scores are put, the most likely are in finding a job or applying to a university. With 91% of graduates at this school entering university using the recommendation system, and 100% of job-seeking students were hired before graduation, qualifications such as the one provided by this test are valuable. The school's systems of direct business hiring, and university recommendation are significant reasons why students take this test, this results in a positive impact on the students.

The impact of the test was found to be high, and the macro impact of the test was found to be negative. However, despite the negative impact on the stakeholders by the time taken to prepare for the test, the positive uses to which the qualification is put, and the resulting positive effect on the students' careers, the micro impact was found to be positive.

Practicality

Practicality is considered throughout the testing system and requires information about the available resources. This analysis considers Zenshō's available resources; annual revenue of ¥379,270,557, and 1,404 member schools, and the resources required in carrying out development, administration, marking, and restrictions on the test due to practicality concerns.

Development of the test is conducted by teachers at member schools; thus costs are kept low, giving test development practicality. Administration of the test is also carried out by member schools. The school provides facilities for its own students, but also students from other schools. The test day is a Sunday, meaning there is no interruption to school activities. Zenshō provides the testing materials, while the school provides rooms containing a CD player, and enough teachers to invigilate. Teachers are paid for their work by Zenshō, however the school receives no payment for use of its facilities. Beyond the creation and distribution of the papers, the cost of administration of the test is very low which gives administration of the test high practicality.

The time-intensive nature of marking is an important factor in practicality (Weigle, 2011). The test is multiple-choice, allowing the use of an automated marking system. This allows large numbers of tests to be marked within a reasonable time, with limited expense (ibid). Papers are collected and marked, with results returned within two weeks. Official answers are posted online the following week. Due to this automation, marking maintains practicality.

Zenshō commands considerable resources and maintains organisational relationships with its member schools. With the resources required to carry out development, administration, and marking taken into consideration, and the income generated by the grade one test alone, it has been shown that the test has practicality.

Therefore, development reliability was found to be low due to unanticipated multiple possible answers, but the reliability of administration and scoring were found to be high. Analysis of construct validity identified constructs used, showing that speaking and writing are tested indirectly, resulting in low construct validity. Authenticity analysis found that considering students' multiple TLU domains, authenticity was low. The multiple-choice format did not represent real language usage, also resulting in low authenticity. Interactiveness analysis considered the effect of the format of both multiple-choice and word-ordering questions. While some types of questions engage strategic competence, the majority do not, indicating low interactiveness. Impact analysis determined impact is high on individuals involved due to time taken and the way in which the results are used. Weak construct validity means its impact on future curriculum development is also questionable, however the use of qualifications by students has a largely positive impact. The practicality analysis showed that due to income generated and the organizational networks between Zenshō and the member schools, available funds are high, and costs are kept low. Thus, practicality was high.

This shows that elements concerned with the content of the test; construct validity, authenticity, and interactiveness were found to be low, while elements concerned with the administration; reliability and practicality were found to be high. The test is high impact, with the results having significant effects on students' futures, however it suffers from low construct validity, which means decisions made based on the results are not necessarily reliable but result in positive effects on the students.

Conclusion

A usefulness analysis must take into account each of the six elements, and also consider the environment in which the test is taken. In terms of a test used to measure language proficiency, the test was found lacking. When looking at the administration of the test, it is found to be reliable, practical, and is carried out efficiently. However, shortcomings in construct validity, authenticity, and interactiveness were found due to the test not adequately testing communicative English. One interesting aspect of the test seems to be the use to which the qualification is put. In the environment of this commercial high school, both students who enter university, and students who will enter the workplace can put the qualification to good use. As such, this test is found to be useful. There are flaws found in this test, but due to its use the students will continue to take the test regardless of these flaws. It is worthwhile to put effort into improving the test to represent genuine English communication so that it will not only be useful to students as a qualification, but also encourage practical communicative English education, and as a meaningful tool to measure the resulting language ability.

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4 How About You And So On: Formulaic Language

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Speakers use a large number of multi-word chunks and formulae in the course of spoken interaction. The ability to use formulaic language is a key indicator of fluency (McCarthy, 2010, Hasselgreen, 2004). Second/foreign language learners may rely on a limited menu of formulae, using them in ways that are subtly different to native speakers. This may result in sending unintended messages and pragmatic confusion. In this paper I focus on four fixed expressions that are frequently found in the talk of Japanese learners of English: *How about you?*, *By the way*, *And so on* and *Let me see*. I will outline their functions in English based on corpus data and describe the ways that they are used in student talk. I suggest that a more nuanced understanding of the functions of these formulae and explicit teaching will aid learners achieve more developed pragmatic and interactional abilities.

言語会話において、話者は自らの発話の中に多くの決り文句や形式的文言を用いる。それらの決り文句の運用能力は、流暢さを測る主要な手がかりの一つである（McCarthy, 2010, Hasselgreen, 2004）。言語学習者は限られた数の既習の決り文句を駆使し会話を行うが、それら数少ない決り文句に依存しすぎる傾向があり、またその決り文句の運用においても母語話者のそれとは異なる。そのため、発話の意図と解釈に齟齬が生じる可能性が高く、言外、特に語用論的誤解を生むことがある。本稿では、日本人学習者の英語会話の中に頻繁に観察される「How about you?」、「By the way,」、「And so on.」、「Let me see,」の 4 つの決り文句・フレーズを取り上げる。まず、コーパスデータに基づきこれら 4 つの決り文句の語用論的機能を概略し、学習者が会話の中で実際にどのように運用しているかを例証する。さらに、これらの細かな語用論的ニュアンスの理解とそれを踏まえた教育手法が、いかに学習者のさらなる語用論的能力と相互行為方略の上達を支えるものであるか論究する。

In spoken interaction, speakers do not proceed through their turns on a word-by-word basis. Rather, speakers use a large number of pre-assembled items to convey meaning and intent to their interlocutors. These items are referred to variously as *chunks*, *formulae, holophrases,* and so on. These lexical formulae appear in a variety of forms and are used by speakers for a variety of different purposes. The ability to use these formulae naturalistically is a key indicator of spoken fluency (McCarthy, 2010, Hasselgreen, 2004) and as such these formulae must be a component of any speaking course. However, within the broad category of formulaic language, there are several sub-genres which differ in various ways and present different challenges to language learners. I will briefly outline some of these sub-genres below before focusing on a small number of formulaic expressions that are primarily used for pragmatic purposes in multi-party interactions.

Genres of formulaic utterance

Perhaps the simplest instances of formulaic language are noun plus noun collocations. These are words that often appear together, often in fixed order and whose meaning is usually transparent from the constituent words. Examples of this category are such commonplace items as *boys and girls*, *salt and pepper*, *knife and fork*. A more challenging category of formulaic utterances for language learners are idioms. These are formulae such as 'cut him some slack', 'miss the boat' or 'get bent out of shape', whose meaning is not readily accessible from an analysis of their constituent words. The meanings of these expressions may not be accessible to language learners although native and highly proficient speakers of the language should be able to process the meanings metacognitively and easily explain, for example, that 'get bent out of shape' means that a person is upset and dissatisfied with a situation. Another category of formulaic expressions that is much less accessible to the intuitions of both language learners and native speakers are expressions that fulfil a primarily pragmatic function, especially in spoken language. Expressions such as *I mean*, *you know* and *the thing is* are frequently occurring items in mundane spoken discourse (See McCarthy, 2010 for corpus data on frequencies), but the precise function (or functions) of these formulae may not be immediately accessible to metacognitive reasoning and they may prove problematic to explain to learners. In fact, such words (and other single-word pragmatic tokens such as *well* and *like*) may be stigmatized and dismissed as mere fillers and even as *throwaways*, *exasperating expressions*, *pollution* (cited in Gilquin & De Cock, 2013), even though they fulfil a range of important functions. The complexity involved in explicating pragmatic language can be seen in Heritage (2015) where the pragmatic functions of the word *well* are addressed. Heritage's literature review references 19 papers by distinguished scholars spanning a 37-year period.

In summary, pragmatic formulae may present specific difficulties for language learners and their teachers alike. I suggest that for pragmatic formulae, their relative inaccessibility to introspection, their multifunctional nature and the tendency to be stigmatized can lead to these vital pieces of language being not taught, under-taught or mis-taught. In the following sections I investigate some of the functions of four expressions that are familiar to most Japanese learners of English with the aim of achieving a more nuanced understanding of their function is spoken discourse.

Common Learner Formulae

Although language learners may experience trouble in giving expression to their thoughts and proceed through utterances in a word-by-word fashion, even elementary learners are usually familiar with certain formulaic utterances and can deploy them readily in speaking. In the case of Japanese learners of English there are, in the author's experience, a small number of formulaic expressions that are recurrent in learner talk. Among these are four expressions that serve a basically pragmatic function. These are; *How about you?, And so on, By the way,* and, *Let me see.* In a survey of university third-year Japanese English majors (N=23) carried out by the author, all students indicated that they have been taught these four expressions by Japanese teachers in formal, institutional settings. In the author's view, these formulae, as used by learners, are interesting in two respects. Firstly, in the frequency of use, and secondly, in the way that they are used, which is often subtly different from the ways that native speakers (or proficient second language speakers) use them. The issue of frequency is hard to quantify, but the example of 'How about you?' will give some indication of the issue.

In video recorded data collected by the author (approximately 100 minutes of spontaneous student peer talk, see Campbell-Larsen 2019b for background on participants and data collection methodology), the formula *How about you?* was uttered 26 times. By comparison, in audio recording of spontaneous conversation among three native English speaking friends in a restaurant setting the formula did not appear at all in 55 minutes of data. Not only does the expression seem over-represented in learner talk, it also stands in comparison to the absence of other pragmatic formulae. McCarthy (2010) reports that the pragmatic formulae *You know* and *I mean* are among the most frequent multi-word chunks in spoken English. In the classroom data mentioned above there is zero occurrence of either of these two expressions. The lack of certain high-frequency expressions and the over-reliance on a limited menu of other formulae is a feature of student talk in my data.

In addition to the frequency issue, the ways in which the learners use the words is often, subtly different from the usage of native speakers. In the following sections I will discuss issues of usage with reference to student data and corpus.

How About You?

The ability to engage in spontaneous spoken interaction in a foreign or second language is more than just the ability to produce grammatically correct utterances. Participants in interaction must orient to the need to achieve orderly turn taking. Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) outlined the system of turn taking that applies to mundane interactions. In outline, speakers can achieve transition by the following means:

1) The current speaker nominates the next speaker who must then take the turn.

2) If the current speaker does not nominate the next speaker, then, when the current speaker has reached a point of possible transition, any other participant may self-select and begin speaking.

3) If the current speaker reaches a point of completion and does not nominate a next speaker, and no other participant self-selects to take a turn, then the current speaker may self-select and take a further turn. (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974, p. 704).

For rule 1) the means by which a current speaker can nominate a next speaker are varied. The current speaker can use address terms, intonation, eye contact, pragmatic cues or any combination of these to signal that speaker transition is relevant, and furthermore to signal who the next speaker should be. In the case of student use of the formulaic expression *How about you?* some commonalities are apparent.

1) The formula is used to bring about speaker transition.

2) It is used at the end of a turn which itself may be a response to a question.

3) The formula is used to index that original question and direct the poser of that original question (or another participant) to provide an answer. The following excerpts of student talk are illustrative:

Excerpt 1

M: What time did you get up this morning?
F: Ehh, I got up at (.) eight thirty
M: Eight thirty?
F: I, I went to my friend's house so, (.) it (.) Yeah. How, how eh How about you?
M: I got up at eight, eight ten

Excerpt 2

Rei: What, what are you doing in Golden week?
Aya: I go (.)go to Aqua Resort.
Rei: Aqua?
Chie: Aqua resort?
Aya: Aqua resort.
Rei: Ah, sounds good. How about you?
Chie: Uhm…I…maybe I didn't I work every day.

Nominating a next speaker in this way is not unknown in NES interactions, but there are several points to note in the way that students use the formula. Firstly, as mentioned above, is seems to be overused by learners compared to NES. This suggests that other means of bringing about turn transition may be underdeveloped. Secondly, the formula may be seen not so much as other-nomination, but as self-deselection. That is, the speaker using the formula quickly passes the responsibility to talk to some other after very minimal contribution from themselves. The formula used thus hinders progressivity in that it prevents the prior speaker from engaging in any uptake of the answer just given. In excerpt 1 above, F's answer to the question about what time she got up is given in a minimal fashion. Her use of the formula requires M to talk about his own waking time and tacitly prevents M from delving any deeper into the contents of F's turn. Similarly, in excerpt 2, Aya's response to the question is left at 'I go to Aqua resort'. No further details are sought, nor can be sought as the talk has moved on to Chie's upcoming plans.

The formula is not present in the author's NES data. In searching corpora for use of the formula, some differences can be observed in the way it is deployed. Firstly, the expression is not that common. Davies (2004) shows only 76 hits for the term. Secondly, the term is predominantly tagged as appearing in written genres (66 out of 76 instances). Thirdly, of the spoken genre, five of the instances were of the formula used to make a suggestion rather than nominate the next speaker, as in the following example:

Excerpt 3

A: You want your coat on, ***how about you*** having a try and see if you can put yours on, like Richard and James (pause) do you think you can?

The website Youglish (https://youglish.com) allows users to input a word or phrase and the search engine searches YouTube videos for the item(s). The videos will appear in sequence cued to the point where the phrase occurs. Using this tool, the phrase *How about you?* gives a large number of hits -over 3,000. (The total count is not conclusive as non-contiguous instances of the words are also included.) Again, the use of the phrase in its suggestion function is prominent. In its 'next speaker nomination' function several recurrent phenomena are observable. Firstly, it is almost always used in interactions featuring more than two speakers. Most of the instances are from panel type events. This may be due to the nature of the data. More of these events than mundane conversations appear on YouTube. Clearly, in dyadic interactions the question of who is the next speaker is a lot more straightforward than in interactions featuring larger numbers of participants. In these panel type events, speaker turns are usually allocated by some person serving as host or moderator and the formula is universally deployed by these persons. The formula is often not a turn-end, stand-alone question, but is often combined with an address term and often with a question appended, as in the following examples. (H = Host)

Excerpt 4. Entrepreneurs

wspu (2015 13:14 – 13:21)

H: And how about you? You've sold Xobni but
you now have Sincerely and Postagram
How many people are you employing?

Excerpt 5. Innovation

RIT Production services (2013, 14:03- 14:10)

H: Great (.) Paul how about you? what's your
philosophy on innovation?

Excerpt 6. Writers

The Richmond Forum (2013, 1:04:54 – 1:04:59)

H: How about you Doris? uhh are, do you have
a ritual as a writer?

These examples reveal the speaking environment in which the formula appears. Use of address terms may occur prior to or succeeding the formula. The formula may index a previously asked question, as is the case with student usage, or, the question may initiate an entirely new topic sequence. From these data it seems to be the case that learners are overusing the formula and using it in a bare, stand-alone way that often interferes with progressivity. For a fuller discussion of this formulaic utterance see Campbell-Larsen (2019a).

And So On

English is replete with a large menu of words that are variously known as *vague category markers* (Evison, McCarthy and O'Keeffe, 2007) or *general extenders* (Overstreet, 2014). These formulaic expressions are defined by Overstreet as,

[T]ypically optional and attach to otherwise grammatically complete utterances. They are mostly found in spoken English, particularly among younger speakers, and perhaps as a consequence are virtually absent from older descriptive grammars of the English language. (p. 106).

The most commonly occurring general extenders are; *or something, and everything, and things (like that), and stuff (like that)* (Biber et al cited in Overstreet 2014, p. 106). English is very productive in these expressions. Overstreet (1999, p. 4) lists 36 examples and notes that other, novel, coinages are common.

These expressions fulfil a variety of pragmatic functions such as list completion (*Beer, wine and stuff*), thus avoiding prolixity, and hedging (*A booklet or something*) that align with the Gricean maxims of quantity and truthfulness respectively. They also suggest shared social knowledge that promotes intersubjectivity and mutuality. The utterance *Cameron, Brian and those guys* alludes to the listener's shared epistemic status in knowing who *those guys* are, such knowledge being inaccessible to out-group persons. In addition, as McCarthy (2010) notes, these expressions often occur at turn final position and thus signal that turn transition is imminent, thereby helping participants manage turn-taking.

In student data, general extenders are noticeable by their absence, even in places where deployment would be optimal, as in the following:

Excerpt 7

R: What kind of job (.) what do you, will you have
part time job?
C: Uh. I want to some café (6.0)

In this case, the inclusion of a general extender to indicate further types of desirable jobs, such as *I want some café or restaurant or something like that* would seem apposite, but the turn ends and a prolonged pause ensues, signaling perturbation in turn-taking. Of course, absence of an item is not proof that it is unknown and no strong claims can be made concerning absence and interactional competence (See Hall and Pekarek Doehler, 2011), but the absence of general extenders in my data is notable.

The productivity of English in respect of general extenders has been noted. This stands in contrast with Japanese where informants report a reliance on a more limited menu of parallel expressions, namely *nado* and *toka.* Students report that they have been taught that the English translation is *and so on.* This expression is comparatively rare in conversational English. In the British National Corpus (Davies, 2004-) of the first 1,000 instances of the expression only 18 are tagged as appearing in the conversational genre. The majority of instances are from meetings and other, more formal genres of speaking.

Let Me See

As speakers progress through a turn, they may encounter troubles in giving utterance to their thoughts. These troubles may stem from a variety of causes, such as memory lapses, misspeaking and the like. For language learners, turn progressivity may also be compromised by shortcomings in knowledge of the L2 vocabulary, syntax or morphology and other issues connected to emergent linguistic and interactional competence. Speakers encountering such difficulties can engage in various repair practices such as self-initiated self-repair, appeals for other-repair, signals to maintain progress by disattending to the trouble source and strategizing around the difficulty, and the like (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1977).

In my data there are no instances of this formula, *let me see* but it is discussed here because all students reported knowing it and it appears in Japanese English language textbooks as an item that signals a trouble source. For example, in the textbook *One World* (Matsumoto et al 2011, p. 107) the expression is given as one translation for the Japanese marker *eto.* The proposed function seems to be as a turn holder that buys time for the speaker while he or she engages in cognitive activity to construct the turn. *Eto* is an extremely common marker in Japanese spoken interactions and Japanese learners of English often suffuse their English speaking with this marker. The translation of *eto* as *Let me see* may not be entirely accurate. Although *eto* serves to hold the floor for the current speaker and indicate on-line processing, *let me see* is often used differently by native speakers of English. The formula has a directive meaning of *please show me.* It also has a turn holder function, but it often holds the turn while the speaker is searching for some external resource such as a clock or a timetable rather than engaging in internal cogitation and calculation. Both the British National Corpus and the Youglish sites show a clear majority of the *show me* function, with the second function being retrieval of external information, such as a presenter locating information on a slide during a presentation or checking a watch to confirm timing.

Once again, learners report having being specifically taught the formula in formal instruction and, also report it being taught as a turn holder while mental processing of the target language is taking place, equivalent to *eto.* Signaling to an interlocutor that the turn will be taken but that some time is required while internal language processing takes place is probably a highly salient feature of L2 talk. However, speakers can do this more or less felicitously. Extended silence, use of L2 and multiple restarts lie at one end (the less felicitous end) of a spectrum (Gardner, 2007). Rapid deployment of discourse markers and hesitation markers such as *uh* and *uhm* in turn initial position lie at the other end of the spectrum. The formula *let me see,* given its multi-functionality and its tendency to signal turn holding while content is retrieved from some external source is probably sub-optimal in its taught function.

By the Way

As with the other formulae mentioned above, students universally report having been taught this expression in formal instruction. The function of this formula is generally taken to be topic disjunctive. That is, the speaker signals that the following talk will be topically unrelated to the previous talk with the tacit meaning that the previous topic is now finished and will not be returned to. This expression appears recurrently in my student data (six instances) compared to zero instances in 55 minutes of native speaker talk. This is perhaps indicative of the difficulty that language learners experience in sustaining on-topic talk for extended periods. The following excerpt is illustrative.

Excerpt 8

Y: Ah no I had ah one first class was not I had
A: Good you're lucky
Y: From second so ah I lucky and by the way winter vacation I was with my friend

Once again, the formula has nuances of usage that differ from the simple introduction of a new topic. BNC data shows that the expression is often used to introduce incidental material that will not be salient in subsequent speaking as in the following:

Excerpt 9

A: It's a piece of cake for you! Somebody to wait on you! Hand and foot. And by the way, you've got your old trousers on did you know?
B: Oh! Have I? Oh!
A: Yes you have! (pause) Have you got rid of the cod liver oil taste yet?

It is also frequently deployed subsequent to rather than preceding an utterance to account for that utterance's seeming departure from the topic at hand as illustrated in the following:

Excerpt 10

A: …lying on the beach at midnight going to sleep in your sleeping bag, with a bottle of that and your goat's cheese
B: We're going away in October by the way
A: Are we? Where we going to?

It seems that in native-speaker talk this formula broadly signals topic disjuncture but this disjuncture can be either final or merely temporary and the formula can be placed either prior to or subsequent to any disjunctive utterance. This is in contrast to learner use which is only to use the formula to signal upcoming and complete topic disjuncture and to signal that previous talk has been completed and should be seen as closed.

Conclusion

Formulaic utterances are a highly salient feature of spoken interactions and key indicators of fluency. However, various different formulae present differing levels of accessibility to both teachers and learners with simple propositional two-word collocations being most accessible and formulae that fulfil pragmatic functions being the least accessible. This paper has focused on four formulae that are well-known to most Japanese students of English and are frequently deployed in learner talk. However, the frequency of these utterances in learner talk may differ from that of native and proficient speakers and the exact ways that language learners' use the formulae may be subtly different from the way native and proficient speakers use them. A more nuanced understanding of these formulae on the part of teachers and learners can help to develop learners' interactional competence and avoid pragmatic confusion. The precise ways in which these formulas can be taught to students will vary by context and level and teachers, once aware of the pragmatic functions of these formula, can apply a methodology that suits their own context.

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5 Scaffolding for Success in IELTS Speaking

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Japanese students score well below the global average in the IELTS test (IELTS, 2012) especially in the speaking and writing sections (Allen, 2017). This is likely due to the disproportionate amount of time spent in secondary school preparing for university entrance exams that mainly focus on receptive skills (Watanabe, 2004). The rote memorization of grammar rules and mechanical ability to react to grammar, reading, and listening questions required to succeed on these exams does not prepare students for the IELTS test, which requires them to give immediate answers to both concrete and abstract questions and speak with little hesitation for one to two minutes about a random topic for which they have only one minute to prepare. Based on the theory of instructional scaffolding (Beed et al, 1991), this paper will focus on methods to help Japanese students overcome their lack of experience with spontaneous production by first presenting them with concrete and easily attainable tasks and gradually increasing the difficulty of tasks in terms of the level of abstraction, fluency, and accuracy required. Methods for giving students formative feedback for their performance at each stage of task difficulty will also be discussed (Crooks, 2001).

日本人学生は、IELTS テスト（IELTS、2012 年）、特にスピーキングおよびライティングセクション（Allen、2017 年）で世界平均を大きく下回っています。これは、主に受容スキルに焦点を当てた大学入試の準備に中等学校で費やされた不均衡な時間によるものと思われます（Watanabe、2004）。これらの試験で成功するために必要な文法規則と文法、読解、リスニングの質問に反応する機械的な能力を暗記することは、学生が IELTS テストの準備ができていないため、具体的な質問と抽象的な質問の両方にすぐに答えて話す必要があります準備が 1 分しかないランダムなトピックについては、1〜2 分間少しためらっています。教育的足場の理論（Beed et al、1991）に基づいて、このプレゼンテーションでは、具体的かつ容易に達成可能な課題を最初に提示し、課題の難易度を徐々に高めることにより、日本人学生が自発的生産の経験不足を克服するのに役立つ方法に焦点を当てます抽象化のレベル、流さ、および必要な精度の点で。タスクの難易度の各段階でのパフォーマンスに対して生徒に形成的なフィードバックを与える方法についても説明します（Crooks、2001）。

The International English Language Testing System (IELTS) measures the language proficiency of people who wish to study or work where English is the main language of communication and is accepted as evidence of English proficiency by over 10,000 educational institutes and training providers worldwide. Japanese test takers, however, have continued to struggle with IELTS and score well below the global average, particularly with the productive components of the exam. In an attempt to mitigate this, our paper demonstrates how instructional scaffolding can help to improve spontaneous speaking by implementing critical thinking to answer abstract questions, which is essential for achieving success on the IELTS speaking test.

Lagging IELTS Production Scores in Japan

IELTS 2012 global statistics show that Japanese L1 test takers scored below the global average. The results show that they scored particularly low on the speaking and writing sections of the test, with speaking having the widest marginal difference from the global average.

Table 1

Average of IELTS 2012 Japanese L1 Test Takers vs Overall IELTS 2012 Average (Allen, 2017)

	IELTS 2012 Average	IELTS 2012 Japanese L1 Average
Overall	5.9	5.8
Reading	6.0	5.9
Listening	6.0	6.0
Writing	5.5	5.3
Speaking	5.9	5.6

These low IELTS scores have been demonstrated even at one of Japan's most prestigious universities. Allen (2017) examined the IELTS results of 204 students from University of Tokyo, who completed the test in their first year of study, and again within the following academic year of 2014. The results of the students' initial test show that they also had a large discrepancy between their productive and receptive skills and scored even lower on the speaking than the national average.

When examining the English language requirements for entering University of Tokyo, it becomes evident why these students struggled on the speaking section of the IELTS. The National Center for University Entrance Examinations (NCUEE) is a syllabus-based test based on the national school curriculum. The test focuses on vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and receptive skills, such as listening tasks made up of short and long dialogues. There are no writing or speaking tasks on the test (Watanabe, 2004). The 2013 University of Tokyo exam included reading, grammar, listening, and writing sections. However, just as the NCUEE, there were no speaking tasks on the exam, hence, none of the students were required to perform speaking tasks in any of the entrance exams. In a series of questionnaires, Allen (2017) discovered that, out of the four skills, the 204 students answered that reading was most focused on in both high school and cram school, while speaking was the least focused on. This could be a major reason why these students scored poorly on the speaking section of the IELTS exam. Therefore, much more attention should be given to the development of fundamental speaking skills of Japanese students.

Table 2

Average of Participants in Allen (2017) vs Overall IELTS 2012 average

	204 University of Tokyo Students - Initial Test	IELTS 2012 Average
Overall	6.2	5.9
Reading	7.2	6.0
Listening	6.6	6.0
Writing	5.5	5.5
Speaking	5.4	5.9

Literature Review: Scaffolding

The term scaffolding was used by Wood, Bruner, Ross (1976) to describe a mode of learning designed to bridge the gap between a learner's current ability and their potential ability. In the early stages of language-learning, elements of tasks may require a level of skill that is beyond the learner, thus scaffolding provides the help that makes task completion possible. As the learner progresses, the scaffolding is removed until they are completely autonomous. (Wood 1976).

There are three important features of instructional scaffolding that facilitate learning. Firstly, it requires interaction between a learner and an expert. Secondly, learning should take place within the learner's zone of proximal development, meaning that the expert needs to be aware of the learner's current level of knowledge and provide help to complete tasks that are slightly beyond that level. Finally, the help provided by the expert is gradually removed when the learner becomes more proficient. (Beed, Hawkins, & Roller 1991).

The zone of proximal development is an essential element of instructional scaffolding. The term zone of proximal development was first proposed by psychologist Lev Vygotsky, who defined it as the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978). In other words, it is the distance between what a learner can do without support, and what they can do with the support from a more knowledgeable teacher or peer. The zone of proximal development should be at a point beyond what a learner can already learn independently. It is at a point when a learner needs support from someone more knowledgeable, but not too far beyond what the learner is capable of doing. Unlike Piaget, who believed that children developed in a spontaneous process that is initiated and completed by the children, stemming from their own efforts, Vygotsky believed that children would not advance very far if they were left to discover everything on their own (Crane, 2010). He thought that we cannot simply look at what students can do on their own, but instead we must examine what students are capable of doing in a social setting. Students are most often able to complete a task in a group or with assistance before they are able to complete it on their own. and thus, Vygotsky believed that a teacher's job is to move a child's mind forward step-by-step, and they must determine which students are ready for which lessons (Crane, 2010).

Methods and Material Design

a) Design principles

Based on the principles of instructional scaffolding and the IELTS band 5 and 6 descriptors, a matrix for developing students' ability to improve their communications skills was created. The reason that bands 5 and 6 were chosen is that 5 represents the average present level of attainment on the test (Allen, 2017) and 6 is a common goal for students that wish to join study abroad programs.

The materials were designed for a second-year communications class at a large Japanese university. Although the university had no official requirements for students to take the IELTS test, the rationale for using the test criteria as a basis for course design and assessment is that the test's structure moves students along a continuum from basic to more complex tasks. For example, the first task represents a baseline level of attainment that can be expected of candidate: they are able to give short responses to simple interview questions about personal topics. In the second task, they are given one minute to compose a short speech about a personal topic, which also allows them a chance to demonstrate their ability to more abstract elements of the topic. Finally, in the final task of the test, students are expected to express opinions based on more abstract aspects of a topic. They are also not given any time to prepare, and have to respond to the interviewer's questions as quickly as they can.

Based on these tasks, an IELTS speaking task scaffolding matrix was developed (see figure 1). At the 0 point of the matrix is what (false) beginner level students are capable of doing on their own, such as answering simple questions about everyday topics in non-sentential utterances. For example, they may be asked "What food do you like?", for which an acceptable response could be "Sushi". The X axis is related to the students' level of performance and is related to bands of the IELTS test and the three tasks on the test which increase in difficulty as the test progresses, with simple interview questions at the bottom and debate at the top. The Y axis is related to the topics on the test and moves from very basic, concrete, and familiar topics, such as place of living, food, and hobbies, and moves to less familiar, controversial, and abstract topics. For example, if the topic is food, students may be asked to express their opinions about genetically modified food and whether they feel it is safe.

Figure 1 - IELTS Speaking Scaffolding Matrix

b) Materials

Materials for this project were developed along this matrix and were related to a unit in the textbook Contemporary Topics about Genetically modified food. Lessons were designed for each of the four main stages along the matrix. First students were asked to complete simple interview questions about food. These were meant to get students talking about simple aspects of the topic (See figure 2).

Warm up interview questions Talk with a partner about these questions: What is your favorite food? Why do you like it?	How often do you go to restaurants? What examples can you think of healthy food? What examples can you think of unhealthy food?

Figure 2 - Interview questions (sample)

Next students were given more technical vocabulary in Japanese about the topic and asked to translate it into English (See figure 3). This has been recognized as an effective way to facilitate vocabulary acquisition by activating prior knowledge (Kanbe, 2015; Mulia, 2015). After the translation activities were completed, students were then asked to fill in the gaps in a series of English sentences using the vocabulary they learned. Later parts of the task increased in difficulty by asking students to provide the correct form of the word. In this way, students moved from understanding the meaning of the word in their native language to recognising the correct use of the word in their native language.

Vocabulary Translation - Translate the following words into English					
1.栄養		3.炭水化物		5. 糖分	
2.たんぱく質		4. 脂肪		6. 塩分	

Figure 3 - Translation activity (sample)

After completing the vocabulary work, students were given three minutes to prepare a two-minute speech about a food that they had eaten recently and use the vocabulary to describe its taste, texture, and nutritional content. Students were then given another speaking task in which they were asked to describe how to make a dish in which they were given two minutes to prepare, and finally a third speaking task in which they had just one minute to prepare a two minute talk about a dish they had prepared recently, how to make it, and its taste, texture, and nutritional value. By reducing the preparation time and increasing the amount of content expected within the same amount of speaking time, students were expected to increase their fluency (Lowe, 2015).

Throughout these activities, students were given formative feedback, which is defined as an ongoing assessment process designed to improve student attainment (Crooks, 2001). Thus, students were made increasingly aware of teacher expectations in terms of their delivery, such as clarity of speech, eye contact, and posture, and expectations in content. At first, students were allowed to look at notes when they gave their speeches and the content expected of them was mostly descriptive in nature. However, when they were introduced to the next section of the course, the debate, the expectations related to both delivery and content became more difficult.

Students were separated into groups of three and allowed to choose from a list of possible debate topics (See Appendix). As outlined in the scaffolding matrix, the phases of the debate became increasingly demanding of the students' English skills as the debate progressed. The first part of the debate was the resolution. This required the students to research their topic and find three reasons to support their position and use relevant evidence to support their position. Each student was expected to give a reason to support the group's overall thesis. They were also given a list of useful phrases for stating resolution.

The next section of the debate was the cross-examination. This was by far the most difficult part of the debate as it requires skills, such as critical thinking and the ability to respond in a discussion spontaneously, that it has been observed that Japanese students in particular struggle with (Allen, 2017). To familiarize students with this, they were asked to listen to two resolutions, each with various flaws in supporting evidence and logic, think of cross examination questions, and write them down. They were also supplied with question forms to use (Figure 4). While the for and against groups listened to each other's resolutions, they had to think about cross-examination questions. They did the debate three times. The first two times were practice debates and they were given three minutes conferral time before the cross-examination. During this time they could consult with each to formulate the questions. The third debate was the final debate, which

Cross-examination questions
Repeat the other groups' supporting point -You say (other group's supporting point). However, Ask for references -What is your source? -Do you have a reference for…? -Where did you get this information? Ask for more data -Can you give some exact numbers support this? Ask for clarification -Please explain what you mean by…-You say… What do you mean? -Can you elaborate on...

Figure 4 - Cross-examination questions

did not include conferral time and they had to perform the debate in front of the rest of the class. Their classmates listened and, after the debate was over, voted on which side won the debate.

The final debate received a summative assessment. Each student was given a separate grade based on the quality of their delivery and content in their part of the resolution, the quality of questions and their ability to answer questions, as well as their ability to deliver a part of the conclusion. All in all, the project was meant to gauge students' ability to engage with more abstract content, use critical thinking to formulate thoughtful questions, and be able to respond to questions asked to them effectively. All skills that are required to receive a band 6 score in the IELTS speaking test.

Survey, Results, and Discussion

a) Participants

The participants in the study were all second-year students in the Science and Technology department of a large Japanese university. The students were taught the material explained above in a total of seven 90-minute sessions. After the study was concluded, they were asked to complete a survey. The total number of respondents was 114. The participants were divided into five classes, according to their majors. Of the five classes, four were considered to be the most advanced students in their major based on their scores on the GTech proficiency test. The class that did not receive the high scores on the test was used to pilot the survey, the rationale being that this group would be the most likely to have difficulty understanding the questions. These students did not report any major problems with the survey items. The survey results for this group, which was 25 students in total, were not included in the data reported in the results section of this paper because they were not considered to be of the same proficiency level as the other students. Also, there were three students who requested not to have their answers included in the data.

b) Survey

Upon completion of the debates, students were given a 10-item survey. Of the survey items, seven questions asked them about the extent to which they were asked the extent to which they felt they could do the various activities on a 5-point Likert scale. There was also a multiple- choice question in which they were asked how often they used English during class time (see Appendix for full survey).

Survey Results

Overall students were fairly positive about their use of English in class. As shown in Figure 5, the majority of students felt that they either used English most of the time (36%) or sometimes (36%). A smaller, but still significant, number of students (16.3%) believed that they used English 100 percent of the time. The number of students who felt that they rarely or never used English was comparatively small.

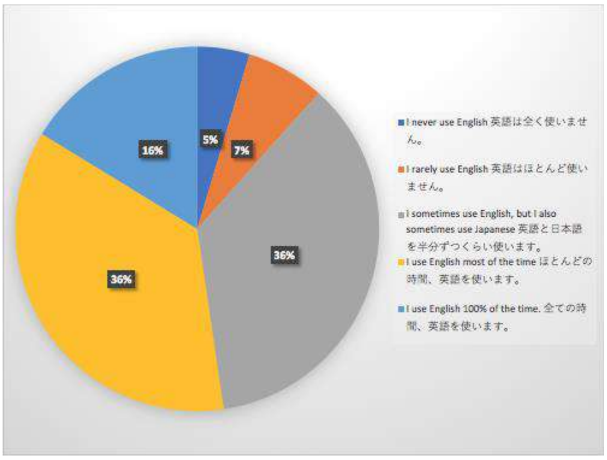

Figure 5 - Student self-reports about the amount of English used in class

In terms of student responses to the questions about their ability, there was a tendency to lean towards the middle of the Likert scale. As shown in Table 2, students felt that translation was very useful for learning new vocabulary. However, were less sure of the helpfulness of filling in missing words to understand how to use the vocabulary they translated in complete English sentences. They were even slightly less confident about their ability to use that vocabulary in a short speech.

Regarding interaction, students seemed confident that simple interview questions helped them to think about their topic. They also felt reasonably confident in their ability to construct a resolution about a certain side of a debate. Moreover, they were equally confident that they could listen to another person's resolution and make a question about it. Where they showed much less confidence, however, was in their ability to answer questions about their own resolution. This supports the observation that Japanese students find responding to questions much more difficult than constructing speeches or questions.

Table 3

Questions about Student Belief in Their Ability

Survey Items	Mean	Standard deviation
Simple interview questions help me to think about the topic.	3.68	1.23
Translating words from Japanese to English helps me learn new vocabulary.	3.87	1.16
Filling in the missing word in English sentences helps me understand how to use the vocabulary I translated.	3.59	1.06
I can use the vocabulary I learned to make a short, simple two-minute speech.	3.52	1.11
I can make a resolution about one side of an argument and support it with references (for example, "Vegetarianism is an unhealthy lifestyle.")	3.64	0.95
I can listen to another person's resolution and make a question about it.	3.64	0.96
I can listen to another person's question about my resolution and answer it.	3.49	1.01

Discussion

Scaffolding was used in all of the speaking tasks as students were guided in their preparation and given an ample amount of time to prepare for their answers. The scaffolding was gradually removed so that the learner could become more autonomous, which is consistent with the theory of instructional scaffolding (Beed, Hawkins, & Roller, 1991). In the speaking questions about food, students were initially given three minutes to prepare their answers. This time limit was reduced to two and finally one-minute preparation to in order to give a two-minute answer, which is consistent with Part 2 of the IELTS speaking test. Moreover, the speaking matrix was meant to gauge students' ability, in order to find their zone of proximal development, and slowly increase the topics to more abstract content. The students were guided in order to have them develop their critical thinking, formulate thoughtful answers, and be able to respond to questions effectively, all of which is required to achieve a band 5 or higher in IELTS.

As mentioned, the survey shows that the students seemed confident that simple interview questions helped them to think about their topic. They also felt confident with their ability to construct a resolution on a side of a debate. Their confidence also came with their ability to listen to another person's resolution and make a question about it. All in all, the survey showed that with the speaking matrix and debates, students felt confident with their ability to listen, plan and construct. The response with the highest mean of 3.87 was given to "Translating words from Japanese to English helps me learn new vocabulary." This might be because students were in their comfort zone when they were scaffolded the most, as they could use their first language in order to grasp the meaning of English vocabulary.

The lack of confidence lies in their ability to answer questions about their own resolution. The mean was 3.49 which was the lowest of the survey to the statement, "I can listen to another person's question about my resolution and answer it." This can be because students were not given prep time and were expected to answer spontaneous. This can be attributed to the washback of their pre-tertiary education, in which there is a strong lack of productive skills practice. However, the scaffolded speaking activities were limited to 90-minute classes in a short period of time, and so more practice would be necessary to eventually bring more confidence in their ability to respond, especially to spontaneous questions with little or no time to prepare. The goal of the scaffolded speaking exercises is to increase a student's spontaneous speaking skills and bring more autonomy to a student's ability to answer abstract conversation questions in preparation for the IELTS speaking test. The lower confidence is perhaps to be expected until the students have more time to improve.

Limitations and Considerations for Further Development

A limitation in this study was that there was no pre survey and post survey given to the students. Both could have allowed a comparison of the students' level of confidence before and after using these materials. Moreover, the program did not allow enough classes to run these comparisons. If this study could have continued over a two-year period, there would have been sufficient time to observe their improvement, as well as their confidence from a pre-to-post survey comparison. There was a time constraint due to the length of the program, and so this comparison could not have been done effectively. Furthermore, the number of lessons that the students received were spaced out fairly far apart. Perhaps if they had received more instruction and with less time lag in between sessions, they could have improved more.

Conclusion

Japanese students score below the global IELTS average due to their lagging productive skills, particularly with speaking. This has been attributed to their pre-tertiary education, which gives few chances for productive skill development. Japanese students are not required to do English speaking tests on the national university entrance exam, and therefore pre-tertiary education is geared to the development of receptive skills.

This study offers techniques of scaffolding IELTS speaking questions, and IELTS-type questions that can help Japanese test takers prepare for the speaking section of the IELTS exam. Based on the super global university incentive promoted by MEXT (Japanese Ministry of Education), there is a big push to get more students studying abroad. However, many students are not able to qualify for the study abroad program because they cannot meet the minimum IELTS score requirement. Our methodology can help Japanese with spontaneous speaking and critical thinking skills, which is a requirement to achieve the minimum band 6 in order to study abroad.

It is clear that Japanese English learners need to improve their speaking ability in IELTS, and in general, to remain competitive in a globalized world.

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Appendix

Debate Topics	
Should university students use smartphones/tablets in their classes? Should Japan allow more foreign workers? Should university tuition be free? Should the government subsidize artists/art? Should children (be required to) learn about art in school? Should companies (be required to) provide daycare for their employees?	Are smartphones helpful/harmful to young people? Should the government subsidize artists/art? Should university students have a part-time job? Should university students use smartphones/tablets in their classes? Should Japan allow more foreign workers?

6 A Small-Scale Investigation into the Efficacy of Pronunciation Instruction at a Japanese College

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Much past research into the effectiveness of pronunciation instruction has limited relevance to pedagogy because it measures accent rather than comprehensibility or intelligibility (Derwing & Munro, 2015). More research is necessary to investigate the effectiveness of classroom instruction. The authors conducted a pilot study measuring comprehensibility and the nativelikeness of two discrete pronunciation features using a novel data analysis procedure that is less burdensome than standard procedures. Seven subjects received seven hours explicit pronunciation instruction over 15 weeks based on materials in the pronunciation textbook "Clear Speech" (Gilbert, 2012). Eight raters were sent short excerpts from pre- and post-test recordings via SNS and rated their relative comprehensibility. One of the authors also subjectively rated the nativelikeness of the rhythm and the /θ/ and /ð/ sounds. Only one subject showed some improvement in comprehensibility, three showed some improvement in rhythm and there was almost no effect on pronunciation of /θ/ and /ð/. More research is needed to show that explicit pronunciation instruction is a worthwhile use of class time.

発音指導の有益性に関する過去の研究の多くは理解性を検証しないため教授法への関連性を限定してきた(Derwing & Munro, 2015)。著者らはデータ分析のため新しい過程を使用して音声サンプルを検証するパイロットスタディを実施した。７名の被験者が発音のテキスト"Clear Speech"（Gilbert, 2012 年）の教材に基づき１５週間にわたっておよそ７時間の明示的な発音指導を受けた。８名からなる評価グループに指導前と指導後の被検者の声を録音したものから一部取り出したものを SNS により送り、相対的な理解度について評価した。本研究の著者の一人は同時にリズムや th の音についても主観的に評価した。理解性については唯一１名の被検者に改善が見られ、３名の被検者にリズムの変化が見られたが、th の音についはほぼ全く効果は見られなかった。さらなる研究が明示的な発音指導が授業時に有益であることを証明するには必要である。

Few would deny that acquiring good pronunciation is an important part of learning a second language. It is also true, however, that teachers tend to regard pronunciation as difficult to teach and their instruction usually has unsatisfactory results (Szpyra-Kozlowska, 2014). Although there was a period during the 1980s when explicit pronunciation instruction was avoided as a waste of time (Derwing & Munro 2015), many influential figures in the L2 teaching field now see it as a necessary part of the curriculum (e. Harmer 2015, Ur 2012). L2 Pronunciation resource books such as Derwing & Munro (2015), Grant (2014) and Szpyra-Kozlowska (2014) confidently state that teachers can expect to see good results if their instruction is properly designed and implemented. Against this backdrop, the authors reflected on their own disappointing classroom experiences. We were not confident that our pronunciation teaching had brought about a positive effect and decided to investigate its efficacy.

Literature Review

Successful, pronunciation teaching should lead to improvement that is both long-term and evident in spontaneous speech, not only in the controlled speech typical of pronunciation activities. Three recent studies have attempted to synthetize past research data on the efficacy of explicit L2 pronunciation instruction. Saito (2012) found evidence for significant improvement resulting from instruction in 13 out of 15 published studies. Thomson and Derwing (2015) examined 75 published articles and observed that 82% of them reported significant improvement. In a meta-analysis of 86 published studies, Lee et al. (2014) calculated an average effect size for instructional interventions of 0.89, representing medium to large effects. These findings appear positive, but we need to be cautious when interpreting them. Lee et al. (2014) acknowledge a bias towards statistically significant results in their selection of published studies. Saito (2012) did not report how many of the studies included a delayed post-test, so we do not know how durable the gains were; it is possible they disappeared after a few weeks. Authors of only two of the 15 studies in Saito (2012) claimed to have analyzed spontaneous speech. Krashen (2013) questioned these claims and argued that the effects of direct pronunciation instruction are only evident during monitored speech.

Research into comprehensibility and intelligibility, two of the key terms in the field, provides important insights. Derwing and Munro (2015) define comprehensibility as the “ease or difficulty a listener experiences in understanding speech” (p.5) and intelligibility as “the degree of match between a speaker’s intended message and the listener’s comprehension” (p. 5). The relationship between accent and both comprehensibility and intelligibility is complex (Derwing & Munro 2015, Grant, 2014) so it is possible, for example, for comprehensibility to increase with no significant reduction in accent (Saito, 2011). As a result, Derwing and Munro (2015) conclude that “a considerable body of the research literature on L2 speech has, at most, limited value for the classroom because it focuses on accent” (p. 50). Thomson and Derwing (2015) echo this criticism, arguing that since the relationship between discrete pronunciation features and overall comprehensibility and intelligibility is unknown, many past studies “lack ecological validity” (p. 333).

Discrete pronunciation features are frequently divided into segmental features, (individual vowel and consonant sounds) and suprasegmental features (prosodic features including intonation, tone, stress and rhythm). Saito (2015) argues that since most studies examining the instruction of suprasegmentals have been conducted in ESL contexts, we also need to investigate the effects in EFL contexts, in which learners typically receive less L2 input. Some students which have been conducted on Japanese learners include Saito and Saito (2016), who found significantly greater gains for an experimental group in overall comprehensibility, word stress, rhythm and intonation than a control group. Also, Saito (2016) found that university student subjects showed significant improvement in rhythm in an immediate post-test. However, neither of these studies included a delayed post-test and there was no assessment of spontaneous speech.

Clearly, more empirical studies are required, but many researchers prefer to present pedagogical ideas in the literature without providing empirical data to back up their claims. As an illustration, since 2008 there have been 11 papers published in the JALT Conference Proceedings on pronunciation, but only three of them included empirical evaluation of learner speech, none measured comprehensibility and none used an outside group of raters for data analysis. One reason for this lack of empirical research may be the perceived difficulty of conducting a pronunciation study. Speech samples must be carefully elicited, edited and then randomized, and data analysis should be performed by a group of outside raters in a controlled environment, leading to issues of how to compensate the raters for their time. In addition, the acoustic analysis of discrete pronunciation features requires use of specialist software such as Praat, for which most teachers are not trained. Therefore, the standard procedure followed in published papers may appear dauntingly labour-intensive, time-consuming and logistically challenging to many potential researchers.

The Current Study

This research was conceived as a small-scale pilot study. The main aim was to discover whether evidence could be obtained of long-term improvement in pronunciation due to instruction. A secondary goal was to find out if data collection and analysis could be achieved more easily than in standard practice.

The authors agree with Derwing and Munro (2015) that the main focus of pronunciation instruction should be improving intelligibility and comprehensibility, therefore we incorporated a rating of comprehensibility into the research design. Since we chose raters who raters were accustomed to listening to Japanese learners of English, we did not expect useful results from an analysis of intelligibility.

The comprehensibility rating was expected to bring useful results for classroom practice, but it would not shed any light on the effect of instruction on discrete pronunciation features, which may improve without affecting comprehensibility. Therefore, we also chose to anlayze the change over time of one segmental and one suprasegmental feature; the ‘th’ sounds (dental fricatives) and rhythm, which is caused by “the differences in stress between content words and function words” (Saito, 2016). The ‘th’ sounds are not found in Japanese and are often difficult for Japanese learners (Saito 2011, Swan & Smith 1987) and the moraic structure of Japanese means that many Japanese learners’ speech does not have a strong contrast between stressed and unstressed syllables (Koike, 2013).

The rating of these two discrete pronunciation features was based on a native-speaker model because this was straightforward and fitted in with the selected textbook’s approach. Recently, traditional native-speaker models have been problematized, with claims being made for the acceptability of certain features associated with non-native speaker pronunciation (Derwing & Munro 2015, Szpyra-Kozlowska 2014). It was not our intention to take sides in this debate; we simply wanted to discover whether explicit instruction led to any long-term change.

Research Questions

RQ1. Does explicit pronunciation instruction improve the subjects’ comprehensibility and does any improvement last over time?

RQ2. Does explicit pronunciation instruction make the rhythm of the subjects’ speech sound more native-like?

RQ3. Does explicit pronunciation instruction make the subjects’ pronunciation of the /θ/ and /ð/ sounds more native-like?

Research Methods

Subjects

The subjects were seven first-year English majors at a Japanese junior college who took the same weekly speaking class. This class was taught by one of the authors and was part of a general English program of 5 classes per week. The subjects did not receive pronunciation instruction in any other class during the research period. Their TOEIC scores ranged between 300 and 470 and none had spent more than one week in an English-speaking country.

Procedure

It was decided to use a reading-aloud text for eliciting data, since such tasks are the most common assessment of pronunciation (Thomson & Derwing, 2015). A 210-word text was adapted from the “Clear Speech” Teacher’s Resource Manual (Gilbert, 2012) to elicit samples of controlled speech (see appendix). Recording of all speech samples was conducted during class time. The subjects were instructed to find a quiet place on campus and record themselves on their smartphones reading the entire dialogue aloud. They then sent the recording to one of the authors via the LINE™ SNS.

A pre-test was conducted in October 2017. Instruction started immediately afterwards and was carried out over 15 weeks, once a week, amounting to approximately seven hours. An immediate post-test (post-1) was conducted in January 2018 and a surprise delayed post-test (post-2) was conducted four months later in May 2018.

Content of Instruction

All pronunciation instruction was conducted in Japanese by one of the authors, who used and adapted materials from the textbook “Clear Speech” (Gilbert, 2012), The aspects of English pronunciation taught to the subjects were:

· The emphasis of content words and de-emphasis of function words in sentences.

· Intonation and pitch patterns.

· The correct number of syllables in words and avoidance of epenthesis (the insertion of unnecessary vowels into consonant clusters in words). Epenthesis is a feature of Japanese learners' speech (Swan & Smith 1987, Koike 2013) and leads to 'katakana English' pronunciations such as the word 'sports' being pronounced with three syllables: 'su-pō-tsu'.

· The /θ/ and /ð/ sounds, /b/ and /v/, and /r/ and /l/ sounds. As these sounds do not exist in the Japanese language, they are often problematic for Japanese English speakers (Swan & Smith 1987, Saito 2011).

The instructor used some non-traditional methods to teach these features. Learners held thick elastic bands to learn about word stress kinesthetically. They placed their hands in the rubber band and stretched it apart when pronouncing the stressed section of the word. Kazoos were used to teach the 'musicality' of English intonation. One learner played a kazoo to mimic the tone and rhythm of a certain English sentence and a partner had to listen for the correct number of syllables and identify the correct sentence from a list. Also, learners were sometimes directed to clap hands or tap the desk at the same time as pronouncing syllables. Traditional drilling of problematic sounds, stress patterns and minimal pairs was also employed. The instruction comprised not only of production but also listening practice, in which the subjects had to identify word stress, the number of syllables in words and intonation patterns. Some of this listening practice was done as weekly homework. Since the subjects were unaware of many pronunciation features, the instruction involved an element of consciousness-raising, as well as phonological explanations, output practice and feedback.

Data Analysis

Each reading of the dialogue took approximately 90 seconds and the authors used the "Audacity(R)" software to edit these recordings into shorter excerpts. A total of six short sections of the dialogue were selected for rating purposes, which are underlined in the appendix. Each section was one or two lines long, taking between 5 to 10 seconds to listen to. For each subject, three excerpts were selected for analysis. Choice of excerpt was random, but if the recorded speech contained a long hesitation, misreading or cough, it was changed for another. The recordings were edited into 21 sound files. Each file contained the recording of the same excerpt from the pre- and post-tests. Seventeen files contained recordings from the pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test. Four files did not contain the delayed post-test recording due to missing or corrupted data. The order of the recordings was randomized and known only by the authors. The raters heard each excerpt introduced only as 'Recording A', 'Recording B' or 'Recording C'.

A total of eight volunteer raters were asked to rate the speech samples for comprehensibility. Six were native speakers of English and two were advanced level non-native speakers from Brazil and Bulgaria. All were part-time English teachers at the institution and some had taught the subjects before. All names were kept confidential. The raters ages ranged from 35 to 63 and they had lived in Japan for between 10 and 25 years.

The raters were explained that comprehensibility is different from accent and intelligibility and relates to how much effort is required to understand a spoken message. They were instructed to listen to the files in a quiet location and to give their full attention every time. They were asked to intuitively judge the relative comprehensibility of the recordings in each file. No rubrics were used because we were aiming for a holistic, subjective appraisal. It was explained that one or two recording(s) of an excerpt may be more or less comprehensible than the others, or that there may be no discernible difference in comprehensibility between them.

Over a period of about one month, the raters were sent sound files via the LINE™ SNS and the authors collected their responses through the same SNS. Not all raters responded to all of the requests to listen to and rate the files, but a minimum of three, a maximum of eight and a mean average of five rated each file. The authors identified any patterns in the comments, simplified them into short phrases, then summarized these into tendencies concerning the superiority or inferiority of particular recordings.

Ratings of the nativelikeness of rhythm and the /θ/ and /ð/ sounds were conducted by one of the authors, a 46-year old male who has lived in Japan for 24 years. When rating rhythm, he listened for the degree to which there was a detectable difference between stressed and unstressed syllables, and whether stress was correctly placed on content words. In English, stressed syllables have higher pitch and are longer and louder than unstressed syllables (Derwing & Munro, 2015). When rating the 'th' sounds, he listened for whether 'th' sounds were pronounced clearly as /θ/ and /ð/ (dental fricatives), or as either the alveolar fricatives /s/ and /z/ or post-alveolar fricatives / ʃ/ and / ʒ/ that Japanese learners often substitute them for (Swan & Smith 1987).

Results

The excerpts selected from the seven subjects recordings are presented in Table 1, as well as the total number of ratings or each file. An asterisk indicates that the post-2 data was missing.

Table 1 – *Dialogue Excerpts that were Rated*

Subject		Excerpt Number	Number of Ratings
A	File 1	2	8
	File 2	3	5
	File 3	6	5
B	File 1	1	8
	File 2	3	5
	File 3	6	5
C	File 1	6	6
	File 2	5	7
	File 3	4	5
D	File 1	2	5
	File 2	3	4
	File 3*	2	4
E	File 1	4	5
	File 2	3	5
	File 3	6	5
F	File 1	5	5
	File 2*	4	6
	File 3*	3	4
G	File 1*	5	7
	File 2	4	4
	File 3	2	3

The summarized ratings of comprehensibility for each file are presented in Table 2. Numbers in brackets indicate the number of raters who gave that rating. In many cases, no clear trend emerged and such cases are marked as 'inconclusive' in the table.

The ratings for comprehensibility for Subject B were consistent and clearly showed the superiority of the immediate post-test over the pre-test. Ratings were inconclusive for post-2 in files 1 and 3, but three of five raters found post-2 to be superior in file 2. Some raters noticed improvement in either of the post-tests in Subject E's files, but the evidence was sometimes contradictory, so no firm conclusion can be drawn. For all other subjects, the results were inconclusive: the post-tests were not consistently rated as more comprehensible.

The ratings of the nativelikeness of rhythm (see Table 3) were inconclusive for Subject B, so there was no correspondence with the comprehensibility ratings. Subjects D, E and F had inconclusive results for comprehensibility, but there was some evidence for improvement in the nativelikeness of rhythm.

In response to research question 3, the author could not notice any difference in the quality of the /θ/ and /ð/ sounds in 19 of the 21 sound files. The two sound files in which a difference in quality was noticed were from Subjects D (the delayed post-test was superior) and G (the pre-test was superior).

Discussion

The improvement in the comprehensibility of Subject B's pronunciation is the main positive finding from this study, however there is insufficient evidence to suggest that the improvement was completely maintained up to the delayed post-test. In addition, since speech was elicited only in a reading-aloud text, it is unknown whether there was also improvement in spontaneous speech. Despite receiving 15 weeks of pronunciation instruction, the evidence does not lead us to conclude that the speech of the other six subjects became more comprehensible.

Some evidence was found for a change to a more native-like rhythm in Subjects D, E and F's samples but there was no corresponding improvement in comprehensibility. In some cases the raters found slower speech less comprehensible, but the author rated it as having more native-like rhythm. Two explanations come to mind. Firstly, the author and the raters may have conceptualized comprehensibility differently, which would indicate a problem with the research design. Alternatively, learners may need to slow down to allow themselves time to pronounce words in the way they have been taught and this may cause them to appear less comprehensible. Instruction of the /θ/ and /ð/ sounds seemed to have had almost no effect on the learners' pronunciation.

Table 2 – *Summarized Comprehensibility Ratings*

Subject	File 1	File 2	File 3	Verdict
A	post-1 superior (4) pre-superior (2) no difference (2) post-2 inferior (3) pre- inferior (1)	pre- superior (3) post-2 superior (2)	post-1 and post-2 superior (5)	Inconclusive
B	post-1 superior (6) post-1 and post-2 superior (2) pre- inferior (5)	post-2 superior, then post-1, then pre- (2) post-1 superior, then post-2, then pre- (1), post-1 superior (1) post-2 superior (1)	post-1 superior (4) post-2 superior (1) post-2 inferior (2)	Strong evidence of improvement on post-1, weaker evidence for improvement on post-2
C	pre- superior (3) post-1 superior (2) post-1 and pst-2 superior (1)	post-1 superior (4) no difference (2) post-2 superior (1) post-2 inferior (2)	post-1 superior (2) no difference (1) pre-superior (1) post-2 superior (1)	Inconclusive
D	post-2 superior (5) post-1 inferior (3)	post-2 superior (4)	pre- superior (3) no difference (1)	Inconclusive
E	post-2 superior (2) post-1 superior (1) pre- superior (1) pre- and post-2 superior (1)	post-2 superior (3) post-1 and post-2 superior (2)	post-1 superior (5), post-2 inferior (4)	Some evidence for improvement on the post-tests, but not enough to be conclusive.
F	pre- superior (5), no difference (1)	pre- superior (5) post- superior (1)	post-1 superior (4)	Inconclusive
G	pre- superior (3), post-1 superior (2) no difference (2)	pre- superior (4)	post-2 superior (2) pre- and post-2 superior (1)	Inconclusive

Limitations

There are many possible explanations for the overwhelmingly negative results of this study. Firstly, it must be admitted that there were weaknesses with the research design. The lack of consistency in the ratings of comprehensibility may have been due to the fact that we asked the raters to judge the relative comprehensibility of two or three samples, rather than have them rate each sample individually. The method adopted in this study may be less suitable for identifying small differences. In addition, it is possible that the raters' concentration levels fluctuated between listenings. The sound quality of the recordings, which were not made in laboratory conditions, may also have fluctuated. The suitability of our procedure for rating comprehensibility needs to be judged by comparing it with results from a more conventional rating method.

However, since it was possible to obtain consistent comprehensibility ratings for at least one subject, there are grounds for believing that our procdedure produced valid results and for considering other explanations for the lack of improvement from instruction. For example, the instructor may have failed to properly implement the pedagogy advocated in the 'Clear Speech' materials. Alternatively, this pedagogy or indeed any explict pronunciation instruction may be ineffective, at least in the present context. In addition, the instruction may have included too many features of pronunciation, overloading the students. Also, one semester of instruction may be too short to produce noticeable results. Change in the quality of pronunciation could even be U-shaped: it may get worse before it gets better.

Longitudinal studies may be needed in order to better understand changes in learner pronunciation.

***Table 3** – Subjective Rating of* Rhythm

	Comment	Verdict
A	FILE 1: No difference. FILE 2: No difference. FILE 3: No difference, except faster speech rate in the post-tests.	Inconclusive
B	FILE 1: No difference. FILE 2: Post-1 superior, post-2 inferior FILE 3: Post-1 and Post-2 superior	Inconclusive
C	FILE 1: Pre superior due to higher range of intonation. FILE 2: No difference. FILE 3: Post-1 has better rhythm (although slower).	Inconclusive
D	FILE 1: Post-2 superior, pre-inferior FILE 2: Post-2 superior, pre-inferior FILE 3: No difference.	Some evidence for improvement on the post-tests, particularly post-2.
E	FILE 1: No difference. FILE 2: Post-1 and post-2 superior. FILE 3: Post-2 superior (although slower).	Some evidence of improvement in the post-tests.
F	FILE 1: No difference. FILE 2: Post-1 superior FILE 3: Post-1 superior	Some evidence for improvement in post-1.
G	FILE 1: No difference. FILE 2: No difference. FILE 3: No difference.	Inconclusive

Conclusion

The authors began this research project with the aim of discovering whether explicit pronunciation instruction could be effective in their context. The results obtained were disappointing so we remain to be convinced that class time spent on pronunciation instruction is worthwhile. While there were weaknesses with our research design, we decided to present our findings because it is important to avoid the file drawer problem of researchers refraining from publishing studies with negative results. In addition, we wish to have more teachers reflect on the basis of their beliefs concerning pronunciation instruction. EFL teachers need to base their teaching practices as much as possible on empirical data and the authors encourage other teachers to investigate for themselves whether pronunciation is actually something that can be taught effectively in the classroom.

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Appendix

A: Excuse me. Where's the library?

B: It's on the corner of Cupley Road and Mottside Avenue.

A: Sorry, did you say Moatside or Mottside?

B: Mottside. 1<u>Go straight about two blocks that way, and it's on the right. It's next to the Cosmopolitan building.</u>

A: Thanks. I need to buy some books for my classes.

B: Do you want to buy books or borrow books?

A: I want to buy some books.

B: 2<u>Oh, then you need the bookstore. You can't buy books at the library. You can only borrow them from there.</u>

A: 3<u>Oh, sorry. I guess I made a mistake with the words. They're different in my language.</u>

B: I know how it is. I get mixed up with Spanish words that sound like English words, but have different meanings.

A: Are you studying Spanish?

B: Yes, it's going to be my major. What are you studying?

A: 4<u>I'm studying English now, because I want to work for an airline as one of the ground staff.</u>

B: 5<u>Really? My sister had an interview with Hawaiian Airlines last week</u>.

A: Did she pass?

B: No, the opposite. Unfortunately, she failed.

A: That's too bad!

B: 6<u>That's okay. Now she's planning to work at a hotel.</u>

A: Well, I wish her a lot of luck. And good luck to you, too. It was very nice talking to you.

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7 Effectiveness of Poster Presentations for CLIL Courses

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This paper discusses the effectiveness of poster presentations as a teaching methodology in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) courses. In the course being described, students are tasked to do research, design and make poster presentations on a topic from each of the themes covered. The authors propose that these presentations provide an opportunity to meet Coyle's four Cs criteria: content, communication, cognition, and culture, and share their own experience of how they have successfully integrated poster presentations as a core activity in classroom learning. Links between CLIL and higher motivational levels are also explored. Finally, the results of an extensive student questionnaire are presented. The questionnaire was designed to elicit the learner's perspective on their experiences researching, preparing and presenting the posters. The results showed a general satisfaction among the students with the process as a means to communicate new information to one's audience. Nevertheless, some of the student responses reveal they miss some opportunities to go beyond content and to improve more on their L2 learning and communication through the processes of research, practice, and presentation.

この論文は、CLIL(内容言語統合型学習)の教授法におけるポスター発表の有用性を論じたものである。このポスター発表の活動の中には、Coyle の四つの基準(科目やトピック、言語スキル、様々な思考力、異文化理解)の要素を取り入れることができる。そして教室で CLIL の核心的な活動としてのこのポスター発表を他者と協働することを通し、その経験を仲間と共有できる機会がもたらされると論じている。この CLIL とモチベーションの関係性に関しては、今現在調査中であるが、生徒への広範なアンケート調査結果から、このポスター発表の有用性に関する新たな見方、考えも提言している。

The term "Content and Language Integrated Learning" was coined in the 1990s to name an educational approach to the teaching of foreign/second languages in which students are taught part of their content curriculum in that language. Such an approach has, of course, long been the case in colonial and postcolonial education whereby much education is conducted in the language of the former colonizers (Smith & Ssali, 2019). However, the current global movement originates in Europe, encouraged by the 1995 European Commission White Paper on Education and Training which stated that it was "necessary to make proficiency in at least two foreign languages at school a priority" (European Commission, 1995, p. 13). Given that this needed to be attempted without increased time resources, in order to maximize exposure to the foreign languages some content classes (for example, mathematics or geography) would be taught in those languages (Marsh, 2002). That is, students engage with foreign language texts and other resources in the process of genuine content learning as well as foreign language acquisition.

Subsequent theorization of CLIL has led to Coyle's popular model of the four Cs: Content, Communication (unrehearsed, scaffolded production), Cognition (thinking skills) and Culture (awareness and tolerance of difference) as key elements in good CLIL education (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010). While the definition of CLIL is contested in terms of its relationship to other concepts such as Content Based Instruction, English Medium Instruction, and immersion education, and in terms of the balance between the priorities of content and language acquisition ("hard" vs "soft" CLIL), the trend is to treat it as an umbrella term that can be identified with all of these practices (Pérez Cañado, 2016). CLIL has spread quickly from Europe, and is now used increasingly in Asia, including in Japan (Pinner, 2013).

CLIL: Success and Motivation

Although the modern CLIL movement in Europe emerged as a solution to curricular time constraints, subsequent research suggests that as a language teaching methodology, CLIL may have several advantages over language-only teaching approaches. In particular, active and passive vocabulary, writing and grammatical complexity, oral production, and strategic competence (expressing more with limited linguistic resources) all appear to be enhanced with CLIL, and evidence also suggests that CLIL helps the language acquisition of those students who either have less aptitude or interest in foreign language compared to traditional non-CLIL teaching (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). However, as Dalton-Puffer and Pérez Cañado both note, with several studies comparing CLIL and non-CLIL groups at the same institution, there may be self-selection advantages for the CLIL groups, something which later studies have tried to address.

There is also an increasing body of evidence that the CLIL approach raises the motivation of students to study a foreign language. It is theorized that this effect comes from the way that CLIL classes "provide foreign language learning with meaning and real life," capitalizing on how student interest in content may often be greater than in straightforward language learning (Fernández Fontecha, 2014). Indeed, a recent study that disaggregated motivational effects suggested that "lack of interest" had the biggest impact on the lower attainment of non-CLIL students (Pablo & Jiménez, 2018). Notably, given the current study, Lasagabaster's (2011) factor analysis found that "interest and instrumental" motivational factors in CLIL students (valuing English as a life skill whether generally or specifically for work) had a significant relationship with successful learning outcomes, whereas factors based on enjoyment of learning English or effort did not.

However, while there is a growing literature on the differences between CLIL and non-CLIL outcomes, including motivation, there appears to be very little that considers differences between students within CLIL courses. As noted above, there is evidence that CLIL may give a relative advantage to students not normally oriented towards language learning. However, most research comparing students within CLIL courses looks at content outcomes, rather than motivation or language outcomes. This imbalance is understandable given that primary and secondary education systems need assurance that content goals have not been compromised by the move to CLIL. The current study provides an opportunity to examine motivation levels across a range of language abilities..

Posters in CLIL

A key issue in CLIL is the use of authentic materials and activities (Meyer, 2010). Poster presentations constitute such an activity, as they are widely used in everyday professional and academic contexts to communicate information that is new to audiences (Ilic & Rowe, 2013). Their usefulness as a tool in the EFL classroom has also long been recognized: done in small groups they allow repetition of fluency tasks, they encourage the negotiation of meanings with audiences, and they reduce anxiety compared to whole class presentations (Prichard & Ferreira, 2014).

They are also particularly appropriate in CLIL. In the course described here, poster presentations give students an opportunity to research, design, and present on a topic within a specified theme. For example, if the topic is “leaders,” students must choose a political leader from an English-speaking country and describe their career. As such, this activity provides an opportunity to meet Coyle’s four Cs criteria: content, communication (where the images selected for the poster provide scaffolding for extended oral production), cognition (where students must select key information about the topic and choose images to represent them as well as analyze how to express these ideas), and culture.

Background to the Course

The course in which poster presentations are being examined here originated as a three-year coordinated compulsory CLIL course in the culture and history of English-speaking countries at a mid-level Japanese university. Two of the authors were tasked in 2014 with the development of a course that would meet the newly reoriented department’s two goals of teaching the cultures of English-speaking countries (Eigo-ken) and increasing a focus on English language instruction. They had, in other words, to design a course with two aims: improving language (the ability to study and research cultural issues in English) and improving cultural knowledge (Smith & Ssali, 2019) as the course can also be seen as part of a university’s response to the Japanese Education Ministry’s desire for increased English-language medium instruction as part of broader efforts to internationalize the education system and globalize the Japanese labor force (Brown, 2014).

The focus was initially on the first-year intake to the new department. The course designers faced two challenges which they wanted the new course to be able to tackle: “first, first year students typically arrive with a striking lack of knowledge of English-speaking countries, including geography and history; and second, students’ English ability level is usually much below that needed for university level content instruction” (Smith & Ssali, 2019: 85). They proceeded, therefore, to select such content as would enable students to study ostensibly highly accessible topics namely “food”, “sports”, “music,” and “movies” for the spring semester, and “tourist sights”, “famous people”, “holidays & festivals,” and “drinks” for the fall semester.

Each topic was designed to cover two lessons, one with an example from the United States of America and another with an example from the United Kingdom or any other Commonwealth country. These would, in the long run, provide opportunities for learning more complex academic material. The lesson about American food (What do Americans eat?), for instance, addresses the all-important issue of historical migrations to the US: what Americans eat today reflects who migrated to the US, when they came, where they came from, and what foods they brought to the new world. The lesson about British food (Sunday Roast), on the other hand, introduces the multi-purpose historical monument of the Tower of London. Lesson one on “Sports” (Baseball), would address issues such as the rise of US power in the Pacific, while lesson two (Cricket) would introduce learners to the width and breadth of the former British Empire. In “Famous People 1” (Martin Luther King Jr.), learners would be introduced in simple fashion to the Civil Rights Movement, while lesson 2 (The Dalai Lama) would not only enable them to learn about Buddhism in English but also to have a peep into the more complex China-Tibet problem. Learning about the Christian holidays of Easter and Christmas in “Holidays and Festivals”, on the other hand, introduces learners at an early stage to the complex issues of what Christians believe, in general, and Christian ethics in particular.

Subsequent second and third-year courses have also been selected with the same guiding philosophy. Learning about Winston Churchill under “Leaders” (a second-year spring topic), for example, provides an opportunity to learn about the Second World War from a British perspective. Other topics, like “Religion,” however, are about straight-forwardly complex issues that have been intentionally selected for review and for a deeper analysis having been introduced in the first-year course. At all the three levels, and with every topic covered, four elements can be traced in language preparation:

(1) Direct vocabulary study. Each two-lesson topic is preceded by a bilingual vocabulary list of 80-100 words. The items are chosen to fit both the general topic and the specific lessons, and students are assessed with simple Japanese-to-English and English-to-Japanese tests.

(2) Intensive reading. Each lesson has (at least one, and sometimes two) basic historical and cultural content readings recycling as much vocabulary from the list as possible.

(3) Extensive reading. Students take home teacher-written (usually fictional) stories, recycling as much vocabulary as possible, related to topic, and tested for fact-retention with short multiple-choice-question tests.

(4) Research and presentation skills in English. 2-3-minute poster presentations in small groups of 3-4 students are considered the high point of each topic, and indeed of the course in general. Students must do research and make the presentation on an example from any English-speaking country, and they should speak with no notes and answer other students' questions afterwards. At least one of the lessons in the textbook is always given in presentation form, and we hoped, in the original design, that the content example, as well as the language focus provided, would give adequate scaffolding for students to research and plan their presentations and thus fulfill the departmental aim and CLIL goal of improving students' ability to communicate on cultural topics (Blower, Rozsnyoi, and Smith, 2017).

Our Experience Using Posters

A general observation from teaching this course has always been that students' knowledge of the geography, history and cultures of the world, let alone of the English-speaking countries, is low. The course, therefore, culminating in poster presentations and introducing concrete here-and-now items, has so far been worth all the effort. The items (pictures in a poster), introduced both through the sample lessons and the students' own presentations, invite learners to go deeper into their background and explore the vital questions of who did what, where, when, and to what effect. As Blower, Rozsnyoi and Smith observed, citing Meyer (2013), "presentation tasks provide opportunity for students to begin to engage higher order thinking skills as they engage in 'pushed output'" (Blower, Rozsnyoi and Smith, 2017: 304). Moreover, images can be described by students of any level at their own level. The show-and-tell effect, it has been observed, goes a long way to bridge the gaps in language abilities and confidence that inevitably exist among students. In addition, the image selection students undertake during poster preparations is an economical demonstration of research.

It must be observed, however, that students originally lack research know-how. We have learned over the few years of running the course that constant teacher guidance is the key to producing ever better results. One of the part-time teachers at two of the authors' university has recently created systematic guides to student research for all three years. We hope these guidelines will help improve the students' search for proper information as well as their choice of appropriate images. Showing "good" and "bad" poster examples to students helps them to choose pictures better. Two pages in the first-year textbook are devoted to this, and it has helped remedy the tendency students had in the early days of the course to choose the appropriate number of images which, although they depicted the topic in various ways, did not help tell a story. Finally, we have also observed, as any teacher using presentations in an EFL classroom will know, that there is a persistent problem of script reading. This stilts the group presentation sessions and denies learners the all-important practice in presentation skills and fluency. We have also learned on a positive note, however, that pre-presentation classroom practice and training in less reading and more speaking slowly produces results. Poster presentations are graded, after all, and students are specifically reminded that they lose points by reading from a script more than they communicate to their audience with proper eye contact and all.

All in all, we have learned from this course, and with our own students, that following some basic rules such as choosing a good title that will interest the audience, planning the format of the poster so that information flows in a logical way, and using the poster to answer specific questions and tell a story, can make poster presentations an effective tool in language education. It has become clear to us that poster presentations are an effective tool in promoting:

- Active learning in groups in the classroom
- Development of content knowledge
- Improvement in presentation skills including outside the course
- Positive feedback in regular students' questionnaires.

The Student Perspective

Up to this point, this paper has discussed the background and rationale for using CLIL and poster presentations, and shared teacher perspectives on the process. To examine this effectiveness from another angle, this final section of this paper presents and discusses the results of a questionnaire to show better what is happening in poster presentations from the student perspective.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to elicit student opinions and data in four areas: preparation for the presentation, practice, experience of the presentation itself, and things the student might do better next time (this also aimed to raise student awareness and metacognition). The questions are shown in Appendix A.

The questionnaire was set up and responses collected using Google forms. Immediately after the poster presentations, students filled in the survey using their smartphones. In order to ensure that students understood all the questions, we translated the questionnaire into Japanese and had it checked by a Japanese research colleague. The questionnaire was carried out with two groups at different universities, Group A (n=220; second- and third-year students, each divided into five groups by English ability (TOEIC), surveyed once) and Group B (n=81; surveyed after five separate presentations to investigate change over the course of the semester). Proficiency though, was not considered a big factor in our expectations of students' perspectives, just as it is not a factor in the CLIL textbook and other materials used for the course across the groups. The guiding principle in conducting the course, as well as this particular survey, is/was not to prioritize language learning over content learning, which may weaken the motivational strength of CLIL courses (Lasagabaster, 2011). Most, but not all responses to the questions used in the survey, were measured on a rating scale of 1 to 5 to gauge the increasing intensity of the students' feelings about their experiences. Some questions, however, requires simple Yes/No responses, while a few of them were simply open.

Results and Discussion

Below, we have selected and commented on some of the more informative or interesting results from the student questionnaires for both Groups A and B.

Group A Results and Discussion

Preparing the Poster

Most students chose a topic that they were not familiar with before (figure 1). 67% chose a topic that they hadn't heard of before or didn't know much about. This is a good indicator that the CLIL course is helping them to learn new content as well as language. Research time for the poster was generally about 1 hour (figure 2). Students were encouraged to look at multiple sources of information to prepare. Figure 3 shows that this was fairly effective and that only 7% used a single source and 21% used as many as six sources. CLIL is always a balancing act between the focus on language and focus on content. As language teachers, we would obviously like our students to use English-language source materials, but 36% used only Japanese sources and an additional 45% used mainly Japanese sources (figure 4). We had expected some of the students to work together but only 3% prepared their poster with another student (figure 5). Most students spent from 30 minutes to one hour in creating their poster (figure 6).

Practice

Students usually practiced their presentation for around 10-30 minutes (figure 7). We encouraged students to practice in front of others, but only about 10% actually did so (figure 8). Equally disappointing was that only 20% of students took the time to video themselves (figure 9). Modern smart phones make video very accessible for everyone and we would like to find ways to have students utilize them more and thus increase self-awareness.

Presentation

Figure 10 shows students' levels of confidence during the presentation. It is encouraging to see that more than 70% report a score of 3 or above on a scale of 1 to 5. Students also believe that other students were able to understand them quite well (figure 11). And again, in figure 12, we see the positive result that students generally thought that other students were interested in their presentations. The listeners also showed this interest by asking questions in most cases (figure 13).

In our experience, one of the best ways to improve presentations is for the presenter to make good eye contact with the audience and this is something that we always encourage. About 75% report not primarily reading from a script (figure 14). Judging from our own observations in the classroom this seems high. Interestingly, however, if we ask students directly whether they used good eye contact, the results look quite different (compare figure 15 to figure 14), with only 38.2% reporting primarily maintaining good eye contact. It may therefore be that instructions to keep eye contact rather than not to read from a script may be more effective in encouraging students to adopt a successful presentation manner. From the students' perspective, eye contact is not the same as not reading from a script.

Figure 16 shows the positive result that students believe that the poster presentations are helping their English skills. Another positive finding is that students state that their motivation towards English increased as a result of the poster presentations. Interestingly, when the results were broken down by year and ability group, motivation levels correlated with English ability level in the second year, but not in the third year, who had had one more year of this course. This gives some support to the finding by Dalton-Puffer (2011) that CLIL classes help the motivation of those with less aptitude or interest in studying English.

Next Time

Finally, figure 18 shows how students believe that they will be better able to make English presentations in the future. 41.9% (91students), chose a confidence level of 3 on a scale of 5, followed by 31% (69 students) who chose 4. Only 7.8% and 10.6% chose 1 and 2 respectively. Cultural attitudes may be partly responsible for this show of low self-expectations, as one may not expect many Japanese students to stand out and say, "I am sure I will do better next time". Nevertheless, a good number of students indicated they had benefitted from the poster presentation exercise as well as the feedback given both by their instructors and their colleagues, hence the relatively high level of confidence they will use the poster to tell better stories in the future.

Group B Results and Discussion

In this section, we discuss the smaller group of students (n=81) who did five poster presentations over a semester and responded to the questionnaire after each. It allows us to see any effects over time. Some of the more notable results are discussed below.

Table 1. Time spent preparing each presentation

	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
Time spent researching (q. 2)	1:46:10	1:33:59	1:36:09	1:23:10	1:22:30
Time to create poster (q. 6)	0:54:56	1:09:29	2:01:07	0:41:53	0:35:27
Time spent practicing (q. 10)	0:31:28	0:24:24	0:24:12	0:27:10	0:18:16

Table 1 and the graph below show the same data which illustrates a trend to spend less time on practice and preparation as the semester proceeds. This could be seen as an improvement in skills and consequently less time being required, but it could conversely be seen as a decrease in effort and motivation as the activity becomes less novel.

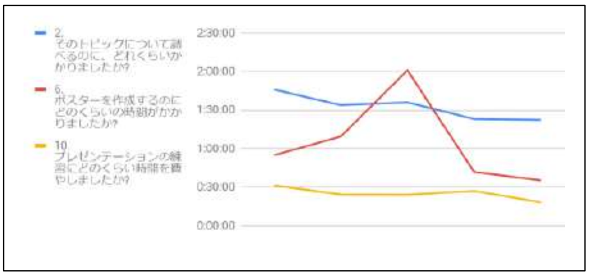

Table 2 below shows some other rather surprising results. There was little variation in student confidence and it did not seem to develop as they did more presentations. Other things that we were encouraging such as eye contact, asking questions, being interesting, and being easy to understand also showed little variation.

Table 2. Other Responses

	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
14. I was confident during my presentation.	3.55	3.66	3.19	3.68	3.39
15. I didn't just read a script. I presented directly to the audience.	3.25	3.48	3.02	3.52	3.30
16. I maintained good eye contact while doing my presentation.	3.03	3.43	3.05	3.36	3.17
17. The listeners understood my presentation.	3.41	3.36	3.00	3.58	3.52
18. The listeners were interested in my presentation.	3.18	3.21	2.81	3.32	3.43
19. The audience asked me questions.	2.78	1.93	1.67	2.68	2.57
21. I would like to learn more about my topic.	3.43	3.36	3.37	3.44	3.30

Conclusion

Poster presentations are a useful tool in CLIL as they allow authentic sharing of content, as well as interaction with other students and the teacher. Students decide their own topics, and as the results of the questionnaire show, through research and presentation they get to learn new things about the theme in focus, as well as widening their knowledge of stuff they already knew. As visual aids, these posters seem to light up classroom presentation sessions as they act as powerful communication tools even for the less proficient students. From a teacher perspective, we saw continual improvement over the semester through multiple presentations, but this was not necessarily reflected in the student questionnaires. It is quite possible that students are improving significantly but not realizing this themselves. For teachers considering poster presentations, we suggest helping students to raise self-awareness through this kind of questionnaire supported by the use of videos and peer practice groups.

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Appendix A – Student Questionnaire

どちらの科目を受けていますか？
どのクラスですか？
性別
1. トピックをどのように決めましたか?
2. そのトピックについて調べるのに、どれくらいかかりましたか?
3. あなたのプレゼンテーションのために用いた参考文献、資料は?
4. 何種類の資料、参考文献を使用しましたか?
5. 他の学生と一緒に調べましたか?
6. ポスターを作成するのにどのくらいの時間がかかりましたか?
7. ポスターにはいくつの画像が使われていますか?
8. あなたのポスターをより良いものにするために、先生にアドバイスを求めたり、先生が助けてくれましたか?
9. 先生のアドバイスを受けた場合、先生はどのようなアドバイスをしましたか?
10. プレゼンテーションの練習にどのくらい時間を費やしましたか?
11. あなたは人前でプレゼンテーションの練習をしましたか?
12. 前の質問にはいと答えた場合、聞いてもらった人からどのような意見がありましたか?
13. あなたは自分の練習をビデオに撮って、それを見ましたか?
14. 私は、自信を持ってプレゼンテーションを行った
15. 私は、原稿の棒読みではなく、聞いている人に直接話しかけるようにプレゼンテーションを行った
16. 私は、アイコンタクトを上手にしながらプレゼンテーションができた
17. 聞いていた人たちは、私の発表を理解していたと思う
18. 聞いていた人たちは、私の発表に興味を持っていたと思う
19. 私は、プレゼンテーションを聞いていた人たちから質問を受けた
20. 私のプレゼンテーションの内容は、面白いと思った
21. 発表後、私のトピックについてもっと深く知りたいと感じている
22. プレゼンテーションの中に、教科書に出てきた新しい単語を使いましたか？
23. 教科書以外からの新しい単語を使いましたか?
24. このプレゼンテーションの取り組みを通して、英語スキルが向上した
25. このプレゼンテーションの取り組みを通して、リスニング力が向上した
26. このプレゼンテーションの取り組みを通して、語彙力が向上した
27. このプレゼンテーションの取り組みを通して、様々な題材について学んだ
28. このプレゼンテーションの取り組みを通して、英語へのモチベーションが高まった
29. このプレゼンテーションに取り組みながら、クラスメイトとうまく活動できたと思う
30. 次回あなたがプレゼンテーションをする時、より良いプレゼンテーションをするために何をしますか？
31. ポスターをより良くするため、どのように改善しますか?
32. 今後、英語でのプレゼンテーションをどうしたらもっと良りよいものにできるかわかっている?

Appendix B – Figures

https://bit.ly/2UAU4kd

Author biographies

Brian Cullen is a professor at Nagoya Institute of Technology. His research interests include positive psychology, ESP, materials development, CLIL, and music in ESL.

Cameron Smith is an associate professor at Aichi Gakuin University. His research interests include creativity and CLIL.

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8 Adding Pronunciation Instruction to the Classroom

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This article discusses how suprasegmental aspects of English pronunciation can be utilized to incorporate pronunciation activities into the context of the Japanese English classroom. The basis of this notion is a synthesis of two strands of research regarding pronunciation; difficulties adult-aged learners face when attempting to master the phonology of a second language (Nakashima, 2006; Munro & Derwing, 1995; Scovel, 1969; Long, 1990; Patkowski, 1994) and why pronunciation instruction with a focus on suprasegmentals is important for Japanese L1 learners (Nakashima, 2006, Nakamura, 2010, Koike, 2014). The second portion of this article briefly discusses a study that the author conducted that focused on investigating whether the explicit teaching of suprasegmentals could have a measurable impact on the speech of Japanese L1 learners. The final part of this article shares some practical pronunciation activities developed for use in Japanese English classes to teach students about suprasegmentals and describes how to implement them.

この記事は英語の発音の超分節的特徴の話題で日本の英語の大学クラスルームにどのようにして発音アクティビティを紹介するかを述べます。この記事の基礎は発音に関しての研究の総合体です。まず、大人の学習者にとって第二言語の音韻を取得するのは難しいこと(Nakashima, 2006; Munro & Derwing, 1995; Scovel, 1969; Long, 1990; Patkowski, 1994)、次に日本人の学習者にとって英語の発音の超分節的特徴に注目するということです(Nakashima, 2006, Nakamura, 2010, Koike, 2014)。更に、この記事は私の英語の超分節的特徴に関しての研究を説明しています。末に、英語の超分節的特徴において注目する発音アクチビティを紹介します。

When considering how to incorporate pronunciation instruction into the Japanese university classroom, it can be a challenge for instructors to decide what aspects of pronunciation to focus on (Derwing & Munro, 2005). A further issue is that many language instructors lack training in pronunciation instruction (Koike, 2014) or lack the confidence to teach pronunciation, which can be especially true for non-native English speaking instructors. This article attempts to remedy this quandary by defining the most impactful aspects of pronunciation instruction for Japanese L1 learners with a solid grounding in SLA research.

When teaching learners from syllable-timed or mora-timed languages, such as Japanese learners, special consideration should be taken as to what aspects contribute the most to their perceived accentedness. This consideration is largely due to the difference between English and Japanese syllable structure and rhythm. Therefore, if the aim of pronunciation instruction is to enable learners to be more easily understood i.e. comprehensible, then it is imperative that they are made aware of the difference between the rhythm patterns of English and Japanese.

This statement is by no means advocating for the abandonment of the teaching of English phonemes as part of a pronunciation syllabus, however, it is the author's belief that instructors must reconsider how they approach the topic of teaching pronunciation to their Japanese L1 students and a focus on the suprasegmental elements of English speech patterns should be adopted.

A Focus on Suprasegmentals

Suprasegmentals refer to aspects of pronunciation which include intonation, word stress, and word linking. In terms of Japanese and English pronunciation, there is a large contrast between the two languages regarding their rhythms and rates of speech. As a result, Japanese learners tend to transfer their native speech patterns when they speak English. Regarding Japanese English pronunciation, several researchers are in agreement that the suprasegmental aspects of English pronunciation pose quite a hinderance to Japanese learners. Nakashima (2006) states that "differences in English and Japanese syllable structure systems impose many difficulties for Japanese learners" (p.35). Furthermore, Koike (2014) points out that "Japanese learners are likely to transfer suprasegmental features from Japanese" (p. 362). One of the most salient features of this phenomenon is that when Japanese learners speak English, they not only fail to stress words that are normally stressed in native-speech, but they also fail to contrast between the stressed and unstressed words in an utterance (Nakamura, 2010, p. 5). In addition, there is evidence that the suprasegmental aspects of English contribute more to the intelligibility and comprehensibility of non-native speech. (Derwing and Munro, 2005; Kang, Rubin & Pickering, 2010)

Setting Pronunciation Goals for Japanese Learners

Munro and Derwing (1995) define three dimensions for evaluating foreign-accented speech: intelligibility, comprehensibility and accentedness (see Table 1). When considering what aspects of pronunciation to focus on, it is essential to consider the target audience, i.e. who will be listening to the speakers. According to research regarding the intelligibility of non-native speech to non-native listeners, it has been found that speakers from the same L1 as the listener are easier to understand than speakers from different L1s (Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta, & Balasubramanian, 2002; Smith & Bisazza, 1982). While Japanese students may or may not go on to use English with native speakers, considering the status of English a tool for international communication in Japan, it is almost certain that they will be using English with speakers from different L1 backgrounds. Therefore, the question which must be addressed is how can instructors assist Japanese students to improve their pronunciation with the goal in mind of being more intelligible to listeners from different L1 backgrounds. In order to address this question, Instructing students in several suprasegmental features of English as a means of increasing their intelligibility was the goal of the study that will be elaborated on in this article.

Term	Definition
Intelligibility	*The extent to which a listener actually understands an utterance*
Comprehensibility	*A listener's perception of how difficult it is to understand an utterance*
Accentedness	*A listener's perception of how different a speaker's accent is from that of the L1 community*

Table 1 Munroe and Derwing's Three Dimensions of Non-native Speech (1995)

Difficulties in Mastering Phonology

A common misconception of what contributes to difficulties in understanding non-native speech is that it is due to a lack of competence in the phonology of the target language or a speaker's inability to replicate the sounds of the target language. While phonology certainly contributes to accented-speech, it is the suprasegmental elements of the English language which have more of an impact on the intelligibility of a learners' speech (Derwing and Monroe, 2005). In addition, Kang, Ruben and Pickering (2010) state that "listeners can tolerate a great deal of inaccuracy in pronouncing consonants and vowels, so long as pitch and pausing are used appropriately" (p. 555). Several researchers support the claim that it is nearly impossible for adult-learners to master a target language's phonology (Long, 1990; Nakashima 2006; Patkowski, 1994). Furthermore, Scovel (1969) hypothesizes that there is a critical period for acquiring the "sound patterns of a language" (p. 245) that coincides with brain lateralization, which occurs around the age of twelve. Derwing and Munro (2005) state that "Though it is often assumed that greater accentedness automatically entails reduced intelligibility and comprehensibility, the situation is not so straightforward" (pp. 385-386). The researchers proceed to point out that there often is not a correlation between speech that is identified as "heavily accented" by native speech raters and the comprehensibility rating of the speech (p. 386).

Testing the Hypothesis: Details of a Small Study

To investigate if instruction in suprasegmentals could have an impact on the pronunciation of Japanese learners' English, in 2016, the present author conducted a small study at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University in Oita. The study consisted of pre/post-test recordings of participants' speech and two twenty-minute instructional sessions conducted approxametly two weeks apart. In order to test if instruction would have any impact on the participants' pronunciation, the participants were recorded before the first instructional session to acquire a sample of their natural pronunciation. The recording consisted of words, phrases, and speaking prompts. The first of the two instructional sessions focused on word stress, and the second focused on several common word linking rules. The study took place over a period of two weeks, and at the end of the second instructional session, students were recorded using the same words, phrases, and speaking prompts from the pre-test recording. After analysis of the pre/post-test recordings, the present author was able to observe evidence that all participants were able to successfully integrate aspects of word stress and word linking in some of the recorded phrases (see Figure 1). Most noticeably, the participants post-test speech samples had a greater contrast in intonation and loudness between stressed and unstressed words. It is important to note that little impact was observed in the unscripted speech saplees, however it is promising that students were able to incorporate elements of English stress and rhythm only after being exposed to a very short ammount of instruction. A further interesting discovery that the current author discovered was that when participants were asked if they had ever received any kind of explicit pronunciation instruction regarding suprasegmentals, they indicated that they had not and stated that they were unfamiliar with the concept of stress in English (Diaz, 2017). While five participants are a relatively small sample size, their answer to this question casts light on the notion that Japanese English learners are largely unaware of the differing syllable structures between English and Japanese and could benefit from being made aware of the differences. (Readers may refer to [Diaz, 2017] for more soundwaves from the study and pre/post-test sample recordings can be accessed at https://soundcloud.com/user-781340649)

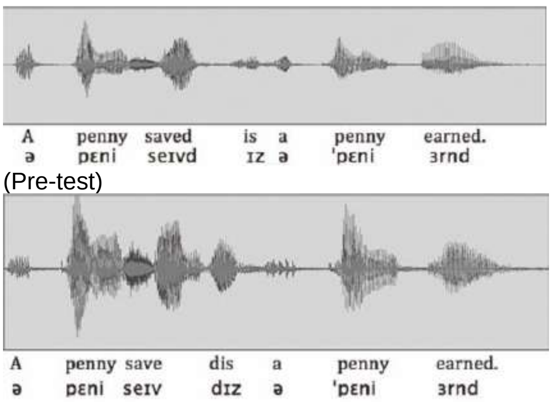

Fig. 1 Participant 1 Male: Pre/Post-test Sound Waves

Pronunciation Activities

The following section will outline some pronunciation activities that the author has trialed in the classroom that focus on introducing students to English suprasegmentals. The primary goals of the activities are to raise students' awareness of the differences between the rhythm of English and Japanese speech patterns and to enable students to internalize form through repetition. I designed the activities taking varying degrees of inspiration from the book Teaching Pronunciation: A Reference for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Language (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1997)

Methodology

There are several important aspects that these activities share in terms of methodology that the current author would like to stress to the reader (see Table 2). The first aspect is that these activities are ideal for use at the start of a lesson as warm-ups. This is because most of the activities are gamelike and can assist students get comfortable using English at the beginning of class and break the ice with classmates. The second aspect is these activities also feature an aspects of kinesthetic learning by having students tap or clap along to the words that they stress. The third aspect is these activities focus on the three ways that words are stressed in English and how they emphasize the contrast between stressed words and unstressed words. For example, instructors can utilize these activities by requesting students to say stressed words longer, louder, or by using a higher pitch. Activities can be repeated with a focus on one of the three methods of stressing words. A further benefit of this aspect is that by having students focus on each way to stress words, they can discover the way that is the easiest for them to incorporate elements of stress into their speech. The fourth aspect is repetition which is important for these activities and allows students to internalize the form. The final aspect is the use of a metronome, or other time keeping device. If instructors have the use of a computer, YouTube can be used as a source of metronome videos at various bpms.

Method	Rationale
Warm-up activities	activities are gamelike, and lend themselves to use at the start of class
Kinesthetic learning	having students tap their desks or clap their hands along with stressed words helps them to connect the concept of stress with a physical action
Stressed words with longer, louder, or higher pitch	raises students' awareness of the different ways that word-stress is used in English
Repetition	enables students to internalize form
Use of metronome	keeps students in time and increases the noticing of mistaken stress

Table 2 Methodology for Pronunciation Activities

Introduction to English Rhythm and Stress

This activity is based on a simple activity from Teaching Pronunciation: A Reference for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Language (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1997, p. 155). The activity can serve as a way to introduce the concept of the difference between Japanese rhythm and English rhythm to students. The worksheet (Appendix A) starts with a basic explanation of rhythm and then demonstrates why using correct rhythm and stress is important. The last part of the worksheet demonstrates how an English sentence's duration is not influenced by how many syllables are in an utterance but how many stressed words it contains. The instructor starts by demonstrating this concept by modeling the "Mice eat cheese." sentences, saying each one consecutively while clapping their hands. After the instructor finishes the modeling, students are instructed to get into pairs and practice saying the sequence of sentences until they can say all of them consecutively without making a mistake. To add an element of competition to this activity, partners can be prompted to call out their classmates when they hear them make a word-stress mistake.

Syllable Repetition Activity

In this activity (Appendix B) students are instructed to practice saying a pattern of the same syllables and to put stress on specific syllables at the instructor's direction. This activity can be done with any variety of simple one-syllable sounds such as *ha*, *la*, or *ba*. The methodology behind this activity is that by choosing simple syllables that mimic the stress patterns of simple English phrases, students can focus on stressing and contrasting between each syllable rather than on the words of the phrases. In Appendix B, the syllables that should be stressed are written in bold capital letters. At first, students should be instructed to practice the examples. Then, students may mark random syllables to challenge their classmates.

English Proverbs

There are two benefits of using English proverbs to teach stress and rhythm. The first reason is that they are usually short and easy for students to remember. The second reason is they can be used to teach students about culture and to show how there are similar expressions in common between Japanese and English. Appendix C presents a selection of English proverbs with their Japanese approximations.

Jazz Chant Rhythm Game

This activity incorporates rhythm and stress with a jazz chant style activity (Appendix D). Students are given paired worksheets which they use to ask and answer the same question form each round of the game. This activity can also be adapted for use with any question form as a grammar review for students. The game-like nature of this activity is very engaging for students, and the repetition of form is a good way for students to practice English rhythm and stress. It is also possible to add an element of competition by challenging students to keep track of their partner's mistakes by telling them that the student with the fewest mistakes at the end of the activity will be declared the winner.

Conclusion

Due to the difficulty adult students face to adequately master English phonology, suprasegmentals should be a main focus of pronunciation instruction in the Japanese university classroom. This is because the literature supports that suprasegmentals have a larger impact on the intelligibility and comprehensibility of an utterance. Furthermore, students tend to be largely unaware of how to improve their pronunciation because of the difference between English and Japanese syllable structure. The activity ideas and worksheets included with this article can serve as a good starting point for any instructor who has the desire to help their students improve their pronunciation or to raise their awareness of the difference between Japanese and English syllable structure.

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Author biography

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Appendix A

Introduction to English Rhythm and Stress

What is rhythm?

Rhythm is important in English because it helps us understand what is said. We speak English with a *different rhythm* than Japanese. When we speak in English, it is important to try to use the correct rhythm, so we can be understood.

Imagine if the following sentence were read by a robot:

I eat sushi every Sunday at 4:00 p.m.

Now listen to your teacher read it normally. Can you see why stress is important?

Example of Rhythm and Stress

Listen to the teacher say each of the sentences and notice the rhythm.

MICE		**EAT**	**CHEESE.**
The **MICE**		**EAT**	**CHEESE.**
The **MICE**		**EAT**	the **CHEESE.**
The **MICE**	will	**EAT**	the **CHEESE.**
The **MICE**	will have	**EAT**en	the **CHEESE.**
The **MICE**	might have been	**EAT**ing	the **CHEESE.**

- ✓ Now in pairs read the sentences again and tap your desks or clap your hands to the rhythm.
- ✓ Notice that the stress is the same in every sentence, and each sentence takes the same amount of time to say.

Mice eat cheese portion adopted from (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1997, p. 155)

Appendix B

Syllable Repetition Stress Activity

Procedure

1. **Choose some simple phrases or sentences from class textbook.**
2. **Change the phrases to one repeating syllable (e.g. da, la, mi, etcetera)**
3. **Show the original stress pattern by making stressed syllables larger than unstressed ones (DA da DA da = Nice to meet you.)**
4. **Have students practice the stress patterns**
5. **Alternate practice: provide students with a string of the same syllables and ask them to mark their own stress patterns and then challenge their classmates to say them.**

Example	Sentence
da **DA** da da da **DA**	I **can't** go to the **store**.
da da **DA** da da **DA** da	Do you **want** to come **over**?
da **DA** da da **DA**	He **sat** on the **couch**.
da da da **DA** da **DA** da da **DA** da	She doesn't **think** we **need** to go **early**.

Syllable Marking

1. da da da da da da da da da da.

2. ma ma ma ma ma ma ma.

3. ha ha ha ha ha ha.

Appendix C

Selection of English Proverbs for Stress and Rhythm Practice

Procedure

1. **Introduce one proverb each day**
2. **Have students attempt to read them with correct rhythm and stress**
3. **Ask students to briefly discuss what they think the proverb means**
4. **Model the proverbs and have students practice in pairs**
5. **Additional practice: Provide students with Japanese versions if available**

English	Japanese
1. Actions speak louder than words.	挨拶より円札・花より団子
2. Don’t judge a book by its cover.	人は見かけによらぬもの
3. Good things come to those who wait.	果報は寝て待て
4. Kill two birds with one stone.	一石二鳥
5. Out of sight out of mind.	去る者は日々に疎し
6. Slow and steady wins the race.	継続は力なり
7. Strike while the iron is hot.	鉄は熱いうちに打て
8. There is no time like the present.	思い立ったが吉日
9. Time and tide wait for no man.	歳月人を待たず
10. Time is money.	時は金なり
11. A picture is worth a thousand words.	百聞は一見にしかず
12. Where there’s a will, there’s a way.	やればできる・ありの思いも天に届く

Appendix D

English Rhythm Practice (Part A)

Take turns asking and answering your partner's questions in rhythm with the beat using the question stem

"Do you have a…?

and answering each question with

"Yes, I do. I do have a…" or **No, I don't. I don't have a…"**

Animal / Color	Cat 	Dog 	Lizard 	Fish 	Rabbit 
White	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO
Black	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES
Green	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO
Blue	NO	NO	YES	YES	NO

Questions	Answer	Mistake O/X
1. grey dog	Yes/No	
2. red lizard	Yes/No	
3. yellow rabbit	Yes/No	
4. brown cat	Yes/No	
5. grey lizard	Yes/No	
6. brown fish	Yes/No	
7. yellow dog	Yes/No	
8. red fish	Yes/No	

English Rhythm Practice (Part B)

Take turns asking and answering your partner's questions in rhythm with the beat using the question stem

"Do you have a…?

and answering each question with

"Yes I do. I do have a…" or **No I don't. I don't have a…"**

Animal / Color	Cat 	Dog 	Lizard 	Fish 	Rabbit 
Brown	NO	YES	NO	YES	YES
Grey	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO
Red	NO	NO	YES	NO	NO
Yellow	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES

Questions	Answer	Mistake O/X
1. black lizard	Yes/No	
2. white cat	Yes/No	
3. blue fish	Yes/No	
4. green lizard	Yes/No	
5. blue rabbit	Yes/No	
6. white dog	Yes/No	
7. black rabbit	Yes/No	
8. green fish	Yes/No	

9 Cross Institutional Tech Usage: Findings and Trends

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Do university teachers use CALL more than teachers working at the secondary level? Do Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) use CALL more than their non-Japanese counterparts (NJTEs)? How much difference is there in CALL usage between teachers working in public and private institutions? In this exploratory study, the researchers looked into these and other questions regarding CALL use for language learning purposes at the secondary and tertiary levels. Using both Likert scale and short-answer questions, respondents disclosed whether or not and how they used CALL for either classwork or homework. Respondents also disclosed their justifications for not employing CALL in their current teaching context. The presenters will discuss the results of the study and possible implications for language learning with CALL and professional development for teachers who do not use CALL.

大学教員は、中等・高等学校教員と比べて、CALL 使用の頻度が高いのだろうか。あるいは日本人教員は、非日本人教員と比べて、CALL 使用の頻度が高いのだろうか。また、テクノロジーの使用において、公立校と私立校の間にはどの程度の相違があるのだろうか。この調査研究では、中等・高等学校と大学における語学学習を目的とした CALL 使用に関するこのような問いに関する調査を行った。リッカート尺度および記述形式による回答を通して、回答者達が、授業や課題においてどのように CALL を使用しているのか、または使用していないのかが明らかになった。さらに、現在の教授内容において、CALL を使用していないことに対する回答者たちからその理由を引き出すことができた。この研究では、その調査結果おおよび CALL 使用による語学学習への提案に関する議論を行うとともに、CALL を使用していない教員に対しての専門的技術向上につながる提案も行う。

Computer assisted language learning (CALL) has many definitions, one of the most basic of which was provided by Beatty who defined CALL as “any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language” (2003, p. 7). Due to recent improvements in smartphone and tablet technology and advancements in other areas of technology, such as virtual reality, augmented reality, and mixed reality peripheral equipment, CALL is evolving into a catch-all term for almost any language instruction which goes beyond textbooks and whiteboards. In the current research, “CALL” is defined as any use of a smartphone, personal computer, or tablet device.

CALL, its usage, and teacher perceptions of it have been researched in various teaching contexts. Alshumaimeri (2008) conducted a study involving 183 Saudi EFL teachers working at the secondary level which indicated that teachers working in that context had overall positive attitudes towards using some form of CALL in their classrooms. Dashtestani (2012) came to a similar conclusion through a study which included 212 teachers working in the Iranian EFL context. Dashtestani also noted some barriers to classroom tech usage, including cultural attitudes towards computers and a lack of resources. Mustafina (2016) conducted a mixed-methods research project in Kazakhstan, which included interviews and questionnaires, and concluded that teachers working in that context held very positive attitudes towards integrating CALL in their classrooms. Albirini (2006), in a study involving 326 high school EFL teachers working in Syria, found that teachers had either positive or very positive attitudes towards using CALL in their classrooms. Ismail, Almekhlafi, and Almekhlafi (2010) reached similar conclusions in their study of 621 teachers of Arabic and English in the UAE. Their research indicated that teachers who participated in that study "view technology as an essential requirement for their classes" (p. 50). However, a review of currently available literature did not find any contemporary research conducted in the Japanese teaching context. That is, the researchers were unable to find any research which had solicited either Japanese or foreign-born teachers' opinions on CALL usage or whether or not they employ CALL whatsoever. The current research seeks to fill that gap in the literature.

A study by Ben Humphreys (2017) compared the effectiveness of Quizlet, a flashcard website and smartphone application, with that of handwritten flashcards in terms of students' short term vocabulary gains. His experiment demonstrated that the group studying using Quizlet gained significantly more vocabulary than the group using traditional flashcards.

Humphreys also pointed out that the "novelty" effect observed in the investigation by Lu (as cited in Humphreys, 2017) of English learners in Taiwan must be taken into account. That is, the students who used smartphone applications to learn vocabulary seemed to enjoy the learning as they appeared quite interested and engaged with the functionality and style of the application itself, smiling and shouting comments such as "fun!" "I did it!"

Advancement of and high accessibility to technology has encouraged CALL use in foreign language education in the United States, as well. Omoto, Fukai, and Schneider (2005) conducted a survey study involving practicing Japanese teachers in the United States. They point out that foreign language teachers are particularly attracted by the Internet's potential as a resource for authentic materials and as a communication tool (157). Existing research has already established the benefits of using the Internet for foreign language learning. However, they conclude that foreign language teachers appear hesitant to utilize the Internet because of technical difficulties and lack of support and training. According to Cotton (as cited in Omoto, 2005), teachers themselves need to feel comfortable with computers before they can integrate computer technology into teaching. Omoto continues by stating that comfort comes from familiarity, and such familiarity will increase when teachers have enough opportunities to use computers and explore ways of utilizing them. As for the effectiveness of using CALL in learning, Omoto supposes teachers will see how CALL can enhance their instruction, and they will gain skills and knowledge transferable to their own practice by learning from classroom-situated examples of CALL use.

In Japan, MEXT announced *The Vision for ICT in Education-Toward the Creation of a Learning System and Schools Suitable for the 21st Century* in 2011 and thinks much of the utilization of CALL for education. MEXT believes that teachers can "give easy-to-understand explanations and raise children's interest in learning" (p.6) by the usage of CALL and asserts that "[I]t is urgently necessary to enhance teachers' ability to utilize ICT in teaching" (p.32). However, in FY 2009, only 19.2% of teachers received training on CALL utilization in teaching (p.32). As for the accredited teacher training course at universities in Japan, a subject on "Educational Methods and Techniques" (including the utilization of information equipment and materials) is compulsory, pursuant to the Act for Enforcement of the Education Personnel Certification Act. However, concrete class content is up to each university and subjects are limited only to how to utilize information equipment and software (p.33). Therefore, MEXT emphasizes teacher training courses at all universities should strengthen the students' ability to utilize CALL, which has actually come into force as of April 2019. Furthermore, MEXT mentions the necessity of containing enhanced lectures on the utilization of CALL in "training for teachers with 10-year experience" as well as in "lectures upon renewal of education personnel certification" (p.33).

In particular, Saga prefecture has taken the lead in utilizing CALL in all of its public schools (2018, p.20). The Saga Board of Education has been promoting the use of CALL in response to MEXT's *The Vision for ICT in Education*, providing public school students with tablet PCs. To be precise, the ratio of tablet PCs per student in Saga is higher than any other prefecture in Japan. That is, Saga prefecture has an access rate of 1.8 students per computer while 5.6 students per computer is the national average (Yoshioka, p.20). Also, electronic blackboards are set in all the classrooms and a high rate of wireless LAN maintenance has been realized. A survey by MEXT conducted in a public junior high school in Saga prefecture proves the attempt to increase CALL in education has been successful. The survey results indicate that 87% of the students at the junior high school answered “English became easier and more understandable” by using CALL (2013, p.21).

Considering the fact that, among prefectures, there is a remarkable difference in CALL availability between schools and teachers’ ability to utilize CALL, the Saga model can be held as an example for other prefectures in Japan. Rectifying such disparities between prefectures and between schools within a given prefecture are priorities for the Japanese government, as MEXT thinks it is important to “redress regional disparities” (p.32), in part through increased CALL usage as in Saga.

Some of the hesitation towards using CALL which was alluded to by Omoto extends towards concerns over how the language learners themselves will adjust, or not, to an increased rate of CALL usage. *The Vision*, while advocating increased knowledge for teachers, also cautions that children must be given “information morals” lessons so that they can become responsible users of technology both inside and outside of the classroom while being protected against content available on the Internet which is not suitable for children (p. 7). MEXT believes that such moral lessons, which are already commonplace in Japanese school curriculum, will help learners “how to behave properly in [an] information society” (ibid). Concerns over childrens’ Internet use in schools also extends to traditional problems already found in society - notably, bullying. MEXT reports that “more and more children come to use the Internet through highly functional mobile phones, causing new problems concerning defamation and bullying on the Internet, as well as crimes and illegal and/or harmful information on the Internet” (p. 10). Other problems, such as the spread of false information, such as during the Great East Japan Earthquake in 2011, as well as cheating via transmission of test questions by mobile phone, have also been identified by MEXT. However, it is important to note that such problems are not strictly limited to Japan. Cyberbullying and the spread of false information are found in many countries worldwide.

The main research questions addressed here are: 1) Do university language teachers use CALL more than teachers working at the secondary level? 2) Do Japanese teachers of English use CALL more than non-Japanese teachers? 3) Do teachers working in public schools use CALL more than private school teachers?

Methods

A 15-question Google Forms survey consisting of Likert scale items, yes-no questions, and short answer responses was sent out to teachers at the secondary and tertiary levels. Questions were written with the intent of collecting information on participants’ teaching context, career length, age, and CALL usage habits for the purpose of finding a relationship between CALL usage and any other variables. In addition, when participants indicated that they did not use CALL, short answer spaces were made available to them so that they could fully articulate their reasons for not using CALL. These short answers helped give the researchers an insight into the participants’ approach in the classroom. Questions about nationality, age, or teaching career (which could be used to extrapolate age) were asked at the end of the questionnaire so that participants would not feel self-conscious about volunteering such information. Even though the information gathered in this survey was used only for research purposes, asking questions about age can potentially be distasteful to some people. The researchers decided the best way of ascertaining whether survey participants were Japanese or non-Japanese would be to ask if the participant is a native Japanese speaker. Participants who responded “yes” were counted as Japanese for the purpose of this survey while participants who responded “no” were counted as non-Japanese.

Questions were first written in English and translated into Japanese by a native Japanese speaker. Due to time constraints, the researchers were not able to complete a backwards translation of the survey. Some survey terms, such as “homework” and “class activities”, were intentionally left vague so as to give survey respondents the flexibility to answer the questions how they best saw fit. In other words, if the researchers were to ask a question such as “Do your students currently use a tablet or PC to write essays at home?” with the intention of asking about homework assignments, a teacher who does not assign essays as homework could potentially answer "no" even if said teacher assigns other homework, such as watching a YouTube video for listening practice. Thus, in this survey, what constitutes "homework" and "class activities" is left up to each individual teacher who responds to the survey, although through the researchers' own classroom experience, "homework" is any graded or ungraded assignment which is expected to be completed outside of class meeting times, while "class activities" are any exercises or guided activities undertaken during class meeting times.

The recipients of the survey were selected from the researchers' professional networks. Individual teachers and administrators at institutions in which the researchers had previously been employed were contacted and the survey was sent via email link. Other recipients of the survey included teachers and researchers whom the researchers had met in professional settings, such as conferences and professional development events. Recipients of the survey were instructed to forward the survey to others in their department and other teachers who might be able to participate.

Survey responses were collected between July 11th and August 30th, 2018.

Results

A total of 72 responses to the survey were collected. Table 1 shows the participant breakdown in further detail. Amongst all participants, 43 were teachers working at either 2- or 4-year institutions, while teachers working in secondary schools accounted for 29 participants. Coincidentally, there were an equal number of Japanese and non-Japanese participants - 36 each.

Tables 2 and 3 answer the main research questions undertaken here. Survey results indicate that non-Japanese teachers, university teachers, and teachers working in private schools use CALL, as defined by the survey, at higher rates for classwork and homework compared to Japanese teachers, teachers working in secondary schools, and teachers working in public schools, respectively. Some of the results showed double or more the amount of CALL users and non-users between the compared groups. For example, only five Japanese teachers who responded to the survey said that they have students use smartphones for classwork, while 18 NJTEs – more than triple the amount of JTEs – gave the same answer. However, these numbers only represent CALL users – that is, survey participants who responded "yes" to the question of whether or not they use CALL in any capacity - and non-users as individual users or percentages and the significance of these numbers cannot be represented with simple percentages.

A *t* test conducted on the amount of CALL users produced the results in table 4. Using a standard value of $p<0.05$ to determine statistical significance between groups, the results indicate that there was a significant difference in the rate of CALL usage between Japanese/non-Japanese

Table 1

Summary of Participant Teaching Context

	Junior High School	Senior High School	Junior/Senior High School*	2-Year University	4-Year University**	Public School (all levels)	Private School (all levels)
All participants (n=72)	14	8	7	1	42	44	28
Japanese (n=36)	7	5	5	1	18	20	16
Non-Japanese (n=36)	7	3	2		24	24	12

**Junior high school, senior high school, and junior/senior high school will hereafter be grouped together as "Secondary"*
***2-year and 4-year university teachers will hereafter be grouped together as "University"*

Table 2
CALL Usage for Classwork

	N	Smartphones – Yes	%	Smartphones – No	%	PC/Tablet – Yes	%	PC/Tablet – No	%
Japanese	36	5	13.8	31	86.1	4	11.1	32	88.8
Non-Japanese	36	18	50	18	50	25	69.4	11	30.5
University	43	23	53.4	20	46.5	21	48.8	22	51.1
Secondary	29			29	100	8	27.5	21	72.4
Public	44	11	25	33	75	15	34.0	29	65.9
Private	28	12	42.8	16	57.1	16	57.1	14	50

Table 3
CALL Usage for Homework

	N	Smartphones – Yes	%	Smartphones – No	%	PC/Tablet – Yes	%	PC/Tablet - No	%
Japanese	36	8	22.2	28	77.7	12	33.3	24	66.6
Non-Japanese	36	15	41.6	21	58.3	22	61.1	14	38.8
University	43	21	48.8	22	51.1	28	65.1	15	34.8
Secondary	29	2	6.8	27	91.3	6	20.6	23	79.3
Public	44	10	22.7	34	77.2	19	43.1	25	56.8
Private	28	13	46.4	15	53.5	15	53.5	13	46.2

Table 4
t Test of CALL Users in Research Question

	Smartphones – Classwork	PC/Tablet – Classwork	Smartphones – Homework	PC/Tablet – Homework	P value
Japanese	5	4	8	12	
Non-Japanese	18	25	15	22	0.0041
University	23	21	21	28	
Secondary		8	2	6	0.0002
Public	11	15	10	19	
Private	12	16	13	15	0.9152

teachers and between teachers working at universities compared to teachers working at the secondary level. The *t* test gave a *p* value of 0.9125 when comparing the number of users at public to private institutions, meaning there was no significant difference between those two groups in terms of CALL usage. Although there were some differences in the amount of public and private school teachers who answered "no" when asked if they use CALL, the amount of "yes" answers were similar in each category.

Given the large discrepancy of CALL usage between Japanese and non-Japanese teachers, the researchers further analyzed the results of the initial survey. Tables 5 and 6 give *t* test results of Japanese and non-Japanese participants in five categories – overall, university, secondary, public, and private. Participants assessed the

Table 5
*Perceived Usefulness of CALL for Classwork**

	N	Mean	SD	P value
Japanese (all)	36	2.94	1.60	
Non-Japanese (all)	36	4.03	1.21	0.0018
University (Japanese)	19	2.84	1.64	
University (Non-Japanese)	24	4.04	1.27	0.0099
Secondary (Japanese)	17	3.47	1.46	
Secondary (Non-Japanese)	12	3.50	1.57	0.9591
Public (Japanese)	20	3.85	1.04	
Public (Non-Japanese)	24	3.46	1.50	0.3305
Private (Japanese)	16	2.56	1.86	
Private (Non-Japanese)	12	4.25	1.14	0.0102

*5-point Likert scale: 1 – No change/I don't know, 2 – Harmful, 3 – Not Helpful, 4 – Helpful, 5 – Very Helpful

usefulness of CALL for classwork and homework using a 5 point Likert scale.

Using a standard value of $p<0.05$, the *t* test indicated that there were some significant differences in opinion about CALL usage in some cases, but not in others. Notably, there was no significant difference in attitudes towards CALL usage for classwork between Japanese and non-Japanese teachers at the secondary level and for teachers at public schools, while for homework, there was no significant difference between Japanese and non-Japanese teachers at the university level and at public schools. In the 10 *t* tests that were conducted in Tables 5 and 6, there was a significant difference in only six of those comparisons.

What conclusions can be drawn from this data? The data seems to suggest that while the level of institution plays some role in CALL usage, as in the case of university or secondary schools, it does not make a difference in other cases, as in public or private schools. Meanwhile, even though there is a significant difference between Japanese and non-Japanese teachers in terms of CALL *usage* for either classwork or homework, a close examination of *perceived usefulness* for either classwork or homework does not show a dominant trend favoring either group. That is to say, it is not always the case that non-Japanese teachers in each category have more favorable views at a statistically significant level compared to Japanese teachers in the same group. In the following section, the researchers will discuss possible explanations for the difference in CALL usage in spite of comparable levels of perceived CALL usefulness between the groups described in this study.

Discussion

We received some responses from teachers who are skeptical about the usage of CALL in language learning. To the question "How helpful do you think it is to use a smartphone, tablet, or PC for class activities for language acquisition?", there were teachers who answered "No change", or "I don't know". Some of those teachers believe that there are many issues with using student held devices in the classroom such as distraction (receiving social media messages during class and using other functions of the smartphones unrelated to the class content), and a lack of face to face interaction with others in the class. One teacher points out that even though students' learning motivation can be raised temporarily by using CALL, other conventional methods or devices can do the same for a short time. They continue that students' learning ability is ultimately developed and depends on their own will to learn and teaching methods don't matter. Other teachers think there are more disadvantages than

Table 6
Perceived Usefulness of CALL for Homework

	N	Mean	SD	P value
Japanese (all)	36	3.19	1.56	
Non-Japanese (all)	36	3.94	1.43	0.0375
University (Japanese)	19	3.37	1.50	
University (Non-Japanese)	24	3.83	1.55	0.3227
Secondary (Japanese)	17	3.00	1.66	
Secondary (Non-Japanese)	12	4.25	1.14	0.0323
Public (Japanese)	20	3.40	1.47	
Public (Non-Japanese)	24	3.83	1.55	0.3459
Private (Japanese)	16	2.94	1.69	
Private (Non-Japanese)	12	4.25	1.14	0.0286

advantages in using CALL in the classroom. Technical problems accessing a web site or WiFi issues in the classroom are among the concerns raised by teachers.

As for the question "How helpful do you think it is to use a smartphone, tablet, or PC for homework for language acquisition?", skeptical teachers who answered "No change", "I don't know" or "Harmful"suggested that CALL usage would be better for larger, more cultural assignments or research and would most likely lead to over-reliance when used for normal daily homework. Other teachers are afraid that some students would use technologies for other purposes besides homework if they are equipped with devices for communication such as LINE or social media networks. They also point out students tend to indulge in other activities triggered by their personal interests, laying aside their homework to watch videos or play games.

The misgivings and concerns over CALL usage, mentioned by Omoto and MEXT, may in part be a function of how technology in schools was introduced by the Japanese government itself in the past. Funamori (2017) explains that technology introduction at schools has been accompanied at all times by a "light and dark side" explanation of what is possible with technology (p. 46). Toyofuku (2015, as cited by Funamori) identified some of the precautions about technology which were instilled in children through the education system, such as the idea that technology can be addictive and lead to poor health in children. While not incorrect, Funamori goes on to identify how such beliefs about the "dark side" of technology lead to decreased technology usage - not just CALL - in all aspects of scholastic life: "forbidding students to bring mobile phones to school" and "[preventing] the use of e-mail for communication between the school and parents and [restricting] communication between students and parents via electronic devices" (p. 47). These beliefs and practices, introduced through the Japanese school system at an impressionable age, may be one explanation of the large CALL usage gap identified through the current research. However, other possible explanations, found in other teaching contexts and also specifically within Japan, can be found in other literature on this topic.

Barriers to CALL usage

Maftoon and Shahini (2012) carried out research on a group of 70 Iranian teachers of English with the goal of identifying factors which discouraged CALL usage within that group. The factors identified by the researchers were a lack of facilities, administrative support, and time, as well as "perceived ease of use", low mastery, others' attitude, and perceived usefulness (p. 23).

The responses by skeptical teachers in our research align with the findings of Maftoon and Shahini. Depending on the teaching context, some or all of these factors are already in play before the teacher begins to make his or her curriculum. For example, many public secondary schools lack the facilities and resources that many private institutions can provide for students. In addition, many secondary-level teachers are burdened with extracurricular activities which decrease the amount of time they may spend on CALL training and education.

Secondary schools often strictly control student smartphone use, either outright banning all smartphones on campus or only allowing them to be brought to school but not used for any purpose, even in the classroom. While universities have more resources, like CALL classrooms, campus-wide wifi, and laxer rules about smartphone or PC usage in class. However, such factors still do not explain the usage gap between NJTEs and JTEs. Our current hypothesis is that professional development opportunities pursued by the communities sampled in this survey can provide the clearest reason for why NJTEs and JTEs use CALL at a higher rate.

JALT and JACET participation

JALT and JACET, two of the largest professional development organizations for language teachers living and working in Japan, both have special interest groups (SIGs) dedicated to CALL. JALT specifically has two groups - the CALL SIG and the MAVR (mixed, augmented, and virtual reality) SIG. The CALL SIG has 256 members, of whom 44 identify as Japanese and 212 identify as non-Japanese. The MAVR SIG, meanwhile, has 25 members, all of whom identify as non-Japanese (Kobayashi, 2019). JACET has a single CALL group, called “CALL_Hokkaido”, which has 5 members who all identify as Japanese, according to a JACET officer (Ueno, 2019). Furthermore, JACET is typically seen as the professional development group with a larger proportion of its members made up of Japanese people, while JALT is the opposite - its membership is made up of more non-Japanese teachers.

While some barriers to CALL usage, like facilities or others’ attitudes, cannot be remedied by more professional development on the part of the individual teacher, other barriers (perceived ease of use or usefulness) *could* potentially be remedied by more involvement in professional development groups like JALT or JACET. Other professional development groups for teachers in Japan do exist, but very few if any are focused solely on CALL or have any CALL-centered groups. The combination of skeptical teacher responses gathered from this survey and the stark difference in membership numbers between Japanese people and non-Japanese people in CALL groups give the impression that CALL professional development groups are places where people who are already convinced of CALL’s effectiveness and/or ease of use gather and discuss instead of being places where non-CALL users go to be converted into CALL users. At that point, the much larger question is “How does a non-user become a user of CALL?” to which we currently have no satisfactory answer.

Limitations

One of the limitations of this study is that the sample size is not truly random. Because the participants are people that the researchers know, work with, or worked with in the past, the results will be biased and not truly representative of the teaching population as a whole. For example, one of the researchers was previously an ALT at a junior high school, and observed firsthand that most teachers did not use CALL. Asking the teachers at that school to participate in the survey would produce results that would yield more non-users because of the researcher’s knowledge that CALL is not used at that school. Future research on this topic should adopt a wider approach to get a truly random sampling of teachers. In addition, because this survey was created and distributed via Google Forms, it could ironically be the case that people who are uncomfortable using technology were unable or unwilling to participate in this survey and further research in this area might be better served by distributing via traditional means. Finally, this survey did not collect information about respondents’ gender. Previous research by Alshumaimeri (2008) in Saudi Arabia indicated “a greater percentage of female than male teachers held more positive overall attitudes towards technology in the classroom”, but there were no major differences between males and females in terms of “use of computer labs at the school” (p. 41). The researchers of this study chose not to research gender and CALL usage and instead focused on other demographic factors which are more significant in the Japanese teaching context.

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Author biographies

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Appendix A - Survey Questions

1. What is your teaching environment?
どの教育機関で指導されていますか。
2. Do you teach in a public or private school?
公立と私立のどちらで指導されていますか。
3. What grade level do you teach? Check all that apply.
どの学年を指導されていますか。複数回答可。
4. Do you own a smartphone?
スマートフォンを持っていらっしゃいますか。
5. Do your students currently use smartphones to do any class activities?
現在、授業で生徒たちにスマートフォンを使用させていますか。
6. Do your students currently use a tablet or PC to do any class activities?
現在、授業で生徒たちにタブレットやパソコンを使用させていますか。
7. Do your students currently use a smartphone for any homework assignments?
宿題や課題をさせる際、現在生徒たちにスマートフォンを使用させていますか。
8. Do your students currently use a tablet or PC for any homework assignments?
宿題や課題をさせる際、現在生徒たちにタブレットやパソコンを使用させていますか。
9. How helpful do you think it is to use a smartphone, tablet, or PC for class activities for language acquisition?
授業でスマートフォンやタブレット、パソコンを使用することは、言語習得に役立つと思いますか。
10. If you answered "no change", "I don't know", "not helpful", or "harmful" to the previous question, please explain why. (Japanese or English)
前の質問に「変わらない、または、わからない」「役に立たない」「悪影響がある」と答えた方は、 その理由をお答え下さい。（記述は日本語で構いません）
11. How helpful do you think it is to use a smartphone, tablet, or PC for homework for language acquisition?
宿題でスマートフォンやタブレット、パソコンを使用することは、言語習得に役立つと思いますか。
12. If you answered "no change", "I don't know", "not helpful", or "harmful" to the previous question, please explain why. (Japanese or English)
質問に「変わらない、または、わからない」「役に立たない」「悪影響がある」と答えた方は、 その理由をお答え下さい。（記述は日本語で構いません）
13. How long have you been teaching?
ご自身の 指導経験年数をお答え下さい。
14. How old are you?
ご年齢をお答えください。
15. Are you a native Japanese speaker?
日本人（日本語を母国語としている）ですか。

10 Homestay Preparation Workshop Activities for Low/Intermediate Level Students

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Some language learners who travel abroad to countries where their L2 is the native language may have never traveled before, may not be at a high-level in their L2, and/or have never used it in a practical, natural, or colloquial setting. This paper will cover several activities for study abroad or homestay preparation workshops targeted at such learners. One activity has students use their existing L2 ability and non-verbal communication methods, bolstering their ability to fill or maneuver around gaps in their L2 knowledge. Students who have not traveled much are often unaware of the uniqueness and attractions of their own home life and culture. Using a personalized travel journal, they can present and explain about themselves, and enrich their experience abroad. Working on communication skills and their own cultural awareness can help boost confidence and motivation, and create a more rewarding experience for students and host families.

本稿では、英語圏での留学やホームステイの準備としてのワークショップでのアクティビティを紹介 する。まず、生徒が既に持っている英語力と非言語的コミュニケーション能力を使ったコミュニケーション・ゲームである。このゲームを通し、生徒が自身の英語力が不足している点を避け、使える英語ででき る限りを伝えることができ、生徒の自信を高めることが出来る。また、外国旅行の経験などが少ない生徒 は、自身の日常生活や自国の生活・文化の独自さや魅力を理解していないことが多い。そこで自国の文 化的知識を高めることも重要だ。そこで、ジャーナル（日記）を作成させ、ステイ先などで学習者が自身 のことや自国の文化などを英語で説明することを可能とする。それにより、生徒は外国での経験をより楽しめるようになる。これらの活動は、学習者の自信や動機を高める効果があり、その結果、外国での経験がより有意義なものになると考えられる。

Every year, students from Japan are fortunate enough to travel overseas for a homestay and/or study abroad program. Schools and instructors are often allowed a limited amount of time to prepare students for their journey. Much of this time is generally spent on travel preparations, which leaves even less time to prepare for language or cultural awareness studies. Covering points such as plane tickets, insurance, and luggage are of course vital to these programs, but the language and cultural awareness studies are important to creating a more rewarding experience for the students, and those around them who they encounter and interact with on their trip.

Through our experience in preparing groups of junior high school students for trips to Seattle, we have put together a list of activities that will help maximize communication ability, and foster self- and foreign cultural awareness. These activities can easily be altered for length and modified for different age groups and ability levels. First, we will cover the background of our homestay preparation experience, which was organized and co-sponsored by

Eiheiji town in Fukui prefecture. We will then cover our main goals and aims of the project, before going into detail about the activities. Lastly, we will detail issues we encountered, limitations we faced, and future recommendations.

Eiheiji town Seattle homestay program

The activities covered in this paper were designed for the Eiheiji town Seattle Homestay program in 2017 and 2018. This was a program subsidized by Eiheiji town in Fukui prefecture, in order to prepare and send 15 students from three local junior high schools on a study abroad and homestay program for seven days in Seattle, Washington, USA. We volunteered for the program in 2017 to help prepare the students for their trip, and were then asked back in 2018. In 2017, three sessions with students were scheduled, totaling a little under nine hours (about two hours 45 minutes for each session). In 2018, due to positive feedback from the previous group of students and Eiheiji town, we were asked to prepare another group of students. This time, five preparation sessions were scheduled, totaling roughly 14 hours with the students. Initially, we were given very loose instructions from the organizers, so we decided that our goals in preparing the students for their first homestay experience would be: first, to increase their ability and confidence in communication; second, to reduce their overall anxiety and concerns about their impending travel abroad; and third, to increase their own cultural awareness. These three would benefit students during their experience abroad, and could be accomplished in the time we had available. We also wanted the program to culminate in some form of a final presentation. Completing presentations in English would give the students a sense of accomplishment at the end of the sessions, and help build their confidence in using simple English to talk about themselves, days before they leave Japan for their homestay experience.

Preparation goals

Our goals in preparing the students were simple and straightforward: work on their communication ability, reduce their foreign language and travel anxiety, and help them become more aware of their own unique culture.

Communication ability

Time was our biggest limitation when facing the request to prepare these young students for a trip to the USA. We felt that trying to increase their English vocabulary or grammar would not be practical or show much progress in such a short time. Instead, we chose to focus on general communication ability, emphasizing the ability to convey ideas rather than focus on improving English accuracy. We took their existing skills, vocabulary, and grammar, and showed them how to maneuver around the gaps in their abilities. Based on our observations during the sessions, as well as the survey results after their trips, and feedback from the accompanying supervising teachers, we believe this had a secondary effect of lowering overall anxiety, which was our second goal which is discussed below.

Reduce anxiety

Any traveling can be stressful and anxiety inducing for even the most ardent of travelers. The anxiety of the airport and flying, traveling to a new and foreign country, and going to a place where you cannot rely on your L1 as the main mode of communication are major concerns for us. For most, if not all of the students we worked with, the above experiences where firsts for them. In order to reduce their anxiety leading up to the trip and during the trip, we prepared various activities and lectures. Many will overlap with other preparation goals.

Foreign language anxiety is a unique form of anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope 1986). In order to help reduce this, we wanted the students to understand through our activities that communication can still occur with gaps, even major gaps, in language ability. We had them practice conveying English ideas without using the actual target word or topic, using various forms of communication, such as gestures, drawing, or using other English words they do know, to explain a word in English they do not know or cannot remember. (Further details of this activity will be covered in the Activities section).

We wanted to take some of the shock out of culture shock, while still leaving plenty of the USA and Seattle to experience first hand. We conducted brief lectures and provided short handouts on some of the biggest cultural differences they could expect to experience, such as food size portions, tipping culture, and what to say and do while on homestay (common American table manners, the possibility of saying grace, politely rejecting second servings of food if they are full, etc.).

The students knew where Seattle and Washington were in the USA, and they knew where the USA was in the world, but they did not know much more than that about their destination. We provided them with more details about Seattle, providing them with easy to read maps and a list of the main attractions there. These were downloaded and printed from the official Seattle tourism website.

Lastly, throughout the preparation activities, through several brief lectures and the many activities we weaved in topics, questions, and vocabulary they should expect to encounter at their destination. We did not focus on increasing their overall English vocabulary, but did include some vital travel English words in the preparation sessions. The students probably did not realize that many of the people they will be meeting, staying with, and encountering in the USA are going to be very excited and interested in them and their lives back home in Japan. We wanted to prepare the students for some possible questions they may be asked about Japan, themselves, and their lives back home. We also introduced various topics they should be familiar with while traveling overseas and to the USA, such as typical American customs and manners, food allergies, paying and tipping, and other travel topics.

These anxiety reducing steps were carried out through a few very brief lectures, activities or handouts. Many of the handouts or vocabulary we covered were added to a travel notebook/journal the students created during these sessions, which they would take with them on their trip. This notebook also acted as an anxiety reducing measure, as they could use it as a travel guide, with easy access to a paper map if they needed it, or to look up any details we covered in sessions or helped them to write in it specifically, such as how to explain a certain food allergy.

Increasing their own cultural awareness

For many who travel outside their culture, and especially with students this age, they often do not realize that the simple and ordinary things of their culture and daily lives are extraordinary, special, and interesting to many of the people they will meet on their travels. Our goal here was to increase the students' awareness of their own unique culture and background. The reasoning behind this was so that they could answer any questions they may be asked about Japan and their daily lives, and be able to explain about their home culture to their host family, enriching the experience for both themselves and their hosts. The two main methods to accomplish this was through the guided creation of a travel notebook/journal, and a communication expansion activity board game, both of which will be covered in detail later in the paper. In the notebook, we had the students create pages about their own lives, like a type of scrapbook. And in the board game, we had the students talk about various aspects of their daily lives and home culture, as practice for answering any potential questions they may be asked while in the USA.

Activities

We devised a series of activities to meet the preparation goals, focusing on communication, gaining knowledge about their destination, and cultural awareness, as well as basic ice-breaking activities.

Ice-breaking

Ice-breaking took the form of "human bingo" games, where in one activity students had to introduce themselves to everyone else in the room, and in another, ask questions to find people who matched certain criteria in order to complete a bingo board. Criteria were both general (e.g., "has a pet", "likes baseball") and intended to encourage students to talk with new people (e.g., "is from a different school", "is not from Fukui"). Another activity was "20 questions", a simple well-known game that allowed students to focus on communication. One other communication activity done early in the sessions was the "sentence race". This game divided students into teams, each with a set of sentences to find in the venue used to hold the preparation sessions. Sentences were cut in half, and all pieces were hidden around the venue, such as under desks and on chairs. Students were tasked with finding their team's sentence pieces, memorizing the sentences and reporting them back to team members at a white board who wrote them down and put them back into complete sentences. The first team to correctly complete all sentences was declared the winner. Combined, these activities helped students get to know others in the group, and become more comfortable working with them.

Fig. 1 – Board game *Layout of pieces on the floor*

Communication board game

We also created an activity we called the communication board game (inspired by an activity found in the textbook Homestay Adventures (Fuller, 2008)). We created a series of 48 questions and discussion topics, which was enough for 2 full board game setups. Our main focus with this activity was to prime them with questions, answers, and topics they may encounter on their trip overseas. We chose areas that they may find regular, normal, or perhaps even mundane, but are actually of interest to people outside of Japan. For example, “what do you eat for breakfast?”, “describe your room”, “what is your least favorite household chore?”, and “what is your favorite holiday?”.

The 48 topics and questions were printed as game pieces on A3 paper, and then laid out in a course on the floor to create a large-scale board game (see Figure 1). Students formed small groups and moved from one end to the other, answering the questions or talking about the topics so they could move forward, judged by a student assistant from the university we worked for. Groups raced from one end to the other, adding an element of competition. This was done twice on different days with a different set of questions/topics. The pieces were also turned into small cards for a memory game. Cards were placed face down on the desk, and students took it in turns to turn over two cards. If they matched, they needed to successfully respond to the question/topic to be allowed to take the cards. The game proceeded until all cards were taken, with the winner being the player with the most cards. In this way, the pieces/cards could be re-used and adapted to different communicative activities. Because of the age and number of students, and because we had enough space in the venue, we chose to make this a more physical game. The size can be scaled down to a table top version. The questions and topics are easily scalable to higher level students as well.

Word-guessing game

In order to bolster their communication ability, we took a number of popular party games that all require different forms of communication to convey ideas, and adapted them into one single communication activity for these students. Our goal was to have them practice the concept that there are many ways to communicate the same idea to maneuver around gaps in English ability. The first game we borrowed from was charades; a gesture game where a topic, word, or idea is given and the player must convey the idea using only gestures of their body. The next was Pictionary. This is a word guessing game, but this time the player is only allowed to draw pictures, with no words or speaking allowed. The final game we borrowed from is Taboo . In this game, the player is again given a topic, word, or idea, and they must convey this by using any words they can without saying the word they have been given. These three game ideas were combined into one activity. The main reasoning behind this was to show the students that the same word or idea can be conveyed in countless different ways. Not knowing a

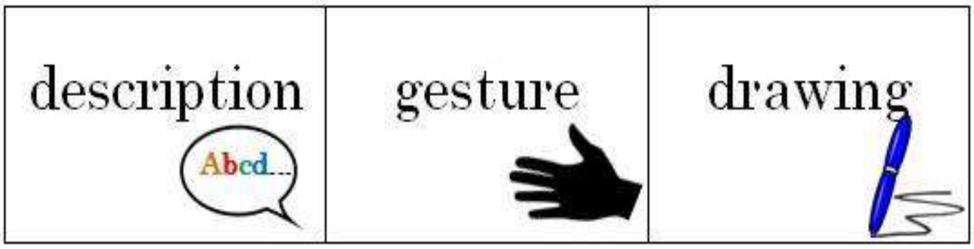

Fig. 2 - Word guessing game *Stack A cards (description, gesture, drawing)*

particular word does not mean that you cannot communicate its meaning.

For this game we had two stacks of playing cards. Stack A was made up of the guessing or game type, which were "drawing" (like Pictionary), "gesture" (charades), and "description" (Taboo) (see Figure 2). Stack B was made up of the vocabulary cards. The goal of this activity was not to teach new vocabulary, but to teach communication skills. So, the words were chosen from the target vocabulary used in the *New Horizon* textbook (Kasajima & Noriaki, 2016), which the students had been using at junior high school. In the game, the player will come up to the white board or chalkboard and choose a card from each stack. The students were familiar with most of the vocabulary, and in case they were not we would give them the translation quietly. They would then attempt to convey the word, and their team would try to guess the answers. To add some competition to this game, we split the students up into teams and gave them a set time. After the time limit was up, we counted up which team was able to guess the most words.

Fig. 3 – Board game *Example pieces*

Student notebooks: a travel guide and journal

Each student was given a notebook to keep and take with them to enhance their travel abroad experience. This served two functions: a travel guide for Seattle and the USA, and as a journal.

For use as a travel guide, students were given maps and basic tourism information about Seattle, Washington state and the USA, and invited to talk about their expectations and where looked interesting to visit. This helped them to visualize and get excited for their visit early on.

Students in 2018 were also given basic advice for travel, based on the problems faced by students in 2017. These included phrases and etiquette for when eating out, paying, and tipping. These are situations that junior high school students in Japan with limited experience abroad would be unfamiliar with, and be potential causes of anxiety and problems while abroad.

By thinking about these topics before traveling, and taking these maps and advice with them in their notebooks, students had a small resource with them to turn to when needed.

As a journal, students used pages to write information about their hometown, daily lives, and local food and tourist spots, using a mixture of images and text. This gave students an opportunity to think about familiar topics and how to best introduce them to someone in the USA, in the process giving them a better awareness of the uniqueness and interesting parts of their own lives and culture. These were intended to aid in communication with their host families in the USA, to help explain their home lives and culture, and spark conversation with whomever they may encounter on their trip. Students were ableto practice of this in the preparation sessions by presenting their pages in groups, and asking each other questions about their information, all in English. During their homestay experience, they could use the remaining pages as a travel journal, to record their experiences, and write any notes or useful words/phrases.

Journal pages were assigned as homework, with topics such as their hometown and weekly schedule. Students were shown simple example pages, but instructed to be creative and use their own style and ideas to complete the pages. The materials used for making pages was up to each individual to decide; pens, pencils, photographs, cuttings from magazines, flyers, packaging, origami paper, scissors, and glue were all used. In the sessions they shared their work in groups, showing a variety of detailed and colorful pages, which they used to help talk about their local culture and daily lives.

Poster presentations

Aside from the notebooks, the second main activity of the preparation sessions was a poster presentation. Students worked in groups to discuss and decide topics, delegate responsibilities, write a script and prepare a poster, to make a presentation during the final session. The purpose of completing poster presentations in English was to build their cultural awareness, by practicing introducing their own culture. The practice of giving a group presentation was also a valuable experience. Topics were focused on aspects of Japan and Japanese culture, as a way to build their own cultural awareness, and give them practice of using English to introduce their own culture. In order to save time, we presented the students with some topic ideas, which included sightseeing, food, and festivals/holidays (which could each apply to Japan, Fukui prefecture, or Eiheiji town), their school life, and their hobbies. Some students did extra research about their topic (Japanese festivals, for example), giving them the opportunity to learn more about their own culture in the process.

First, we asked groups to choose a topic, and then gave them time to brainstorm all their ideas about the topic they chose and write down whatever they thought of. After they had a lot of ideas written down, we then helped them narrow down and focus even further. For example, “Fukui prefecture” would be narrowed down to “Places to visit in Fukui”; “Eiheiji town” would be narrowed down to “Eiheiji town foods”. In order to make things easier for the students, time wise and logistically, we found and printed photos/images based on their chosen topics, for them to choose from when making their posters.

The next session was spent on preparation, when groups made the posters, worked on scripts (which we asked students to think about for homework) and practiced. Each group was given a piece of A0 poster paper, a selection of photos/images we had printed, and access to pens, scissors, and glue to help make their posters.

Finally, after the preparation session we held the poster presentations. They were presented in a round robin or carousel style. In other words, if we had 6 groups total, 3 would be presenting and 3 would be listening. They presented 3 times, and each time the audience group saw a different presentation. Each presentation was followed by questions from the audience. This way, the presenters could get more talking time, and the audience was able to be more engaged. Doing these presentations gave students a sense of accomplishment at the end of the workshop, and helped build their confidence in using simple English to talk about themselves days before they left Japan for their homestay experience.

Adaptability

All of the above activities, from the games to the notebooks and poster presentations, can be adapted for use in other teaching contexts. While we used these for junior high school students, vocabulary and questions could easily be adjusted to suit higher or even lower level students. Similarly, while the goal of this project was preparation for travel abroad, the content could be adapted for other purposes. For example, questions based on students’ majors (engineering or medicine, for instance). These activities could also be made more generalized with additional topics (not only focusing on travel abroad) for more general communication courses. Furthermore, while these activities were often lively and loud, there is potential to adapt them to be quieter, though equally as engaging (using board game tiles for a memory card game, for example). Whatever the context you teach in, and level of students, the above activities could be useful, or be the starting point for new activities that you create.

Conclusion

Results and limitations

One of the most surprising results was that after the 2017 group got back, we were informed that the poster presentations were a huge success in Seattle. Unbeknownst to us, the organizers of the trip liked the students' presentations of Japan, Fukui, and Eiheiji so much they had folded up the posters, brought them to Seattle, and had the students present them again there at a local junior high school. This was never the intention of the poster project, but it was a welcomed outcome. The only issue from this was that the organizers liked it so much, the following year they asked if we could do something easier to take with them, like PowerPoint presentations. For our situation, this was not a realistic endeavor due to time and other logistical concerns. We did not have ready access to a PC lab, and we did not know the students' PC or PowerPoint proficiency, and would not have time to teach them. We also felt that the group work, brainstorming, and making of the posters was in itself an integral aspect of the preparation of the students. Neither of us have witnessed that same level of critical thinking and group work with our older university students when they have PowerPoint presentation assignments.

During the 2017 session, we provided handouts and brief lectures on American food and eating in the US. We received feedback from the 2017 session that some of the students encountered the most trouble when eating out in the USA. They had trouble paying at the register or understanding how much their total was when buying food. We addressed this in 2018 with more precise handouts and brief lectures on eating out, paying and tipping, manners and etiquette. With more time, we would like to do more to reinforce the advice and information given, such as with role-play activities.

As a result of the homestay preparation sessions, students could have an idea of where they were going (Seattle), and what to expect in the US and during homestay. We could not prepare them for every possible eventuality, but they had a basic idea of some things to expect and how to cope with any communication issues. Students had practice of introducing themselves, and talking about their home life to spark conversation with homestay families, and had a travel guide and journal, to enhance their homestay experience before, during, and after.

Future recommendations

A final survey was given to the students by the trip organizers. However, because we were the ones preparing the students, we would have preferred to make the survey ourselves, or at least have the opportunity to give input on its creation. The surveys contained very little about their homestay experience. Homestay experiences are one of the most unpredictable, and more detailed information about their homestays would be invaluable for preparing future students for possibilities. Could they use the family's wi-fi? Did they have to do chores like cleaning the dishes after dinner? Was there a bedtime or family TV time? We were left in the dark as to these sort of details, and could only prepare the students for what could occur (saying grace at dinner, for example). We also feel that both a before and after survey are vital in order to get a better understanding of the students' expectations of the trip before they leave, and see if those expectations were met or how they differed. A before survey would help us plan future sessions based on the students' needs, as opposed to our perception of their needs. We also wanted to add some form of feedback about the preparation sessions from students. Did they want more or less of certain activities, games, and projects? Did they even feel more prepared for their trip? Finally, our last future recommendation would be to add role-play to the preparation sessions in the form of ordering out at a fast food or coffee shop. Unfortunately, due to the ratio of instructors to students and the time allowed, we did not feel this was possible for these preparation sessions.

Ultimately, these preparation sessions were successful, and a great experience for all involved, and we hope the ideas in this paper will be useful for other teachers in preparing their students for travel abroad.

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11 Target Vocabulary Building and Movies

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Most listening tasks involving movies and other various audio material target lexical material central to the semantic content of movies (see Takase & Parkinson, 2015). Some studies (see Van Patten, 2015) suggest this focus on key lexical material such as nouns, verbs and adjectives is justified because it is most apparent and the earliest second language (L2) material to be absorbed. But what of the lexical material further down the hierarchy of L2 vocabulary acquisition such as pronouns, auxiliary verbs, modals and referring words? This ongoing research seeks to determine the effectiveness of using movies for target vocabulary acquisition and if the noticing of these elements increases students' understanding of movies and videos. Students' awareness of the target vocabulary was measured using before and after tests. Preliminary results indicate students' awareness of the target vocabulary improved along with a better understanding of spoken language in movies.

映画の音声データを含むリスニング課題のほとんどは、映画の意味に関する内容を中心とした語彙を対象としている（高瀬とパーキンソン２０１５を参照）。中には、名詞、動詞、形容詞などの重要な語彙への注目は正しいとする研究（ヴァン パターン２０１５を参照）もある。それは最も明白で、吸収され易い最初の第二言語の語彙だからである。しかし、第二言語習得において、階層がさらに低い代名詞、助動詞、法助動詞、指示語等の語彙はどうだろう？この進行中の研究は、これらの目標語彙習得の為に映画を使うことの有効性と、目標語彙に気づくことで学生の映画とビデオの理解力が増すかどうかを明らかにしようと努めている。学生の目標語彙の意識は授業の前後のテストを使って測られた。暫定的な結果は、映画の中で話される言葉の理解の深まりと共に、目標語彙に対する学生の意識が向上した事を示している。

Many researchers have shown that movies can provide a more effective second language (L2) learning tool than textbooks and various audio recordings (see Bray 2019, Donaghy 2017, Harmer 2012, Lee & Park 2017). The reasons for this include visual context references and paralinguistic behavior such as body language and the facial expressions of actors (see Harmer 2012, 308). Most listening tasks involving movies and audio material focus on lexical material that is primarily related to the semantic content (see Takase & Parkinson, 2015). For example, many information gap activities require students to listen for the characters' names, places, activities and adjectives that link directly to plot devices and a better understanding of the characters and stories. Some studies (see Van Patten, 2015) suggest this focus on key semantic material such as nouns, verbs and adjectives is justified because it is the most apparent and the first L2 material to be noticed and absorbed.

This study seeks to challenge this pedagogical norm by testing the efficacy of focusing on the lexical elements of language further down the hierarchy of language acquisition rather than the more typical semantic content. Furthermore, it seeks to determine whether such a lexical focus can actually improve students' understanding of the spoken language in movies and videos. These parts of language include subject and object pronouns, referring words, tense markers, auxiliary verbs and contractions involving auxiliary verbs as they occur in common speech patterns. While semantic elements as well as the comments and personalities of characters are frequently discussed with students, the gap fill exercises focus on these lexical elements as they occur in everyday spoken language.

As English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers are no doubt aware, understanding L2 material in videos and movies can be a taxing experience for low EFL proficiency students, especially for those without adequate scaffolding. Research indicates that students use their limited L2 resources to understand meaning rather than form (see Skehan 2002, Lightbrown & Spada 2013). This study seeks to determine if indeed students' comprehension of English as spoken in movies, videos and by extension, L2 dialogue in general can be enhanced by trying to get these elements of language at least noticed.

Methods

A study was conducted involving 21 Year 1 Dental Nursing students at the Fukuoka College of Health Sciences in the first semester of 2018. The group were given material focusing on lexical elements of language as mentioned above using selected clips from the movie Beauty and the Beast (Walt Disney Pictures and Mandeville Films, 2017). According to Bray (2019), students generally react favorably to movies in the EFL classroom and the students involved in this study were surveyed to confirm this. They were also asked questions regarding if and how they watched English language movies and videos. In particular, did they watch them with subtitles or dubbing and how much of the English dialogue they could understand.

The pretest results showed that 72% of the students watched English language movies and videos while 68% said they were interested in watching them. Meanwhile, 42% of the students said they watched English language movies and videos with Japanese dubbing while another 37% said that they listened to the English dialogue while reading the Japanese subtitles. Only one student in the group watched English language movies while listening to the English soundtrack and reading English subtitles. Of those students who listened to the English language soundtrack, five students said they could understand a little while one student could not understand any English at all. It should be acknowledged here that this data is obtained through self reporting so only carries anecdotal value.

These results may indicate a positive attitude towards some well known English speaking actors and perhaps some cultural aspects of English speaking countries although the prevalence of Japanese dubbing may indicate a reluctance to deal with the language. There were no specific questions regarding these issues so this is largely speculation and perhaps this could be examined in more detail in further research. However, the students were also asked questions about their English proficiency and their attitudes to English more generally. Only 22% of the students said they liked English while 64% stated that they didn't. No students in the group had achieved Eiken Grade 3 or equivalent.

The students in this group were given the same reading and listening tests at the start and end of the semester. Both tests examined students' knowledge, awareness and use of grammatical elements of language such as pronouns, auxiliary verbs, contractions, referring words and homonyms incorporating auxiliary verbs. The tests involved watching a short scene from early in Beauty and the Beast and included two parts. The first section was a standard gap fill type exercise focusing on the grammatical lexicon as mentioned above.

Table 1: Beauty and the Beast listening task

GASTON:	Look at (1) ***her*** , Le Fou. (2) ***my*** future wife. Belle is the most beautiful girl in the village. (3) ***that*** makes (4) ***her*** the best.
LE FOU:	But (5) ***she's*** so ….. well read and (6) ***you're*** so ….athletically inclined.
GASTON:	(7) ***I*** know. Belle can be as argumentative as (8) ***she's*** beautiful.
LE FOU:	Exactly! Who needs (9) ***her*** when you've got (10) ***us***?
GASTON:	Yes. Ever since the war I felt like I've been missing something. (11) ***She's*** the only girl that gives me that sense of …
LE FOU:	Je ne sais quoi?
GASTON:	I don't know what (12) ***that*** means.

In the gap fill exercise, the italicized words were of course missing in the students' worksheets. Where requested, sections of the scene are played again until all the gaps were filled. Once completed, the test papers were collected and students were then given copies of the complete scripts for the same scene and a series of questions. In this second part of the test, each question asked the students to identify what each word in italics refers to. During this part of the test, the same scene was viewed again, pausing and repeating as requested by the students to give them opportunities to use the visual context references and paralinguistic behavior to aid understanding of the spoken language. The answers in the second part of the test are of course the semantic vocabulary which is the usual focus of teaching material used with movies. The students scored 73.1% in the listening section and 37.1% in the reading section.

As a comparison, Table 2 shows an example of a typical listening task which is used with movies and audio material from a textbook.

Table 2: Exercise for semantic content

Conversation: *Listen to the conversation. Fill in the blanks.*	
Jenny:	Can I ask a question?
Shota	Of course.
Jenny:	What's (1) ______________
Shota	It's a kind of (2) ______________
Jenny	Really? When do you (3) ______________
Shota	(4) ______________
(1) natto kabuki a happi (2) food traditional theatre jacket (3) eat it watch it wear it (4) Mainly at breakfast All year round At festivals	

The focus of this exercise is clearly the semantic lexicon which is used to introduce elements of Japanese culture to English speakers. Although the speaking elements and vocabulary are quite practical and topical, the grammatical elements of language are fairly incidental to language production. When asked by the teacher, most students had little idea what 'it' in the conversation refers to. By contrast, material given to the students in this study focused mainly on the grammatical elements of language with the semantic lexicon covered in a more covert or subliminal way. An example is a gap fill listening exercise in Table 3 from a scene later in Beauty and The Beast between Belle and The Beast in which they discuss Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet.

Table 3: Listening exercise for referring words and grammatical elements of language

Belle	(1) ***You*** know Shakespeare?
Beast	(2) ***I*** had an expensive education.
Belle	Actually, Romeo and Juliet is (3) ***my*** favorite play.
Beast	Why did (4) ***that*** not surprise (5) ***me*** ?
Belle	I'm sorry?
Beast	All that heartache and pining. So many better things to read.
Belle	Like what?
Beast	Well, there are a couple of things (6) ***in here*** you could start with. (7) ***You*** all right?
Belle	(8) ***It's*** wonderful.
Beast	Yes. I suppose (9) ***it*** is.

Some parts of this movie are of better use for studying this type of lexical material than others depending on the dialogue in each scene. Some of the referring words such as I and you may seem self evident to native (L1) speakers and even some L2 students but they were included to help establish the habit of noticing easy pronouns and noticing the people and things they refer to. Students commented that personal pronouns were easier to grasp than other pronouns such as it, this and that. These often refer to actions and concepts which are used earlier and not always apparent or visible in the video.

There appears to be a hierarchy of L2 understanding when using EFL referring words starting with direct subject personal pronouns followed by object pronouns such as me, her and them, possessive pronouns and later demonstrative pronouns. This may be due to exposure in EFL textbooks and popular songs but more research is needed to determine the exact nature of this hierarchy and the cause. Students in this study were given other material and worksheets which also focused on the grammatical elements of language.

Students were given translation exercises in class and for homework which were aimed initially at raising awareness of the grammatical features of language. Once some awareness of features such as auxiliary and modal verbs was developed through writing and speaking practice, it was hoped students may be able to notice some more of them in natural speech patterns. Students were asked to translate into English the equivalents of What is your name? Where are you from? How are you? What do you do? How much is it? What do you think? Would you like some tea? Did you have lunch? along with several others. The questions were chosen according to relevance for use in overseas travel and include high frequency help questions as well as casual or small talk.

Students were also given listening exercises utilizing material from the My First Passport textbook (Buckingham & Lansford, 2013) with the focus changed from the semantic to the grammatical lexicon and natural speech patterns. Table 4 shows an example of a listening task with a different focus.

Table 4: In class listening task

Kazuo	Hi. (1) My name's Kazuo. Nice (2) to meet you.
Student	Nice to meet (3) you too.
Student A	Excuse me. (4) Can you help (5) me ?
Student B	Sure. (6) What's the problem?
Student A	(7) How do you spell Seattle?
Student B	Sorry, (8) Could you speak more slowly, please?
Teacher	Yes, (9) of course.

Results showed that a majority of students had some awareness and understanding of common expressions regarding time and shopping such as How much ~, Do you ~ and What time ~ but a much weaker knowledge of modal verb forms and questions in the past tense. Scores for What did ~ and How was ~ were below 20%. Students were also given subject verb agreement (SVA) quizzes such as that in Table 5 to help consolidate grammar and help predict responses to questions and statement in the videos presented in class.

Table 5: Subject verb agreement quiz

1. Do you like ice cream?
 a) Yes, I like. b) Yes, please. c) Yes, I do. d) Yes, I am.
2. Are you busy today?
 a) Yes, I do. b) Yes, I am. c) Yes, you are. d) Yes, am I?
3. Is it sunny today?
 a) Yes, it is. b) Yes, I am. c) Yes, it does. d) Yes, it will.
4. Do you have a car?
 a) No, I'm not. b) No, I haven't. c) No, it doesn't. d) No, I don't.
5. Did you watch TV last night?
 a) Yes, I do. b) Yes, you watched. c) Yes, I did. D) Yes, I was.

Students were also given pronoun exercises in class and for homework to help raise awareness of the different types and practice using them in class. Table 6 is an example of a pronoun exercise given to students.

Table 6: Pronoun exercise

Choose from the following: I, me my, You, your, He him, his, She, her, They, them and their

A: I bought a birthday present for (1) _______.
B: Wow! For (2) _______? Thank (3) _______ very much!
A: Did (4) _______ get a present from (5) ________ boyfriend?
B: Actually, (6) ________ haven't heard from (7) _______ today.
A: Do (8) _______ think (9) _______ will give you one?
B: Well, (10) ______ gave a present to (11) ________ for (12) _______ birthday.
A: Then, (13) _______ should give something to you?
B: Hmm, maybe (14) _______ will give (15) _______ one later.

When reviewing homework and other worksheets in class, it became apparent that students were easily confused by similar sounds such as where and we're. This led to the development of homophone exercises as seen in Table 7.

Table 7: Homophones exercise

Choose from the following: there, their, they're, to, too, we're, where, wear, your and you're
A: (1) ***We're*** going to a party tonight. Do you want to come (2) ***too*** ?
B: Yeah! Thank you. Can my sister go (3) ***too***.
A: Sure. (4) ***Your*** sister can come.
B: So, (5) ***where*** is the party?
A: It's at my cousin's house, near the station.
B: What time are you going (6) ***there*** ?
A: (7) ***We're*** meeting at the station at 7 o'clock.
B: Okay, but I don't know what to (8) ***wear.***
A: Don't worry. (9) ***They're*** pretty casual people.
B: I hope (10) y***ou're*** right.

The italicized words were omitted and then as in the previous exercise, the students were required to fill in the blanks. After completing the writing part of the exercises, students then practiced reading then with a partner. This was designed to give students experience using homophones with at least some awareness of the different meanings. It was hoped that this may help them to differentiate between them during subsequent listening activities and listening to natural speech patterns later in movies, etc.

Results

At the end of the semester, students were tested again using the same instrument. In the reading section, average scores improved from 37.1% in April to 63.2% in July. As for the listening test, average score in July was down slightly from the April score of 73.1% to 72.5%. In a subsequent test held on the first day of the second semester though, their score increased to 90.4%. When asked to explain the different scores before and after the Summer holidays, the students said other exams on the same day affected their performance in the test held at the end of the first semester.

These results indicate a focus on grammatical lexicon can help raise awareness of these elements to some extent. It is interesting to note that this awareness is better on paper than in a real listening context, nevertheless there is noticeable improvement in students' awareness of this vocabulary. The bigger question of whether this study could enhance L2 speakers' understanding of movies and naturally spoken language remained.

A survey of students in the Test Group was conducted at the end of the semester regarding the effectiveness of this teaching approach. Eighty seven percent said the lessons helped them to understand the movie, eighty five percent said the lessons helped them to understand who and what people were talking about and eighty five percent said the lessons helped them in some other way.

When asked to elaborate, three students said the lessons helped them to understand many new words, one student said the lessons helped them to understand the story, another student said they were inspired to watch an English language movie for the first time, another said the lessons helped them to understand a movie without subtitles for the first time. One student said the lessons helped them to imagine what people will say next while another said the lessons helped them see practical examples of everyday conversational English.

This ongoing research shows that movies engage students but natural spoken English presents listening comprehension problems. These can be helped by edited scripts which provide the necessary scaffolding for improved L2 comprehension. This research also shows that target vocabulary building can be successful using movies but further research is needed on the efficacy of focusing on particular vocabulary such as referring words and other grammatical elements of language.

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12 Using Conversation Cards to Enhance Turn-Taking Fluency

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The purpose of this research study is to investigate how turn-taking strategy cards influence English conversations for EFL students at Tokyo International University. Turn-taking strategies are necessary for helping EFL students perform competently in English conversation. In our research, we piloted a system that assists students with turn-taking strategies through a card system. This card system acts as an assistive device that helps students practice turn-taking strategies, leading to turn-taking habits. We used a pretest posttest design to record the word count, total conversation time, and uses of each turn-taking strategy. Data collected was used to measure the efficacy of the training utilizing the turn-taking strategy cards by comparing the pretest and posttest results. Students also produced transcripts of their conversations and completed analysis of their conversations. Research results will help to advance future teaching approaches in encouraging greater depth of conversation among EFL learners by using specific turn-taking strategies.

本研究の目的は、ターンテイキング（話者交替）戦略カードが東京国際大学の EFL 学生の英会話に与える影響の調査である。EFL 学生にとって、英会話の上達のためにはターンテイキング戦略が欠かせない。本研究では、カードを使用した支援システムを試験的に実施した。このカードシステムは、当戦略の実践に役立つツールとして機能し、受講者がターンテイキングの習慣を身につけることにつながる。我々は事前事後テストを実施し、単語数、会話の合計時間、各ターンテイキング戦略の使用を記録した。これらのデータに基づく事前事後テストの結果を比較し、カードを用いたトレーニングの有効性を測定した。また、受講生は会話のトランスクリプトを作成し、それぞれの会話を分析した。本研究の結果は、具体的なターンテイキング戦略の使用により EFL 学習者同士のより深い会話を促進するための、今後の教育的アプローチを推進する上での助けとなるだろう。

Introduction

The push for nurturing more internationally minded citizens in Japan has influenced classrooms to increase exposure to English at all levels of education. Going beyond grammar translation style instruction, classrooms have been trying to integrate more communicative style instruction. Textbooks have also gone through changes by incorporating an integrated skills approach to align with pedagogical trends in the classroom. The effort to expand English curriculum is aimed at improving oral communication standards among classrooms in Japan. However, oral communication standards and assessments seem to differ between curricula. One reason is that speaking tasks vary from one classroom to another. For example, although presentations may be a core speaking task in one class, a skit performance or scripted dialogues may be the core speaking task in a different class. While a framework that caters to the specific needs of each student cohort as well as the pedagogical inclinations of each teaching team can strengthen language programs, sustained opportunities for building communicative competence in oral communication appears to be lacking in many classrooms. In other words, while students are able to perform a monologue type of speaking task such as a presentation on Japanese food culture, the same students may find it challenging to sustain a conversation on the aforementioned topic. To help learners move beyond mastery of linguistic knowledge and monologue types of speaking tasks, learners must be exposed to activities that expose behavioral norms of English conversations. The purpose of this study was to observe how learning aids could provide a starting point for helping learners sustain conversations in English.

Literature Review

Performance of speech acts and speech acts sets differ in important ways from language to language (Celce-Murcia, 2008). As a result, problems negotiating or signaling when a turn has ended or when the floor is open for other interlocutors to take can arise (Young, 2018). However, turn-taking "is perhaps the least tackled in pedagogical materials and classroom instruction, mostly because it's the least understood" (Wong & Waring, 2010). Therefore, instructional materials are needed to assist learners in understanding how silence and active listening can contribute to a conversation or interactions flow. Working from this suggestion for classroom practice, we have developed a conversational card system that brings learner attention to the different ways conversations progress in English, allowing them to practice creating more complex, lengthier, and richer conversations.

The first card is the Answer/Detail card, in which students add additional information to their turn. This is to encourage students to give fuller, richer answers that give their interlocutor more information to interact with when it becomes their turn. This also discourages single-word or single-sentence utterances. Examples of Answer/Detail usage could be the following:

> *I went to the shopping mall this weekend. I did some window shopping but I didn't buy anything.*
>
> *My mother is 65 years old. She runs almost every day. This is why she is so healthy.*
>
> *I did not do well on my test. I forgot many of my vocabulary words so I couldn't understand the questions.*

Conversations rely on a need for progressivity (Stivers and Robinson, 2006), with questions being a key marker in inviting more turns to be taken by an interlocutor. Campbell-Larsen (2019) expanded upon this by stating that progressivity can be attained via questions that are interactional in intent. The question is not meant to be a simple exchange of information, but rather, "to be understood as an invitation to provide an expanded answer and move the conversation forward" (p. 41). Meaning, there are certain speech acts with questions that can cue the interlocutor into that drive for progression. Campbell-Larsen noted that one such form commonly seen in native English speakers is the double question, where one couples questions together to signal their intent in conversational exchange versus informational exchange, the latter of which most Japanese speakers of English are more apt to treat all questions as (Campbell-Larsen, 2019). To combat this, the Question/Question card was formed with the intent of alerting students of the different intents behind questions, and to give them a structure for introducing clear and recognizable signals in their speaking to help aid them in taking more conversationally intentional turns. Examples of Question/Question usage could be the following:

> *What did you do this weekend? Anything Fun?*
>
> *How is your mother doing? Is she still running often?*
>
> *Did you do well on the test? How did it go?*

Expanding on the notion of the inclusion of questions in the turn-taking aspect of spoken dialogue, there already exists a linguistic similarity between English and Japanese. Shigemitsu (2012) noted that asking comprehension questions in Japanese conversation is not a commonality, but that the types of questions speakers ask feed into a co-construction format. This plays on the notions of cooperation, "because they create the idea together, or the listener shows curiosity about what the speaker is going to say by inferring what the speaker is going to say" (p. 10). This lays the foundation for the Question/Answer strategy, which encourages speakers to offer a suggestion or recommendation for the answer to the question they have just posed. Through offering helpful suggestions after a question, the card fosters and brings attention to this already innate strategy in the Japanese learners, allowing them to recognize its validity within the English conversation context. Examples of Question/Answer usage could be the following:

What did you do this weekend? Did you go to the cinema?

How is your mother doing? Well?

Did you do well on the test? Did you get an A?

There are moments in which a speaker concludes a turn and the floor becomes open for interlocutors to take. However, problems negotiating or signaling when a turn has concluded or when the floor is open can arise (Young, 2018). These problems are partly due to speech acts such as silence and pauses being executed differently between English and Japanese. McCarthy (2010) also noted that these borders of turns, turn openings and turn closings, assist in the maintenance of conversational flow, or what we hear as a more fluent conversation. The function of the Pivot card is to support floor management by helping Japanese learners recognize a turn is closing and assist them in constructing a turn opening. Examples of Pivot usage could be the following:

[From the weekend topic] Speaking of the weekend, I saw this incredible movie...

[From the mother topic] That reminds me of this time I tried running a marathon...

[From the test topic] You know what else is difficult? Finding a part-time job…

Participants

The participants in this study consisted of fifteen students from the School of Language Communication at a small private liberal arts university in the Kanto region of Japan. Seventeen students were enrolled in sophomore communication courses (English Production II, N = 7) and eleven students were enrolled in an advanced listening and speaking elective course (Advanced Listening and Speaking A, N = 8). Students in these classes ranged from seventeen to twenty-one years of age. In the advanced listening and speaking elective, students ranged from first-year to fourth-year students. English Production students in this study were CEFR A1 level while Advanced Listening and Speaking Students A were at the CEFR B1 to B2 level. This allowed us to see if both low-level speakers and more advanced speakers could benefit from the conversational strategies. We only used seven of the 17 students in English Production II and eight of the 11 students in Listening and Speaking A because of attendance issues: Those who missed the pretest, posttest, and more than one card training session were excluded from the final data set.

Methods

Our null hypothesis is that there is not a significant difference between the pretest results and the post-test results for any of our measures for fluency. Our alternative hypothesis is that the introduction of the conversational strategies via the conversation cards will produce a significant difference between the pretest and post-test measures of fluency. We used three methods to collect data which included a pretest, post-test, and a post conversation strategy reflection.

In the pretest, students discussed a particular topic, money, with their peers. Students recorded their discussions with the voice memo app on their cellphones. Students recorded their entire conversation to be transcribed. The recordings were submitted to researchers via the instructor's course website (Schoology for English Production II and Moodle for Advanced Listening and Speaking A). Students then listened to their recordings and produced a transcript of their pretest conversations that was submitted to researchers via the aforementioned class websites. Researchers used this discussion as a benchmark for students' conversation strategy abilities, comparing the recordings and transcripts to a set rubric used to measure students' conversational fluency (Appendix A).

After the pretest, students underwent a 10-week training period with four conversation strategy cards. Because students did not have any extensive experience with using conversation strategies in English, it was decided that strategy cards be scaffolded and introduced every two weeks. For example, the answer-detail card was introduced and practiced in weeks five and six and the question-question card was introduced and practiced in week seven and eight (Appendix B). In weeks thirteen and fourteen, students had opportunities to practice all four conversation strategy cards. During each introduction of a strategy card, 15 minutes were dedicated to instruction via a powerpoint to explain aspects of a strategy card and demonstrate how to use the strategy card. Students then received a handout (Appendix C) and practiced the newly introduced strategy card for fifteen minutes. In the following week, students were given another 30 minutes of class time to practice the strategy cards in conversation. Students repeated this process four times throughout the 10-week training period.

In the post-test, students discussed the same topic used in the pretest, but they did not use conversation strategy cards. The procedure for the recording and transcription for the post-test mirrored that of the pretest procedure. Fluency was analyzed using the conversational analysis rubric. Through a combination of our conversation strategy usage, length of conversation, and word count for each turn taken by the interlocutors, these factors combined will show a progression of conversational discourse and signal more fluent conversations.

In the post conversation strategy reflections, students were given a survey with 5-point likert-scaled questions. At the end of the survey, students were given a space to write any additional feedback or comments.

Results

For our data sets, we used a Case-II T-Test assuming unequal variance. We chose this statistic because our data contained normal distribution across our population (N = 15).

First, we examined the number of words in each conversation:

From the pretest to the post-test, with our alpha set to .05, we found that there was a statistically significant difference in the number of words produced by students in their conversations from the pretest to the post-test. For the pretest transcripts, there tended to be a lot of monologuing, or students giving a canned or rehearsed response before quickly passing the turn with a lexical chunk. Let's take, for example, this exchange from Student 10 and Student 11:

S10: OK. What are some ways to earn money?
S11: Part time job [10 sec pause] only.

Here we also see that the student was unable or unsure of how to pass the turn, having completed the question. She pauses for a full ten seconds before adding the adverb "only" to suggest that "The only way to earn money is via a part time job." She adds this as perhaps a way to suggest the finality of her utterance, signaling to her interlocutor that she is done speaking and she believes that she has completed the task of answering the question. The problem here is that if this is indeed the case, her mental framing of the task is misaligned with the assignment, which is to have a conversation, not to merely ask and answer questions. Now let's look at these same students in their post test at the same section:

S10: What are some good ways to earn money? I mean, are you working part-time? What is your part-time job?
S11: Yes, I have three part-time jobs. It is to earn daily meal and play money. I think that part-time jobs are good for students to earn money.

In the post-test, we see a large shift that exemplifies an increase in the number of strategies used (Question/Question, Answer/Detail) as well as word count, which lengthens the overall conversation. Here, we have a much more fluid and robust conversation. Student 10

Table 1

Comparison and Pretest and Post-test Fluency Measures, Sum of Total Population (N=15)

FLUENCY MEASURE	PRETEST VALUE	POST-TEST VALUE	P VALUE
Word Count	1454	2928	0.000003500950106
Turn Count	120	208	0.0001587482133
Conversation Length (in seconds)	3000	5574	0.000006541100985

adds clarification to her question: She wants to know specifically about Student 11 and her own experiences earning money as a student. Student 11 then answers, explaining why she is working and harkening back to the original question of whether or not she believes it is a good way for students to earn money. While she fails to answer what specifically her jobs are in the dialogue, her answer opens more possibilities for her interlocutor to follow-up with a question or add to the conversation with her own opinion. It does not end the exchange but rather leaves open possibilities for further contributions from Student 10.

Another example can be seen with another pair of students and what to do after a partner finishes with their answer:

> **S5:** what are some good ways to make money. The people who cannot save money, learn the tendency because if the person learn the tendency, they can learn how to save money. So, I think that is the way to make money.
>
> **S6:** Umm, ok. [5 sec pause]
>
> **S5:** What are some good ways to make money?

Here, Student 6 appears to not know how to respond to Student 5. Student 5 has given a lengthy answer, full of details, but Student 6 fails to take her turn and add anything to signal Student 5 to continue to conversation afterward. Now, let's see how this changes in the same area of the post-test discussion:

> **S5:** I think just save money and don't use it. How about you?
>
> **S6:** I think good idea setting goals or planning how to save money. And I want to travel other countries so now I save money 500 yen a day in piggy bank. It is tiny things but If it is correct ah gather big money,I can spend money to travel.
>
> **S5:** I have same as it, but I… there are 5, 6 coins.

Here we see some strategies put into place to help alleviate the confusion seen earlier. Rather than framing the conversation as a series of "correct" answers to be given in order to complete the assignment, the students see opportunities to have a conversation and achieve progressivity. Student 6 expands with their own answer and gives examples (Answer/Detail) in order to give her interlocutor something to use to initiate their turn. Student 5 takes the example of the piggy bank and uses that to continue the conversation about making money. While Student 5 did shorten their initial turn, they removed the unnatural reading of the question and then self-selecting themself to answer said question. This makes the conversation sound more fluent and natural and less like an interview or quiz.

Second, we examined the number of turns each student took in the course of their conversation.We found that there was a statistically significant difference in the number of turns taken by students in their conversations from the pretest to the post-test. Students, in the pretest, focused mostly on going through the topic questions much like a checklist, exchanging turns rapidly, usually keeping it to only two turns per question in the topic. In the post-test, however, we see students expanding upon the two-turn format to include follow-up questions, deeper explanations, and a few clarification questions. Take this dialogue from Students 13 and 14 in their post test:

> **S13:** OK. If someone give you 20,000 yen, what would you do with it?
>
> **S14:** Someone give me 20,000 yen, I want to new clothes, bag, and shoes.
>
> **S13:** OK. What is your favorite brand?
>
> **S14:** Umm, my favorite brand is Zara. I often go to Zara and H&M.

The number of turns expands because Student 13 takes it upon herself to ask a follow-up question to Student 14 about her favorite brand, expanding upon the idea that Student 14 would want to buy new clothes and accessories. This allows Student 14 to expand upon her initial answer, and with the utilization of the Answer/Detail strategy, also introduces new information in the form of also enjoying shopping at H&M. This gives Student 13 more information to tie into her next turn and add a more coherent flow to the conversation. Now, contrast that with their exchange from the pretest:

> **S13:** If someone give you 20,000 yen, what would you do with it?
>
> **S14:** Maybe I'll hangout with my friend and I want to go shopping.

There were fewer turns taken by both Student 13 and 14, conforming more to the question-answer format of a strict task completion mindset versus a more conversational framework. Note the lack of any expansion of answers and follow-up, lacking in the number of turn-passing signifiers and opportunities for continuation of the conversation topic.

Table 2

Comparison and Pretest and Post-test Conversation Card Usage, Sum of Total Population (N=15)

CARD	PRETEST COUNT	POST-TEST COUNT	P VALUE
Answer/Detail	14	39	0.0008590470558
Question/Question	2	9	0.05064197719
Question/ Answer	0	4	0.05190705376
Pivot	0	4	0.02028429657

Third, we looked at the time for the students to complete the conversations, as measured in seconds. We found that there was a statistically significant difference in the length of the conversations from the pretest to the post-test. The increase in length was seen universally across all participants, regardless of level. Combined with data on the increase in total words and number of turns, we see that the conversations are stepping further away from the more monologic question and answer format and approaching more of a co-constructed exchange more indicative of a conversation.

More words, turns, and time do not necessarily show an increase in the quality of the conversation, however, which is why data on the conversational strategies was collected and analyzed. Thus, we began looking at conversational card usage. We examined the use of each of the cards:

From the pretest to the post-test, with our alpha set to .05, we found that there was a statistically significant difference in the number of uses of the Answer/Detail and Pivot cards from the pretest to the post-test. Students showed the highest gains in their use of Answer/Detail, which involved them adding additional information to their responses to get richer, more detailed utterances in their conversations.

The use of Answer/Detail gives each turn an expansion in terms of number of words and length for the overall conversation. It also adds more information that allows their interlocutor to open their turn more easily by tying their turn to information from the previous turn, creating a more co-constructed environment that creates a conversational flow between speakers.

Table 3

Student Pre-Test Turns Versus Post-Test Turns During the Same Topic Conversation to Support Use of Answer/Detail

Student	Previous Turn From Interlocutor	Pre-Test Turn	Post-Test Turn
4	Why do some people have money problems?	I think they spend money for their hobbies and playing so they have money problems.	I think they want new clothes and shoes or food. So they buy them, they can’t save money and they have problems. How about you?
9	How often do you save money?	Once a month.	Once a month. Because I went to go on trip.
11	What are some good ways to make money?	Part time job [10 sec] only.	Yes. I have three part time jobs. It is to earn daily meal and play money. I think that part time jobs are a good way for students to earn money.
17	Why do some people have many money problems?	I think some people don’t think about future.	I think they don’t think about their future. And some people borrow money from someone. It will maybe some problems.

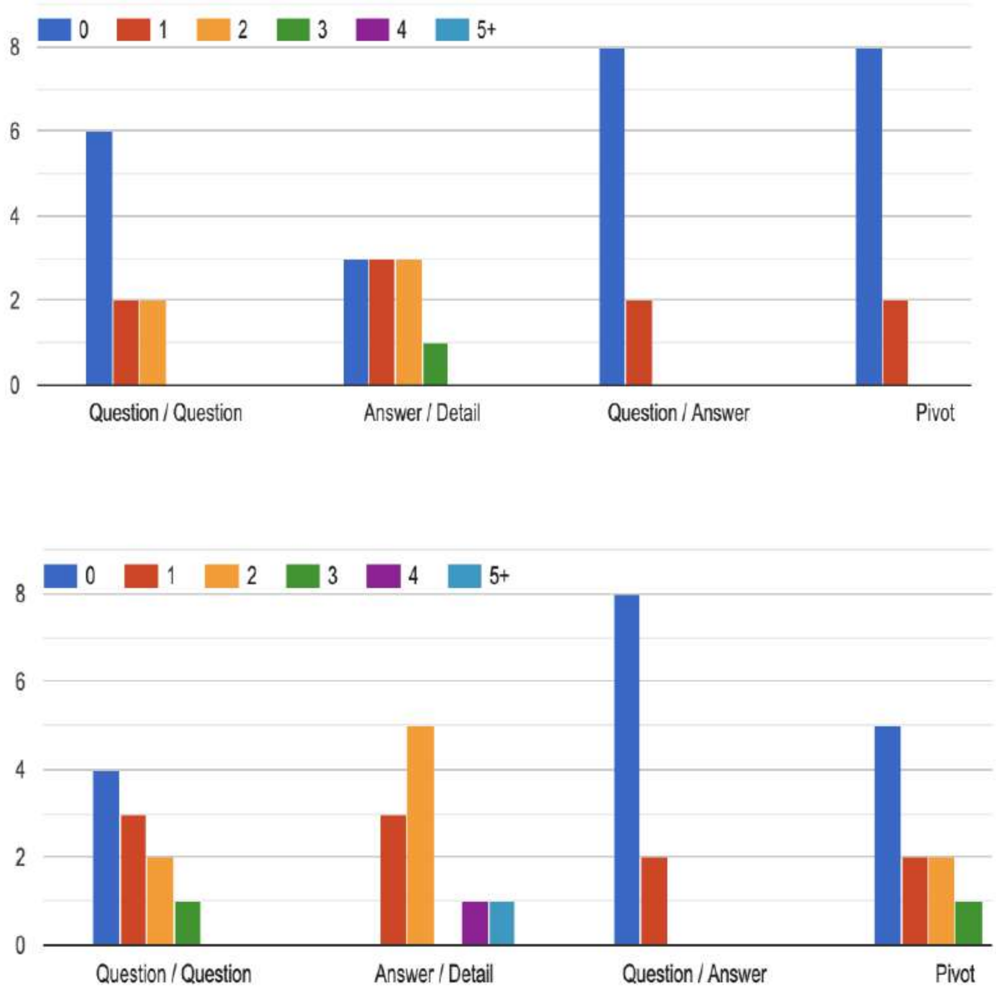

Figure 1

Students' Self-Reported Use of Conversation Strategies in the Pre-Test and Post-Test for the Higher-Proficiency Group (N = 8)

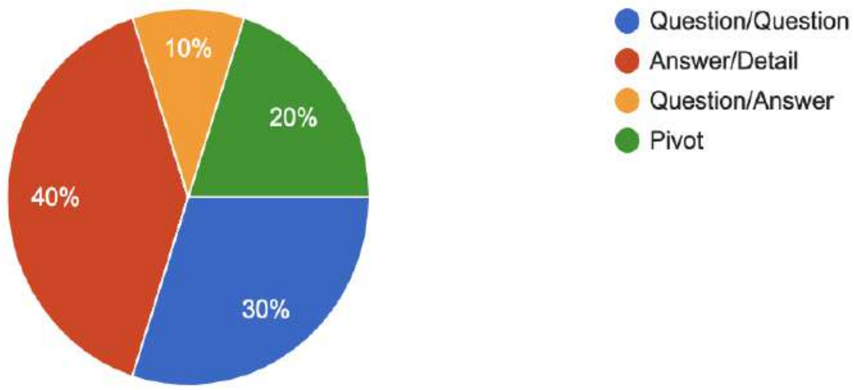

Figure 2:

Conversation Cards Students Found Most Helpful, Based on Percentage

In the data we asked students to complete for the reflection activities, some interesting patterns emerged. For the post-test reflection, we asked students to go back to their first conversation and identify the number of times they used each conversational strategy. We also had them do the same for their final post-test conversation to compare their usage and also to see if students were able to correctly identify when they were using each of the strategies from the cards:

Interestingly, in the higher-level student group, there was an overestimation of the number of times they used each technique, particularly with the Question/Question card and the Pivot card. This misidentification can come from the idea that students misattributed a single question as a Question/Question, not fully understanding the idea of paired questions. One student in their reflection wrote "I think that practice was good for conversation skill, but one thing that I dislike about card is if I didn't know what is the difference Q&Q and Q&A, so I didn't know how to use." This seems to imply that there were difficulties not addressed during training and practice with the Question/Question card, which merits further investigation and reworking. As for the Pivot card, a similar misidentification could be at play, but the overestimation of the use of the Pivot card only came from three students versus the six incorrectly estimating the Question/Question card usage.

We also asked students which cards they found most helpful for having an English conversation:

Answer/Detail, the card with the highest usage and a statistically significant gain from pre to post-test, was ranked the highest in perceived usefulness, approaching half of all respondents saying it was the most helpful. As seen with the confusion over usage, Question/Answer was ranked as least useful, with only ten percent of respondents stating it was the most helpful. Question/Question and Pivot nearly tied for the middle spot, with 30% and 20% voting for them respectively. Looking at why students rated the Question/Question card as most helpful, a few responses stand out:

> *We can keep talking to use a lot of question.*
> *I couldn't use Question/Question card though it was so helpful because it makes conversation more fun but it is difficult to think.*

Two ideas from students emerge from these responses: First, that they enjoy using questions in conversations. It can help them generate more answers and it is perceived as helpful and fun. Second, students struggle with generating questions, as noted by the second respondent who said making questions is difficult because "it is difficult to think." This response could imply there might be linguistic hurdles, perhaps with the actual construction of questions, or it could be with the topics themselves, with students unable to think quickly enough to construct compelling, relevant questions on the spot. These difficulties with forming questions could also explain why neither of the question-based conversation cards achieved any sort of statistically significant gains from the pretest to the post-test: the student, both low and high, were not receiving, or did not receive prior, proper training of the formulation of questions. This lack of training lowered confidence and set up a difficulty barrier that perhaps guided them to use the other cards they understood more clearly instead.

Limitations

Limitations were to be expected from the research, given the number of confounding variables at play that were beyond the control of the researchers. Attendance for participants was an issue throughout the course of the study. While an attendance policy is in place at the university, illness, job interviews, and unexpected emergencies came up for students, causing them to miss days where card training or practice with using the conversation strategies took place. This could have had negative effects on the participants when it came to understanding, internalizing, and using conversational strategies in the post-test.

The low-level students also relied more heavily on scripting their responses versus writing down a few notes to help guide their conversations. This resulted in conversations that lacked the natural pacing of a normal conversation.

Training issues with Pivot and Question/Answer may have been due to the lack of clarity with the language used and the function of those strategies. The Question/Answer card was very close to the function and form of the Question/Question card but had a different set of rules associated with it. The Pivot card is also more conceptual and requires an understanding of metacognition in order to utilize appropriately. While the form of the Pivot strategy did not pose much problem for students, its use created confusion.

Also, the shorter training time with those cards, as they were introduced later in the semester, means students didn't have as much time to familiarize themselves with those cards and strategies. For the Pivot card, students only had two weeks to learn and utilize the card, and only four weeks with the Question/Answer card. These cards were ordered last because they did require a bit more understanding to utilize properly, so the easier Answer/Detail and Question/Question were placed first to build a foundational knowledge and not discourage students. This strategy, however, also meant that the cards that required more practice received less time to do so.

Future Research

Reflecting research limitations and insights gained during the research process, there are several things to keep in mind for future studies. First, a control group without the cards as a treatment would shed insights into traditional instruction versus the use of conversation cards. Second, reframing the Question/Answer card to something more akin to "assistance" or "offer a suggestion" could yield more positive results with card and strategy use. Third, pausing as a speech act functions differently between Japanese and English. Activities that raise awareness to pauses in conversations may influence smoothness between turn-boundaries and lead to ideal discourse.

We observed conversations within the classroom and between Japanese interlocutors. However, with the growing number of university environments that promote oral communication practice outside of the classroom, we would like to observe how Japanese students interact with instructors and international students. These conversations might provide points of discussion on how power dynamics between teachers and students affect the type of conversations students have. This would also provide data on perceptions Japanese students have on conversations with non-native speakers of English.

Conclusion

Assessments such as tests, presentations, and scripted dialogues are important for helping learners exemplify linguistic knowledge. However, these assessments alone are insufficient for developing oral communicative skills in English conversations. While it is important to create opportunities for learners to articiulate relationships between ideas accurately and efficiently, opportunities to help learners understand how conversation fluency is realised in real language use outside of the classroom needs to be integrated in classroom practice.

Attention to how speech acts are embedded in sociocultural beliefs and how they affect conversations differently in Japanese and English can be useful for raising awareness of turn-taking practices. Activities that help learners become more aware of turn-taking differences between Japanese and English will help learners avoid potential consequences of not adapting to behavioral norms in conversation. Learning aids such as the conversational card system we developed can make conversation norms more transparent by bringing attention to the different ways conversations progress in English, allowing them to practice more complex and richer conversations. However, to shape conversations from multiple monologues to intertwined and sustainable interaction, attention to oral communicative behaviors in English conversation needs to be given proper attention throughout the curriculum.

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Appendix A: Conversation Rubric for Pretest and Postest

Token#: ____

	Pretest	**Post Test**	**Comments**
1) Word count The length of each interlocutor's turn will be measured by a word count			
2) Individual turns per interlocutor			
3) Conversation Time The length of each conversation will be measured in minutes and seconds.			
4) Answer-Detail Use Count Turn-Taking Strategy #1			
5) Question-Question Use Count Turn-Taking Strategy #2			
6) Question-Answer Use Count Turn-Taking Strategy #3			
7) Pivot (Change topic) Use Count Turn-Taking Strategy #4			

Appendix B: Conversation Card Schedule

Week#	Procedure
2-4:	Transcript Training
4	Pretest
5-6	**Introduce Conversation Strategy Card 1: Answer-Detail** - Use PPT to introduce card - Students practice Answer-Detail card
7-8	**Introduce Conversation Strategy Card 2: Question/Question** - Use PPT to introduce card - Students practice Question-Question card
9-10	**Introduce Conversation Strategy Card 3: Question-Answer** - Use PPT to introduce card - Students practice Question-Answer card
11-12	**Introduce Conversation Strategy Card 4: Assist** - Use PPT to introduce card - Students practice Assist card
13-14	Practice with all four Conversation Strategy Cards
15	Post-Test

Appendix C: Talking about the past - Answer Detail Training

Talking about the past

Step 1: When you think of the past, what do you think of? Example topics are primary school, your first movie, first time you got injured, etc. In the box below, write your ideas. (5 Mins)

Step 2: With a partner, discuss the questions below: (5 Mins)

What did your bedroom look like when you were 7-years old?
What was your best memory or worst memory from high school?
What kind of music did you listen to when you were in junior-high school?

Step 3: How well did you do in the last conversation? Mark your score below: (5 Mins)

Vocabulary:

Didn't use a lot of vocabulary	1	2	3	4	Used a lot of vocabulary

Sentence Length:

Used many short sentences	1	2	3	4	Used many long sentences

Answer-Detail:

Didn't add details	1	2	3	4	Added lots of detail

Step 4a: Switch partners and brainstorm more ideas about your bedroom, high school memory, and music. (3 Mins)

Step 4b: With the same partner, discuss the questions below (5 Mins)

What did your bedroom look like when you were 7-years old?
What was your best memory or worst memory from high school?
What kind of music did you listen to when you were in junior-high school?

Step 5: Switch partners again. You will discuss the questions below. But this time, you will record your conversation on your phone. (5 Mins)

What did your bedroom look like when you were 7-years old?
What was your best memory or worst memory from high school?
What kind of music did you listen to when you were in junior-high school?

Step 6: You and your partner will listen to your recorded conversation. Then you will transcribe or write what you said in the conversation. You must email your audio clip and a typed conversation. Don't forget to use TRANSCRIPTION RULES!

13 Anxiety in the Japanese EFL Classroom and the Pygmalion Effect

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Anaheim University

This is a follow up paper to a presentation given at the PanSig conference of May 2019 in Nishinomiya. The paper will first describe the relevance of affect in education and its significance in learning. Then a more specific affective factor of anxiety and its problem in English as a foreign language (EFL) classes is Japan. Factors including education and cultural backgrounds cause Japanese learners more than usual levels of anxiety in the language classroom. The paper then examines a controversial theory, the Pygmalion Effect and its connection to anxiety in the classroom.
The aim (of this paper) is to familiarize teachers with the theory and how it applies to ESL teaching in Japan. In order to demonstrate the theory, the researcher conducts a semester long experiment with two university classes; one applying the Pygmalion Effect and the other the Gollum Effect. Finally, the paper leaves the reader with ideas and thoughts on how to alleviate and cope with anxiety in the classroom.

この論文は 2019 年 5 月に西宮で開催された PanSig 会議で発表したものである。最初にまず学習する中で、教育と学習者の感情によって影響を及ぼす関係性を示唆している。調査によると日本人は、英語（EFL）の授業で不安による情意フィルターが特に問題となっていることが確かめられた。そしてそれは教育や文化的背景の要因により、日本人学習者は外国語の授業で、通常より多く不安に感じてしまうことが明らかになった。最後に教室での不安に対処するためのピグマリオン効果について考察している。また教室での不安への対処法を具体的に述べているので参考にしてほしい。

Affect in the classroom has witnessed a notable growth in research in the last two decades. Amid the numerous emotional variables, FLA (foreign language anxiety) has been a popular topic of research. This paper takes a look at affect in the Japanese EFL classroom, with an emphasis on FLA of Japanese learners.

Among the various solutions and strategies for anxiety in the classroom, the concept of The Pygmalion Effect is one that carries a strong message. A theory that emphasizes positive expectation and encouragement to develop rapport and better results in the classroom is introduced into the discussion.

What is affect?

"*All learning has an emotional base*" Plato (Ancient Greek Philosopher, 460 BC)

Closely related to emotion, affect is defined by Arnold (1999) as aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behavior.

The Affective Filter hypothesis first proposed by Dulay and Burt in 1977 gained credibility and incorporated later in 1985 by Krashen as one of his five input Hypotheses. Krashen maintained that learners acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input and if their affective filters are low enough to allow the input to be incorporated. In his theory, affect includes motivation, attitude, anxiety and self-confidence. The affective filter is raised when a learners' anxiety is high and they become less able to process language input and progress with their language acquisition. Then Arnold (1999) brought the concept of affect to the forefront in language teaching with her emphasis on the importance of establishing a good emotional atmosphere in the classroom. Affect has been continually researched and followed by others in the field (Arnold, 2011; Dewaele, 2015; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014; Murphy & Dörnyei, 2010). Dörnyei expressed the importance that emotion plays in second language acquisition:

> *This is a huge topic, but the current situation is sadly straightforward: Apart from a few exceptions (for example the work of John Schuman, Peter MacIntyre and Jean-Marc Dewaele), emotions have been by and large neglected in the field of SLA." (Murphy, R. S., & Dörnyei, Z., 2010, p. 22).*

Anxiety in SLA

One of the most salient affective variables in language learning is anxiety. Language anxiety is a major obstruction in SLA (second language acquisition) and has been investigated by various authors (e.g., Bailey, 1983; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre, P. D., 2002; Pae, 2013).

Anxiety described by Spielberger (1983, p. 1) is the subjective feeling of tension, nervousness, trepidation and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system. These subjective anxious feelings also carry over into the area of language. For example, linguists regard anxiety as "a state of apprehension, a vague fear" in students' language learning (Scovel, 1978). According to Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986), there are two terms used for anxiety; general and specific. General (trait) anxiety, which is used for those who are generally anxious. The second is specific (state) anxiety for being anxious in a particular situation. Foreign language anxiety (FLA) is an example of specific, as it is usually a temporary anxiousness. For this study FLA will be defined as "the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language" (MacIntyre, 1994, p. 27). Most notably FLA is perceived as a complex and multi-dimensional phenomenon of self-perceptions, beliefs, feeling and behaviors related to foreign language learning (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986).

Although this paper is concerned with the debilitating feeling of anxiety, the facilitating side brings excitement and motivation to the learner. Being anxious before class or when it is ones turn to speak can push and encourage engagement. Jones (1991) proposed that students may not always interpret their anxiety symptoms as being debilitative toward performance but may in fact feel that they are necessary for mental preparation and performance (i.e., facilitative). Eyseneck (1979) postulated that leaners that are anxious try to compensate by increasing their effort and increasing performance. This increased effort then compensates for the reduced efficiency of the cognitive processing. But how much effort must be exerted in order to make up for the loss? It has been reported that anxious language learners study more than relaxed learners but their achievement does not reflect that effort. (Horwitz et al, 1986; Price, 1991).

Most educators focus on reducing the level of apprehension in the classroom by creating a cohesive and welcoming environment for learning. Contrastingly, the author begins the class by increasing the anxiety level. This action is to install an atmosphere of professionalism and strictness, therefore shocking the students. This raises the level of anxiety to a higher than normal level, prepping them for the work that is expected of them. The pressure is gradually relieved in the following classes by enthusiastically providing positive encouragement and feedback. Thus, the teacher can create an environment in which at first feels beyond their abilities. Only then to lower their anxiety by demonstrating the ease at which it may be achieved in a more relaxed tone. From experience most teachers will concur that it is easy to become kinder during the course of the year and much more difficult to become stricter during the course of the term.

Anxiety in English classroom in Japan

The problem of anxious students in English class is not new and Japanese language learners are notorious for being passive, shy and quiet in the classroom. Two of the main reason stem from the following; the educational system and their Confucian heritage culture (CHC).

One of the main causes of anxiety in Japanese society is the repressive education system (Yoneyama, 1999); and students general lack of L2 sociolinguistic ability (Jones, 1999).

Japan is falling behind due to an education system that fails to emphasize pragmatic communication skills (Davis, 2019). Japanese are known for the lack of competency and confidence when communicating in English and that English language education in failing to meet the national objectives. The Japan Ministry of Education (MEXT) in a response to a newspaper article admitted to this failure on its homepage:

> *Many Japanese people cannot speak English despite receiving six years of English language education in middle and high school. The reason is the problem with Japanese school education. This is why we are moving ahead with reform not only to start English language education earlier, but also to introduce university entrance exams that balance the four competencies mentioned above. (Shimomura, 2014)*

The first thing that occurs when a student enters junior high school is the process of losing the ability to criticize and to become almost disengaged. Students are guided to ignore their self-esteem and ego by forcing upon them strict conformity and unchallenging tasks. This ensures that teens are prevented from becoming rebellious against their mentor (Nakai, 2012). Strict rules apply to places not only within the school but to daily life as well. The structure of education in Japan is centered on the group, emphasizing uniformity that fosters a culture of beating down outlying members (Eryk, 2013).

These societal problems are reflected in the classroom. Students bring this lack of mental engagement into the classroom, which makes it difficult to reengage them in order to communicate on a personal level. In addition, the society and their educational system rejects individual differences and is inflexible to any change or opposing views. A student permitted to proceed faster is considered as favorable discrimination. In the classroom this translates to students not wanting to volunteer to be seen as different and speak out as they do not want to be perceived as show offing or boasting; this follows with poor self-image that leads to low motivation and confidence. De Costa (2015) describes a social imaginary in which learners have of themselves and their environments. The Canadian philosopher Charles Taylor explains social imaginaries as:

> *the ways people imagine their social existence, how they fit together with others, how things go on between them and their fellows, the expectations that are normally met, and the deeper normative notions and images that underlie these expectations.* (Taylor, C. 2004. p.23)

For the Japanese EFL student their self-image has been negatively represented by their previous language learning experiences and lack of opportunity to build stability in their skills. As well as the negative reinforcement notion of anything that is foreign as "not worthy" of consideration. The CHC predominat in Asian countries is characterized by students that are reticence and hesitant in the classroom. Or as Ryan & Louie describes the CHC leaner as: "passive, dependent, surface\rote learners prone to plagiarism and lacking critical thinking" (Ryan & Louie, 2007, p. 406).

Compared to western leaners they put a high value on 'face' and 'silence'. In a research project conceptualizing second language anxiety Woodrow (2006) found that English language learners from CHC's were more anxious than other countries groups.

Therefore, the social imaginary involves the members of the group's expectations of each other and their surroundings. For Japanese this means to keep the status quo, not to lose face or stand out from the group, this inhibits learning and a proactive attitude. So, before even starting the education there are the issues associated with the social stigmatisms that have been formed from an early age; this is magnified in language classes. Unlike traditional classes in which the lecturer is the focus of the class the learner must be centered. If these social barriers are not breeched the likelihood of a successful class is drastically decreased. Brown and Rosenkjar (1996) reported that students' anxiety was indicative of less participation in class, and that students in general were anxious. Thus, the question is, how to prevent this cycle and encourage the students and their participation to become the norm in the language classroom?

The Pygmalion Effect

The Pygmalion Effect is a self-fulfilling prophecy that works as a positive circular device. (Rosenthal, R., & Jacobson, L. 1992). In a classroom it works like this:

1. Teacher's (T) beliefs about students (S) influence their actions towards students.

2. T's action towards S influence and reinforce their beliefs about themselves.

3. S's beliefs about themselves influence their action towards T & others.

4. S's actions towards others impact T and others beliefs about S.

And repeat. (See Diagram 1)

This circular methodology can be influenced at all four stages but The Pygmalion Effect focuses on the effect of other people's expectations and how the device reinforces the effect of these expectations.

Background of The Pygmalion Effect

From Greek mythology came Ovid's narrative poem Metamorphoses in which Pygmalion, a sculptor fell in love with a statue of his own creation. Because of his love and devotion to the statue the god Aphrodite gives it life and he marries the statue. The Pygmalion Effect originated in 1965 when psychologists Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson conducted an experiment in a public elementary school. They wanted to demonstrate that if teachers were led to expect improved performance from their students, then their students' performance would improve and engagement increase. At the beginning of the school year, all students were given an IQ test. The teachers are falsely informed that certain students were "intellectual bloomers" and that they were expected to bloom during the school year. In fact, students' scores had nothing to do with selection as students were randomly placed in classes. At the end of the year, the same test was given and the experiment showed a marked difference between the sample students and the control students. The results showed the "bloomers" gained in all aspects, verbal and reasoning. (Rosenthal, R., & Jacobson, L. 1992). The conclusion was that teacher's expectations influence student's achievement. The teachers influenced their students through their actions and change the way they think of themselves. (See Diagram 1) Rosenthal predicted that the teachers may subconsciously behave in ways that facilitate and encourage learning and success.

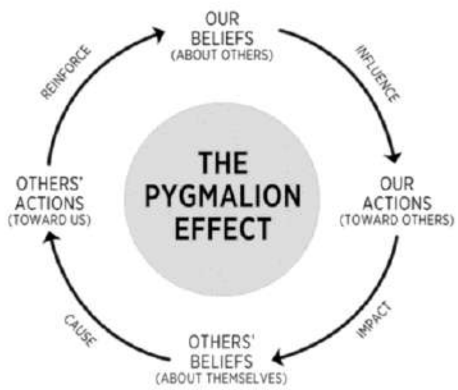

Diagram 1

(Tabrizi, B. & Terrell, M. 2013)

An opposite conclusion to The Pygmalion Effect is known as the Golem effect in which low expectations lead to a decrease in performance. Brophy (1986) conducted an experiment and found that negative expectations, expectation-mediated discrimination and false evaluation can be harmful to the student motivation. As Csikszentmihalyi points out:

> *If a teacher does not believe in his job, does not enjoy the learning he is trying to transmit, the student will sense this and derive the entirely rational conclusion that the particular subject is not worth mastering for its own sake. (Csikszentmihalyi. 1997. p7)*

Another way to put it is, as teachers we need to become inclusive with all students, regardless of our own feelings of the job or treatment by the employer and not transmit our negative emotion onto the students. The emotion that the teacher exerts through enthusiasm in the classroom can influence students' performance.

Scripted example of this is from Wardhaugh's An Introduction to Sociolinguistics:

> *In Shaw's Pygmalion, Professor Higgins goes about transforming Eliza Doolittle by teaching her to talk like a lady. Colonel Pickering treats her like a lady and ignores her talk. Eliza observes that any success she has is attributable to Pickering's approach rather than to Higgins! Is there anything we can learn about the relationship of language to behavior from Eliza's observation (Wardhaugh, R., & Fuller, J. M. 2015. p 335).*

If we as individuals are able to remind ourselves when we were students, who was your favorite teacher? How and why did they make you feel? Did you feel that that there was a mutual connection of understanding that you could relate to with them? Was it like Eliza's feelings towards Pickering, that you felt you were given a sense of accomplishment and respect?

Class average score	Oral	Written
Class A Pygmalion	80	85
Class B Golem	65	80

Pygmalion verses the Golem Effect Experiment

In order to test the Pygmalion effect theory a classroom experiment was conducted at a private University in Japan. Class A was treated with the Pygmalion effect while Class B was treated with the Golem effect. The experiment was conducted with second year non English majors with low-intermediate levels of English, in two communication classes for one semester (15 weeks). (see table 1)

At the end of the term learners were assessed with identical methods, an oral exam and a written exam. (see table 2)

Class A (Pygnalion) displayed higher scores in both the oral and written assessments. The oral assessment had a significant 15 point gap and the written assessment had a five point gap. The results suggest that the teacher's attitude and conduct in the classroom can affect learners motivation to do better work.

Table 1 ***Classroom factors***

Class A Pygmalion	Class B Golem
Consistently given and checked homework	Seldom given homework and never checked
Positive feedback and reinforcement	Negative or no feedback
Positive energy and attitude	Normal or negative attitude
High expectations	No expectations
were expressed	
Expected to speak English, warned for using Japanese	Not expected to use English not warned for using Japanese
On time/Early to class, finishing early	Late to start class, kept till bell.

Table 2 *End of term oral and written assessment results*

Conclusion

This paper has demonstrated the important role that affect plays in the EFL classroom focusing on the debilitating role that anxiety has on learners. It has also emphasized the problem that Japanese have in expressing themselves in the classroom and without recognizing that emotion is a major factor in assisting students' progress and if left unchecked it is unlikely that students will improve. The Pygmalion Effect is an effective tool and can be triggered by teacher expectation leading to meaningful communication. As the experiment confirms positive expectation and reinforcement can be a factor in language proficiency. However, this is only one factor of many that effect learning and it is not always the case that by showing affection or constant positive reinforcement, students will automatically live up to the expectations, given to them.

A major dilemma of foreign language teaching is that the emotional component is too often left out, resulting in relatively emotion-free classes (Dewaele, 2005, 2011). Emotion-free is certainly simpler for curriculum designers and traditionalists that focus on rigid learning activities that require minimum expressive investment, in simple language that equates to boring. The teachers must construct comprehensible dialog and create, through verbal and no-verbal means:

A true learning environment where students believe in the value of learning a language, where they feel they can face that challenge and where they understand the benefit they can get from attaining it.
(Arnold & Fonseca, 2007, p. 119)

Language acquisition occurs when the students relax and feel free to develop relationships with teachers and classmates. The value of the “benefit” mentioned in the quote above is rather difficult to administer in a country that does not wish to engage with anyone outside their collective society from the outset coupled with its CHC sociology. This makes SLA a more complex task in Japan but not impossible. The expectations talked about in this paper refer to helping learners engage in meaningful communication, giving them the freedom to work at their own pace and means. With this freedom comes the responsibility of being an active participant which can lead to positive results, despite the probable anxieties in the classroom.

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14 Adapting and Scaffolding Texts in CLIL Materials

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In Japan, there has been steady growth over recent years in university level Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) courses and Japan-focused CLIL research. However, there is limited research available on how teachers can create CLIL materials that include challenging texts and content whilst still allowing students to access and deeply understand the texts. This paper aims to provide text adaptation and scaffolding approaches that teachers can incorporate into their CLIL materials. These approaches are based on the presenters' experiences in designing and teaching a CLIL course at a Japanese university across a number of semesters. This paper is intended to be useful for teachers new to designing CLIL materials and teachers looking to enhance students' understanding of texts in CLIL courses.

近年の日本では、CLIL(「クリル」または「内容言語統合型学習」と訳されることが多い)や日本の CLIL 教育に焦点を当てた研究が著しく発展している。しかしながら，学習者がしっかりとテキストソースの内容を理解でき、尚且つある程度難易度が高いコンテンツを含む CLIL 教材の作成方法に関する研究は進んでいるとは言えない。本稿では、CLIL 教材をコースに組み込むための方法や、その足がかりとなるアプローチ方法について論じている。このアプローチ方法は、日本国内の大学で、CLIL 教育を取り入れるために試行錯誤を重ねた著者自身の体験を基にしている。初めて CLIL 教材をデザインし、CLIL 教育を取り入れようとしている教師や、CLIL 教育を実践し、学習者の理解を深めようと考える教師にとって有益なものになると言える。

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) was developed in Europe in the 1990s to increase bilingualism and multilingualism, and to enhance cooperation between European countries. CLIL is now being used around the world in different levels of education: Primary, Secondary, and Higher Education. Often CLIL is perceived to make countries more globally competitive. CLIL is defined as "a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p. 1). Consequently, CLIL differs from other approaches since it focuses on both language and content and considers the learning of each to complement the other. The umbrella-like nature of CLIL emerges when language or content may receive more focus than the other. As this focus can be shifted to different degrees, a multitude of CLIL types is possible. Ikeda (2013) places Strong/Hard CLIL at one end and Weak/Soft CLIL at the other. Hard CLIL is considered to be content-oriented while Soft CLIL is language-oriented. Ball (2015) emphasizes the dual focus of CLIL by noting Hard CLIL is "supporting language learning in content classes" whereas Soft CLIL is "supporting content learning in language classes" (p. 20). In different learning contexts, one type of CLIL may be preferable to others.

Japan has seen growing interest in CLIL over the last decade. Brown and Bradford (2017) provide an overview of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), Content Based Instruction (CBI), and CLIL and possible confusions between them. Importantly, they point out that definitions and goals of these approaches are often similar and may sometimes overlap. To provide differentiation, Brown and Bradford state that "In EMI, content is central; CLIL has a dual focus on content and language; and in CBI, content is peripheral" (p. 332). Many researchers remark that a shared understanding of CLIL in Japan has yet to be reached. Some years ago, Ikeda, Pinner, Mehisto, and Marsh (2013) stated "If CLIL in Europe is a toddler, CLIL in Japan is a new-born baby, but it is slowly and steadily crawling forward in Japanese education" (p. 2). This observation indicates CLIL is developing in the Japanese context. Yasuda (2019) notes that CLIL has reached brand-name status as an "innovative, effective, and forward-looking educational approach that can easily transform from (traditional) teacher-centered classrooms to (more innovative) student-centered learning environments" (p. 50). There is a danger CLIL has achieved the mantle of a buzzword, and researchers and educators in Japan have yet to fully understand how CLIL can utilized. Yasuda (2019) also comments that CLIL in Japan is currently being conceptualized in different ways and reiterates a shared understanding of CLIL is needed for it to be used more widely in Japan.

MacGregor (2016) explored viewpoints of CLIL university teachers in Japan. Thirteen university teachers were interviewed about how they define CLIL, how their CLIL classes were taught, how their students were evaluated, what materials and activities they used, and their thoughts on CLIL's suitability in Japan. Two findings of this study related to authentic materials and scaffolding. The participants felt learners should use authentic, unchanged materials, with news articles, TED Talks, and novels mentioned as examples. However, the participants also noted the learners' level was a determining factor for the success of the CLIL lessons, and it was challenging to find materials at an appropriate level. As for scaffolding, MacGregor (2016) states that "few gave examples of scaffolding tasks, suggesting that they may not fully understand what this entails" (p. 431). Therefore, authentic materials and scaffolding appear to be issues for the development and use of CLIL in Japanese universities.

The label of authenticity is notoriously hard to define. Pinner (2013) notes it is a loose concept with a lack of straightforwardness. Therefore, authenticity is prone to misinterpretation often manifesting in ideas that authentic texts are written for native speaker audiences. Aside from the native label being outdated, this understanding of authentic has little relevance to CLIL materials as they are not written for a native audience. Pinner (2013) suggests alternative understandings that may give a nuanced understanding of the label authentic. One suggestion is to substitute the term native for the term real, meaning a real writer could write a text using real language for a real audience (Pinner, 2013). This notion then allows texts produced by CLIL teachers for their student audience to be considered authentic. Pinner (2013) condenses this issue by stating "To put it simply, authentic language is language where something other than language for its own sake is being discussed" (p. 61). The focus on content in CLIL thereby provides a degree of authenticity. Pinner's two views discussed here allow an adjustment from authentic texts originally written for a native audience to CLIL texts adapted for the purposes of this approach.

Due to the paucity of published CLIL materials, especially in Japan, many CLIL teachers opt to write their own CLIL texts and materials. Moore and Lorenzo (2007) note three possible choices where teachers: "a) produce their own materials from scratch, b) employ 'undiluted' authentic materials, c) adapt authentic materials in line with their teaching goals" (p. 28). The final, and possibly more desirable from a CLIL standpoint, choice may be somewhat challenging for teachers to implement possibly because it does not often appear in CLIL literature.

Social constructivist learning theory is fundamental to CLIL (Coyle et al., 2010). Borne out of this theory are the views learning should include interaction between learners and teachers and learning should be scaffolded. Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal development (ZPD) describes learning when it is challenging but possible with support. Scaffolding is this support and manifests in someone or something that is more knowledgeable than the learner. Mehisto, Marsh, and Frigols (2008) note that scaffolding helps students:

• temporarily but not permanently

• access prior learning and analyze it

• process new information

• make connections between prior learning and new learning

• push their understanding further than they could do without it

• by using teachers, other learners, tasks, and materials

It is important to acknowledge that the amount and strength of scaffolding can be reduced as the students' language skills improve (Meyer, 2010). A permanent scaffold is something students will always be reliant on and they may not be able to advance their learning without it. As CLIL has a dual focus on content and language, appropriate scaffolding in both areas is essential. Although scaffolding should be provided for both, this needs to be differentiated depending on salient points of texts (Dale & Tanner, 2012). For example, a Venn diagram could be provided for a text comparing two things versus a gapped note taking for a text containing a number of complex arguments on an issue.

The aim of this paper is to explore approaches for adapting and scaffolding authentic texts in CLIL materials used in a Japanese university setting. As CLIL is practiced in a wide range of contexts, the author's course and learning context will be explained to situate the text adaptation and scaffolding approaches. CLIL frameworks used by the author in the development of course materials will follow. Authentic text adaption approaches and a selection of scaffolding ideas for assisting students in understanding these texts will then be outlined and critiqued.

Context of Course

This CLIL course was taught in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) program for non-English major Japanese undergraduate students at a private university in western Japan. Students were required to take content-focused subjects in their second year. On this course, students had a TOEFL iTP average of 466. The CLIL course focused on the topic of cryptocurrencies over a 12-week program. Throughout the course the students were assessed on vocabulary and lesson content plus their ability to write and speak about issues covered in the course.

Based on this course's context and the following points, a Soft CLIL approach appeared suitable. First, Ikeda (2013) states that Soft CLIL is "a type of content and language integrated instruction taught by trained CLIL language teachers to help learners develop their target language competency as a primary aim and their subject/theme/topic knowledge as a secondary aim" (p. 32). These aims matched the institutional requirements of the course. Second, Ikeda (2013) concluded Soft CLIL was suitable for a Japanese high school cohort who were at an approximate Common European Framework for Reference (CEFR) B1 level which corresponded to the student level in the author's learning context. Third, teachers in the EAP program who were teaching other content-focused courses reported that the students could deal with somewhat challenging content-based texts, but they required significant scaffolding. Pinner (2013) comments on this notion by stating: "the language and content learning aims need to be clear and within the students' ZPD" (p. 65).

Frameworks for CLIL Materials

Coyle et al. (2010) provide viewpoints to consider when using texts in CLIL materials. They state teachers should consider the focus and clarity of the message, the mix of textual styles used, the level of subject-specific vocabulary, general vocabulary and grammatical/syntactical complexity, as well as the clarity of the thread of thinking. Any of these aspects in a text may need to be adapted or rewritten to suit CLIL contexts.

The CLIL Matrix provides a way for teachers to consider linguistic and cognitive demands when designing CLIL materials (Figure 1). Coyle et al. (2010) introduced the CLIL Matrix as an adaption of Cummins' Matrix. The x axis of the matrix focuses on the linguistic demands of CLIL texts and tasks. This is usually determined by the level of vocabulary and grammar-syntax. The y axis focuses on the cognitive demands of tasks. These cognitive demands are typically understood via the Blooms' taxonomy (Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001).

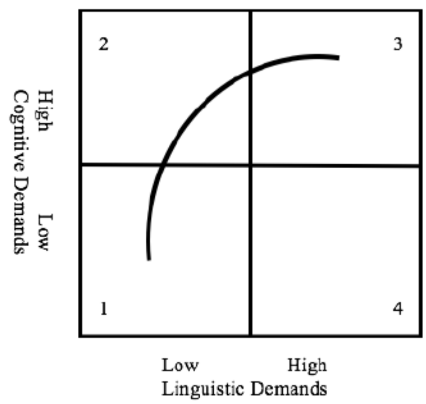

Fig. 1 *CLIL Matrix (Adapted from Cummins' Matrix in Coyle et al., 2010)*

Lower-order thinking skills (LOTS) are remembering, understanding, and applying whereas higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) are analyzing, evaluating, and creating. Ideally, following the CLIL Matrix, a lesson or unit will move from quadrant 1 to 3. However, Coyle et al. (2010) note this may not happen immediately as focused learning in quadrant 2 will “move the learner systematically over a period of time to quadrant 3” (p. 44). Therefore, quadrant 3 can be framed as an ideal goal not always possible in every lesson or unit. In short, the CLIL Matrix allows teachers to evaluate demands CLIL materials put on their learners.

The CLIL Lesson Framework (Banegas, 2017) merges neatly with the CLIL Matrix (Figure 2). It assumes linguistic and cognitive demands of the lesson increase as it progresses. Learners begin by using familiar language and familiar content to scaffold themselves into new content and new language. In this way, learners move from a familiar base to new challenges. Banegas (2017) describes the initial lesson stages as involving familiar input or output while the final stages involve output with increased levels of linguistic and cognitive demands than earlier in the lesson. This framework then conveys a connection to the work of Cummins (1979) on Basic Interpersonal Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). BICS is mostly informal oral language used in social interactions, and CALP is literacy and academic language skills mostly used in learning contexts. Therefore, CALP is particularly important when course content is abstract or more academic in nature. While BICS are used in CLIL lesson interactions, CALP assists learners in dealing with the input and output of CLIL lessons.

Adapting Texts

As authentic texts are an acknowledged issue for CLIL in Japanese universities, it is important for CLIL teachers in this context to account for this. Moore and Lorenzo (2007) provide a valuable study on authentic text adaption for CLIL materials. For the purposes of their study, Moore and Lorenzo (2007) defined adapting as “synonymous with adjustment, modification, grading, and fine-tuning” (p. 29). The researchers gave an authentic text to 23 CLIL teachers in Spain with instructions that they would be teaching a group of students at CEFR B1. The teachers were asked to make appropriate changes to the authentic text as it was seen to be too difficult for the students. From the adaptations made by the CLIL teachers, Moore and Lorenzo identified three distinct text adaption approaches (Appendix A).

Moore and Lorenzo (2007) explored each of these three approaches. The simplification approach created a semantically easier and more readable text. However, it was believed these texts would not lead to greater content understanding for students as less new language was introduced thus impairing students’ exposure to content. The elaboration approach led to longer and more complex texts. This was believed to be because lower level students do not always understand

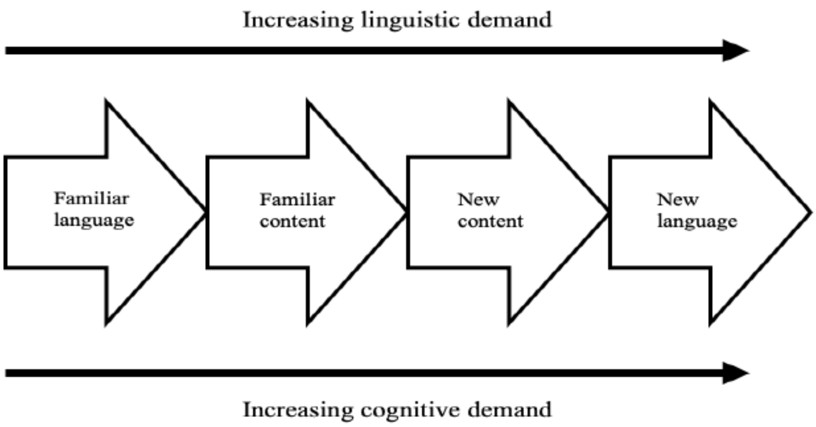

Fig. 2 CLIL Lesson Framework (Adapted from Banegas, 2017)

paraphrase and synonyms. Also, any elaborations added may be perceived as additional information leading increased cognitive demands being placed on the students. The discursification approach used pedagogic discourse to adapt the message of the text while retaining the linguistic and cognitive demands of the original. With this approach Moore and Lorenzo (2007) point out that these texts are “designed to both draw the reader into the text through engagement strategies and to ensure maximum comprehension” (p. 33). The researchers concluded that no single approach was fundamentally better and teachers would be better equipped if they had a range of techniques and an understanding of when one approach is preferable over another.

An authentic text was chosen by the author of the current study to demonstrate the three approaches to adapting authentic texts for CLIL materials (see Appendix B). It is the opening paragraph of a Wikipedia entry on Bitcoin (Wikipedia, n.d.). This text was chosen as it could be considered authentic as it is intended for a native audience and adaptation would be needed if included in a CLIL lesson. The original text contains a range of semantically challenging expressions and sentence structures as well as some cognitively demanding concepts.

In the simplified text (see Appendix C) the sections in bold indicate major changes to assist student understanding. Much of the technical vocabulary has been simplified to choices understood by students. At the sentence level, many of the sentences have been reduced to simple constructions. However, this simplified text has lost some content and may still contain challenging lexical items (e.g. coded information, reward).

The elaborated text (see Appendix D) maintains most of the original text. However, additions at a lexical and sentence level result in a doubling up of information. The first two sentences are indicative of this. The doubling of lexis (e.g. peer-to-peer/(P2P), free/open) and sentence level content (e.g. Satoshi Nakamoto) may appear to assist student understanding, but it reduces the readability. Some lexis and sentence level content has not been elaborated upon and may still cause problems for students (e.g. broadcasting digitally signed messages, timestamp transactions, transaction fees).

The discursified text (see Appendix E) is presented in a familiar way for many students. The opening sentence, the order signal words (First, Second, Third), and other bolded language help reduce the linguistic and cognitive demands of the text. The underlined words would be glossed for clarity as they are low frequency but important for understanding the discursified text. This discursified text could also be accompanied by a diagrammatic representation of the Bitcoin network to further assist the students in understanding related concepts (e.g. peer-to-peer network, public). Moore and Lorenzo (2007) also mention using rhetorical questions and including the writer’s attitude, but these did not seem appropriate inclusions for this text.

In line with the work of Moore and Lorenzo (2007), the three text adaptation approaches produce significantly different outcomes. On balance, the author feels that the discursification approach produced texts that were the most understandable for students in his context. However, the simplification and elaboration approaches also contained some merits for the author’s course and these were incorporated into texts at times.

Scaffolding

Although CLIL teachers may decide to adapt authentic texts, scaffolding would be required to maximize student understanding and learning. Mehisto et al. (2008) provide a number of approaches for scaffolding texts in CLIL materials:

- inserting synonyms or definitions in parentheses
- placing notes in margins
- breaking materials into chunks
- using graphic organizers such as Venn diagrams, tables and charts
- highlighting the most important text in the passage
- using pictures and realia

All of these were seen to be sound scaffolding strategies. However, the author decided to avoid the use of parentheses, and instead glossed words in the margin of the texts if required.

A number of other scaffolding strategies were used in the course materials. These were chosen as they were appropriate for the author's teaching context.

Pre-reading Tasks

Following the CLIL Lesson Framework, the author aimed at familiar or accessible pre-reading tasks. In these tasks, students approach the lesson topic via familiar language and rely on their BICS. These pre-reading tasks took two forms, comics and discussions. The comics used three characters (Alice, Bob, and Charlie) to convey the lesson topics on a personal level. For example, in a lesson that compared cryptocurrencies to the traditional banking system, two characters who used each money system were contrasted. The three characters were used numerous times across the course so students could use their accumulated understanding of them. Discussions also used personal level questions to prompt students to consider their lives or lives of other people in Japan. Questions moved successively closer to the lesson topic with the final question asking the students about the lesson topic itself, and therefore being quite challenging. Students were assigned into pairs or small groups for these tasks. The larger group option was useful if discussion questions were particularly challenging. Additionally, in initial lessons, if certain groups were struggling to answer questions, the teacher could get other groups to report their answers to the class or the teacher could report good responses that were overheard. This teacher-led reporting was useful until students could work independently on discussions later in the course.

Visual information

CLIL literature often emphasizes using visual information and tasks to increase student understanding and learning. Three types of visual scaffolding were used in the author's course materials: graphs, photographs, and realia. The course focus made it necessary to include facts, figures, and trends related to cryptocurrency issues in the texts. One way of supporting students' understanding was to add graphs. Often students would make connections between the graphs and texts. However, if this was not possible, or if there was a need to highlight a connection, graphs could be used as discussion prompts or the students could be given a series of questions related to the graphs. Photographs and realia were also used similarly. Photographs often showed people or events mentioned within a text. Students could make, or be prompted to make, connections between photographs and the text. An example of realia was a screenshot of a company email related to the media during a hacking scandal. Hence, an intertextual situation was formed where students could synthesize, or be prompted to synthesize, information between the texts to create deeper understanding.

Highlighting Parts of the Text

Mehisto et al. (2008) suggest highlighting important parts of a passage. The author felt this could also be achieved in a different way. A Did you know? box was used to present an important or interesting fact related to the text. The Did you know? box could be presented pre- or post-reading. The students were required to read, discuss, and relate it back to the text. Again, an intertextual situation was formed as students were prompted to synthesize information from the text and the Did you know? box. For example, one text includes information about a private key, which is the equivalent of a long password, so the Did you know? box includes an actual 64 character long private key and a description of it to demonstrate its level of security.

Graphic organizers

CLIL research literature also emphasizes using graphic organizers to guide student understanding of texts. In contrast to regular language lessons that use comprehension questions to check student understanding, CLIL lessons focus on guiding student understanding and learning. The author's course materials followed a 3-lesson unit cycle. The first lesson of the unit guided the students by giving a gapped note taking where the students read one paragraph at a time. The second lesson of the unit guided the students by giving a whole text article map to complete. The third lesson of the unit was a case study and therefore often required specialized graphic organizers. For example, one case study focused on the Mt. Gox hacking scandal that has played out since 2011 and involved a number of complex events. Thus, a timeline was given to the students so that they could organize the events of the story chronologically. Across this three-lesson unit cycle, the amount of scaffolding was varied to encourage students to read with less scaffolding from the materials.

Conclusion

To conclude, it is important that CLIL teachers are able to select a suitable CLIL type for their learning context. This understanding can assist in finding solutions to numerous issues that arise when writing or designing CLIL materials. Following a set of established CLIL frameworks can also assist with this. When using authentic texts, CLIL teachers should consider what adaptation approach and amount is required. A suitable selection of scaffolding strategies should also be included in CLIL materials in order to maximize student understanding and learning. CLIL materials should provide scaffolding across lessons, units, and the course itself. However, certain scaffolding elements can be leveraged by CLIL teachers if students need to improve their understanding of a particular aspect of the materials. CLIL teachers should decrease or remove scaffolding if it is not needed by the students to encourage autonomy. Importantly, the scaffolding could always be added in again by the teacher during a lesson if needed.

It is hoped that future CLIL research in the Japanese university setting can add more details to the range of CLIL approaches being used and further explore authentic text adaptation and scaffolding within CLIL materials.

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Author biography

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Appendix

Appendix A

Approaches to adapting authentic texts for CLIL courses (from Moore & Lorenzo, 2007)

Adaptation type	Method	Examples
Simplification	"a paring down of the text to its basic content"	sentence based procedure; shorter sentences, lexical simplification, copula verbs
Elaboration	"an expansion of the text through the addition of paraphrase and explanation"	high redundancy; important points are highlighted, and rephrased, key noun phrases repeated
Discursification	"a pedagogic redefinition of the message"	a deep approach, text becomes pedagogic; rhetorical questions, writer's attitude, added visuals or glossaries

Appendix B

Original Text

Bitcoin is a peer-to-peer payment system and digital currency introduced as open source software in 2009 by pseudonymous developer Satoshi Nakamoto. It is a cryptocurrency, so-called because it uses cryptography to control the creation and transfer of money. Users send payments by broadcasting digitally signed messages to the network. Participants known as miners verify and timestamp transactions into a shared public database called the block chain, for which they are rewarded with transaction fees and newly minted bitcoins.

Appendix C

Simplified Text

Bitcoin is a type of **digital money** that uses a peer-to-peer system. In 2009 **Satoshi Nakamoto released the Bitcoin software for free**. Bitcoin is a cryptocurrency because it uses **coded information** to create and send money. Bitcoin users share payments by **sending their coded information with everyone on the Bitcoin network**. Other users **look at this information is correct** so it can enter the Bitcoin database. If the information is **correct**, these users **get bitcoin as a reward**.

N.B. Bold sections indicate major changes to assist student understanding.

Appendix D

Elaborated Text

Bitcoin is a peer-to-peer **(P2P)** payment system and digital currency introduced as **free** open source software in 2009 by pseudonymous developer Satoshi Nakamoto. **The identity of Satoshi Nakamoto is still a mystery because people do not know if it is a real person or group of people.** Bitcoin is a cryptocurrency, so-called because it uses cryptography, **like secret codes**, to control the creation and transfer of money. **This means Bitcoin has a high level of privacy**. **Bitcoin users** send payments by broadcasting digitally signed messages to the **Bitcoin network**. **Bitcoin miners** verify and timestamp transactions into a shared public database called the **Bitcoin blockchain**, for which they are rewarded with transaction fees and new bitcoins. **The Bitcoin blockchain is open for anyone on the internet to see, but all the information on it is in a secret code.**

N.B. Bold sections indicate elaborations that were added to assist student understanding.

Appendix E

Discursified Text

There are a number of important things to know about Bitcoin if you want to understand it. **First**, it was developed by Satoshi Nakamoto in 2009. **Howeve**r, people do not know if Satoshi Nakamoto is a real person or a group of people. **Second**, Bitcoin is different to other types of money because it is a digital <u>currency</u> that uses a <u>peer-to-peer network</u>. Bitcoin users send their information via computers to other Bitcoin users in a secret code no one can read. **This is because** Bitcoin is a cryptocurrency. ‘Crypto’ means secret or coded and ‘currency’ means money or cash. **Third**, Bitcoin <u>miners</u> check the secret code to see if is correct. They receive a reward in bitcoin for checking it. **If** the information they check is correct, it goes onto a public list called the Bitcoin blockchain that anyone on the internet can see.

N.B. Bold sections help reduce the linguistic and cognitive demands of the text. Underlined words would be glossed to assist student understanding.

15 Japanese Version of the Smartphone Addiction Scale Short Version (SAS-SV)

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To assist in the recognition and treatment of the widespread phenomenon of smartphone addiction, this study examines the development and implementation of a Japanese translation of the Smartphone Addiction Scale Short Version (SAS-SV) for adolescents, developed in Korea by Kwon, Kim, Cho, and Yang (2013). The original SAS-SV has been replicated in several countries around the world. Scrupulous forward-backward translation was undertaken, and the resulting questionnaire administered to 533 first-year undergraduate students at a national university in Kyoto, Japan. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.85, comparable to Kwon, Kim et al.'s original 0.911, confirms the new instrument's reliability. As to validity, confirmatory factor analysis results, however, indicated that the model was not well-fitted. As such, research is ongoing to improve the psychometric properties of the translation and adaptation of the scale to increase its suitability for use in the Japanese cultural context.

本研究では、日本語では初となる有効で信頼性の高い青少年向けのスマートフォン依存尺度の作成を試みた。先行研究で示されたスマートフォン依存尺度（SAS）の 33 項目（Kwon, Lee, Won, Park, Min & Hahn, 2013）を採用し、日本語に翻訳された一次元 10 項目のアンケートを作成した。翻訳の際には客観性を保証するために逆翻訳も行った。アンケート調査は京都工芸繊維大学の 1 年生 533 人を対象に行った。因子分析の結果、調査の信頼性を示すクロンバックのα係数は 0.85 となり、信頼性は高いといえる。しかし、今回使用したモデルは日本での使用に完全に適合しているとはいえないため、日本語版の項目のサイコメトリック特性および潜在的適応性の改善を目標に研究を継続中である。また、スマートフォン依存の度合いの問題と同時に、男性と女性でのスマートフォン使用量と依存度の違いについても調査を行った。

In Japan, 81.4% of adolescents (10 to 19 years) own a smartphone and this number increases to 94.2% for people in their twenties (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, 2017). Smartphones, with their greatly increased functions, are used by many people throughout the day to help them complete everyday tasks. While tasks have become easier, many find themselves dependent on their phones and feel adversely affected without them (Lopez-Fernandez, 2015). Such people experience "nomophobia", an abbreviation of 'no mobile phone phobia' (SecurEnvoy, 2012). Researchers have developed various scales to measure whether smartphone usage levels are problematic. Because adolescents and emerging adults (aged 18 to 29) access the internet more than other age groups (Pew Research Center, 2012; Anderson, Steen, & Stavropoulos, 2017), and addictive behaviors established during these years are likely to continue throughout life (Coffey, Carlin, Lynskey, Li & Patton, 2013), development of a survey instrument that efficiently assesses problematic smartphone use in young people is particularly necessary.

The purpose of this study is twofold; firstly, to examine the validity and reliability of the Japanese version of the Short Version of the Smartphone Addiction Scale for adolescents and adults (JSAS-SV) and secondly to estimate excessive smartphone use prevalence amongst the Japanese university student population.

Problematic Smartphone Use

Since Young (1998) published her seminal work, Caught in the Net, exploring how parents could help teenage offspring struggling with problematic internet use, research exploring the problematic use and overuse of technology has developed greatly (Anderson, Steen, & Stavropoulos, 2017). Internet addiction has steadily grown in recent years, possibly related to the rapid increase in the ownership of smartphones. East Asian countries in particular are noted for high levels of both internet and smartphone addiction (Roh et al., 2018). Behavioral addictions have been found to be similar to substance addictions (Ko, Yen, Chen, Yeh & Yen, 2009; Banz, Yip, Yau & Potenza, 2016) and are characterized by "maladaptive repetitive behaviors" sharing "considerable phenomenological parallels with substance addictions" (Roh et al., 2018, p.80). The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders from the American Psychiatric Association (2013) has not yet included internet addiction, limiting the use of the term 'addiction' to substance addiction, with the exception of pathological gambling. Problematic internet usage (PIU) has been found to have negative implications for people's lives (Akin, 2012). Similar to PIU and gaming, Problematic Smartphone Use (PSU) has also become important (Salehan & Negahban, 2013). Kwon, Kim et al. (2013) state that "a smartphone also has the possibility of becoming a prevalent social problem as it signifies the characteristics of addiction such as tolerance, withdrawal, difficulty performing daily activities or impulse control disorders" (p. e83558). They go on to describe adolescents as being more vulnerable to smartphone addiction than other age groups and state that it is therefore important to identify those who may be at risk.

The SAS and SAS-SV

The Smartphone Addiction Scale (SAS) was developed to measure generalized mobile phone usage and to identify excessive or problematic smartphone usage amongst the general population. The 33-question scale proved to be unwieldy, however, and a revised, short version was developed later in 2013. The Smartphone Addiction Scale Short Version for Adolescents and Young Adults (SAS-SV) was found to be a useful tool to screen for nomophobe-prone adolescents. The 10-question instrument measures six factors: daily-life disturbance, positive anticipation, withdrawal, cyberspace-oriented relationships, overuse and tolerance, using a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Participants are given a total score ranging from 10 – 60, with higher scores indicating higher levels of addiction. The SAS-SV found different cut-off values to identify addiction for males (31) and for females (33) with a Receiver Operating Characteristics (ROC) analysis, which measured the diagnostic ability of the SAS-SV score to predict smartphone addiction. The SAS-SV has been replicated in various cultural contexts such as Italy (DePasquale, Sciacca & Hichy, 2017), Spain and Belgium (Lopez-Fernandez, 2015), Switzerland (Haug et al., 2015), Turkey (Akin, Altundag, Turan & Akin, 2014), Lebanon (Samaha & Hawi, 2015), and China (Luk et al., 2018). This study was undertaken to explore the applicability of the SAS-SV in the Japanese context and will henceforth be referred to as JSAS-SV.

Methods

Participants were recruited from the first-year students of a large national Japanese university. All participants were science majors. The researchers explained the purpose of the survey and told the students participation was optional, and that failure to participate would not affect their academic grades. Participating students signed ethical consent forms to allow their data to be used. In addition to the questionnaire, descriptive data was collected on gender and age, frequency and duration of use, how many times a week they use their phones at night, and how many messages they send each day. The sample consists of 501 usable responeses from young adults (30% female, 70% male) with a mean age of 19.22 years, and a standard deviation of 1.09.

The questionnaire was translated from English into Japanese using a multi-step process. Firstly, a bilingual English-Japanese translator translated the ten survey statements into Japanese. Next, the Japanese was translated back into English by a second translator and these sentences were compared with the original statements. Differences between the translations were identified, and the translations adjusted accordingly. The process was repeated, ensuring that the Japanese instrument was as close to Kwon, Kim et al.'s 2013 original as possible. The items from the original SAS-SV survey are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Short Version of the Smartphone Addiction Scale Items

1	Missing planned work due to smartphone use
2	Having a hard time concentrating in class, while doing assignments, or while working due to smartphone use
3	Feeling pain in the wrists or at the back of the neck while using a smartphone
4	Won't be able to stand not having a smartphone
5	Feeling impatient and fretful when I am not holding my smartphone
6	Having my smartphone in my mind even when I am not using it
7	I will never give up using my smartphone even when my daily life is already greatly affected by it.
8	Constantly checking my smartphone so as not to miss conversations between other people on Twitter or Facebook
9	Using my smartphone longer than I had intended
10	The people around me tell me that I use my smartphone too much

Factor Structure

To test the factor structure of the scale, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with one latent factor and ten observed variables (the ten items) was performed. To verify the adequacy of the models, $\chi 2$ was used. $\chi 2(35) = 395.07$. All factor loadings were significant at $p < .001$, but this may have been due to the large sample size. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .81 was below the necessary .95 and so fit the data well, and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), was under .08 at SRMR= .073 which is considered acceptable. Internal consistency of all the corrected item total correlations is adequate, ranging from 0.38 to 0.73. Item 3 is considerably lower than other factor loadings, however, indicating weaker correlations with other scale items.

A linear regression, however, showed that the data is not normally distributed. If the variance is above 40%, the analysis is considered valid, and over 70% ideal. The R squared values are below 20%, however, meaning that the dependent variable (JSAS-SV score) was only slightly influenced by the independent variables (the four usage values).

Item Analysis and ReliabilityFactor Structure

Item analysis of the JSAS-SV is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Item analysis

	Mean	SD	CFA factor loadings
Item 1	4.37	1.31	0.602
Item 2	3.99	1.39	0.631
Item 3	2.97	1.6	0.379
Item 4	3.88	1.47	0.644
Item 5	2.65	1.3	0.745
Item 6	2.38	1.24	0.686
Item 7	3.57	1.45	0.667
Item 8	2.81	1.35	0.607
Item 9	4.60	1.1	0.551
Item 10	2.80	1.49	0.576

Table 3 indicates that the Cronbach's Alpha will improve to 0.862 if Item 3, which also showed weak association with the remaining nine items in the correlation matrix, is removed from the analysis. This will further improve the reliability of the other items. Even

Table 3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Item 1	29.67	68.259	.593	.551	.839
Item 2	30.04	66.938	.612	.534	.837
Item 3	31.06	70.679	.355	.164	.862
Item 4	30.15	67.162	.561	.436	.842
Item 5	31.38	66.648	.680	.547	.832
Item 6	31.65	68.461	.626	.484	.837
Item 7	30.46	66.425	.607	.430	.837
Item 8	31.22	68.369	.564	.357	.841
Item 9	29.43	71.633	.534	.361	.845
Item 10	31.23	67.411	.537	.325	.844

without removing Item 3, the reliability coefficients for the summated items were high (alpha = .85), as per the findings of Gliem and Gliem (2003).

Results and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to test the reliability, validity and applicability of the JSAS-SV and to estimate how prevalent excessive smartphone use is amongst the Japanese university population. The scale has a good internal consistency and its mono-factorial structure was confirmed. As such, it is reliable. The validity, however, requires further research.

In Table 2 showing the item analysis, the mean of each scale item is reported. It can be clearly seen from the results that excessive smartphone usage has an impact on the daily lives of the participants with items 9, 1 and 2 being the highest items recorded. Additionally, participants reported high levels of anxiety if they imagined being permanently without their phones. This contrasts with the responses to items 5 and 6, which addressed feelings of anxiety when not using their phones, which had the lowest scores. This might be attributed to high usage and never being without their phones at hand. It is somewhat surprising that the mean of Item 10 is so low when compared to other items. Item 10 points to awareness of addiction on the part of others. It would seem natural that people who self-assessed themselves, for example, as having missed planned work due to smartphone use, an item with a mean of 4.37, to have had this brought to their attention. The mean for Item 10, however, was 2.80. Perhaps this is because the participants are university students, many of whom live alone, or may reflect societal acceptance of high levels of smartphone use.

In the SAS, Kwon, Lee et al. (2013) stated they found no difference in the levels of smartphone addiction between females and males, although the female mean score for that survey was 112.7, and the male 104.5 from a possible minimum score of 48 and a maximum of 288. The results of other surveys have been mixed, with some showing higher levels of smartphone addiction for females (e.g. Takao, Takahashi, & Kitamura, 2009), and others for males (e.g. Chen et al., 2017). It therefore seems important to engage in more research in this area. In the original Korean SAS-SV, the average male score was 24, while the average female score was 28. In this study, however, the male score was higher than the female, at 34.5 and 33.8 respectively. As previously mentioned, the SAS-SV identified the addiction levels for males at 31 and females at 33. The average levels of smartphone usage in this study exceed these levels, and as such, are of serious concern. In the present study, 39% of males and 57.5% of females scored over the recommended diagnostic figures for addiction.

The cut-off scores to assess addiction for the participants in this survey were based on the ROC analysis for the original Korean version of the survey (see Fawcett, 2006 for a detailed analysis of ROC). Some have suggested that cut-offs may need to be reexamined when applied to populations of different cultural backgrounds (Lopez-Fernandez, 2017). Kuss, Griffiths, Karila and Billeux (2014), in their comprehensive review of internet addiction studies, found that excessive technology use is higher in Asia than in the West. In 2018, Japan ranked number 10 in the international technology penetration comparison, the Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) Index, (Zavazava, 2019). As JSAS-SV data participants are from Japan, a country geographically, ethnically and culturally close to Korea where the original SAS-SV was undertaken, it was assumed that the similar gender distribution and East Asian culture of the participants in both studies would result in similarly distributed data. This proved not to be the case. Lopez-Fernandez (2017) suggests using the SAS-SV mean score as the addiction indicative cut-off. This, however, would presume half of the participants are addicted, and half are not. To err on the side of caution, this study utilized Kwon, Kim at al.'s (2013) thorough, ROC-driven approach.

Table 4 shows smartphone-usage-based distributions of the SAS-SV scores for male and female participants. The highlighted areas show the highest self-reported number of users for each category. It may be assumed that higher levels of smartphone usage would be associated with higher levels of dependency. For female participants designated as 'addicted' this was true in three of the four categories (Frequency, 29.5%; Number of messages sent, 12.5%; Night usage, 25.0%). Lin et al. (2015) found that smartphone addiction was more strongly connected with frequency of use than duration. Haug et al. (2015), however, found the opposite to be true. In the present study, males were found to have higher levels of smartphone addiction and duration of use, and as some 55% and 47.7% respectively of addicted male and female participants use their smartphones for more than three hours each day, duration is an important factor to consider.

Overall, the female participants reported sending more text messages than their male counterparts. This is in line with findings by Haagsma, King, Pieterse and Peters (2013) and Roberts, Yaya and Manolis (2014), that females use their phones more for social interaction than males do. The reported number of messages sent was surprisingly low, however, with the majority of respondents across all categories sending fewer than 20 messages each day. An interesting relationship is seen, however, in that female participants designated as 'addicted' were twice as likely to send more than 40 messages a day as non-addicted users. Male participants designated as 'addicted' were three times more likely to send more than 40 messages a day than their non-addicted counterparts.

In terms of night usage, the majority of participants report using their phones once or twice a week between midnight and 5 a.m. However, 25% of female participants designated as 'addicted' report using their phones during these hours every night compared to only 6.3% of non-addicted female users, revealing a very large gap between the two groups. There was no similar pattern among male participants with approximately 20% of both groups reporting nightly usage. Previous research has found that smartphone addiction can affect sleep. Demirci, Akgonul, and Akipinar (2015), for example, concluded that there were positive correlations between high SAS scores and depression and anxiety levels, and sleep quality.

Table 4

Distribution of male and female SAS-SV Scores based on smartphone usage

Smartphone Usage	Female Below SAS-SV of 32 (%)	Female Above SAS-SV of 33 (%)	Male Below SAS-SV of 30 (%)	Male Above SAS-SV of 31 (%)	Total
Frequency					
< 10 times	6.3	4.5	15.1	1.8	6.2
10-20 times	42.2	25.0	41.3	24.7	31.1
20-30 times	25.0	28.4	25.4	32.3	28.9
30-40 times	6.3	12.5	7.1	13.9	11.0
> 40 times	20.3	29.5	11.1	27.4	22.8
Duration					
< 1 hour	6.3	0	5.6	.044	2.4
1-2 Hours	32.8	17.0	38.1	11.2	21.8
2-3 Hours	26.6	35.2	23.0	33.2	30.1
3-4 Hours	15.6	22.7	20.6	22.4	21.2
> 4 Hours	18.8	25.0	12.7	32.7	24.6
Messages					
< 10 times	31.3	19.3	57.1	34.1	36.9
10-20 times	40.6	44.3	24.6	29.6	32.3
20-30 times	18.8	18.2	8.7	17.9	15.8
30-40 times	3.1	5.7	5.6	6.3	25.6
> 40 times	6.3	12.5	4.0	12.1	9.4
Night Usage					
Zero times	14.1	8.0	19.8	8.5	12.0
1-2 times	50.0	30.7	41.3	39.0	39.5
3-4 times	23.4	22.7	11.9	19.7	18.8
5-6 times	6.3	13.6	5.6	12.6	10.2
7 times	6.3	25.0	21.4	20.2	19.6

This study has several limitations. Firstly, because the participants are all first-year science department undergraduate students, they form a narrow educational and cultural demographic. Secondly, the gender balance is not 1:1, as 70% of the participants were male and 30% female. Additionally, participants in studies that use self-reported data have been shown to underestimate things that they perceive as negative. For example, Lin et al. (2015) compared self-reported and application-recorded smartphone use and found that a majority of participants underestimated their usage time. That study found that those who used their smartphones more frequently, more greatly underestimated their frequency of use. Finally, although it has been only six years since Kwon, Kim et al.'s 2013 study, the capabilities of smartphones and the number of people who own them have increased and this may have affected the results.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study has established that the JSAS-SV is a reliable tool in the Japanese context, but further research needs to be undertaken in regard to validation, as the limitations described do not fully explain the lack of model fit. The participants' responses indicate high levels of smartphone addiction, higher than those found in Kwon, Kim et al. (2013). An ROC analysis in the Japanese university context will allow for analysis of Kwon, Kim et al.'s cut-off scores here, and will be undertaken as part of ongoing research, which will also examine the differences between smartphone use in males and females, and which types of activities are connected to addiction.

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16 Addressing Gender Equality

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This year the Gender Awareness in Language Education (GALE) Forum at PanSIG2019 had four presenters. Tanja McCandie introduced her new website designed to improve gender equality called “Equality in ELT in Japan” <www.equalityeltjapan.net>. Kathleen Cahill spoke about the development of JALT’s Code of Conduct and the procedures concerning how people can make a complaint if they experience some form of harassment. She also discussed the implementation of workshops which encourage the building of a safe environment for all. Our third speaker, Gerry Yokota, built on this, connecting her work with the Code of Conduct committee and her teaching. She explored various ways in which we can increase awareness of gender issues on our campuses and in our classrooms. Finally, Gwyn Helverson provided an example of an academic writing course which addressed the concept of voice in writing through the examination of alternative fairy tales and the development of voices for Artificial Intelligence.

今年開催された PanSIG2019 の GALE フォーラムにおいて、以下の 4 人のプレゼンターが発表を行った。まず Tanja McCandie は、「日本における ELT の平等」というジェンダーの平等性を向上させるために作成されたウェブサイトを紹介した。次に Kathleen Cahill は、JALT の行動規範の啓発とハラスメント被害を受けた場合の申し立ての手続きについて述べ、また全員にとっての安全な環境の構築を促進するためのワークショップの開催について論じた。続いて Gerry Yokota は、この行動規範啓発のために構成された委員会における活動と自身の研究・教育活動を結び付け、キャンパス内やクラス内でのジェンダー問題への意識を向上させるための様々な方法について論じた。最後に Gwyn Helverson は、現代作家によるおとぎ話や AI の声の開発を題材に、書物の中の「声」の概念の獲得を目的としたアカデミックライティングの授業の例を提供した。

Tanja McCandie: Equality in ELT in Japan website

Lack of representation be it for gender (Kobayashi, 2014; Nagatomo, 2016; OECD, 2016), first language (Kobayashi, 2011; Kobayashi, 2018), and invisible and visible minority groups (Chapple, 2014; Kageyama, 2019) is still an issue within our teaching community that we need to address and improve upon. The website, <www.equalityeltjapan.net>, was created to address the gender imbalance women face in ELT in Japan.

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) began in 1975 and is the largest academic association in Japan for language teachers. JALT has made great strides towards diversity and inclusiveness in the past few years by instating a Code of Conduct and more recently, in June 2019, creating a Diversity and Equity Practices Committee (DEP).

Membership demographics, supplied by JALT's Head Office, have consistently hovered around 60% male, 40% female, 35% Japanese and 65% non-Japanese for the last ten years. Non-Japanese men make up nearly 50% of the organization, non-Japanese women 15%, Japanese men 10% and Japanese women account for approximately 25%.

After the all-white, male, native English presenter slate at PanSIG 2016, there was discussion on just how underrepresented women were within JALT, and ELT as a whole. Presentations such as "Where are the women in ELT?" (Prentis and Mayne, 2015) given at the IATEFL conference in 2015 and the website <http://thefairlist.org> demonstrate that gender imbalance in ELT in not just a JALT and Japan issue. The JALT International Conference has historically been balanced regarding slate speakers but there were many other events that seemed to be rather "male heavy". JALT's Technology and Teaching (TnT) Workshops, held the Friday before the international conference is one example of an event that has historically been very non-Japanese male dominated in regard to presenters. In 2018, ten out of the twelve presenters were male, and in 2017, fifteen out of eighteen presenters were male. 2019 had four women presenters out of sixteen, a better balance thought to be due raised awareness.

A lack of representation for *others* needs to be addressed more within the organization. Unlike the recent medical university entrance scandals in Japan in which women were clearly systematically targeted (Wheeler, 2018), the lack of *other*, more so female presenters, is not believed to be systematic. Based on ongoing research being done by JALT's DEP, it is a result of oversight, which persists because of a lack of awareness, lack of connections with *other*, and insular networking. A lack of awareness, connections and staying within *our group* extends to all of us, regardless of our best intentions and efforts, and so we all need to work at overcoming this.

Stepping back from large events like the JALT International Conference, the PanSIG Conference, and the TnT Wokshops, how is JALT doing with smaller events like chapter presentations? Not well. Research using The Language Teacher, a JALT publication which keeps members up-to-date, and the chapter reports from 2007 to 2015 demonstrated (findings forthcoming) not only an overall lack of female presenters, but a lack of Japanese presenters. It became very clear that while I, as a non-Japanese woman, wasn't seeing enough of *me* in invited speaker positions and at local chapters, Japanese women were faring even worse.

I decided to start questioning how and why women were being overlooked. I began asking people I knew involved in scheduling speakers how they decided presenters for chapter events, symposiums, and conferences. The replies I received were varied. Some were very apologetic with people concerned that they had blind-spots. They asked what they could do to improve and listened to suggestions. Others, however, were rather unapologetic and insisted there was no imbalance and that even if there was, it was because they could not find women to present, women are not knowledgeable in certain fields of ELT, women are not interested in presenting, and/or women just are not good enough to be asked to present. These replies came from women and men, various teacher organizations and groups, universities, and publishing companies. The idea that people organizing events were unable to find willing and knowledgeable female presenters was very concerning.

As a result, the "Equality in ELT in Japan" website <www.equalityeltjapan.net> was started as both a support system for those who wanted to have better gender representation at their events, but also to end the belief that there just are not women qualified enough to speak about certain fields. The inspiration to start the website came from watching what female educators in Europe and the United Kingdom were doing; “The Fair List” website <http://thefairlist.org> and “Gender Equality in ELT” list <https://genderequalityelt.wordpress.com/database-of-women/>, being the two main models. Paul Arenson, the former Gender Awareness in Language Education (GALE) SIG website administrator, offered support to help set up this website so that I could create more awareness and support for women in our ELT community. As of now, we have a database of over 75 women, from various communities and language backgrounds who offer a wealth of knowledge and are willing to present. The website lists women alphabetically, including email addresses, in the hopes that those listed will be contacted and asked to share their expertise with other members of our community. We also include a section based on topics so if organizers have certain themes and need speakers, they can look at the topic page and find a speaker that is suitable for their event.

Lack of representation is not just a women’s issue. It affects all of us. We strongly encourage men to help improve speaker representation by asking them to join us and take a pledge to not sit on slates that are not representative of the community they are presenting to. The “male ally” page lists many well-known male teachers in Japan who also want to help create awareness and equality by being a part of the solution.

We are a work in progress and encourage people to reach out and help us improve. The website has only been running for a year as of writing this, but already there has been very positive feedback. The Gifu JALT chapter used the webpage to help find presenters when they were organizing their presentation schedule, for 2019 and 2020, the website has been featured in presentations in Europe and presented on in Australia. We are working with organizations like “Equal Voices in Education” (EVE) to help increase awareness and would like to work with other groups to better support fair representation for all, be it gender, first language, and visible and invisible minorities.

If you’d like to be a part of the website, either as a presenter or an ally, please contact us at <equalityeltjapan@gmail.com>.

Kathleen Cahill: JALT Code of Conduct

At the 2017 February Executive Board Meeting (EBM) of JALT, the first version of the Code of Conduct (COC) and the Code of Conduct Complaint Procedures were approved. Following the approval, discussions were held by the Executive Board to provide feedback to the working group that drafted the Code and the Procedures, as well as to make recommendations for future actions. Following the EBM, a call was made for anyone interested in joining the Code of Conduct Working Group, in order to let those who were in the group during the drafting to step down. It was around this time that I was invited to join the working group. For the next two years, our goals were to come up with a finalized version of the Code and refine the Complaints Procedures based on feedback from people we talked to at PanSIG 2018 and the 2018 JALT International Conference, as well as to make people aware of the Code and who it protects. At the 2019 February EBM, our group was officially accepted as a subcommittee of the Administrative Committee. Members of the Committee include co-chairs Tanja McCandie and Brent Simmonds, Gerry Yokota, the President of the JALT Board of Directors Richmond Stroupe, the Vice President Naomi Fujishima and myself. Our current goals include developing and refining the procedure if an official complaint is received, as well as developing a system for keeping records of not only official complaints, but also past, present and future incidents that do not result in a formal complaint. We are also developing training programs to give volunteers, including Chapter and SIG representatives, the skills needed to handle incidents that may arise.

At the 2018 PanSIG conference, we set up a table to talk to people about the COC and get their feedback. It was at that time that several people approached us and told us about their experiences and how they could relate to the need for a COC. Some people were surprised that it had taken JALT as long as it did to enact a COC, as most institutions and other organizations have had one for years. For me, the most surprising, and frustrating reaction was from both men and women saying “What is that for? Sexual harassment at conferences?”

While instances of sexual harassment, physical assult, etc. can and do indeed happen (especially where alcohol is involved), those instances are few. In an organization like JALT, often people do not consider the huge variety of roles people hold and interactions that people have with one another in a large academic NPO run by volunteers. Roles that include conference and other event organizers, the board of directors, the executive board, JALT Central Office staff, chapter and SIG officers who correspond with many people, the publication team who edit and copy edit publications and conference proceedings. There are also volunteers who staff events, as well as individuals who want to present together and/or write together. There are various interactions that members, volunteers, staff, and event attendees who have varied cultures and different perspectives engage in. There are always going to be instances where interactions and correspondence can be, perhaps, misinterpreted or emotions, politics or beliefs, can get in the way of smooth productivity. People often assume that the COC primarily targets sexual harassment. However, sexual harassment is only one factor. Academic harassment, power harassment, and other forms of harassment can and do happen in an organization like ours.

The COC states that harassment includes, but is not restricted to, offensive gestures or verbal comments. This does not begin to touch on areas of academic harassment. For example, the infringement of one's right to engage in research/education/study in a positive environment, or the submission of a research paper without the approval of a co-author. It does not address issues of power harassment, such as Chapter Presidents or SIG Coordinators abusing their power by forcing duties onto other members, or withholding opportunities to take up officer positions for unjustifiable reasons. These are deficiencies which are continuing to be addressed and discussed within the committee. We are currently developing and organizing workshops, in which our main goals are to spread awareness about JALT's definition of harassment, how different behaviors can be perceived by others, as well as a thorough explanation of the complaints proceedure and how to use it, all of which should increase understanding. According to JALT's legal counsel, intention is not something that can be proven, but the level of discomfort can be clearly explained and supported by the individual. Our focus is on protecting and supporting everyone involved, therefore anonymity is a major priority. We would like members to mutually resolve their issues and punishment will always be seen as the last resort. While development of the workshops is still ongoing, we highly encourage members, especially those active in their chapters and SIGs, to familiarize themselves with not only the Code of Conduct, but also the complaints procedure, both of which can be found at <https://jalt.org/main/jalt-code-conduct>.

Gerry Yokota: How to be an ally: Good practices for gender equity

The GALE Mission Statement includes the following aims: (1) to research gender and its implications for language learning and teaching; (2) to improve pedagogical practices; and (3) to raise awareness of human rights issues related to gender for language professionals, and to provide information for countering such discrimination.

In that spirit, for my part in the Forum I talked about the connections between my professional development work with the Code of Conduct Subcommittee and my work as a teacher. In the former area, this includes discussing how perceptions of gender and gendered roles impact professional relationships in our organization; in the latter, it involves promoting gender literacy (Yokota, 2018a) as a component of global citizenship in both undergraduate and graduate education.

I began with a few simple tips on how an educator can foster an atmosphere of inclusion for people with diverse sexual orientations and gender identities (SOGI). Specific examples include having a rainbow sign on your door identifying yourself as an ally, or slideshows on the first day of class with welcome messages such as "LGBT? Cool with me!" I also recommend the use of the gender-inclusive singular "they" and "Mx" (Yokota, 2018b).

In connection with class content, I demonstrated how familiarity with critical concepts from cognitive science and cultural studies can support our efforts to be allies in the quest for gender equity. In my first-year general humanities seminar on intersectionality, for example, I use movies to illustrate how advantages accrue when an individual is associated with a cluster of relatively privileged categories (Collins & Bilge, 2016). It is not just that gender intersects with everything. Society is still structured so that an individual who is a member of multiple majorities—whose identity is a combination of the privileged categories of white, male, and cisgender, for example—is going to have a much greater probability of being able to leverage those advantages in the direction of increasingly upward mobility. I propose that one of the best ways to be an ally is to simply acknowledge that reality. Begin by practicing compassion and empathy, and inform students of the value of those skills, which are universally recognized hallmarks of global citizenship.

In a second-year English performance workshop based on the UN's Sustainable Development Goals, I encourage students to explore intersections between two of the SDGs, such as SDG5 (Gender Equality) and SDG4 (Quality Education). I suggest developing gender literacy through the analysis of media such as UN campaigns, documentaries, and music videos in terms of their effectiveness in raising awareness of global issues.

In classes for humanities majors, I use concepts such as representation (Hall, 2013) and invented tradition (Hobsbawm, 2012) to help students develop skills at critiquing the representation of gender in a range of genres, from literary classics to anime. Critique is followed by recognition of the way mass reproduction of such cultural representations perpetuates implicit bias (Banaji & Greenwald, 2013).

I also recommended making connections with campus initiatives. Examples I gave from my own university include official policy statements on diversity and inclusion, and activities such as our annual film festival focusing on gender and other human rights issues, which makes it clear that you are not engaging in ideological indoctrination but basing your educational practice on institutional directives.

Finally, I referred to the concept of stereotype threat (Steele, 2011) to demonstrate the psychological burden of feeling pressured to prove one's innocence or worth in a world where a member of a less privileged minority is too often treated in ways that make them feel they are being presumed guilty or less worthy. Just as an African-American should not have to "whistle Vivaldi" to signal to an oncoming pedestrian that they pose no threat (a famously publicized incident that inspired the title of Steele's book), a feminist should not have to compromise their beliefs on issues such as sexual harassment out of fear of being accused of "rocking the boat."

I call on all members of JALT to find their own ways to play their part as allies in the quest for gender equity.

Gwyn Helverson: Voice: Who's telling the tale? What tale is being told?

This paper evaluates a content-based EFL writing module aimed at improving students 'mastery of advanced-level vocabulary and structure. In an attempt to imbue writing exercises with more meaning, the module also included discussion of the feminist concept of reclaiming one's voice from restrictive gendered stereotypes. Questionnaire results indicate that the module was reasonably successful and that more statistical data is necessary to evaluate students' improvement in vocabulary levels.

Background

The 39 students ranged from intermediate to native-speaker equivalent level in mixed-major, semi-elective writing classes at a reputable university. The students' writing had often been simplistic in vocabulary and structure so that this module was an attempt to encourage them to produce more precise language in a personally meaningful manner.

Methodology

The module began with discussion of voice as evident in Grimm, Disney, and alternative feminist fairy tales (Bacchilega & Rieder, 2010; Haase, 2000; Pennington, 2018; Pershing & Gablehouse, 2010). A contemporary short story (Angela Carter's "The Kiss", a fairy tale with a distinct setting and a decidedly feminist twist) was introduced (Byatt, 1998, pp. 401-403). Practice included a variety of activities inspired by "Focus on Vocabulary" (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005) and creative writing exercises (Smith & Greenberg, 1996). For example, students were asked to brainstorm appropriate language from the story in three different registers (casual, semi-formal, and formal/academic) to increase their linguistic awareness.

The instructor also provided a vocabulary list of obscure words in both English and Japanese to facilitate reading comprehension. After analyzing the structure of the story, the students were asked to write a fairy tale using their hometowns as the setting. Both peers and the instructor provided feedback.

The topic of voice as, historically, a patriarchal concept (Moore, 2002) with the reclaiming of voice in second-wave feminism; i.e. as in Carter's story (Power, 2013), was also discussed. Female AI voices of maternalized and/or sexualized servitude (of which the robot, Sophia, and Amazon's assistant, Alexa, are two examples) were introduced: they are thought to be so-called modern Cinderellas and representative of a backlash against contemporary gains made by feminism (Chambers, 2018; Steele, 2018). Activists 'creation of a gender-neutral AI voice (MacLellan, 2019) were discussed in an attempt to subvert oppressive gender norms, including those of traditional fairy tales.

Results

Students were asked to evaluate the module's effectiveness and meaningfulness in a questionnaire (in both English and Japanese) on a 4-point Likert scale. The feedback was mostly positive, with the majority of students stating that their knowledge of, but not necessarily usage of, advanced-level language improved in this "difficult," but "fun" project.

Sample writing:

1. Self-introduction in the first class of the semester (1st year male, Engineering, seemingly unmotivated):

> My name is .… I'm from ____. ______ Castle is famous. It's cold in winter, but very hot in summer…It's crowded and busy city…

2. Excerpt from this student's fairy tale:

> The winter in ____ is crisp and cold, while the hot, humid summers bring fainting from heat-stroke…The people walk quickly even though they are exhausted from working hard and they don't have time to sleep. Moreover, they have to pay tax…
>
> They walk as carefully as if they respected the ruler of the area where they live…

Samples of representative questionnaire comments include:

> 1. …the study is useful for me because I can have the time to think about my town history.
>
> 2. Writing Fairy Tale is the first time including in Japanese, so it's full with interest and fun.

One out of 39 students was critical (translated):

> 3. Rather than writing a longer story, I would have preferred more sentence-level practice.

Discussion

It would be useful to perform quantitative analysis of the students' early writing in comparison to later work to determine to what degree the students had increased their usage of more descriptive, advanced-level vocabulary. Approximately 20% of the students mastered all aspects of the assignment (as per grading criteria): they were able to employ precise vocabulary and structure in a suspenseful story about their hometowns with (often feminist) plot twists and magical realism worthy of the Carter original.

This creative writing module seemed to achieve its main aims: students developed their language skills, analyzed limiting gendered representations, and explored a topic that is often superficial in EFL, hometowns, in a personally meaningful manner. The students not only gained understanding of the historical concept of voice, but also succeeded in creating their own. They were asked later in the semester to apply their increased linguistic awareness to another project, an academic research paper. Further analysis, both qualitative and quantitative, is recommended to evaluate the effectiveness of this module on student writing development overall.

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17 Maximizing New Vocabulary Retention Using Games

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Teachers must utilize the latest research in vocabulary study strategies to help their students enjoy learning new vocabulary. Although vocabulary is a crucial pillar of language learning, teachers often leave it to their students to memorize new words outside of class (Baykal and Daventry, 2000 cited in Basoglu and Akdemir, 2010). However, explicit vocabulary-learning strategies need to be taught in order to help students become good at quickly acquiring vocabulary. Ostovar-Namaghi and Malekpur found that their students' low level of English vocabulary was clearly linked to their deficit in vocabulary learning strategies (2015). In this paper, I will follow Nemati's goal of "increasing retention without increasing study time" (2009), as well as creating an enjoyable classroom atmosphere. This paper will discuss the best practices in retaining vocabulary and then conclude with practical and lively classroom games.

学習者が語彙学習を楽しみながら行えるよう、教師は語彙学習方略における最新の研究を活用する必要がある。Baykal・Daventry（2000,［Basoglu・Akdemir，2010 内引用］）によれば、言語学習において語彙は重要な支柱をなしているが、教師はその学習を学習者の授業外での暗記活動に委ねてしまいがちである。しかしながら、学習者の迅速な語彙習得を支援するためには、明解な語彙学習方略の指導が必要である。Ostovar-Namaghi・Malekpur（2015）は、学習者の低水準の英語語彙力と語彙学習方略の不足との関連を明らかにした。本稿では、Nemati （2009）の「学習時間を増やさずに記憶力を高める［引用者訳］」という目標を考察し、教室内の楽しい雰囲気の元での実践方法を紹介する。さらに、語彙記憶における成功事例を検討し、実用的で活発な授業内活動に言及し締めくくる。

When it comes to teaching vocabulary, many teachers don't do enough during class to support their students. This is surprising as it may be that the task of learning the thousands of words needed for fluent conversational English is the biggest hurdle facing language learners. Many teachers provide word lists and simply expect students to memorize them without providing any guidance for how to do that effectively. Other teachers might assign a vocabulary-learning app such as Word Engine, Memrise, or Anki. Still other teachers might do as I used to do and simply assume that if provided enough natural, comprehensible input, vocabulary learning would come naturally and easily. However, a statement in "Vocabulary Learning: A Critical Analysis of Techniques," made me completely rethink my approach to vocabulary study. It said, "…being able to guess the meaning of an unknown L2 word in a flow of speech does not imply that the student has actually learned the word; often as in reading, an unfamiliar word is merely skipped over when the context provides sufficient clues about the meaning of the whole sentence" (Oxford and Crookall, 1990, p. 23). From this, I realized that I needed to be more organized, research-based, and thoughtful about teaching vocabulary.

There is a wealth of research, both basic and applied, that teachers can utilize to improve their students' efficiency of vocabulary learning. In this paper, I will touch on five strategies for vocabulary learning—related vs. unrelated sets, picture superiority effect, keyword effect, gestures, and flashcards—that have a significant amount of research behind them.

Studying vocabulary in related vs. unrelated sets--which is more effective?

Teachers and low-level textbooks often group new vocabulary words into related sets. For example, Chapter One is all about clothing while Chapter Two focuses on jobs. Learning vocabulary in these sorts of sets is very helpful for lesson planning. It is easy to provide speaking activities and create games based around a single topic. Teachers can easily find flashcards online already made in these groups. However, the brain learns vocabulary best in UNrelated sets.

Erten and Tekin's study of young Turkish learners supported this theory when they found that, "presenting new words in semantic sets, rather than in semantically unrelated word groups, can interfere with learning" (2008, p. 418). This study corroborated an earlier study with university students in the United States which concluded that "presenting semantically grouped L2 words to learners has a deleterious effect on learning" (Finkbeiner and Nicol, 2003, p. 376).

One posible explination states:

> if similar words that share numerous common elements and a superordinate concept are introduced at the same time, these words will interfere with each other and have a negative effect on their retention due to cross-association and possible overloading in the short term memory. (Erten and Tekin, 2008, p. 408)

This trend towards learning vocabulary in unrelated lists can be seen in more recently published textbooks. For example, in the Cambridge textbook for beginning learners, *PRISM Intro*, Unit 5's key vocabulary list includes seemingly unrelated words such as: *advice, boring, earn, hard, help, job, work, strong, kind, polite, example, in shape,* and *teach* (White, Peterson, Blackwell, & Cavage, 2017).

Now, this doesn't mean that teachers need to throw out their flashcard sets about family members or conversation cards that get students talking about their pets, or even their games that require students to describe countries, because a fun game that gets students excited to use English is a valuable tool. However, teachers should keep this information in mind and begin to update their lesson plans by incorporating more games and activities into lesson plans that utilize randomly organized vocabulary sets.

Picture Superiority Effect

The picture superiority effect is the theory that people can remember images much easier and for longer than they can remember words. Teachers often use flashcards with fun pictures on them for young learners, but as students grow, educators tend to stop using pictures flashcards and transition to definitions or translations to the L1. However, the article, "The Development of the Picture-superiority Effect," proved that the benefits from the picture superiority effect "increased in step with chronological age" (Whitehouse, Maybery, and Durkin, 2006, p.761). This means that teachers are free to use interesting images, colorful pictures, and funny sketches with students, no matter what their ages.

Keyword Effect

My favorite method of helping students learn new vocabulary is the "Keyword effect." This is the idea that when a student is learning a word in a second language, he or she thinks of a similar sounding word in their L1 to help remember. For example, when learning the Japanese word "itadakimasu," it can be difficult to remember that unusual combination of sounds from scratch. However, if the students' first language is English, they can think of the words, "eat a duck and mouse" and then picture that image. Now the phrase is firmly locked in their memory. Some students don't like this method, because it takes the extra time at the beginning to think of a similar sounding word in the L1. In addition, sometimes it's hard to think of a similar sounding word!

Encouraging students to work together in groups to think of as many keyword mnemonics as they can for the unit's vocabulary can overcome some of these difficulties. A teacher could ask students to create flashcards with their keyword mnemonics and then donate those flashcards to future students who are studying the same course. In comparing three learning strategies, Brown and Perry state, "the keyword method has received most attention and has been shown to be superior to contextual and no-strategy conditions" (1991, p. 656). Fritz, Morris, Action, Voelkel, & Etkind echo this belief that “the keyword method has been shown repeatedly to have beneficial effects for foreign vocabulary learning” (2007, p. 500).

Gestures

A relatively recent study found that “learning while performing gestures was more efficient than the common practice of learning with pictures and that both…were better than learning without enrichment (“verbal learning”).” (Mayer, Yildiz, Macedonia, & Kriegstein, 2015, p. 530). Gestures, of course can easily be used to remember verbs. Ask students to make a cutting motion when they learn verbs such as *cut, slice, carve,* or *slash*. Students can practice adjectives such as *jumbled, hard, imposing,* or *smelly* by choosing one of the words and silently acting it out. Then their partner can try to guess which adjective they chose. There are many different ways to incorporate gestures into vocabulary learning.

Using gestures in class is a great way to get students moving in class. It is helpful in keeping them awake and attentive and it’s healthy for all of us to be moving more throughout the day. In fact, the Center for Disease Control and Prevention synthesized dozens of reports on physical activity in the classroom and found that when students are active throughout class time, student performance may improve (2010, p.7). This study also stated, “physical activity can have an impact on cognitive skills and attitudes and academic behavior…These include enhanced concentration and attention as well as improved classroom behavior” (p.6).

Flashcards

There couldn’t be a paper written on the subject of vocabulary learning without a section on flashcards. First, if flashcards can increase vocabulary effectively, then that will help improve students’ abilities in nearly every area of language learning, from speaking to listening to reading. Flashcards have been a critical component of language learning for decades. In fact, research showed that students who diligently study flashcards can read faster and understand more than those who don’t (Tan and Nicholson, 1997). A study in Turkey compared traditional paper flashcards with mobile flashcards and found that mobile flashcards were more effective and students enjoyed using their mobile devices, too (Basoglu and Akdemir, 2010, p. 5). A great benefit of using mobile devices is that many of the apps have sn SRS system built in to the program. SRS (Spaced Repetition System) is a scientific and efficient way of remembering new vocabulary. In short, it organizes the flashcards in such a way that the newer or more difficult vocabulary words are shown more often than the older or mastered vocbaulary words.There are a number of vocabulary learning apps available on mobile devices, both free and subscription based, for individual learners or classrooms, for many different native languages, and for all styles of learning. Teachers should research what’s best for their class and choose what’s right for them, but some good free sites are Anki (apps.ankiweb.net), Memrise (memrise.com), and Vocabulary.com (vocabulary.com).

Summary of Five Strategies

The final question and the one all the teachers and students want answers to is which strategy is the most effective? Well, the most effective one is the one your students will actually do, but that differs from student to student. At Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University in Beppu, Japan, students are required to do Word Engine (wordengine.jp). It has its benefits (SRS, convenient to use on mobile devices, easy to grade for teachers), but it also has negatives (no images and requires a yearly subscription). Some students love it and do well above the required amount, but some dislike it and do the bare minimum. I personally love the Keyword method, but some students find it unhelpful. Educators need to embrace their students’ different learning styles and preferences, and follow Oxford and Crookall’s advice that teachers “should become familiar with a variety of vocabulary instruction tools and should train their students to use them.” (1990, p. 26).

A Hong Kong based study researched the strategies of English Language students by asking them both which strategies they used and which strategies they thought were the most helpful. They then ordered the students on a scale from high to low proficiency in their L2. This showed which strategies were the most valued and which were actually helpful. It also highlighted how important it is to teach various strategies to students, show students how to scientifically discern which strategy is the most efficient, and then choose which strategies work best for them. This study found that low scoring students used strategies such as, “I repeatedly write the word,” “I use sound and meaning association,” and “I link the word to a Chinese word with a similar sound” (Fan, 2003, p. 231). You might notice that the final strategy used by low level students was my particular favorite method—the Keyword method. However, Fan’s study concludes with the strongly worded phrase, “There is no evidence in this study to confirm that the more “desirable strategies” such as association strategies, are connected with his vocabulary proficiency” (p. 235). A student’s personality, culture, and native language can and will change how he or she best learns a language, and it’s an important reminder to set aside our personal preferences and assumptions and provide students with a variety of skills and allow them to choose what’s best for them.

Now that we know how important study strategies are, and we are committed to teaching students various strategies, the next section of this paper reports on some effective vocabulary games that can be easily incorporated into any level of English class with minimal prep and maximum fun.

Games

The 1, 2, 3 Game

This first game is fairly common and used by lots of different teachers who call it many different names, but I call it the 1, 2, 3 Game. The teacher first organizes students into groups of three or four students. I like to use the vocabulary words to count off rather than numbers. Instead of pointing at students and saying, “One, two, three…” I say the daily vocabulary words while gesturing towards each student, “inevitable, express, nation… now join your classmates who have the same word as you!” It’s just one more way to incorporate the words into class time. The groups of students are then provided a list of their vocabulary words. Then, in their groups they take turns choosing a secret word and describing it so that their group can guess the word. The describing student follows these steps.

1. Hmmm.../Ummm.../Let’s see…..

2. I don’t know the word, but….

3. Describe the word. (It’s when you can’t stop something. It’s the opposite of slow or the opposite of local. Some examples are Japan, China, or the Netherlands.)

This can be played a few different ways. The simplest way would be to have the students take turns describing words for some amount of time. Another way would be to have students work as a team to see how many words they can get their friends to guess in 90 seconds. Additionally, in groups of four, partners could be pitted against each other. It depends on the atmosphere of your class and students, and what style of learning they like.

This game is meant to prepare students for real life conversations where they will undoubtably lack a vocabulary word for what they want to express. Practicing in this way will allow them to continue the conversation.

Drawing Games

A great way to utilize the effectiveness of the picture superiority effect is to incorporate drawing activities into vocabulary practice time. First, ask students to pull out some scrap paper and draw lines dividing the paper into 8 squares. Then, in pairs, students take turns trying to draw a vocabulary word they’ve chosen from the list. Their friend tries to guess what it is. After that, they’ll change roles. Sounds easy enough, (and suspiciously like Pictionary), but that was only the warm-up. Now, I’ll ask students to draw it in only 10 seconds. Then they have to draw it using their non-dominant hand. Maybe I ask them to draw the image upside down. Maybe they have to draw it very small. Perhaps they have to draw it with their eyes closed. Every time I say a new rule, students laugh and enjoy seeing the images become worse and worse. However, this just makes the vocabulary learning stick more. As the students try to guess which word it is, they cycle through all the words in the list, committing each word more and more to their memory.

Taboo

Taboo is a popular board game with cards such as Figure 1. Student A tries to describe the word to his or her teammates without saying the “taboo” words listed below the word. We can ask our students to make their own versions of the cards for their own vocabulary words. I simply provide a blank pack of notecards and markers, and then ask students to make three Taboo cards each.

Then the next day they can play the game. I make it a two-day activity so that I can collect the cards and look over them. This gives me the chance to make sure the "correct" version of the vocabulary word is being used, and that the taboo words are good choices. One time, a student made the taboo card for the vocabulary word, *tip*. In this unit, *tip* was used in the context, *the tip of your finger*. However, this student's taboo words were, *restaurant, food, money, server,* and *eat*. She had misunderstood which *tip* we were meant to be studying and I was able to catch and correct it! Now, by the time the students play the game, it's more of a speaking activity than a vocabulary activity because the act of making the cards cements the meaning in the students' memory.

KANGAROO

POUCH
HOP
ANIMAL
AUSTRALIA
CAPTAIN

Fig. 1 *A sample Taboo card*

Do it Faster

Whenever I am doing any sort of speaking or reading activity, I think it's helpful to do it three or four times. My university students, however, don't like repeating things and will complain when I ask them to give their presentation three or four times. They seem to magically forget how much they struggled the first or second time. In order to make it fun, I ask students to do it faster. I might secretly time the first time and explain it like this, "Students, the first time you read the textbook vocabulary sentences aloud with your partner, it took you about 65 seconds. I want you to do it again, but faster. Find a new partner and this time you only have 45 seconds to read all your sentences." Speeding up to this time limit might actually be possible, as students didn't know that speed was a factor the first time. Then I make it faster. "OK students! Very good! Now, I want you to find a new partner and read the same sentences. This time, the limit is 30 seconds!" I finish by making a ridiculous time of 10 seconds. Of course the students can't do it, but they will have fun and laugh at each other as they try. They will also enjoy watching the teacher attempt the same task in 15 seconds!

Ask the Students to Make it Fun

The final way that I will mention for spicing up the classroom vocabulary activities is to ask students to do it for you! When asking students to write example sentences, write a diary using the vocabulary words, or make a role-play with the vocabulary, the simple task of asking students to make it fun has amazing results. Students must be reminded that they are "allowed" to have fun with the tasks. I might phrase it like this, "Students, when you write your example sentences, please have fun! I don't want to see dictionary sentences. I don't want to see boring sentences. Please, make strange, unique, funny, interesting, sentences. Look at this vocabulary word, *schedule*. I can write, *I have a busy schedule this semester.* (Mime falling asleep due to boredom here.) Or I can write, *Let me look at my schedule for tomorrow. I have to go to the store in the morning to steal some meat, then go to the zoo in the afternoon and steal some tigers.* It's a stupid sentence, but students will politely laugh and then they will make some fun and interesting sentences. An added benefit is that these interesting setnences are often more complex than the normal ones. This simple request to *have fun!* can help spice up most vocabulary activities, role plays, and presentations.

Conclusion

Through remembering these five strategies—unrelated sets of vocabulary, picture superiority effect, keyword method, gestures and flashcards—teachers can make vocabulary study more effecient. And through using these simple games, teachers can make vocabulary study an enjoyable part of class without too much prep time. Teachers should teach the various vocabulary study strategies, allow students to choose which style they like, and incorporate more vocabulary focused study time and vocabulary based games into the classroom. Teachers might be surprised at how much vocabulary students can retain through using these techniques!

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Author biography

Sara Hendricks is currently teaching at Asia Pacific University Ritsumeikan in Beppu, Japan and enjoys focusing on fun classroom environments, equality in the classroom, and rapid vocabulary acquisition. *Email: sara@apu.ac.jp*

18 Keep it Positive: Raising Young Bilingual Learners

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This forum offered diverse viewpoints from five parents raising bilingual or trilingual children in Japan. They focused on strengthening the parent and child bond through fun and loving language support. During the discussion, questions were asked about their struggles, successes, and efforts to keep language learning a fun and positive experience for parents and children. The forum also covered issues such as public vs. private daycare, the challenge of adding a third language, budgeting for extra costs of bilingualism, sibling dynamics, biliteracy, extended family relationships, and the use of technology. Forum participants are all English language lecturers living in Japan and teaching their children Japanese and English, with one participant adding Dutch and another adding Spanish.

本フォーラムでは日本でバイリンガルもしくはトライリンガル児を育てている 5 人の親の様々な観点を提示した。いずれも、楽しく愛情に満ちた言語サポートを通して親子の絆を深めることに焦点を当てている。それぞれが苦労している点、成功例、親子にとって言語習得を楽しく、ポジティブなものにするコツについて議論が交わされた。その他にも、公立・私立保育に関する問題、第 3 言語を加えることの難しさ、バイリンガル児を育てるのに必要となる費用のこと、兄弟間の関係、2 言語での読み書き、拡大家族との関係、IT の使用法についても意見交換を行った。本フォーラム発表者はいずれも日本在住の英語教員であり、日本語と英語を自らの子どもたちに教えており、その内 1 名はオランダ語を、もう 1 名はスペイン語を家庭の言語に加えている。

Introduction

This forum was made up of a diverse group of parents in various stages of raising bilingual or trilingual children. The focus was discussion issues related to the joy of raising multilingual and multicultural children and to share support among each other and the audience.

There are some things you can force children to do, such as buckling them in a car seat despite their flailing arms or holding their dirty fingers under the faucet to wash. However, it's often said among parents that there are two things you can't force your kids to do: eat or sleep. I think we can add a third thing to that list: you can't force a child to speak, let alone speak in a certain language. You can encourage, cajole, bribe, and beg, but you can't force the words out of their mouth the way you can just pry a dirty rock out of that same mouth. Besides that, there has to be a better way than cajoling and bribing. Not necessarily an *easier* way, but a better way. And that was the goal of this forum, to share our stories and work together to find a better way.

Forum Members

Patrick Johnston is from a rural, monolingual English part of Ontario in Canada, where he had mandatory education in French from kindergarten. However, he didn't continue studying French after finishing the mandatory credits. He came to Japan as an ALT in 2008 and has been here ever since. He considers himself bilingual in English and Japanese. His wife is Japanese, and uses about 70% Japanese, and 30% English with their kids. They have three children: a 6-year-old who just started at a Japanese elementary school but spent the last three years at an English preschool; and two (3 and 4) who are still attending English preschool.

Maiko Berger is from Japan, and speaks Japanese, English, and some German and Dutch. She learned to speak English through Japanese public schools, radio conversation programs and studying abroad. Her husband is from the Netherlands, and speaks Dutch, English, German, some French and profecient Japanese. They speak English and Japanese to each other. Their daughters are 5 and 3 years old and they speak English and Japanese. The children have only lived in Japan, but the family travels abroad a few times a year, for 2-4 weeks at a time. They know some Dutch words and phrases, but they have little exposure to Dutch. Recently, Maiko started organizing monthly playdates involving other bilingual families living in the area.

Sara Hendricks and her husband are both from the USA. They taught in Japan for 6 years and then left to teach in Mexico for two years. They recently returned to Japan and have three children. Their children speak English in the home and with each other and attend Japanese daycare; thus, their English and Japanese abilities are very strong. The also speak Spanish due to two years in Mexican daycares. In the home, Sara and her husband speak English 90% of the time and Spanish 10% of the time.

Kent Jones is from a small town near Toronto, Canada and his wife is from Osaka, Japan. They met in Japan, but moved to Canada, where they had their two children. When their oldest son was three and their youngest son was almost one, they moved to Oita, Japan where Kent started teaching at a University. Their oldest had experience in daycare in Canada, while the younger son was not verbal until he came to Japan. As a result there are clear differences in their level of English.

John Spiri has two children and followed a "one parent one language policy." John speaks English and his wife, Japanese. His oldest graduated from a Japanese elementary school, passed online U.S. classes for 7th and 8th grade, and moved to Wisconsin to start high school in 2018. His second son was born in 2006. While his English has always been decent, his overall language skills developed at a slower pace. Being the youngest in his class, John's youger son has struggled academically. As he approached his teen years he has become quite quiet. John jokes with him about his quietness, and encourages him to speak, but never pressures him to talk.

Discussion

What are some challenges that you have faced as you try to raise bilingual children?

Patrick: I have found my main challenge up until now has been logistical and financial. I felt it was very important to have all my kids go to an English preschool, but at the moment all the English or international preschools in my city are targeted at the children of wealthy doctors. Even with a haggled discount, the school fees are by far my largest monthly expense. I do think it has paid off though. My six-year-old daughter came out of three years of English preschool with a fairly high ability level.

Maiko: We are employing the Natural Way, so we haven't really felt any challenges so far. My husband spoke some Dutch to our first child when she was a baby, but he mostly used English. I believed in One Parent, One Language policy, and I used only Japanese with the eldest until she was 2 years old. After JALT Oita invited a bilingualism expert for a workshop, I decided to relax my way and started using more English with the children, making sure not to code-mix intra-sentence.

John: When my kids were young, my wife would sometimes return to her parent's house, for long periods of time, weeks or even months. I get along well with my in-laws and spent quite a bit of time there myself, but this meant the two boys got less English input than usual.

Kent: I am currently working in a different prefecture and I only get to go home about once a month. My wife's parents are also staying at our house to help while I am gone. Though my wife tries, and does a good job of speaking English to the kids, this is very difficult when her parents are there. They generally don't like having a lot of English spoken around them because they can't understand. Another thing that we are having trouble with is finding time to help them develop more academic English skills, like reading.

Sara: I underestimated the sheer amount of time needed to become comfortably fluent in a language and the degree to which children would resist language activities, no matter how "fun" I try to make them!

How can parents create an environment that is most conducive to our children being bilingual?

Patrick: We haven't established any rules about language use in the home, but I try and do my best and play with the kids in English as much as I can. Puzzles and board games are really good for that kind of play. Now that they are getting older I see them playing with each other in English without my involvement, and I think it's great. They also mainly watch English media and listen to English songs when we're driving in the car, these days it's the Lego Movie 2 soundtrack on endless repeat.

John: First, kids should see that English is relevant. This is accomplished by giving kids the chance to witness conversations in English, either in Japan or abroad. Second, provide as much English input as possible. Media can certainly go a long way to accomplishing that. Steer kids away from Japanese TV and other media in favor of English websites, programs on Netflix or elsewhere, English songs, etc. Finally, as much as we might want our kids to be bilingual, don't make it an obsession or a burden. Have fun with a second language and respect the kids' preferences.

Maiko: I think parents speaking or trying to speak two or more languages is the way to go. Like John, my children don't watch Japanese TV. Netflix is set in English, and kids choose to watch programs in English and Japanese.

Kent: Parents can be good role models for language learning. Having a positive and loving relationship with the parent who speaks the minority language can give the child a positive attitude to that language. I had a very touching experience the last time I was home visiting my family. My son and I had a conversation about the Avengers, which we are both interested in. He then wrote about it as homework for school about how fun it was to talk to me about it in English

Sara: After doing the math of where my kids spend their time in an average week (school or daycare 45 hours + family time 35 hours + sleeping 85 hours), I realize that making our home environment English or Spanish only is crucial because of the sheer amount of Japanese time at school or daycare. Because of that, we also don't have any Japanese media in the house. I only read books in English or Spanish. I also hire tutors or babysitters that speak only Spanish.

How do you use technology to support the minority language?

Patrick: I have downloaded a number of English TV shows and Disney movies that they probably spend too much time watching. The eldest is currently into Duck Tales. Playing Mario Party together was probably the best in terms of English support because it essentially recreates the board game experience with rolling dice and numbers.

Maiko: My daughters watch Netflix programs, all in English, for about 1 hour a day. They occasionally use an English program called ABC Mouse. They also sometimes play with my iPad. Most apps they use are games, songs and stories, such as My Little Pony tea party, Candy Maker, or Peppa Pig, all in English. They also play with a few Dutch-speaking toys occasionally.

John: My kids, who grew up before the internet was popularized, watched English DVDs and programs like Thomas the Tank Engine.

Kent: We have a Leapfrog tablet that was made in America, so all of the games on it are in English.

Sara: I like the Youtube channel, “Super Simple Songs.” We learn the songs in English and Spanish and then sing them together when we’re walking to and from daycare. We also sing songs together three or four times a night using YouTube Karaoke.

Which language do your children or spouse use with each other? Is there any way we can influence the language siblings use among themselves? Should we?

Patrick: My wife and I speak a fairly even mix of English and Japanese. The eldest uses mostly English at home. The middle child is going through something of a baby-talk phase, that I’m a little worried about. The youngest child only speaks English, but it’s quite basic still.

Maiko: We don’t regulate the language they use. They usually talk to each other in English or Japanese. Only if they mix languages, I sometimes interfere. If I use English in front of non-English speaking people, my elder daughter sometimes asks why I’m doing it. I use English for gentle reprimand when I don’t want others to hear that I’m doing that.

Kent: My wife speaks English well and really values the ability to speak and read English. Therefore, she does her best to use English with the children as much as possible. However, she does find that when she really needs to communicate something important to them, she has to resort to using Japanese, not because she can’t explain it in English, but because she is not confident in their ability to understand. My children rarely talk together in English, but it does happen when they are pretending to be characters who speak English. Perhaps encouraging this kind of role-playing could influence them to speak English to each other.

Sara: I have to disagree with using Japanese when the kids don’t understand the English. If parents resort to Japanese when topics get complicated then the English will remain static at a lower level. We’re liable to experience miscommunications our whole life at any level of language ability, so what greater opportunity than a miscommunication to find meaning together and improve your children’s language ability? Because my husband and I both speak English, my kids have always spoken English at home and with each other. Our two year old uses whichever word she knows for whatever item she wants, sprinkling all three languages throughout the day. From time to time, I redirect my older two kids when they speak Japanese to the youngest and explain that we need to continue to speak English or Spanish at home, even when she speaks Japanese.

What efforts have you made towards biliteracy?

Patrick: I am mainly focused on teaching my 6-year-old to read on her own. She really loves books, but getting her to read by herself has been a bit of a struggle.I enrolled her in an after-school phonics class that is mainly doing writing. She resisted at first, but actually, it has been a big help with her trying to spell and sound out words.

Maiko: We started going to weekly karate lessons this past March, which is held entirely in English. The club started offering English time this April, and they work on workbooks individually. My elder daughter already knows hiragana and katakana, and she is gradually learning to read and write the alphabet letters now. I think in the years to come, we will support them with English literacy. Fortunately, they love reading books, and we read both Japanese and English books. I think the love of literature will help them with literacy.

Sara: My husband and I started teaching our daughter to read at age six. We use an old-fashioned book, “Teach Your Child to Read in 100 Easy Lessons.” It’s not perfect, but it’s the best book I’ve seen so far for teaching reading from scratch, and she’s now reading at her age level, although she isn’t confident and doesn’t love reading. I think it might be easier to start at a slightly older age, maybe 7 or 8 years old. It might also make it easier to learn to read in English if the child can already read in Japanese. We plan to wait until our next child is a little older to start teaching reading.

What challenges have you faced in adding a third language?

Maiko: We haven’t really made a big effort with the third language, but our idea is the third language will follow relatively smoothly if the two languages are strongly formed. We do use many words, expressions, gestures and other aspects of the third language/culture in our daily life. For instance, instead of saying good-bye, we say “Hoi” to our extended family.

Sara: I’m struggling with this a lot. I’ve always loved studying Spanish. I love the Latin American culture. When we moved to Mexico for two years, it was specifically to immerse ourselves in the culture and become fluent in Spanish. Our youngest was born in Mexico and is a dual national of the USA and Mexico. After two years there, the kids could play easily with their Mexican classmates and had their dolls and action figures speak Spanish during playtime. However, since moving away, Spanish time has been a struggle. There simply aren’t enough hours in a day! We have Spanish-speaking university students who come around 2-4 hours per week and I try to do focused Spanish time with the kids for about 15 minutes per night, but it’s just not enough.

John: I had hoped my sons would learn a third language. With Vincent more linguistically inclined, and with more time than most kids in Japan because he attended 7th and 8th grades online, I made a push for him to learn a third language. He took online Spanish classes for about nine months in 2017 but his interest, which was never terribly high, waned and then extinguished. He takes Spanish classes now at his high school in Wisconsin, but by all accounts is not very motivated.

What are your future goals with the L2?

Patrick: My ultimate goal is that they all develop into native-level speakers of English and Japanese. Academic ability in both is also important, but is more of a secondary goal.

Maiko: We hope that our children will be as well balanced bilinguals as possible, but they will probably be stronger in Japanese. I’m hoping they enroll in European universities when they are 18, so they can study in English.

John: When my sons were younger, my wife and I envisioned them attending university abroad. My older son, now 15, bought into that, or was naturally inclined for studying abroad, sooner than we had imagined. He has been attending high school in the United States since August 2018. Although my younger son is in the second year of junior high school, consideration of university seems too far into the future. Ironically, it was easier to consider when he was younger! He’s not academically inclined and is more anchored to Japan than his older brother.. I still feel there’s an outside chance he’ll want to attend his brother’s high school in Wisconsin, a school that I feel is a good fit for him in some ways, but the decision will be his to make.

Kent: We have a dream of our children studying abroad, but that is very far in the future and may not be realistic considering our children’s current proficiency level, particularly in reading. We are currently setting short term goals, such as getting the children to read English books. After that we can think about the possibility of them receiving their higher education in English.

Sara: I hope that my kids will be bilingual and biliterate in English and Japanese. I also hope that they have conversational ability in Spanish and that they will grow up with a love of using all three languages. I want them to have lots of choices in their future, in terms of higher education, jobs, travel, and friendships.

Conclusion

This forum was well-attended and very active with lots of participation from the audience. It is clearly an important topic that is close to many people’s hearts. While some of us are primarily working towards bilingualism because we want a relationship with our kids in our mother tongue, others are working towards the same goal because of the opportunities bilingualism affords. Whatever our reasons for starting on this journey or our final goals, our path along the way looks similar. The road to language procefiency is filled with books, games, music, family time, occasional frustrations and plenty of quiet victories.

“If you talk to a man in a language he understands, that goes to his head. If you talk to him in his own language that goes to his heart.”

Nelson Mandela

“One language sets you in a corridor for life. Two languages open every door along the way.”

Frank Smith

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19 Autonomous Language Learning in Japan: Three Studies in Post-compulsory Education

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Upon entering university, many students in Japan have difficulties developing autonomous language learning skills, engaging in meaningful communication, and lack confidence in their ability to communicate in English. While not the only factor, student experiences in an exam-focused secondary education system that does not encourage autonomous learning and offers few chances for meaningful communication play a significant role in these difficulties. This paper introduces three complementary studies addressing these challenges. First, it shows students' awareness of the limitations of their secondary school classes and dissatisfaction with exam-focused language learning. Next, it describes two studies suggesting how university students can become more autonomous learners and confident communicators through self-directed learning courses and engagement with English in real socio-cultural settings.

大学に進学したての日本人学生の多くは、自主的に言語学習スキルを伸ばし、有意義なコミュニケーションをとることが困難であると感じている。また、英語によるコミュニケーション能力に対して十分な自信を得られていない。唯一の要因とはいえないが、日本人学生が受ける試験中心の中等教育システムでは、自主的な学習にはつながらず、そうした困難を乗り越えられる、有意義なコミュニケーションの機会が少ないことが関係している。この論文では、これらの課題に取り組む 3 つの補完研究を紹介する。まず、学生たちが中等教育の授業には制限があると感じていること、そして試験中心の言語学習について抱く不満を示す。次に、自己主導型の学習コースと、実際の社会文化的な場面で英語を使う経験を通して、どのように大学生たちがより自主的な学習と自信をもったコミュニケーションができるようになったのか、その方法を示す 2 つの研究について述べる。

The importance of learner self-efficacy, opportunities for communication, and the willingness and confidence to do so are well established in the SLA literature (Benson, 2011; Oxford, 2011; Tsuda & Nakata, 2013). However, it is just these issues that many Japanese students struggle with as they enter university. Student difficulties becoming more autonomous language learners, communicating in English, and lack of confidence are often attributed to an educational system that focuses on high school and university entrance exams that emphasize memorization of difficulty vocabulary and complex grammar forms at the expense of communication (Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009; Glasgow & Paller, 2016; Gorsuch, 1998, 2000, 2001; Hino, 1988; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009; Nishino, 2008). Additionally, there is a disconnect between this focus on memorization and the importance of autonomy and lifelong learning promoted by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) regarding the language skills needed in a globalized workplace (MEXT, 2015). The unfortunate reality is that after six or more years of daily English classes, many Japanese students entering university have challenges becoming autonomous language learners, have likely had few opportunities to develop their English communicative proficiency, and have little confidence of their ability to communicate in English. Moreover, with the pressure of entrance exams past, university education offers an opportunity to help students become more autonomous learners and engage with the language as a real-world tool for communication. This paper introduces three studies from the 2019 PanSIG Learner Development SIG Forum which, while conducted independently, offer complementary insights into challenges learners face. The first gives context for the following studies by examining individual student experiences and perceptions of their secondary school English education. The paper will then discuss two studies that offer ideas as to how institutions and teachers can address these obstacles. Finally, it will provide ideas for practice and further research.

Study 1: First-Year University Students' Perceptions of Their Secondary English Classrooms in Japan (Stacey Vye)

By exploring practical ways of facilitating autonomous and self-directed English language learning courses for university students in Japan detailed in studies two and three, the first study highlights what students most likely have experienced in their secondary schools. This study is an overview of an exploratory qualitative doctoral dissertation that focused on eight first-year university students' perceptions of their secondary English communication courses in Japan in 2018. The Clark and Estes's (2008) knowledge, motivation, and organization (KMO) modified gap analysis was the compulsory framework for the cadidates in the doctoral program. This framework was used to qualify the students' knowledge and motivation to learn English, and also for students' secondary organizational institutions in Japan that impacted their English learning and motivation. The KMO framework was useful to assess what room for improvements could be recommended for secondary English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching in Japan that is in the discussion section of this paper.

Methodology

The interviews were open-ended and semi-structured with volunteer students who studied English at secondary school in Japan. Document analyses of the participants' English textbooks and their curriculum recommendations that were the English versions of the MEXT's (2011b, 2011c) lower-secondary and upper-secondary foreign language (English) policy documents the teachers utilized provided support for the findings. Emphasis was placed on how the structural organization of English teaching policy influenced the students' knowledge and motivation or demotivation to learn the language. As for the textbooks, the focus was on what extent the linguistic features in the content provided communication opportunities, and were they relevant to the students' lives. There were seven male volunteers, and unfortunately, only one female, six from public schools, and two from private that are located in seven prefectures across Japan. The students' documented English proficiency levels were at an intermediate-range, and the interviews were conducted in English.

Summary of the Findings and Connections to Prior Research

The findings of the study are not generalizable because of the small sample size and gender ratio. These interviews were essential for communicating with the participants for the data collection that was closely connected with the research questions, the KMO framework, the interview questions and protocol, and the document analyses. The knowledge, motivation, and organization findings are as follows.

Knowledge Findings

The two knowledge types of focus chosen for the KMO framework for measurement were the students' English proficiency and their metacognitive learning. Their

English proficiency levels was the result of their test scores, and metacognition refers to the students paying attention to their cognitive language learning (Oxford, 2011). Regarding the English proficiency, all eight students' English language levels ranged from lower- to upper-intermediate based on a range of two to three commercial English proficiency tests they took. However, three participants did not learn English in English in secondary school or experience supplementary lessons, and so their proficiency levels were lower than the other five.

An interesting influence was MEXT's (2011a), English assessment is the Test in Practical English Proficiency (EIKEN) that is used by the boards of education that measures all the students' proficiency levels at the students' final year of junior and senior high school. The goal is that 50% of the senior high school students in Japan will receive a proficiency level of grade pre-2 or higher, yet in 2016 and 2017, about 34% and 36% respectively of the high school seniors passed the EIKEN pre-2 or higher after six years of English instruction (Aoki, 2017; Katayama, 2016; KEIDANREN, 2017). Therefore, the students should have known about MEXT's EIKEN goal, yet only the two private school students knew about the requirement due to their schools' promotion of the test. It was interesting that the six public students reported that EIKEN was not a requirement, but just a test to take un-related to high school. Only four of the students took the test that impacts MEXT's proficiency goal. On a national scale if students are unaware of the required proficiency goal, the outcomes are affected, so generalizable research is needed regarding the ratio of students who do not take the assessment.

As for the students' metacognitive knowledge, they reflected on learning English, which facilitated a heightened sense of learner autonomy (Benson, 2011; Dam & Legenhausen, 2010; Oxford, 2011; Tsuda & Nakata, 2013). Six interviewees realized that communicating in English on their own was a valuable strategy. Nevertheless, their autonomous language learning was not supported by their textbooks and their classroom experiences entirely except for one student in high school.

Motivation Findings

The students' motivation framework chosen based on the KMO model was their perceived self-efficacy and emotive behaviors while learning English based on their secondary school experiences. Self-efficacy refers to whether the learner believes they can achieve their goals based on their learning situation, in this case, the students' EFL classroom support (Bandura, 2005). Then, emotion referred to the students' range of emotions that motivate or de-motivate their learning outcomes (Pekrun, 2011). Their self-efficacy levels of confidence varied, impacting their English communication (Johnson, 2013; Takase, 2007; Tsuda & Nakata, 2013). The participants with lower English proficiency revealed they had firmer self-efficacious beliefs from the leveled support of a communicative English class that led to successful communication. Nevertheless, the five intermediate students who studied in advanced courses at university currently had lower efficacy. After studying for six years, they envisioned their mastery of English would be better than they perceived it to be, which brought about lower levels of self-efficacious behavior.

Considering the emotion of motivation, the students needed to feel significant positive epistemic emotions about their English communication skills to reduce foreign language learning anxiety and demotivation (Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009; Williams & Andrade, 2008). Authentic language exchanges significantly led to positive communication experiences. Overwhelmingly, they reported their textbooks were highly demotivating, with the teacher lecturing grammar points in Japanese. Moreover, three students reported sleeping in the classroom. In high school, three trends emerged. The first was that four participants studied prior university English entrance exams in class. Second, three interviewees reported the textbooks were boring. Third, all eight interviewees did not fully experience an EFL communicative curriculum in their MEXT-approved textbooks.

Organizational Findings and Challenges to MEXT's English Communication Initiatives

The findings of the students' perceptions of their schools as organizations impacted how they learned English. All eight were taught that learning English through *yakudoku* will help them pass English university entrance examinations (Gorsuch, 1998, 2000, 2001;

Hashimoto, 2009, 2013; Kavanagh, 2012; Kikuchi, 2009; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009; Kuramoto & Koizumi, 2016; Nishino, 2008; O'Donnell, 2005; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Sakui, 2004; Underwood, 2012). Only one student's school followed MEXT's communicative English policy exclusively in senior high, and none learned English in English significantly in junior high. MEXT's (2011b, 2011c) foreign language policy advocates for English communication specifically with no mention of teaching yakudodu in Japanese to prepare for entrance exams.

The students wanted to learn English communication from teachers who receive support and teacher training (Aspinal, 2006, 2011; Browne & Wada, 1998; Butler, 2011; Glasgow & Paller, 2016; Kavanagh, 2012; Kikuchi, 2009; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009; Laurier, et al., 2011; Nishino, 2008; O'Donnell, 2005; Reesor, 2005; Tahira, 2012). However, two students' high schools in rural locations in Japan seemed to follow the MEXT policy the most, one partially, and one fully. All in all, the organizational limitations on the students to learn communicative English was highly influenced by the textbooks, learning through the *yakudoku* method, and entrance exam preparation. The recommendations from the findings to promote an autonomous and communicative English curriculum is included in the discussion of all three studies.

Study 2: Autonomous Goal-Setting in an English Self-Directed Course at a Japanese National University (Christopher Hennessy and Ivan Lombardi)

As seen in the previous section, due to an emphasis on test preparation, many students have little experience with autonomous learning and real engagement with English. A structured, self-directed course offers one possible way to address these issues. In May 2015, the Japanese Ministry of Education called for "the promotion of autonomous, cooperative and proactive learning" and the overall encouragement of "lifelong learning" skills as part of its ongoing efforts to 'rebuild education' (MEXT Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2015). At this time, the authors of this study designed a self-directed learning (SDL) English course based on existing autonomous learning theory and implemented within an intensive English curriculum for first-year students in a newly created department at a Japanese national university. The course, which is compulsory and credit-bearing, started in 2016 and has been implemented every year during the spring semester with over 240 students.

Traditionally, in Japan, secondary education often seeks to 'teach to the test,' creating a situation Tsuneyoshi (2013, pp. 165–166) describes as "hyper-high-stakes entrance examinations," valuing rote memorization over critical thinking and autonomous learning skills. In response to this situation, the SDL course designers strived to introduce independent learning techniques necessary for learning languages and other skills outside traditional instruction settings.

Course Philosophy and Design

The course was developed around the idea of scaffolded autonomy, deemed crucial considering the learning context described above. Following Benson (2011, p. 91), the authors believed that "fostering autonomy does not mean simply leaving learners to their own devices, but implies a more active process of guidance and encouragement to help learners extend and systematize the capacities they already possess." Therefore, the course was designed to mirror a guided, "scaffolded" SDL cycle in the first quarter. SDL processes include the steps of (1) Set Goal, (2) Plan, (3) Learn, (4) Show, and (5) Reflect (Benson, 2011). A "scaffolded" process, though, bypasses steps (1) and (2), the most challenging steps for students with little independent learning experience. In the second quarter, all five steps of the SDL process open for developing students' goal-setting and goal-oriented abilities (Figure 1).

The first SDL quarter introduces autonomous learning through four sets of "task cards." These cards, which include speaking, listening, reading, and computer-assisted language learning (CALL) tasks, set concrete learning goals based on the CEFR can-do principles, and a plan to achieve them (Council of Europe, 2001). Students choose a task card and perform the English learning activity described. After the actual (3) learning takes place, the task cards also provide information on how to (4) show evidence of the process using the course's online LMS, and how to (5) reflect on the learning itself.

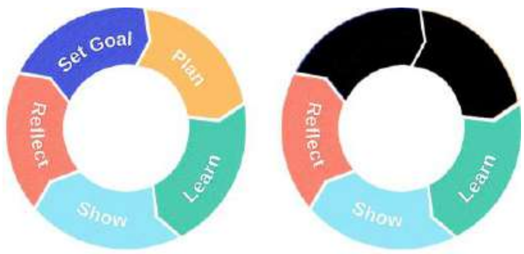

Fig. 1 *SDL process vs. scaffolded SDL process*

Course Workings

The course was conducted at the on-campus self-access center (SAC), which boasts learning support spaces (e.g. meeting rooms and internet-equipped individual computer booths) and a large amount of English-language materials (e.g. DVDs, graded readers, and games). Students were divided into three sections of around 20, which met twice a week over two quarters (the equivalent of one semester).

Each class revolved around students choosing a task card, doing the task, and reflecting on their learning. Each task card features a color code number, a title, a goal in the form of a can-do statement, the number of participants required, evidence to show, reflection questions, time needed, task location, and a "Skills Gained" bar graph giving visual representation on expected learning outcomes (Figure 2). The cards were available in treasure chests placed around the SAC or on the online LMS.

In the first "scaffolded" quarter, students were required to choose one specific task week-by-week (Week 1: Speaking; Week 2: Listening; Week 3: Reading; Week 4: CALL; repeat). This initial system meant students were not overloaded with choice and could experience a variety of different tasks. As a first quarter final goal, students drew a 'visual map,' (Figure 3) in which they show, reflect on, and evaluate their learning accomplishments, as well as set new personal learning goals for the second quarter. For the second quarter, students freely chose whatever task to accomplish their stated goals and created their own task cards. In this way, students could transition from the scaffolded structure of the first quarter into a true self-directed, and autonomous learning in the second quarter.

Reflections

At the end of the second quarter, students were asked to reflect on the entire SDL course. With three years of student reflections, the authors can conclude that in general students found the course satisfactory in

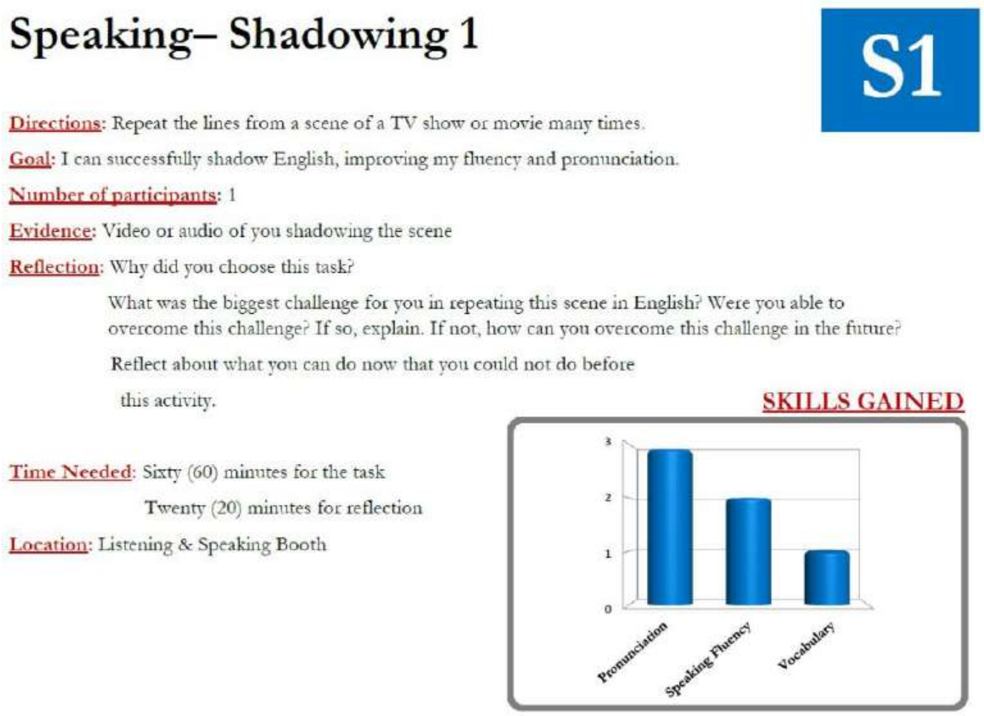

Fig. 2 *Sample task card*

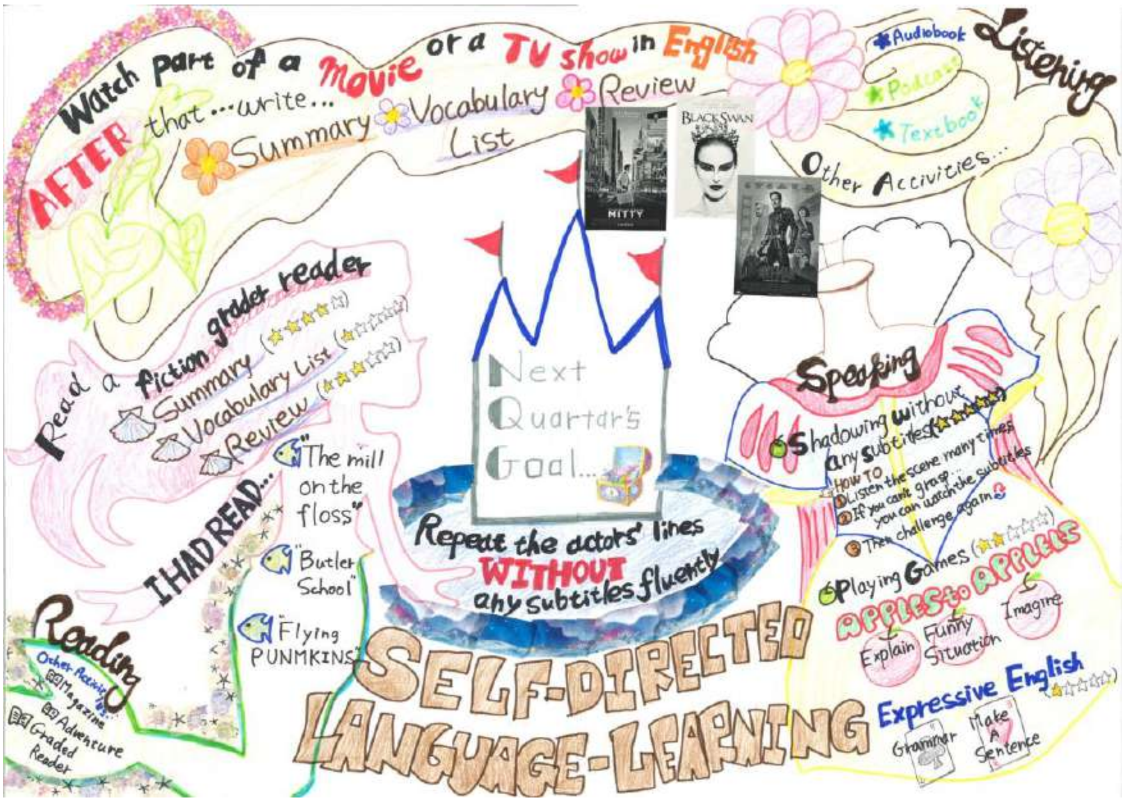

Fig. 3 *An example of a student's 'visual map'*

developing a sense of autonomy. For many, having choices instead of being assigned specific activities was a first-time experience, which they found enjoyable and encouraging for developing personal language learning goals. Critical reaction from students mainly focused on course logistics (e.g. reflection writing length requirements). The authors took these critical comments to affect organizational changes for following iterations of the course, such as removal of mandatory reflection length and encouragement of audio/video reflections. In this way, the reflections served not only to give perspective to the students, but to also to give perspective to the instructors.

One takeaway that the authors had designing and facilitating this course is that autonomy does not happen automatically. Scaffolding autonomy has led to visible development of students' engagement with the SAC materials and autonomous learning in general, as evidenced in student-generated task cards. A second takeaway is that, given that the course structure vastlyly differedent fromcourse structure compared to traditional instruction, implementing change based on student voices led to a more satisfactory experience for both students and facilitators. This course also affected the authors' own language studies to some extent. In developing and witnessing SDL in action, the authors have also fostered their autonomous language learning habits, both from the established set of course tasks and the student-designed tasks. While such a course may not create complete learning autonomy in every student, it does foster the idea of taking control of one's (language) learning (Holec, 1981, Little, 1991) . This idea resonates with the Ministry of Education's most recent guidelines, and surely with the authors' hopes for higher education in Japan.

Study 3: Developing Communicative Competence in Socio-cultural Settings (Anita Aden)

Understanding student perceptions of autonomy in gaining English skills in the current language learning system in Japan was discussed in previous sections. The need to develop communicative competence in students substantiates the instructional choices of university language educators as they promote positive self-directedness in rich socio-cultural language settings designed to encourage risk-taking by students. As students experience language learning in a personalized learning environment, their confidence for purposeful exchanges can be nurtured for out-of-class interactions. Understanding communicative mannerisms of meaningful exchanges includes developing skills of socio-cultural awareness, critical thinking, and adjusting expectations of natural interactive, communicative exchanges (Burrows, 2015).

Communicative Competence in Socio-cultural Settings

Language interaction patterns are learned by students as they practice communicative strategies with friends or classmates by developing awareness through successful meaning-making in a socio-cultural setting (Burrows, 2015). As Japanese students succeed at meaningful exchanges with classmates, they formulate a stronger understanding of intercultural communicative learning principles needed for language interactions in out-of-class settings. The integration of language and culture within language programs prepares university students for genuine social interactions in real-world settings. By encouraging students to develop an exploratory and reflective attitude towards all forms of culture and culture-in-language (Li & Keller, 2018), they can respond more naturally in socio-cultural settings, such as joining a lunchtime (self-access) exchange with international students and English-speaking instructors. Stepping out of the usual classroom setting can be easily done in accessible locations on campus during breaks.

The social construct of sharing lunch (or an equivalent space) together uses communicative tactics of achievement and reduction strategies in language (Burrows, 2015). Achievement strategies are used to manage communication breakdowns and find alternative ways to reach comprehension. The simple action of gesturing can break through miscommunication barriers while the reduction strategy allows the user to simplify the meaning of the conversation by choosing to redirect the topic. These strategies were observed during a weekly lunch activity with students in the International Plaza (IP), a space for all students to share opinions about seasonal and personal topics that utilized socio-cultural tools of interacting together.

During IP, students could enter anytime throughout the lunch period and join thematic discussions related to current events, entertainment, social or political issues, and other common issues facing university students. As students entered with their own lunches, they received a name card and a short description of the lunch activity schedule. Topics of conversation naturally deviated from original themes as students described their own experiences and asked follow- up questions to each other. The lunch space had a multimedia component, making videos and retrieving current information a part of the spontaneous shift of expanding on students' personal interests. At the end of the weekly lunch time breaks at the IP, students answered an anonymous survey with three questions related to the topic, the opportunity to use language skills, and their comprehension level of the day's interactions. Students' feedback was analyzed after each semester and used in the following term's IP to attract students to join during their lunch break.

Reflections

By developing communicative competence during university, students will reap benefits later on, such as more open-mindedness in meeting new colleagues and understanding actions that require deeper explanation through proximal development (Wass & Golding, 2014). To prepare students for these encounters, Li and Keller (2018) defined a model for socio-cultural awareness through attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (ARCS) of instructing students. When entering a new environment, connecting with others through questions or humor will gain the attention of people. The skill of gaining attention provides the opportunity for people to proceed with greater confidence when interacting with people from various backgrounds. The satisfaction of personal investment of developing oneself and expressing a more significant understanding of others is the heart of successful communicative competency. Using ARCS (Li & Keller, 2018) as a guideline when interacting in socio-cultural settings helps students to gain communicative competence for future endeavors that require skills beyond the language classroom. Remaining confident that meaningful exchanges are possible helps prepare students for off-campus, real-world opportunities where prior language learning experiences serve as a key strategy for continued language success.

Discussion

Becoming autonomous language learners and building communicative competence and confidence are two of aspects of the learning process that often prove challenging for new university students in Japan. The above studies examined why this may be and offer two complementary ways to address these challenges. Based on interview data of students in the first study, students are generally aware of the importance of English communicationve ability, but have few chances to develop autonomous learning habits or engage in communication in their secondary school classes due to a focus on *yakudoku* grammar-translation based exam preparation.

Although students may enter university without the active knowledge little idea about how to become more autonomous language learners due to few communicative experiences. The above studies have shown that there are steps that both university programs and teachers can take to help students increase their autonomy as well as communicative ability and confidence. At the institutional level, it was demonstrated shown that, given suitable space, learning resources, and scaffolding, a self-directed learning English course can help students take control of their language learning. On a smaller scale, providing structured opportunities for students to engage in informal out-of-class communication in English can help students improve their communicative confidence and competence.

At the secondary level, there are three recommendations for practice and further research from the first study regarding the university students' perceptions of their secondary English education in Japan. One, analyze how much the textbooks are aligned with MEXT's 2020 secondary communication reform to reduce the approval of texts that mirror non-communicative English exam preparation. Two, provide practical frequent, and hands-on autonomous activities related to students' experiences for teachers to incorporate into communication lessons embedded in the curriculum. Three, offer more opportunities for communicative language training for teachers than are currently provided in the proposed English education curriculum reform. These can be supplemented with practical professional development and workshops from peers and experts. Until such reforms can be made, though, it may be up to universities to help students become more autonomous language learners and confident communicators. Programs such as the self-directed learning English course and creation of opportunities to improve student socio-cultural communicative competence offer two different, but complementary possibilities to do so.

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20 Adventures in Unfamiliar Territory: A CLIL Tourism Course

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This paper describes a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) course on Tourism in Japan, designed and taught by the author as part of a university-level program taught partly in English. The course aims to give students a grounding in the history of tourism, related business topics such as destination marketing, and sustainability. It culminates in a group project to design and present a marketing plan for a less-touristed Japanese destination. The paper describes the course design process, core principles and main activity types used to make concepts accessible to students. It then discusses the purported benefits of the CLIL approach, and reflects on the successes and failings of the course measured against the “4 Cs”: content, communication, cognition and culture. It concludes by discussing the importance of collaboration and integrated curriculum support to successful CLIL teaching and learning.

本稿は日本の観光事業に関する大学レベルの内容言語統合型学習（CLIL）科目について説明したものである。同科目は大学において一部の授業が英語で行われるプログラムの一環として筆者が考案し教鞭を執っている。狙いは観光産業の歴史、観光地マーケティング等の関連ビジネス、サステナビリティについての基礎知識の習得である。授業の後半では学生がグループに分かれ、国内で観光客が比較的少ない観光地のマーケティングを企画し発表する。本稿では科目設計の手順、基本方針、そして学生に概念を分かりやすく伝えるための主な活動の種類について述べる。またCLILアプローチのメリットとされている点について論じ、「4つのC」、すなわち学習内容、　意思の疎通、思考力、異文化理解に照らして同科目の利点と難点を検討する。そして結論として、CLILの教授法と学習が功を奏するには共同作業と統合カリキュラム支援が欠かせないとする。

This paper will describe a fifteen-lesson Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) course entitled "Tourism in Japan", taught by the author as part of a Global Studies program in which students take half of their credits in English medium classes. In 2016, 42% of Japanese universities offered courses delivered in English, an increase of nearly 10% on five years previously (MEXT, 2019). This growth has been supported by funding programs administered by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), which views English-medium classes as a way to improve Japan's global competitiveness in higher education, attract more international students and faculty, and improve English levels (Hashimoto, 2017).

However, the benefits of MEXT support have tended to accrue to a small number of universities, often those that have long-standing English-medium programs. It is telling that only 5.2% of faculties within universities offering English-medium programs allowed students to graduate purely through taking classes in English (MEXT, 2019). In many Japanese universities, English-medium education is isolated and ad hoc (Bradford & Brown, 2017), and more often taught by language faculty than by content specialists.

This differed greatly from the CLIL course in Japanese history which I designed and taught as a full-time teacher at a foreign languages university (Hutchinson, 2018). While I studied history as an undergraduate, I have never formally studied Tourism. As a part-time teacher, I had limited knowledge of where the Tourism course fit into the overall curriculum. Another difference was students' expectations; the history course was taught at a university with a strong English-only ethos, while students in the Tourism course tended to use English only receptively, with the exception of assessments. While, ideally, both students and teacher come to the classroom well-prepared for CLIL, my situation as a part-time Tourism teacher is perhaps more representative of many practitioners in Japan today.

This paper will briefly outline the CLIL approach, and the 4Cs Framework. It will consider the design process of the Tourism in Japan course, introducing goals, assessment, course principles and the course plan. Finally, I will use the 4Cs Framework to reflect on the course's success, before considering implications for the effective implementation of CLIL in Japanese higher education.

CLIL and the 4Cs Framework

According to Coyle, Hood & Marsh (2010), CLIL "is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content *and* language" (p. 1). The 4Cs Framework adds two more essential components: cognition and culture. In this framework, learners learn subject matter (content) by thinking about it on many levels (cognition) and interacting with others (communication in the target language). The fourth component, culture, permeates the others, and involves deepening intercultural awareness by exploring self and 'otherness', both in the classroom and in relation to the content (Coyle et al., 2010).

This combination is highly attractive to educational policy-makers and instructors. Rather than simply a way to learn a language, CLIL has been portrayed as "more of everything produced at lower anxiety levels" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 276). Amano (2015) summarises several other benefits often ascribed to CLIL, such as promoting positive learning outlooks, developing higher order thinking and academic skills, and even stimulating student interest in studying or working overseas. Nevertheless, as Bruton (2013) points out, it is counterintuitive to suppose that content learning will take place more effectively through a second language that students are also, simultaneously, acquiring. Rather than seeing CLIL or English-medium instruction as a magic bullet, it is important to consider what works, and how institutions and practitioners can support effective learning.

Course Design

Since I do not have a background in tourism studies, my first task was to establish a course framework that would cover introductory content in a way that was accessible to lower-proficiency students but challenging enough for those with more linguistic ability. I was unable to conduct a needs analysis before the course began, and was asked to set my own course plan and goals. Available textbooks generally took an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach, aiming to train students in the English they would need for employment in the industry, whereas I hoped to follow a more general "Introduction to Tourism" approach.

I gathered several online tourism syllabi, eventually taking the majority of topics from a Massive Open Online Course (MOOC) offered by the University of Queensland on the EdX platform (University of Queensland X, n.d.). Seeing the range of inspiring examples of best practice in the tourism industry, I decided that course content would not be confined to tourism in Japan. Instead, I would aim to activate student experience about travel and tourism, introduce best practice from around the world, and encourage students to apply it to Japan.

I adopted what Wiggins & McTighe (2005) refer to as a Backward Design. Here, the course designer begins at the 'end' by identifying desirable learning outcomes, then determines criteria and means to evaluate students' progress towards those outcomes, and finally plans what learners will do in the classroom to support their development. This methodology has the advantage of innately encouraging intentionality in the design process, as the instructor must consider the purpose of each activity or topic. It also promotes transparency and self-regulation, as students are made aware of learning goals and assessment criteria at the beginning of the course and can connect their learning to these goals. I will introduce each section of the course plan below.

Learning Goals

- students will deepen their understanding of basic business concepts relating to tourism
- students will be able to understand and interpret statistics and data relating to tourism
- students will be able to apply their learning to the Japanese context
- students will be able to effectively communicate tourism-related information orally

Assessment Methods

Multiple-Choice Unit Tests

These tests targeted key vocabulary items in context. L1 was not used in the tests; instead, answering questions required matching terms to concrete examples. For example,

Which of the following is an example of <u>inbound tourism</u> to Japan?

A) Our teacher returns to Japan after a trip home.
B) Our teacher visits Kyoto for a conference.
C) Our teacher's brother visits her in Tokyo and enjoys visiting famous attractions.
D) Our teacher spends a week in Bali doing yoga.

The tests were intended to review core concepts that would be needed to successfully complete the final project, in a way that was manageable with a large number of students. They were written in simple English and kept concrete in order to support students at lower levels. Nevertheless, average scores were lower for more abstract topics (82% for tourism basics, 65% for sustainability).

Business Plan and Marketing Presentation

The final project was completed in small groups, and required students to market a less-visited Japanese destination to inbound tourists. Groups chose their destination, identified a target market and justified why their destination would appeal to them. They were also asked to consider how and where they would market their destination.

Project preparation was threaded throughout the course, with the first formal explanation in lesson 6. For this class, I created an information transfer activity based on data presented in the McKinsey report "The future of Japan's tourism: Path for sustainable growth towards 2020" (Andonian, Kuwabara, Yamakawa & Ishida, 2016). Students worked together to understand charts from the report, which gave insights into government tourism targets and emphasised the need to redirect tourists away from already overcrowded destinations. To assist comprehension, note-taking frameworks were used to steer students towards relevant information.

Focussing on unfamiliar destinations promoted content learning and led students to think more deeply about target markets. Once groups had chosen their destinations, they were expected to continue researching, before coming together at the end of the course to finalize their business plans and presentations. Business plans were submitted before the presentations in order that I could make comments and suggestions.

Methodologies

The following basic principles informed the selection of content and materials design.

Utilize Student Knowledge

A class survey conducted in lesson 1 confirmed that all students had some experience of travelling, many outside Japan, and that all were interested in doing so in the future. Further, 78% of students were interested in pursuing tourism-related careers. This provided a basis for students to understand new content, and personalise it by relating it to their existing knowledge. In lectures, I tried to incorporate my own experiences and photos, and encouraged students to share their own experiences in warm-up activities.

Learn from Best Practice

Tourism is a global industry which has grown and diversified enormously in recent decades, and it is easy to find examples of best practice. These can inspire students to reflect on the Japanese context, and apply what they have learned when creating their own marketing plans. This also creates opportunities to engage higher order thinking skills: once an example of global best practice has been understood, students can be asked to apply it to Japan, choose the most relevant to Japan and justify their opinion, or create a new idea using what they have learned.

Ensure Authenticity of Purpose and Input

Using worldwide best practice as a basis to develop projects in Japan gave the course greater authenticity of purpose (Pinner, 2013), and a justification for using materials in English, the *lingua franca* of worldwide tourism. Texts chosen were generally ungraded but of manageable length, preferably providing concrete examples and pictures. Particularly useful were internet list articles in the vein of “Five Most Inspiring Tourism Promotions”, which lent themselves to ranking activities and jigsaw reading activities (in which groups of students worked on different parts of a text or task, before combining those elements to understand the whole).

The final project was based on the current situation in Japan and targets set by the Japanese government, which were approached through an analysis of an authentic business report (Andonian et al., 2016). Promoting a regional destination to foreign tourists is something students may actually do after graduating, and they seemed motivated to learn more about Japan while doing so.

Utilize Visual Organizers

Visual organizers were used to reduce the linguistic demand on students and provide a means of confirming student learning. These were used in several ways: to check understanding post-reading, as note-taking scaffolds, and created by students as a tool to explain their ideas to others. Where cognitive demand was likely to be high, such as in debate activities, students developed their ideas on paper first before introducing the visual to opposing teams (mini-debates, lesson 12). This also worked to promote collaboration.

Promote Collaborative Working

If students are to learn to communicate in another language, they will need to collaborate with others to achieve given tasks. This was accomplished in the classroom through jigsaw tasks such as reading, taking notes and sharing information. These activities build multiple skills and reduce the volume of reading required for each individual student. Each lesson began with a small-group review game from the previous week’s lesson, followed by discussion questions aimed at activating students’ knowledge about the new topic.

Promote Thinking Skills

Once students had understood a concept, they were asked to do something more with it, such as ranking options, making recommendations, selecting and justifying a choice, and so on. This promoted active engagement with the content, and encouraged students to think and discuss using English. Making personal decisions about content also allowed groups to compare and thus broaden their thinking.

Course Plan

In Table 1, I introduce an outline of the course structure and a brief description of the activities used.

Table 1: Course Plan

Unit	Target content (Activity Type)
1. Introduction	Lesson 1: Introduction Getting to know you (class travel experience survey); categorising (matching pictures to categories of tourist business); brainstorming (examples of Japanese tourist businesses)
	Lesson 2: History History of tourism in Japan (short lecture); design a trip (jigsaw speaking activity)
Unit test 1: Tourism basics	
2. Business	Lesson 3: Marketing Award-winning marketing videos (jigsaw analysis/ listening/ speaking); marketing concepts (short lecture)
	Lesson 4: Target markets Target markets (short lecture); our class as a target market (discussion of survey data); identifying target markets for trips (jigsaw analysis/ speaking activity)
	Lesson 5: Technology Effects of technology (short lecture); emerging technology in tourism (jigsaw reading, analysis, speaking)
	Lesson 6: Service Top complaints of Japan visitors (ranking); *presentation project introduction: Japan's tourism goals (information transfer)*
Unit test 2: Business	
3. Sustainability	Lesson 7: Tourism policy Negative impacts of tourism (prediction/ short lecture); creation of good tourism guidelines (brainstorming/ sharing/ voting)
	Lesson 8: Economic sustainability Economic issues in tourism (short lecture); contemporary economic sustainability issues (jigsaw reading/ speaking)
	Lesson 9: Social sustainability Overcrowding in Kyoto (reading/ information transfer/ group problem-solution diagram)
	Lesson 10: Environmental sustainability Cause and effect of tourism's environmental impact (sentence half matching); Sustainability game (groups choose most sustainable option)
Unit test 3: Sustainability	
4. Review and Project	Lesson 11: *Project preparation (teacher models project presentation and business plan)*
	Lesson 12: Olympics/ course review Pros and cons of hosting the Olympics (mini-debate)
	Lesson 13: *Project preparation*
	Lesson 14: *Student presentations*
	Lesson 15: *Student presentations*

Assessment of the course: The 4Cs Framework

Content

In order to make content accessible to students, I used a range of techniques drawn from my background in language teaching. Introductory discussion questions allowed students to personalise content and explain difficult concepts to one another. The course's target language and concepts were carefully selected to feed into the final project, and recycled frequently, including in speaking review games.

However, there was a loss of content understanding as learners summarised and shared readings during the jigsaw reading process. This may have stemmed from a lack of procedural knowledge about jigsaw reading, or insufficient language and cognitive skills to complete it effectively. Thus, although the course gave students a better conceptual knowledge of tourism, more could have been done to demonstrate and scaffold what was expected.

Communication

Coyle et al. (2010) identify three types of language needed for effective CLIL, which they dub the Language Triptych:

- Language of learning ("language needed for learners to access basic concepts and skills relating to the subject theme or topic" (ibid., p. 37)).
- Language for learning (language that students need to operate in a foreign language classroom; in other words, the English needed to clarify, give opinions, ask questions and support one another)
- Language through learning (language which naturally arises as students attempt to carry out their learning in the target language)

Below, I summarise my assessment of the course for each aspect.

Language of Learning

This aspect of learning seemed familiar to students, who were generally engaged in understanding and reviewing vocabulary and concepts.

Language for Learning

This aspect of the course was the least successful. As discussed above, my prior experience teaching CLIL courses had been at an institution which insists on, and generally succeeds in maintaining, an English-only policy in the classroom. It was thus a surprise when students chose to complete tasks primarily in their L1, including those intended as less challenging warm-up activities. This continued in spite of verbal encouragement and explanation of the benefits of English use, although vocabulary review games were typically conducted in English. All assessment tasks were completed in English without question, revealing that many students had surprisingly high levels of proficiency given their reticence to communicate. It was therefore unclear why students did not use English in class, but greater scaffolding and explanation or modelling could help familiarise students with procedural language.

Language through Learning

Instructors can assist students by collecting and recycling emerging language, making them aware of how this process contributes to their learning (Coyle et al., 2010). However, since few students used English to carry out activities and negotiate meaning, it was difficult to collect examples of language. It was also more difficult to get a sense of how students were progressing on a given task, a problem exacerbated by the large class size.

Culture

The intercultural aspect of the course was the most fully realised. The decision to use examples from around the world and apply them to Japan set up an implicit dialogue between self and other, encouraging students to question how Japan might look from the outside. It also mirrored the real-world process of developing new ideas in the tourism industry. The initial survey activity allowed students to understand their class as a particular target market, giving them a point of comparison to other markets. Although some experienced a degree of challenge in understanding different perspectives, most understood the concept and tried to engage with it.

Cognition

As Coyle et al. (2010) argue, "for content learning to be effective learning, students must be cognitively engaged" (p. 29). Multiple choice tests indicated that students had remembered and understood core concepts sufficient to identify an example of them, types of lower-order processing on Bloom's taxonomy. Where in-class activities required students to carry out higher-order thinking skills, such as analysing cause and effect or making and justifying a choice, the results were more mixed. This seemed to depend in part on students' language level, and partly on levels of motivation; some students tended to minimal application, giving one-word answers or "I don't understand". In a class of 45, it was difficult to provide targeted support to all students, or to encourage early finishers to go deeper. There also seemed to be less mutual accountability than typically develops in a smaller class.

The same pattern was observed with the final project, which was intended to encourage student creativity based on an understanding and application of what we had learned in class. Some groups did this quite effectively, while others gave presentations which skipped over many of the concepts studied in class. Although my intention had been to encourage these groups by giving them advance feedback, these groups were also late in submitting their work. One possible way to assist students in developing higher order thinking skills would be for the instructor to model processes, either before or after students try a task themselves. Although this was done for the final project, the patchy attendance of some students meant that they may not have had a full understanding of the task requirements.

Conclusions

Reflecting on my two very different experiences of designing and teaching CLIL courses has revealed the enormous importance of contextual factors in determining the success of CLIL across the 4C's. Teaching and designing CLIL classes requires "a mix of specialist knowledge of content, language skills, and teaching experience as well as a willingness to take on a greater workload than either an L1 content class or a language class would normally require" (Brown & Iyobe 2014, p. 16). There may not be commercially available textbooks aimed at L2 students with an appropriate level of linguistic and cognitive difficulty.

Even where there are, a teacher who is not a content expert will need to increase their knowledge and identify opportunities for the development of learners' cognitive skills, while a teacher who is not a trained language teacher must familiarise themselves with new pedagogical techniques and provide language scaffolding. Trained content teachers who are not confident speakers of the target language may have to become so, or alter their methodologies to reduce their talking time. Since the development of such classes typically involves a great deal more time investment than strict language or content classes, compensation and timetabling should reflect this.

Ideally, collaboration between language and content teaching professionals is essential to ensure purposeful instruction at a high academic level. This could extend to collaborative course development and paired language and content courses, or pair-taught lessons. Nonetheless, attitudes towards collaboration in the Japanese higher education sector may make this difficult, even in the case of full-time or tenured practitioners (Adamson, 2010).

Another aspect to collaboration is the extent to which a given course is supported by a curriculum which builds students' linguistic and academic skills and procedural knowledge. When teaching the history course, I could assume learner familiarity with collaborative learning activities, and proficiency in carrying out classroom tasks in English. As a result, I could devote the majority of instruction to content and topic-specific language. Since students produced a large volume of spoken English, I could also monitor effectively and exploit language through learning. Where this is not the case, English may be a target of learning, but not a medium for it, reducing CLIL's putative benefits of promoting thinking in a foreign language. Knowledge about what students come to the class able to do, where they need to improve and what their expectations are, is also hugely beneficial when planning a course.

The issue of environment may extend to questions such as the setup of classrooms; it is more difficult to create an atmosphere of small group communication and collaboration in classrooms with fixed desks which all face the teacher. Likewise, facilitating active learning is made more difficult with a large number of students, particularly when they are unfamiliar with activity types and unused to receiving directions in English. In such circumstances, more of an instructors' time is spent on managing resources, setting up activities and clarifying procedures, leaving less time to assist students with lower language proficiency, monitor for ideas and language usage, and facilitate interactions between students. Effective monitoring of large groups is further complicated when they do not use the target language.

This paper is not intended to dissuade practitioners or institutions from implementing CLIL programs, but rather to argue that sustained, systematic focus across the curriculum and the institution is necessary in order for the methodology to realise its full potential. Where this kind of support is not feasible, it may be necessary to manage expectations, and to ensure that instructors have sufficient insight into the needs of the learners they will be teaching. In addition to those at institutions with a wealth of experience in English-medium and CLIL education, it is also important that we hear from part-time teachers, or institutions introducing new English-medium courses. This research and experience will assist in implementing CLIL teaching effectively across the Japanese higher education sector, and maximising its benefits for learners and instructors.

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21 Collaborative Mobile Assisted Digital Storytelling Projects: Practical Considerations for Successful Classroom Implementation

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The purpose of this study was to identify any potential limitations or shortcomings of having English language learners complete collaborative digital storytelling projects using mobile devices. Utilizing a case study approach, qualitative and quantitative data were collected from classroom observation and questionnaire feedback. The participants of the study were 83 undergraduate CEFR A2-B1 English language learners. One of the main findings elucidated by this study showed that the collaborative approaches adopted by subjects during the creative process had significant impacts on the completed projects. Students who shared a single device to film and edit their videos, thus necessitating deeper communication, negotiation, and collaboration reported higher levels of satisfaction with their completed films than students who filmed and edited their projects on a number of devices. The results also highlight technological considerations required to successfully implement a collaborative digital storytelling project using mobile devices.

この研究の目的は、英語学習者がモバイルデバイスを使用した共同デジタルストーリーテリングプロジェクトを完了することの潜在的制限または弱点を特定することでした。ケーススタディのアプローチを利用して、教室での観察とアンケートのフィードバックから定性的および定量的なデータを収集しました。研究の参加者は 83 人の学部生 CEFR A2-B1 英語学習者でした。この研究によって明らかにされた主な発見の 1 つは、ﾌﾟﾛｾｽを作り出す際に採用した共同アプローチがﾌﾟﾛｼﾞｪｸﾄを完成せさるのに大きな影響を与えることでした。ビデオを撮影および編集するために一つの機器を共有した学生は、複数の機器を使用して撮影や編集を行った学生よりも必要とされる深いコミュニケーションや交渉および協力ができ、高い満足度が報告されました。また、モバイルデバイスを使用した共同デジタルストーリーテリングプロジェクトを上手に実施するために必要な技術的考慮事項も示された。

Since its development as a teaching and learning tool in the early 1990s, digital storytelling has been making inroads into mainstream teaching practices. Digital storytelling differs from more traditional forms of storytelling in that it utilizes digital technology to both capture and share its subject matter. While the definition of digital storytelling varies somewhat between practitioners, at its core the practice is usually described as having common elements such as digital videos and photos, music, and narration. Robin (2006) has identified three broad categories that they tend to fall under; those that tell personal narratives, those that examine historical events, and those that inform and instruct. The digital stories described in this study feature stories that fall under the latter category, those that inform and instruct. A useful working definition of digital storytelling for the purposes of this paper would be stories that inform about a specific topic created using digital video recordings and photos; stylistic elements that include music, animated graphics, filters, and text; and finally, subtitled voice narration. The digital stories described in this paper were also recorded, edited, and published using only the participants' mobile devices.

Researchers have identified several educational benefits of project based digital storytelling tasks that are of particular interest in language learning environments. Yuksel, Robin and McNeil (2011), conducted an educational benefits survey of 154 teachers and learners in 22 different countries around the world. The results of their survey indicated that educators felt students benefited most in terms of writing, presentation, and technical skills as well as an increase in subject matter understanding. Their results further showed that 42% of respondents felt that digital storytelling practices benefitted language teaching.

Increased learner motivation is an often-cited educational benefit of digital storytelling (Robin, 2006; 2008; Sylvester & Greenidge, 2009; Kim, 2014; Alismail, 2015). Smeda, Dakich, and Sharda (2014), conducted a multi-site case study in Australian primary schools and that found that along with increases in motivation, student task engagement increased leading to the enhancement of learning outcomes. Indeed, subject behaviors observed during the study described in this paper point to a level of motivation, engagement, and enthusiasm rarely experienced in language classes. Not only did 95% of the participants in the present study complete the digital storytelling project and all optional and anonymous surveys associated with the research, participants were also observed posting positive and enthusiastic messages on their personal social media accounts. One post in particular stood out as a student tweeted, "I can't wait for next week because we're going to explore our town to make a movie about it. This is going to be great!"

Learner collaboration is another emerging area of interest related to digital storytelling. Along with digital literacy, critical thinking skills, and problem-solving skills, collaboration is considered an essential 21st century skill (Rich, 2010). Several researchers have found promising results when exploring learners' collaborative processes during digital storytelling projects (Saritepeci & Çakır, 2019; Nam, 2017). Rubino, Barberis, and Malnati (2018) conducted a study to investigate the ways that collaborative writing of a fictional digital story can affect student commitment, creativity, social skills, and overall scholastic achievement. Their findings indicated that the processes of collaboration that students engage in during digital storytelling projects have significant impacts on learning outcomes.

Of the many dimensions that researchers investigate relating to digital storytelling, the emerging area of using mobile devices to produce digital stories has yet to receive much attention. Most of the current research of mobile device digital storytelling describe studies of mobile apps designed by the researchers to complete very specific tasks (Liu, Wang, & Tai, 2016; Han, Shih, Rosson, & Carroll, 2014).

The purpose of this paper is to identify problems or limitations that may hinder teachers from successfully implementing a collaborative digital storytelling project using mobile devices. By identifying these potential problems, teachers wishing to conduct a similar project-based language learning task will be able to smoothly achieve their desired outcomes.

Digital storytelling project description

The digital storytelling project described below was included as a major assignment in a compulsory first year English presentation-focused course held twice a week during a 15-week semester. While this project was originally conducted with 83 students (whose survey results are discussed in subsequent sections of this paper) in the 2018 spring semester, it has since become a regular component of the English course and has been completed by over 200 students. The English proficiency levels of the students participating in this project have ranged from A1-B2 on the CEFR scale with the majority falling into the A2-B1 range. For each group of students, the project was conducted after language skills necessary to effectively introduce and describe topics of interest had been developed using a traditional textbook-based approach to language learning (after approximately 20 lessons). The project took six 90-minute lessons to complete and was divided into five distinct phases: an explanation phase, a research phase, a drafting phase, a filming and editing phase, and a peer feedback phase. The explanation at the beginning of the project and the peer feedback phase at the end were allotted one 90-minute lesson each. The research and drafting phases were allotted two 90-minute lessons each. The filming and editing phase was not conducted during regular class time as students had to film their projects on-site.

Students were instructed that the subject matter of their videos had to pertain to the town in which their university was located. The motivation for controlling the subject matter in such a way was an attempt to promote local community awareness and engagement since many of the students were either new to their university town or commuted daily from other cities.

During the explanation phase, students were shown an example of a digital storytelling video featuring the historic and cultural significance of a local park that had been created by the instructor using an iPhone 7 and an Apple iOS video recording and editing software application called Clips. In order to allow creativity to flourish, students were not prescribed a set procedure to complete their digital stories. Decisions relating to video content, the selection and use of recording and editing software applications, and collaborative processes were left entirely up to the students. The only stipulations for completing the projects were that the videos had to be filmed at the locations the groups had decided on, that each member of the group had to be present while filming occurred, and that the films had to contain a voiced narration and matching subtitles in English. The target length for completed projects was 5 minutes. At the outset of the project, students were also made aware that they would be conducting a peer feedback task using a rubric provided by the instructor. This meant that students were aware of the criteria used to assess their projects and that their videos would be shared with a wider audience.

As the university that the participants attended had G Suites for education (Google productivity and collaboration tools), the instructor set up a shared Google Drive folder for students to use when uploading their completed projects.

Survey results

Of the original 83 participants in this project, 79 completed an online questionnaire that was both optional and anonymous. Students were asked to answer the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with a list of statements about the filming and editing phase of their videos. They were also asked open-ended questions about their thoughts and opinions relating to their overall impression of the project. The survey responses identified several issues with the digital storytelling project relating to technological limitations and problematic aspects of the collaborative process.

Students identified several notable technological issues as they tried to complete their video projects. The first of these issues related to the operating system of the device being used. While almost 80% (n=66) of the students had a version of an iPhone, which uses iOS as its operating system, the remaining students had devices that used the Android operating system. Many mobile applications are built for both operating systems; however some, such as the Clips app demonstrated by the instructor, are not. This meant that 17 of the students who participated in the digital storytelling project could not use the software application that had been demonstrated during the explanation phase.

The operating system also affected how files were transferred between devices. From iPhone to iPhone, students could transfer files of any size using the AirDrop file transfer feature. Similarly, from an Android device to another Android device, students could use the Android Beam file transfer feature, Bluetooth transfer, or in a few cases, by using a removable SD card. In cases where students wanted to transfer files from an iPhone to an Android device, they had to use the shared Google Drive folder which proved to be an inconvenient extra step. Having to upload and download files to cloud storage was also sometimes very time consuming as the students had no access to WIFI in the classrooms and as some projects neared completion the files could be as large as 500 megabytes. File format and application compatibility issues also arose when sharing between devices. These issues are discussed in-depth in the recommendations sections that follows.

Students were asked to comment on the most challenging aspect of editing the film projects. According to the questionnaire results, a majority of students (n=60) reported that adding subtitles was the most difficult editing aspect. This problem was also reflected in the finished projects as the subtitles in some films did not match the voiced narration or were completely missing from some scenes. Unfortunately, while the Clips app has a very sophisticated feature that automatically produces editable subtitles based on voice recognition, other recording and editing apps do not allow for subtitles at all.

Another technological problem uncovered by analyzing the completed projects were issues relating to audio recording. Because students did not have access to microphones, any scenes that were recorded at any distance from the speaker or narrator resulted in somewhat inaudible recordings. This problem was also evident in recordings that were filmed in windy areas or areas that had background noise such as street traffic.

Aside from identifying technological problems, students also commented on the problematic aspects of collaboration. After comparing student questionnaire responses, two basic patterns of collaboration emerged. The most common collaborative pattern (n=51) involved groups using a single device to film and edit their project. The second collaborative pattern (n=28) involved each member of the group using their own mobile devices to film and edit various scenes of their project before transferring the clips to a single device where they were compiled into a single video and shared. The adoption of different collaborative strategies led to distinct outcomes in terms of effective collaboration and the quality of the final videos. The groups that utilized a single device approach reported higher instances of difficulties associated with aspects of collaboration such as communication and negotiation but were generally satisfied with the finished project. The groups that adopted a multiple device approach reported fewer instances of difficulty relating to communication and negotiation but had a much higher percent of dissatisfaction with the completed films.

When investigated further, the main issues that the multiple device groups commented on related to a lack of continuity between the scenes that they had recorded. For example, as a range of devices and apps were used to film and edit individual scenes, there were noticeable differences in image and audio quality, subtitle styles and fonts were different, and other stylistic elements such as animated graphics or text were inconsistent. However, for three of the multiple device groups the problems were much more serious. They reported that some file types were not compatible between mobile devices or the mobile video editing software applications and that they had to download the files to a computer in order to compile them into a single video.

Recommendations for implementation

Based on the results of this study, educators can overcome some of the problems associated with this complex task by carefully considering the collaborative approach students adopt. Problematic aspects of creating these videos relating to operating system issues, software application incompatibility, and file transfers can be largely avoided by having groups adopt a single device approach. At the outset of the project, students should be encouraged to identify the tasks necessary to complete their videos and divide them equally between group members. Students should then be given advice on skills needed to overcome the problematic aspects of communication or negotiation which are often cited as the main challenges of the collaboration process. If students insist on using multiple devices to create their videos, group members should be selected and arranged based on the mobile device that they have. These students should also form a consensus on the recording and editing software they will use to make their videos.

It may also be advisable for instructors to choose the software application that students use to record and edit their projects. Selecting software that is available for both iOS and Android would ensure that any demonstrations or tutorials provided by instructors would be useful for all of the participants in the project. Choosing the recording and editing application can also help avoid issues related to file format and size. For example, the Clips application demonstrated by the instructor for this study creates files using the .MOV format which produces very large files (approx. 100 MB/minute of completed video) and is incompatible with Android devices. These large file sizes can become problematic for devices with limited storage capacity or when students attempt to share or upload them.

The method for sharing and viewing the completed videos is another aspect of this project that must be carefully considered. In the study described in this paper, participants had access to G Suites accounts provided by their institution. This meant that the instructor simply had to create a shared Google Drive folder that students could use to upload their completed projects. This method provides unlimited cloud storage that is accessible through the Google Drive app on participants' devices. Completed projects can also be easily uploaded to Google Classroom as a file attachment to an assignment created by the instructor. Luckily for instructors without access to G Suites several other sharing options exist. For instance, students can use the YouTube mobile app to upload and share their videos by creating an account. They could also use AirDrop (for iOS) or Android Beam to transfer their video files directly to their classmates' devices (although this method cannot be used for cross-platform sharing). Finally, if classrooms are equipped with video projectors, students could connect their devices with the appropriate adaptors and present their videos in class.

A final technological hurdle that students should be made aware of are audio issues caused by distance, wind, and background. Providing students with inexpensive lapel style microphones called lavalier microphones commonly used in TV news productions may be an option for improving the audio quality of some videos. Another useful option could also be to use a third-party video recording application like MoviePro or FiLMiC which allows iPhone Airpods, the wireless in-ear headphones developed by Apple, to be used as a wireless lavalier microphone. Apps such as iMovie or Clips also allow for audio to be added later by importing separately recorded audio files. The low-tech option of course is to simply make sure that the recording devices are as close as possible to the speakers while filming.

Conclusion

As this study showed, undertaking a collaborative mobile device created digital storytelling project necessitates foresight and planning. Issues relating to group dynamics, collaborative strategies, smartphone operating systems (iOS or Android), software application usage, and file sharing must all be considered carefully before introducing a complex project like the one described in this paper. However, successfully implementing a collaborative digital storytelling project can be very rewarding in terms of enhanced problem-solving skills, collaboration skills, and language learning outcomes.

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Author biography

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22 Syllable Understanding and Young Learners

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To convey a spoken message clearly in English, both phoneme and syllable accuracy are important. The new elementary school curriculum in Japan for public schools includes aims for students to recognize English letters and words for the purpose of developing foundational skills for real communication, to notice differences in sound features between Japanese and English, and to help children gain a better understanding of the way words work. Age appropriate work with syllable and stress concepts supports the achievement of these aims. This paper contextualizes syllable and stress practice within the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) New Course of Study in Foreign Language Education curriculum, and shares teaching methods for preschool and elementary school aged children developed from three years of classroom action research working with children and university students on syllable and stress concepts.

英語の会話においてメッセージを明確に伝えるには、音素と音節の正確さが重要である。文部科学省告示の最新版小学校学習指導要領の外国語活動編においては、児童が日本語と英語の音の特徴の違いに気づくこと、そして言葉がどのような仕組みによって機能しているのか理解を深めることを通して、よりリアルなコミュニケーションの基礎的なスキルとして、英語の文字と言葉を認識することが指導目的に含まれている。児童の発達段階に合わせた音節と強勢の取り組みは、これらの目的を遂行するのに寄与可能である。そこで、本論では最新版小学校学習指導要領、外国語活動編における音節と強勢に関わる文脈を整理し、幼児・児童、生徒および大学生と三年間取り組んできた、音節と強勢に関わる授業のアクションリサーチを基に、幼児教育や小学校児童向けに開発した教育実践方法を共有する。

When we communicate in spoken language, we are clear in our communication with others to the extent that what we say matches our listener's expectation of how words or phrases should sound. Phoneme and syllable are both integral to meeting those expectations and clearly expressing meaning in what we say.

Our regional varieties of English are defined in large part by the way sounds change from one variety to the next. If we imagine how someone in a coffee shop might make the request, "Black coffee, please." in several different varieties of English, we see that across most varieties it is the vowels that change. Listeners and speakers from different regional backgrounds can generally still understand each other, but because their expectations about the way "Black coffee, please." should sound are not necessarily the same, there is potential for communication to be clouded. The speaker might need to make a recast to facilitate understanding, or the listener might need a little more time than usual to work out what is being said. It is one layer of ambiguity.

Changes in syllable number or stress pattern add yet another layer of ambiguity when we encounter them. Within most L1 varieties of English, word level changes in syllable number are very rare. Stress pattern changes do certainly happen, but these also are comparatively rare.

In the case of English learners, it is not uncommon for individuals to intuitively apply the sound system rules of their first language when using their L2. Naturally, this is true for Japanese learners of English, too. If a speaker applies normal rules of Japanese to the phrase "Black coffee, please." it might look something like this:

ブラックコーヒープリーズ

/buɾak̚ku ko:hi: puri:zu/

Much like in L1 regional English dialects, there are phoneme changes. The /l/ in the example is swapped with the flap /r/ in black and please, and the /f/ sound is swapped with /h/ in coffee to adapt to the palate of choices available in the Japanese sound system. Unlike most L1 English regional dialects, there are significant changes in syllable count as well. For the English sound system, the number of syllables in a word is, in essence, equal to the number of vowel phonemes in that word. The Japanese example would have eight syllables where speakers of most L1 English dialects would expect four. Multiple levels of ambiguity exist here to potentially stand in the way of a listener unfamiliar with Japanese regional English and a speaker unaccustomed to the way English is spoken outside of Japan, because this issue affects listening as well, understanding each other.

In 2017, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) published a document called 小学校外国語活動・外国語研修ガイドブック [Elementary School Gaikokugo Katsudo and Gaikokugo Kensyū Guidebook] describing the new curriculum for Japanese public elementary schools and the mindset behind it in great detail. There is a lot of influence in the guidebook on curiosity toward foreign languages - plural, and on fostering understanding and respect for diverse cultures, but there isn't yet the direct attention in given to Englishes in the plural common to many other countries in Asia, like Singapore or Malaysia for example. MEXT has chosen by unconscious omission or by intention, to not directly discuss inner circle / outer circle or specific varieties of English in this Guidebook. Going forward in this paper, I will refer to English (英語) as a singular, but with the assumption implied that the word English be understood as an umbrella term for all varieties of English and not one variety in particular. Within the guidebook, there are three aims for elementary school students that have particular relevance to why and how syllable segmentation should be taught to young Japanese learners of English.

- Recognizing English letters and words
- Noticing differences in sound features between Japanese and English
- Understanding the way words work for fostering language ability improvement

With regards to the first aim, recognizing English letters and words, it is written in the guidebook that developing foundational skills for real communication is the goal and it states also that children should be allowed to hear slow and clear English. The “Black coffee, please.” example described how multiple levels of ambiguity could potentially hinder communication attempts by Japanese learners in conversation with English speakers from different L1 backgrounds outside of Japan. It bears questioning what it means to know a word. What happens if children are, from the very beginning of their introduction to English, guided to pay attention to the number of syllables and the stress pattern of a word while they learn? Relatedly, we have to think about what it means for students to hear slow and clear English. If phoneme and syllable are both integral to clear communication, what is a good working definition of clear English? Clear should mean conscious thought has been given to the choice of phonemes from whichever varieties of English the teacher deems appropriate, and similarly, careful thought should be given to syllable norms.

As for the second aim, noticing differences in sound features between Japanese and English, the guidebook highlights a need for understanding the language system by:

- noticing the differences in sound features between Japanese and English
- noticing the special features of each language
- noticing differences in word order
- noticing how sentence structure functions

The guidebook seems to be describing a child-friendly version of contrastive analysis. At its most basic, we can define contrastive analysis as the study of pairs of languages or dialects with the intent to better understand their similarities and differences. Here again, not only phoneme but also syllable, stress pattern, and overall cadence of speech are elements which give English its uniqueness. If teachers in Japan are to be successful in helping children understand the language systems of Japanese and English through comparison and contrast, it seems that syllable understanding and related features must logically be included.

The third aim has to do with understanding the way words work for fostering language ability improvement. Within this section, the guidebook identifies a concern that some children feel resistant to speaking foreign languages and states that it is vital to create an environment where leaders (teachers) are able to offer support and fellow children can support each other. There are many reasons why a child might feel reluctant to speak in a foreign language including shyness and anxiety about something unfamiliar. In addition, we know there are also other issues in language learning related to sense of self and perceived or real attacks on our identity and culture. Some children might show reluctance because they are afraid of losing a part of their Japanese identity, or, they may have encountered some of the stigmatization surrounding the way English is spoken in Japan. Teaching syllable segmentation through a contrastive analysis lens might have a positive role to play here, too. Starting around the 1990s in the United States, a handful of teachers in majority African American communities and rural Appalachian communities started experimenting with bringing contrastive analysis into the classroom as a more respectful way of approaching L1 language education (Pullum, 1999; Reaser, 2013). In the American cases, the teachers focused on teaching the students how to compare local varieties of African American Vernacular English (AAVE) or Appalachian English, respectively, with "classroom English" not in terms of right and wrong, but in the way a linguist would - through comparing the underlying rules of both in a non-judgemental and age appropriate way. So-called 'katakana English' sounds the way it does because the underlying rules of Japanese language are being applied to English. What if, instead of telling a child that the way she naturally says purple /paːpuru/ is wrong, we teach her to be excited about discovering how and why the Japanese and English ways are different? Syllable instruction lends itself naturally to comparison of this kind and would create the opportunity for children to compare Japanese and English in a way that is respectful to both languages. This paper uses a classroom based action research approach to look at how syllable instruction might be used to develop fundamental skills for communication, support positive comparison between English and Japanese, and increase student understanding of how words and language work.

Syllable and Stress Pattern Practice in the Classroom

For the past three years, I have been exploring integrating age appropriate sound and syllable instruction in weekly lessons with small classes of early childhood age students, elementary school age students, and in university classes consisting of between 12 to 40 students. For the early childhood and elementary age students, I have kept a reflective journal to record what we did in lessons, note progress and setbacks, and preserve insights gained from talking with or listening to the children. For the university students, I have kept vocabulary quizzes which included syllable count, pronunciation tests, and have conducted surveys and feedback sessions to better understand the effects of syllable and sound related instruction in the classroom.

The Youngest Learners

I began working with a group of three children around the age of one, and a fourth child joined the class at three years of age. At the time of writing this paper, the children are just about to turn five. From April of 2019, I have had the additional opportunity to teach a class of five and six-year-olds and have worked with them on syllable and stress as well.

Grounded in interactionist perspectives of education, and taking into consideration developmental best practices for their age, they way I approach syllable instruction for early childhood has fallen gradually into the following categories:

- Clapping, tapping, and drumming
- Rhythm in story and song
- Questioning and comparing

When the children were very young, clapping, tapping, and drumming was actively done more by the adults in the room (child in lap) with the children joining in gradually as they got older and developed more coordination and focus. The purpose, in addition to innate enjoyment of percussion, rhythm, and language play, was, and still is, to encourage the children to notice the syllable segments and stress through sound, sight, and tactile sense.

By age three, the children began to be able to copy rhythm patterns. Some parents still participated, but most of the children were in class on their own by this point with parents preferring to stay in the lobby area of the school. The children and I could drum, for example, short sequences like these on the carpet:

- red(O) - red(O) - purple(Oo) - purple(Oo)
- octopus(Ooo) - octopus(Ooo) - shark(O)

The circles next to the words represent syllables. The big circle represents a strong syllable and the small circle represent a weak one. What has worked best is to approach rhythm patterns as a kind of echo game. I drum the pattern alone and they copy. Then, I drum and say the words together and they copy.

For rhythm in story and song, below are a few examples of specific stories and songs that have been particularly effective for practicing syllables and cadence:

- Brown Bear, Brown Bear What Do you See? by Bill Martin, Jr.
- Pete the Cat : Old MacDonald Had a Farm by James Dean
- The Seals on the Bus by Lenny Hort
- Head, Shoulders, Knees, and Toes (public domain song)
- Five Little Ducks (public domain song)
- Walking, Walking (public domain song)

What all of the examples have in common is repetition and a lot of simple, concrete vocabulary. Clapping along, call and response, and classroom percussion have worked well with rhythmic stories.

What emerges from echoing sequences, reading stories and singing simple songs with strong rhythm is a very natural environment for noticing differences in sound features between Japanese and English. The children feel, see and hear it when they're off rhythm and wonder why. When I tapped out strawberry(Ooo), for example, in three beats, or purple(Oo) cat(O), in another case, it was difficult for the children to follow at first. Applying the Japanese sound system would give a pattern like this:

- ストロベリー (oOoOo-) 6 syllables
- パープル (O-oo) 4 syllables
- キャット(Oxo) 3 syllables

Length carries meaning and is syllabic in Japanese. The (-) mark indicates the previous sound has been stretched. For these reasons, the word strawberry pronounced using underlying rules of the Japanese sound system will be 6 syllables long. Purple follows the same pattern as strawberry, and would be 4 syllables. Cat would be 3 or possibly 4 syllables. The (x) symbol represents a pause simmilar to what happens when an English speaker says the 'pp' in apple. This also is syllabic in Japanese.

When children find the rhythm difficult to find, teachers can stop then and ask, “Ok, so why is this one tricky?” “How do we say strawberry using Japanese rules?” “How about English?” The children and teacher can clap or tap both versions and teacher can model excitement at discovering something about both languages. When we respect and play with both sound systems, the children and often the teacher learn a lot and we are respectful of each other at the same time. At the school, we have begun including syllable patterns on the vocabulary picture cards created in-house to encourage more opportunities for learning.

What is the relevance of this teaching method to other settings? Guy Cook in *Language Play, Language Learning* pointed out that if we think about the chants and the music that is so much a part of our sporting culture and our festivals, it quickly becomes clear that enjoyment of strong rhythms and rhythmic play is not limited to early childhood. Teachers of age group could add activities like these to help students develop deeper understanding of how language works.

Elementary Age

Over the past 3 years, I have worked with different groups of elementary school students each year in grades four through six in a private language school setting. The children in these groups ranged in experience with English literacy from an emergent reader level - able to read simple sentences with assistance to much higher level students who were able to read 100 to 200 headword books on their own. At this stage, syllable and stress became a tool to help with literacy and fluency development. Syllable and stress practice developed into these categories:

- Vocabulary learning
- Fluency building
- Clapping, tapping, and drumming
- Rhythm in chants, poems, and songs
- Questioning and comparing

For the children in these classes, considering syllables and stress pattern became part of the normal routine of learning vocabulary. When they learned new words or phrases each week, we took time to clap or tap out the syllables, write syllable circles above the words (next to them in this paper, but when handwritten is was above), and we took time to practice aloud while thinking about both sound and syllable. Fluency in this case refers to having a natural flow to speech. Asking the children to mark syllable and stress in common phrases as they learned them meant that from the very beginning those phrases would be a connected unit. A few examples the children learned in this way are these:

- in the morning (ooOo)
- a piece of cake(oOoO
- brush my teeth(OoO)

Once students were used to writing in the patterns, it only took a few minutes of class time to practice this way. Much like with the early childhood learners, it invited discovery about ways English and Japanese differ and helped children to more clearly understand how language works. A couple of examples from the reflective journal include the following below. These were exchanges written down within 2 hours after the class. The portions translated into English from Japanese are in italics:

Example 1

T: a piece of cake (oOoO)

Miss A: a piece of cake (OoO)

Miss J: (giggling) pizza cake?

Miss A: *what?*

Miss J: *It sounds like pizza cake.*

Miss A: *Yeah, it does.* (giggling)

T: *Right. If you say 'of' softly, it can sound like /ə/ because it's a weak syllable. Connect them and it does sound like pizza, doesn't it?*

Example 2

Miss K: *Hey, let me see your notebook.*

Miss J: (passes it over)

Miss K: *Hey, why do you have 2 (syllables) for cupcake? Should be 3, right?*

Miss J: *No, (you wrote it) wrong.*

Miss K: *Huh, how is it 2?!*

Miss J: Claps the rhythm for her.

Miss K: *Got it. Not kappu... cup.cake. Ok ok.*

Writing in the syllable and stress patterns also seems to help with recognizing words. It's anecdotal, but students who struggled with reading a bit still tended to focus their eye gaze on the syllable pattern to pick up clues. Further research in this area using eye tracking technology would be interesting to see.

In these classes, in place of finger-play songs and picture books, we used turn taking rhymes like Eeny, Meeny, Miney, Mo, short poems by Shel Siverstein (Silverstein, 1981), and simple Christmas songs. At this level, students can understand concepts like consonant clusters or function versus content words in a way they couldn’t when they were younger, so the conversations about language can go deeper than with younger students.

The Japanese elementary school English textbook series' 'Let's Try!' and 'Hi, Friends!' only address syllables in words tangentally, preferring instead to encourage teachers and students to make use of the audio and video recordings which come as part of the course pack. In the teachers manuals as well, syllable practice or guidance for teachers does not exist within the basic materials for English courses. The problem with this approach is that we hear what we expect to hear because our brains are interpreting the audio signal for us. Teachers and students with limited experience of the English sound system will, quite natrually, hear an interpretation of the audio filtered through Japanese expectations. It's not effective. The direct instruction is in fact necessary for most learners to be successful.

Reflections from the University

This paper is focused on young learners, but the opinions of university students, near the end of their formal schooling can help us understand what they see as the strengths and gaps in the system. For two and a half years now, or five semesters, my students have participated in surveys and in focus groups asking, among other questions, what they think about syllable practice and this style of pronunciation practice in English edcuation. Grouping common comments together they tended to fall into the following categories:

- *I wish we would have started this much younger. My pronunciation would have been better.*
- *It has helped me to build confidence in my speaking ability.*
- *It's good because I know if I'm correct or not. I'm not guessing so much.*
- *It's easy compared to learning vowels. Anybody can do it.*

The students are not yet talking much about having noticed Japanese English being more respected in the process or about the contrastive analysis aspects of the approach, but they do have positive attitudes toward this practice. The only negative comments were that we could have spent a little more time on training. Some students would have liked more support at the start. As the most recent graduates of the school system however, they do seem to see this as one area where positive change could happen in English education.

Conclusion

The new curriculum is aiming to raise the next generation in Japan with stronger communicative skills, willingness and confidence to use English, and deeper understanding of how language works. After exploring syllable and stress practice with a variety of students over the past 3 years, several teaching strategies emerged that could help support children in becoming successful in their language study. The ideas and recommendations in this paper are based on just one teacher's experience, but I hope it will inspire others to try out new ideas for working with rhythm, syllable, and stress in their own way in their own classes, too.

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23 A Novel Approach in the EFL Classroom

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This reflective practice article describes the planning, design, implementation, and student reaction (n = 24) to an elective course based on the contemporary Japanese novel, Woman on the Other Shore, by Kakuta Mitsuyo. The course sought to achieve critical thinking goals for students while also improving their English skills. Following Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) best practice methodology, the instructor worked to balance language with content, and to foster lexical, syntactic, and semantic, correctness. While students were initially anxious about their English, it soon became clear that the extent and breadth of their reading experience, critical thinking, and writing skills were also underdeveloped. Student reactions to the emotional support, cognitive scaffolding and linguistic adjustment strategies that the instructor developed to maximize their learning were positive.

本稿では、角田光代の現代小説『対岸の彼女』を題材として扱った選択科目授業のデザインと実施、そして学生の反応について述べる。当該の授業は、参加者の英語スキルを向上させると同時に、批判的思考力を開発させるという学校機関および政府の掲げる目標の達成を目的としている。筆者は、内容言語統合型学習（CLIL）の方法論に準拠し、内容学習と言語学習のバランスを取りつつ、言語形式や言語機能（語彙、構文、意味の正確性）にも焦点を当てて授業を実施した。 学生たちは当初、英語でのディスカッション能力に不安を抱いており、幅広い読解力、批判的思考、包括的なライティングスキルも未発達であることが明らかになった。そこで、感情的なサポートや認知的スキャフォールディングなどを網羅する特定の手法を用いたところ、学生の参加意欲が高まり、学習成果も向上した。 本稿では、この手法に対する学生の反応について詳しく説明する。

Combining the teaching of languages with the teaching of subject content is not new. Since 1995, when the European Union showed support for the concept that students “should study certain subjects in the first foreign language learned” (European Commission, 1995, p.47), increasing numbers of institutions have worked to combine the two. Bilingual education, immersion, Content Based Instruction (CBI), English Medium Instruction (EMI), multilingual education, language showers, enriched language programs and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) are all examples of efforts to make the study of languages more authentic and effective by using the target language rather than their students’ mother tongue and focusing on the use of the language instead of its grammatical or lexical form.

The number of universities around the world now offering courses taught in English is increasing rapidly (Dearden, 2015). In 2001, some 725 European universities offered programs taught in English, which had grown to 8,089 by 2014 (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). The 30,000-student private Japanese university where the elective course described in this article was undertaken is also working to expand the number of such courses. Despite some 99% of the population studying English for six years at junior and senior high school, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT, 2011) goal of “a capability of smooth communication with people of different cultures and countries” for the populace (MEXT, 2011, p. 3) seems far from being realized (D’Angelo, 2018). In public schools English is still taught using the grammar-translation method (McMillan & Rivers, 2011; McVeigh, 2004), giving few opportunities for the practice of productive skills. In order to address this problem, the university where the course described in this article was undertaken is working to develop courses where students are taught, participate, and are assessed, in English.

A mix of non-native English speakers, some Japanese (n = 19) and some international (n = 5), ranging from first-year students (n = 8) to a 26-year old postgraduate, took the elective course described in this article. All participants had a minimum Test of English as a Foreign Language-Institutional Testing ProgramR score of 450. Their instructor, the author of the present study, is an English as a foreign language (EFL) instructor whose teaching load includes planning and teaching this literature class as part of the Liberal Arts program.

The course ran for the first time in the autumn semester of 2018. The novel that it focuses on explores life in contemporary Japanese society through the experiences of three central female characters and provides rich opportunities for the exploration and discussion of a wide range of topics pertaining to gender and employment. These overarching themes are significant to university students who hope to make informed choices as they enter the workforce. While the novel was published some 15 years ago, in 2004, socio-economic analysis shows that while there have been some changes in employment law, little has changed in the lived experience of Japanese workers. Because of the perceived relevance of the subject, course participants are keen to take part in class activities, and motivation is high (as seen, for example, in Keller, 1987).

Reflective practice

Reflective practice (RP) underlies the planning and teaching of the course. The definition used here of RP is "those intellectual and affective activities in which individuals engage to explore their experiences in order to lead to new understandings and appreciation" (Boud et al., 1985, p.3). Regarded by some as "the fundamental bedrock of professional development and growth" (Mann & Walsh, 2017, p.22), the concept of RP has been influenced most notably by Dewey, who identified the need for teachers to reflect on their teaching to design curriculums and materials that responded to learner needs (Dewey, 1933), and Shön, who first described effective teachers as 'reflective practitioners' (Shön, 1983, p.332). Reflection-in-action, a teacher's ability to respond to learner needs synchronously, and reflection-on-action, the mental processing of events that have occurred, were first differentiated by Shön. Reflection-for-action, added by Killion and Todnem (1991) is forward-thinking, and identifies ways to bring further success to the learning process. These three forms of reflective practice all contribute to the effective planning and teaching of the course.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

CLIL, a term first used in Europe in the early nineties (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010) describes a pedagogical construct in which both content and language are of equal importance (Marsh, 2002). It is this defining point that sets CLIL apart from other EMI methodologies. CLIL was chosen for the course described here because it covers many of the requirements for successful language learning. It ensures that language is meaningful, rather than just the practice of grammar or vocabulary in isolation (Lasagabaster, 2009). Because language and content are integrated, communication is authentic, without any need for communicative language classroom pretense (Graddol, 2006). CLIL organically provides ample opportunities to use the language that learners need in order to master it (*Doughty & Williams, 1998).* Additionally, student motivation levels start high and continue to grow as learners see their own linguistic and cognitive skills develop (Thompson & Sylvén, 2019). Finally, learning through a foreign, second or additional language can be seen to be an intercultural process as the learner is forced to inhabit a different linguistic worldview (Coffey, 2005, in Harrop, 2012). By offering learners the chance to experience life in a language not their own, albeit in a classroom environment for a limited number of hours, educators can better prepare them for internationalization and perhaps greater intercultural understanding (Coyle, Holmes & King, 2009). All these advantages clearly made CLIL the best choice of methodology for the course.

The study and teaching of literature in Japan

Readers may assume that the study of literature is similar in classrooms around the world: a variety of texts are used to create opportunities for students to develop their reading comprehension, written expression, discussion and presentation skills, and for instructors to foster originality in their students. In the Japanese national curriculum, however, such originality was not seen to be desirable until comparatively recently. Until 2003, students were not taught how to make an original argument (Ishihara, 2005) or encouraged to form opinions about the texts that they read in class (Sanmori, 2005). Instead, they were taught ethical lessons from literary texts, and displayed what they had learnt in subsequent writing activities. Texts were used to show students examples of desirable behavior and character traits, for example “social compliance and obedience” (Ishihara, 2005, p.84, author’s translation). Instructors rewarded essays that displayed these desirable traits, and penalized students for writings that did not, implicitly teaching their students that it was not “clever” to write one’s true feelings in school (Ishihara, 2005, p.56, author’s translation).

A change was made to national educational policy when 2003 Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) evaluations found that Japanese fifteen-year-olds had poor ‘reading literacy’, defined as “understanding, using, reflecting on and engaging with written texts” (OECD, 2010, p. 23). While Japanese students could understand and use texts that had been explained to them, they had not been required to find meaning in texts for themselves, instead simply memorizing the standard interpretations that they had been taught. The teaching of critical, original thinking was therefore added to the Japanese curriculum in the form of the 2004 New Course of Study. While 15 years have passed since its introduction, it is difficult to judge how much has changed in practice. At the start of the semester, the Japanese students taking the course described here were unable to explore topics either orally or in writing that they had not previously been lectured or given specific readings on. Instead they sat in uncomfortable silence, or in front of blank sheets of paper.

Another issue may also have contributed to course participants’ initial difficulties. The typical process of the teaching of literature at Japanese universities is described as, “In their research, students of Japanese literature examine the author’s personal history and views as well as the historical background in which a work was written to think about the essence of humanity and human society” (Japan Study Support, 2019, para. 1). The Japanese course participants may, therefore, have expected course activities to focus on the connections between the novelist’s biography and contemporary events, and the ways that these are manifested through the characters and events in the novel. When asked to draw connections instead between their own life experiences and those of the characters in the novel, many faltered. In contrast, the University of Bristol in England, for example, views the study of literature as “a vital component of our research culture, with students bringing *their own ideas and initiatives* to fruition and engaging in research conversations with their fellow students and academic staff” (English Literature: Program Overview, 2019, para. 4, italics added). While this describes postgraduate rather than undergraduate study, the concept is consistent throughout University of Bristol curricula that students’ analytical skills and original ideas are key to a successful learning experience. It was clear from early on that participants in the course described in this article would need to be supported to achieve the course aims of improved discussion, written, and critical thinking skills. The following section describes the methods used to do this.

Implementation

During the planning stages of the course, the instructor was advised by the administration that many of the difficulties described in the previous section may occur, and to take a proactive stance in dealing with them. A group of interconnected strategies were chosen as a framework within which to plan the teaching of the course. These strategies were developed by the instructor from ideas suggested during a brainstorm activity at an internal professional development workshop about increasing student participation in tutorial-style lessons. The instructor divided the strategies into four, and labelled them *classroom management, emotional support, cognitive scaffolding and linguistic support*. *Classroom management* strategies are techniques for the smooth running of lessons and the course. *Emotional support* strategies help students to feel supported, acknowledged and cared for. *Cognitive scaffolding* strategies link new information with concepts that students are already familiar with, making them easier to understand. Finally, *linguistic support* strategies focus on teacher’s language use during key points of lessons to improve student comprehension. The following explanation of the course shows how the strategies are used in combination.

Students need to understand clearly how they can obtain course credit. For first-year students, submitting assignments on time and in the correct format on the learning management system (LMS) can be a new and unfamiliar process. By distributing a handout at the start of the semester that details these things and referring to it each time an assignment was set, the instructor ensured that students could submit tasks appropriately *(classroom management).* When giving assignments and other information about course credit, the instructor made sure all participants were attentive (*classroom management)* by using the same phrase each time to call attention *(linguistic scaffolding*), then pausing before explaining (*classroom management).* The instructor showed the initial course handout on the classroom screen and held up a physical copy (*cognitive scaffolding*). Students recognized that they had previously seen the document, remembered earlier submission success, and knew that they could achieve success again (*emotional support*).

In order to take part fully in class discussions, students need to have prepared carefully for class. When students are operating in a second (or other) language, they need more preparation time than when using their first. As such, the instructor used the LMS to make supplementary readings available throughout the course to reduce anxiety (*emotional support*) and to ensure the attainment of necessary academic achievement levels (*cognitive scaffolding*). These newspaper articles, treatise chapters, blogposts, explanations of theory (*cognitive scaffolding*) and thematic vocabulary lists (*linguistic support*) guided course participants as to what to focus on in their weekly reading of the novel (*cognitive scaffolding*) and prepared them to take an active part in lessons (*cognitive scaffolding*). For the same reasons, the students were asked to read the novel at a pace of one or two chapters each week. Because all class members had been instructed to read up to the same point of the story, the desire to keep pace with their peers motivated them to prepare and limited their discussions to the section of the novel freshest in their minds. Both this preparation and the limited focus increased participants' confidence in pair, group, and finally class, discussions (*emotional support*). Participants were also advised to read the assigned novel in the language of their choice (*linguistic support*). A variety of translations in different languages were found to be available from online bookstores, and comparisons in class led to interesting discussions and increased mutual understanding among the students (*emotional support).*

The LMS was also used for the students to submit reflective journal entries in which they wrote their impressions of the set chapter(s) of the text, the content of discussions in class, and their own performance in these. By processing their earlier discussions in writing, learners were given the opportunity to consolidate their learning, and to prepare for later class activities (*cognitive scaffolding*, *linguistic support*). These writings enabled the instructor to gain insight into their progress and identify areas needing further support. One such area involved participants' anxiety levels during discussions. A new seating plan was trialed to replace the standard double-horseshoe arrangement, with desks set in groups of four (*emotional support)*. Students were encouraged to talk first to the person sitting beside them to prepare for the discussion that they would have with the person sitting across from them. This let students confirm any unfamiliar terms (*linguistic support)*, the task that they had been set *(classroom management),*, how long they should continue *(classroom management),* and any other questions they had (*emotional support)*, and pairs were encouraged to ask the instructor about anything they were unable to find a solution for (*emotional support, linguistic support*).

Research in CLIL classrooms has identified weaknesses in the method that can be overcome when instructors are aware of them. One of these is that there is often not enough focus on form, which can lead to the fossilization of errors (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). While most comfortable with recasting as a method of correction (*linguistic support*), the instructor was aware that some research has shown that this method does not encourage learners to actively fix their own mistakes (Lyster & Ranta, 2004). As such, she made sure to speak to everyone whose words she had recast at a convenient time later in the lesson one-on-one (*emotional support*), to ask that person to repeat their idea, and support them in achieving correctness (*linguistic support*). She also made sure to include two error-feedback sessions for the whole class each contact period (*linguistic support)*. One of these presented an error overheard during discussion activities. Careful to maintain anonymity, and to respect privacy, the instructor changed pertinent information (*emotional support*) while allowing both the learner and other class members to benefit from the correction (*linguistic support)*. The other session covered common errors found in reflective journal entries. Interestingly, the same type of error required being taught three times before an impact was seen in further journal entries (see Ellis et al., 2008).

Student response

As part of this research project, the researcher kept a regular journal, noting down reasons for choices made, effectiveness of methods used, and student reactions to them. The students were also instructed to keep journals. These were used to gauge changes in attitudes, to note progress made and to corroborate the researcher's classroom observations. Permission was obtained to share/publish excerpts anonymously in this article. While the student journals were not formally coded, entries were read for themes, and specific attention paid to evidence of self-reflection or analysis, and critical or higher-order thinking.

Most of the class were initially anxious about their spoken English ability, and 17 wrote openly about these fears in their first reflective journal entry in the first week of the course. In line with the English-only course policy, these journals were written in English. Students were asked to examine their reasons for enrolling in the course, and their expectations concerning what they would learn during the 15-week semester. Most of the first-year students, eight of the total 24, seemed especially worried about how their skills would compare to others'. Six used the words *embarrassed, ashamed* or *shy* to describe their feelings about speaking English, which can all be translated with the Japanese adjective *hazukashii*. The instructor was determined to help these students overcome these limiting feelings. Six of the 11 Japanese second-year students were concerned that their lack of English proficiency would inconvenience classmates, or cause problems for the instructor. The five international students in the class did not mention their language skills but rather potential issues arising from culture: One wondered whether she would be able to understand the cultural context of the novel. Another worried that he would not be able to empathize with the central character, a Japanese housewife, and might find the class boring.

The instructor prepared a written response that addressed each concern with praise, support and reassurance, and distributed these electronically partway through the second lesson. Students first read the message that they had received, then talked to a peer. They were then given a few moments to confirm with their partner what could be shared with the class, and what should be kept private. In the discussion that followed, it became clear that many students were not accustomed to self-reflection. Most were unable to explain why they felt uncomfortable speaking English. Several expressed comments like: "Of course we feel uncomfortable. It is natural." One entered a loop: "We are embarrass (sic) speak English because it's embarrass (sic) speak English, so we feel embarrass (sic) when we speak English." The international students had very different views, however. They were comfortable speaking English in class, despite having comparable English abilities to those of the Japanese students. One student asked incredulously, "Is this why you do not talk to me?" Considering that this was only their second class together, it seems likely that he meant the Japanese students that he had previously interacted with rather than his classmates. Another shared that she had felt shy about speaking English as a 13-year old new to studying the language, but that her Japanese classmates should try to overcome this "childishness." The international students seemed perplexed by their Japanese classmates. This first reflective practice event (journal writing, instructor response and class discussion) pointed to the extent to which higher order thinking, such as analysis, evaluation and synthesis, was unfamiliar to many of the Japanese students in the class. By providing opportunities for learners to practice reflective skills, then rewarding successful attempts and praising effort, the instructor was able to foster progress in depth of thought, perseverance, and/or confidence of expression.

By Week 12, most students had become more comfortable with analyzing their own responses to not only issues raised in the text, but also to the responses of their peers. In the Week 12 reflective journal entry, several students wrote about how their classmates' interpretation of an event in the novel differed from their own, and how they felt about this difference. In the text, the teenaged Aoi and Nanako are walking back to the hotel where they are working over the summer vacation, when a group of young male holiday-makers wolf-whistle at them. One student wrote: 'My partner says that there is no damage. Nothing bad happen (sic), and Nanako and Aoi laugh. But I think that they should (sic) angry.' Another commented, 'I hate my partner's thinking. He said the girl (sic) should be happy men think she is (sic) beautiful. I wonder, does he call out to beautiful girl (sic), too?' Certainly, the students had learned how to express in written form what they themselves thought, and were now deeply reflecting on, rather than simply accepting, what they heard.

Students, both Japanese and international, had also come to a level of acceptance and understanding of one another by the final weeks of the semester. Their different attitudes, initially perceived to be towards the speaking of English, but also towards the sharing of original ideas, had largely been overcome. The Japanese students had gained confidence that their contributions were of value to the class and that their spoken English was comparable to that of their classmates, both international and domestic. As a result, they had become much more willing to share their ideas. The international students now knew to give the Japanese students time to answer their questions during pair discussions rather than trying to explain further or simply throwing up their hands in frustration. The intercultural communication skills of both groups had developed. Early in the semester, all discussions (pair, group and class) had been dominated by international class members. These students often refused to cooperate when the instructor tried to make sure that everyone was contributing, sometimes talking over her. One strategy was effective in overcoming these problems. A homework task in Week Three asked students to complete an original Likert-type scale survey about their communicative English skills. Students assessed themselves on a scale of 1 (*not at all confident*) to 4 (*very confident*) in their ability to complete a list of tasks. For example, 'I can describe a TV program that I watched to one listener,' and 'I can tell a small group of listeners my opinions about something that is important to me.' This information was processed by the instructor and used to divide students into discussion groups with members ranging in confidence. Students were told their own survey scores (between 18 and 57 of a possible 15 to 60) and instructed to speak on the topic at hand in order of self-evaluated least confident English speaker to most confident. This forced those who may otherwise have stayed silent to speak, and those who may have otherwise dominated the conversation to wait their turn. In the doing of this, both the international and the Japanese students realized that all students were in fact capable and had ideas to contribute to discussions. Two international and six Japanese participants mentioned this realization in their reflective journals.

Many students mentioned either in reflective journals or in the final course survey how appreciative they were of being able to read the novel in their chosen language, then to search and mark the English translation for the passages that they felt would be useful to refer to during class discussions. This was suggested to make sure that the time students spent outside of class time was as meaningful as possible. Students felt an increased level of autonomy in simply being able to choose which language to read in at home. One Japanese student wrote about the process of finding the correct passage in the English text and preparing to talk about it in class as 'fun.' Another described it as making her 'look forward to' group and class discussions. One international student described how he felt closer to Sayoko, the suburban housewife that he had earlier worried that he would not be able to empathize with, when he read chapters first in English, then his native language, then again in English. “She came to life in my mind,” he wrote. This increased emotional depth may not have been possible had the text not been made available in the students' various languages.

Outcomes

The elective course described in this article was successful for many of those involved and student evaluations proved overwhelmingly positive; 22 of the 24 students attended 13 or more of the 15 lessons, and 21 achieved a passing grade. The volume of writing that participants could readily produce nearly doubled. Progress was also seen in both a reduction in specific errors and increased syntactic complexity (assessed by the number of conjunctions used). Speaking skills were not formally assessed, but students presented as more confident as the semester progressed. Participants' journal entries support this observation.

Conclusion

The participants in this project showed significant progress in terms of objective reflection and analysis of ideas, both their own and those of their peers, and of the content of a novel in the space of a single 15-week semester. Benefiting from the structure, support and guidance of the course, students moved towards clearer thinking, accepted and internalized grammatical corrections in the target language and gained confidence in participating in discussion activities. The instructor also benefitted from the reflective method and was able to develop an objectivity regarding her teaching, which enabled her to more effectively communicate her ideas to the class. By regularly analyzing her application of CLIL methodology and her responses to student feedback, and modifying both as necessary, she was able to positively influence student feelings towards communicating in a foreign language. The next iteration of the course will also consider the way that literature is traditionally taught in Japan. Students will be initially asked to find parallels between the plot of the novel and the known biography of the author, which may help the Japanese members of the class to feel more at ease.

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24 Discourse of Native-Speakerism in Japan

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Through the observation of websites advertising commercial language schools in Japan, this article investigates shared discourse about English education in Japanese society. The analysis reveals that the traditional view regarding the involvement of Japanese English in ‘outer/expanding circle’ English has changed. Now, more schools advertise having English coaches with diverse pronunciations as their selling point. On the other hand, given the fact that many schools still have ‘pronunciation remedy’ programmes and the way they represent their ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ coaches inner circle English evidently still affords social power and is recognized as cultural capital, while other types of English are seen as problematic.

本研究は、商業的語学学校のウェブページやブログといった広告の分析を通して、日本の英語教育において共有されるディスコースを明らかにするものである。分析結果から、アウター・サークルないしエクスパンディング・サークル英語としてのジャパニーズ・イングリッシュに対する伝統的な見方は変化していることが分かった。今日では、多くの語学学校が多様な発音を用いる講師を起用し、尚且つそれをセールスポイントとしている。一方、いまだに「発音矯正」プログラムを展開する学校が多いことや、「ネイティブ」および「非ネイティブ」講師の表象に見られる違いは、依然としてインナー・サークル英語が社会的パワーを持ち文化的資本としてみなされる傍ら、その他の英語変種は問題視されていることを示している。

Traditional views on Japanese English (hereafter JE)1 have been negative both intranationally and internationally. McKenzie’s report (2014) on the attitudes of UK-born university students and Matsuda’s research (2003) on the attitudes of Japanese high school students show that it is stigmatized or at least negatively recognized in both the UK and Japan. On the other hand, it is pointed out that diverse English models are necessary in the context of resisting linguistic imperialism and protecting a speaker’s linguistic identity; Matsuda (2003) argues that an understanding of different models is a “prerequisite for developing critical awareness of and resistance to linguistic imperialism and the power inequality” (p. 494). Moreover, Kawamata (2016) argues that the “native speaker pronunciation” orientation seen in English education in Japan can be considered a promotion of English imperialism that sways the identities of learners (as Japanese speakers). Alongside these criticisms is a change in the way the outer/expanding circle and English as an International Language (EIL) are being recognized (Setter & Jenkins, 2005). Through this study, I analyze media discourses of commercial language school advertisements (eikaiwa schools) and discuss how JE and old varieties of English (OVE) are evaluated in Japanese society. Seargeant (2005) insists that these advertisements are “The most visible context in which the actualities of language learning within Japanese society clash with current trends and recommendations in contemporary TESOL theory” (p. 334). My research questions are as follows: 1. How does the media discourse seen in advertising materials sustain language ideologies in Japan? 2. How does such discourse affect to learners’ identities?

Background

Status of “Native” English Speakers in Japan

As mentioned above, JE has traditionally received low ratings both inside and outside of Japan. A study by Matsuda (2003) indicates that JE is recognized as “not intelligible”, “incorrect”, and “not real”. One of her research participants described the Japanese accent as “not cool”. Mishima’s (2017) investigation on English learners in Japan demonstrated that American English was regarded as “real”, “authentic”, “official”, and “native”. He attributes these evaluations to the “native-centric ideology” in Japan, which is represented by “native speaker only policy” in language education institutions that excludes English teachers from outer/expanding circle countries.

Furukawa (2014) argues that “Stylized native-speaker English (NSE), or English spoken with a highly enunciated hyper-L1 accent” indicates “a degree of social “cool”” (p. 1). He writes that speakers of Stylized NSE “can utilize ideologies that contrast NSE with nativized English/wasei eigo to appear sugoi (“cool”) gaining social and cultural capital [sic]” (p. 23). “Native-like” English is thought to be “cool” compared to JE, which also means that “native-like” English is associated with a specific social and cultural value. Similarly, in his analysis of a foreign language theme park in Japan, Seargeant (2005) reveals that the concept of the “native speaker” is regarded as a badge of authenticity. Thus, being a “native speaker” or speaking “native-like” English is socially or culturally valued and is a symbol of “authenticity” in Japanese society.

“Standard” English Ideology and Language Identity

Kim (2012) argued that social stereotypes of accented English in inner circle countries are transferred and reproduced in the expanding circle, whereby certain English varieties are associated with social power and “the choice of model accent of language learners is not independent of the socio-cultural context” (p.134). In Kim’s study, Korean learners of English exhibited a strong preference for General American English and the lowest preference for East-Asian accented English (i.e., strong Korean and Chinese-accented English), which reflects the public English curriculum and standard language ideology in Korea. Similarly, Sung (2016) revealed that accents are important markers of individual/social identity and learners’ accent preferences correlate with particular desired identities. Hong Kong-accented English was stigmatized and negatively evaluated by some of his research participants, whereas speaking with a “native-like” accent was often associated with competent and superior English skills. However, other participants preferred not to sound “native-like”; for these individuals, the Hong Kong accent indexed their lingua-cultural identity, which would be relinquished by assimilation to “native-like” English (Sung, 2016). Both the abovementioned studies, as well as studies of English learners in Japan, revealed that the majority of participants devalued their own accents; in Kim’s (2012) words, East-Asian learners of English tend to be “self-depreciated”. The correlation between accent and identity was also demonstrated by Tomic (2013), elucidating a binary opposition of Self (“native” speaker) and Other (“non-native” speaker), and argued that the process of “non-native” speakers achieving the status of “native” speaker constituted a form of “self-annihilation”. According to her, accents are one of the most important markers of Otherness and difference, and her accent reaffirms her Latina identity and a sense of self.

The abovementioned studies have developed the arguments on native-speakerism (Holliday, 2006) and demonstrated the intertwined relation of language ideology and identity based on quantitative analysis, interview, and their own experiences. However, how those language ideologies are sustained, supported, and reproduced in actual materials has not been abundantly analysed. In this study, I will examine how advertising materials reproduce English learning ideologies in Japan and illuminate how such communications can affect learners’ identities.

Data and Analysis

The data were mainly collected from 67 websites of commercial language schools and six blogs that were associated with the promotion of these schools or that contained English learning materials (Table 1). English schools for adults or kids even if created by the same company, are counted as distinct. Also, different schools run by the same company are counted as different. On the whole, websites of commercial language schools tend to exercise similar strategies to support their “authenticity”. In the next section, I will explore these strategies in detail.

Table 1 *Websites and Blogs Used in the Analysis*

Schools	Webpages
Toshin Kodomo Eigojuku	https://www.toshin.com/kodomo/
Hatchlink Jr.	https://www.hatchlinkjr.com/
LACOMS	http://www.lacoms.com/
Global Step Academy	https://www.gsacademy.com/ja
Amity	https://www.amity.co.jp/
Gaba	https://www.gaba.co.jp/aboutgaba/
Shane Kodomo Eigo	https://www.shane.co.jp/kids/
Rarejob	https://www.rarejob.com/
Yamaha English Academy	https://school.jp.yamaha.com/english_school/yea/
Hummingbird	http://rosettastone-lc.jp/hummingbird/
7ACT	http://www.7act.com/
VERITAS	http://www.veritas-english.jp/
English Village	https://www.english-village.net/
ALUGO	https://www.alue.co.jp/alugo/about/
hanaso	https://www.hanaso.jp/
hanaso kids	https://www.hanaso.jp/kids/hanasokids/
ECC Online	https://online.ecc.co.jp/
DMM Eikaiwa	https://eikaiwa.dmm.com/
MeRISE	https://eikaiwa.merise.asia/
Alc	https://eikaiwa.alc.co.jp/pages/campaign201810
Rosetta Stone	https://www.sourcenext.com/product/rosettastone/
vipabc	https://www.vipabc.co.jp/
Brighture	https://brighture.jp/b-blog/446
Blog of Rarejob	https://www.rarejob.com/englishlab/interview/20180728/
Blog of DMM Eikaiwa	https://eikaiwa.dmm.com/blog/14755/
Blog featuring David Thayne	http://english.cheerup.jp/article/1564

Use and Implication of “Nativity”

The first striking feature of these school advertisements is the frequent use of the terms “native” and “native speaker”. Toshin Kodomo Eigojuku [Toshin Kids English School] offers a course called “native programmes”, which claims to offer “the whole culture of English-speaking world”. Similarly, Hatchlink Jr. has a programme named “path to the native”. LACOMS’ website claims that its lessons are suitable for the person who “wants to speak with native-like pronunciation, clean/beautiful2 English”. Global Step Academy offers its programmes for kids and insists that they can “eventually improve (your children’s) English to native-level”. Amity explains its strong point as follows: “Children can improve their English by being exposed to native English” and “They can feel “vivid English” by interacting with native speakers’ pronunciation and intonation”. Similar uses of the term “native (speaker)” were found in over half of the school websites I examined.

In some cases, they convey their methods’ authenticity by a strategic use of specific words and phrases: “vivid” English (Amity), “natural” English, and “real” English. On their website, Gaba has statements such as following: “the English that you learned from textbooks is sometimes unintelligible when you actually put it to use. This is because you have not yet heard or spoken “natural English”, the English native speakers use in their daily lives”. The website also describes their instructors as “carefully selected natural English speakers”. Shane Kodomo Eigo [Shane Kids English] states that they enable children to “make English phonemes as their own by hearing real English from native teachers”, which implies that the “English phoneme” originally belongs to someone else and that only these “original” owners speak “real English”. In other words, English is not “ours”, and therefore, English spoken by “us” is not “real English”. This is associated with the idea, as summarized in Matsuda (2003), that traditionally, only inner circle speakers have ownership of English. This also coincides with Seargeant’s (2005) point about advertisements by NOVA, one of the biggest commercial language schools in Japan. NOVA assumes that “real practice requires the interlocutor to be a native speaker”. This assumption is also prominent on Rarejob’s website, which says “English becomes my language”, clearly indicating that English originally belongs to Others. The same analysis is seen in Seargeant (2005), who analyzed NOVA’s campaign as it promotes the idea that English is considered a specifically foreign entity and not a natural part of Japanese society. These statements by the commercial language schools mentioned above imply the binary of vivid/dull, natural/unnatural, and real/fake between NSE and JE.

Attainment of Cultural Capital

Another strategy used by language schools to endorse their own "authenticity" is to mention foreign country's or organization's name or the methods/criteria used by them. Many schools for kids mention that their lessons follow phonics and some appeal to their potential customers by emphasizing their conformity to CEFR. Not only mentioning CEFR, the Yamaha English Academy also declares that their curriculum is regulated by the British Council. As for schools for adults, 7ACT emphasizes the accuracy of their English level-check test by saying that it is the same test employed in the American Embassy's recruiting test. VERITAS remarks that its main teaching materials are case studies utilized in Harvard Business School's MBA curriculum. All of these methods/criteria/organizations mentioned by English schools for both kids and adults are Western, and many of them are in the US. This inclination shows that the inner circle is still seen as authentic enough to be used to appeal to English schools' potential customers and that OVE are still standard. The reason American educational models/organizations were referred to in those advertisements is that Japan traditionally uses American English as a model (Setter & Jenkins, 2005).

Another example of this strategy is the mention of teachers' academic and national backgrounds. English Village's website states: "All our lecturers are *yondaisotsu* or above, and are from the UK, North America, or Australia". *Yondaisotsu* (四大卒) indicates that a lecturer has graduated from colleges or universities that offer four-year programmes. Accompanied with their academic backgrounds, the nationality of teachers is used to heighten the appeal of the school. ALUGO also mentions their teachers' academic status: "Our foreign coaches are diverse; the natives with higher education, the experienced coaches who worked for corporations, etc.". Here, again, the term "native" is employed and the coaches' nationality ("foreign") is referred to alongside their academic status, which is considered cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986). The term "native speaker" is "being cited specifically for the person's social or cultural connotations" (Seargeant, 2005, p. 336); their nationality, or more specifically, the fact that they are from inner circle countries, carries a connotation of authenticity and of higher educational achievement. A cultural connotation is also implied by "photographs of Caucasians enacting the role of a well-dressed instructor" (Seargeant, 2005, p. 335). While people of colour are represented on websites more often than before, commercial English schools still tend to use photographs of Caucasians as "*gaikokujin koushi*" (foreigner coaches). Thus, coaches' academic backgrounds, nationalities, and racial backgrounds are all accounted for by commercial language schools in Japan.

Centrality of OVE Seen in "Pronunciation Remedy"

Despite these tendencies to emphasize nativity, the diversity of coaches is richer than before. Schools such as Rarejob, hanaso, and hanaso kids mainly employ Filipino coaches. ECC online also employs many Filipino coaches as English teachers. DMM Eikaiwa [DMM English Conversation] states that they are hiring 6500 teachers from over 112 countries. However, they also state that they "conduct pronunciation training by native speakers" for their coaches; in other words, they train their "non-native" coaches to speak "native-like" English. Alc also hires their coaches from different countries. On their website, one can search for their coaches and filter the search results by national origin and current country of residence. Selections of National origin include the US, Canada, the UK, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Japan, and "others". Selection of the country of origin include the same seven countries, alongside Germany, Spain, Mexico, and "others". Although the majority of coaches are from/reside in the US or Japan, their website emphasizes and insists that they hire "native and bilingual coaches particularly from the US, the UK, Canada, Australia and Japan!!" There is no reference, however, to coaches from/residing in countries other than these.

The background of Alc's website is a world map, while bold national flags of the US, the UK, Canada, Australia, and Japan are foregrounded. Above the flags is the sentence: "native and bilingual coaches particularly from the US, the UK, Canada, Australia, and Japan!!" The emphasis on inner circle countries plus Japan is made visually apparent from the flags. Although the world map in the background could imply that they hire from various countries beyond the inner circle, both the sentences and flags pictures are clearly arranged to catch people's eyes. This exemplifies inner-circle-oriented policy in English education and the desire to acquire "native-like" = "inner circle-like" English in Japan. An overall consideration of these strategies used by DMM Eikaiwa and Alc shows that the term “native” includes only inner circle speakers and not outer or expanding circle speakers. Although the term “native” has been considered problematic and complex (Seargeant, 2005), many commercial language schools in Japan continue to unquestioningly use this term as their selling strategy.

Supply and demand of “pronunciation remedy” is another factor that supports this power imbalance of inner circle English. Rosetta Stone offers a specialized programme named Hummingbird for “pronunciation remedy”. MeRISE also offers a “pronunciation remedy” course for people who “want to speak with native-like pronunciation”. According to their website, Rosetta Stone offers a learning method by which students can compare their own English pronunciation with “native” pronunciation. The tendency to negatively evaluate of JE is seen in their blogs as well. In a blog written by Rarejob titled “Foreign residents in Japan tell us about the poor English Japanese people are using” insists that stress placement is much more important than the pronunciation of individual phonemes, which is highly debatable, as stress placement is not generally considered as a core factor influencing intelligibility (Jenkins, 2000, 2007). A blog by DMM Eikaiwa, titled “Japanese have the worst accent in the world!?: Pronunciation rules of English and important things I noticed while traveling around the world”, insists that many Japanese people cannot distinguishingly pronounce R/L, S/C, and M/N. It should be noted that this widely recognized characteristic of JE is not, however, unique to Japan but is generally seen in East Asian English (Watanabe, 2014). Examples of this characteristic can be seen in a blog titled “Oh my goodness!! 5 weird pronunciations of Japanese English, Mr. David Thayne told us”, which is not a specific school’s blog but is tied up with an advertisement of an electronic English dictionary and features David Thayne, a principal of A to Z English who has also published multiple English textbooks. The blog states that when Japanese people say “I am a dog lover”, it sounds like “I am a dog rubber” due to their lack of ability to pronounce R and L differently. Other examples on this page are; “Today is my birthday” sounds like “Today is my bathday”, “Do you want to come with us?” sounds like “Do you want to come with ass?”, etc. Clearly, these examples ignore the importance of context in conversation; that is to say, these examples do not take note of the fact that communication “requires constant negotiation and adjustment in relation to speaker-listener factors specific to the particular context of the interaction” (Setter & Jenkins, 2005, p. 12). Thus, the abovementioned promotions tend to adopt the stereotypes of JE that are pedagogically questionable, since they are meant to be “saleable rather than pedagogically sound” (Seargeant, 2005).

To sum up the findings in this chapter, commercial language school advertisements in Japan tend to use the term “native” or “native speaker” for commercial gain. The image of the “native (speaker)” is constructed by suggestions of ownership of English and comparison with JE, including the dichotomies of vivid/dull, natural/unnatural, and real/fake English. The act of being “the native”, “the foreigner”, or otherwise coming from inner circle countries is represented as cultural capital, lining up with the coaches’ academic backgrounds. Although increasingly more schools employ coaches from the outer or expanding circle, the inner circle still has the power of being the owner of “standard” English, which everyone aspires to acquire. This power is demonstrated and (re)produced by the number of schools and programmes that offer “pronunciation remedy” and by negative evaluation of JE.

Discussion

In this section, I would like to revisit my research questions: 1. How does the media discourse seen in advertising materials sustain language ideologies in Japan? 2. How does such discourse affect learners’ identities? The fact that the employment is diversifying could be attributed to the increasing population of Filipino workers3, positive attitude towards globalization, and economic reasons. Positive evaluation of local varieties of English is seen in some materials. Vipabc’s article states that the diversity of their coaches is their selling point and that is the reason customers choose them. This example shows a change in the traditional view on local varieties of English.

However, the opposite attitude is seen in some websites that negatively evaluate “non-native” coaches and pronunciations. Some schools that employ from the outer/expanding circle countries conduct “pronunciation remedy” sessions for their coaches, which means they still stick to inner circle English standards. This, along with the abundant supply of “pronunciation remedy” programmes, indicates that inner circle English still holds the status of being the "ideal" English. The widespread use of the term "native speaker" for branding in advertisements shows, as Holliday pointed out in 2006, that native-speakerism remains a "popular discourse" today in 2019. While Holliday's analysis describes how native-speakerism perpetuates "othering" of people from outside the English-speaking West, English schools' advertisements in Japan show how Japanese society perpetuates "othering" against its own people. Japanese advertisements of commercial language schools effect a form of self-othering (Hayden 2014).

As previous studies have revealed, feeling like a speaker of "deficient" English that needs to be remedied can lead to self-depreciation and a sense of inferiority, which in turn engenders an intensified self-recognition as an Other and affects how English learners interact with people from other circles (Kim, 2012; Sung, 2016, Tomic, 2013). Some people, particularly in some outer circle countries, prefer to retain their own accent (Timmis, 2002), and as previously mentioned, this preference is deeply connected to their ethnic identity. However, how can learners respect other people's accents and intertwined identities if they disparage their own? This cognitive gap concerning accent and identity can generate serious conflict among people. As Kim (2012) argued, assumptions of standard English ideology divide people into superior/inferior, normal/abnormal, and dominant/subordinate. The concept of a standard English defines not only how English learners in Japan recognize their own accents, but also how they recognize and posit those of others.

In addition to those advertisements representing Japanese and NNS of English as Others, these advertisements also mark "foreign coaches" as Others by representing them as speakers of a language that does not belong to "us" and as people who are "essentially" different. This is clearly seen in Seargeant's example of a commercial language school's advertisement in Japan, which insists that "a normal Japanese person's brain cannot distinguish English which is on the non-Japanese wave length from noise". An essentialist view of "foreign coaches" sometimes includes references to their culture or personality. For example, hanaso's website reads: "our coaches are mainly Filipinos who speak English as their official language and whose national character is bright and kind". As such, the discourse of "othering" is often seen in advertisements and multiple ethnic or cultural groups including Japanese, are posited as Others. This discourse plays a role for sustaining OVE as 'standard' and JE (and other variations) as "non-standard", which is a view widely shared in Japanese society. As Kiesling (2006) argues, narrative gives discourse a unique voice while echoing countless previous voices and that helps discourse's reproduction and hegemony; discourses of NS/NNS and the hegemony of OVE or inner circle are sustained and reproduced by being used in multiple advertisements.

Conclusion

Overall, the results of this analysis largely overlap with those of previous studies. Of course, the rise of outer/expanding circle English and the increasing number of educators from those circles might indicate a change in the way people see non-OVE, including JE. This trend can gain more traction in Japan if institutions —not only educational, but also entertainment, cultural, and media institutions—stop essentializing English speakers by bestowing cultural capital on the basis of features such as nationality, ownership, authenticity, and start treating English as lingua franca. Dichotomies such as "fake/real" English should be abandoned and, as suggested in the literature, interaction between NNSs should be taken into consideration more seriously. Only when JE is recognized as a variation of English, and not as a deterioration, will people begin to regard it as a part of their identities.

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Notes

1 "Japanese English" here refers to English spoken by Japanese / English with Japanese accents. English loanwords used in Japan are not included.

2 Original word for this is "kireina."

3 Japan Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare:

https://www.mhlw.go.jp/stf/seisakunitsuite/bunya/koyou_roudou/koyou/gaikokujin/gaikokujin-koyou/06.html

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25 Texts That Help: Using Literature as a Guide in L2 Creative Writing

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A recent study by Liao and Roy (2017) suggested that using real-world texts as examples for creative writing students can have a “detrimental effect on L2 students’ confidence, desire and learning interests” (p. 55). One potential way around this problem is to present students with a range of texts to illustrate multiple approaches to writing. By using multiple contrastive texts, students can be led towards the idea that, in creative writing, there is no ‘proper’ or ‘correct’ way of doing things and that all voices and styles are equally valid, providing they are successful. This paper explores the use of texts in a third-year creative writing class at a Japanese university. Six contrasting texts were used during a lesson to explore different ways to begin a piece of travel writing. Based on student production, the approach can be seen to be successful and can form the foundation of a way to mitigate the issues raised in Liao and Roy’s paper.

Liao と Roy（2017）の最近の研究によると現実世界のテキストを創造的な執筆の例として使用することは、学生の自信と欲求と学習興味に悪影響を与える可能性があることを示唆しました。この問題を回避する方法の 1 つは、さまざまな文章を生徒に提示して、複数の執筆方法を説明することです。複数の対照的なテキストを使用することにより、生徒は創造的な執筆において、「適切な」または「正しい」方法はないという考えに導くことができます。そして、すべての声とスタイルは、それらが成功していれば、等しく有効であること。本論文は、日本の大学における 3 年生の創作ライティングクラスでのテキストの使用について検討します。レッスンでは、旅行の執筆を始めるさまざまな方法を模索するために、6 つの対照的なテキストが使用されました。学生の執筆結果に基づくと、この方法は成功しました。また、この方法は、Liao と Roy が提起した問題の解決策となることが分かりました。

The use of literary texts in the EFL classroom is a long-established practice (Iida, 2013) and in the process of designing a two-semester Introduction to Creative Writing course for students at a Japanese university, the assumption that both canonical literature and student-generated texts would make up a portion of class materials was behind much of the developmental direction.

However, two facts came to light which challenged this assumption and led to a divergence in developmental progress. The first was an oft repeated belief amongst writing students that there is a “correct” way to write in English and that in their writing classes, students would be taught phrases and structures which, when utilised, produced a “correct” piece of writing. During a second-year creative writing class, in response to the prompt “What did you think about writing in English before taking this class?” one student, Kana, wrote in her journal “I want to learn how to write… I want to know the phrases which can use.” Another, Tomohiro, complained, “To write is difficult for me because I don’t know rules.”

This is, in some respects, an understandable assumption. The methods used to teach academic writing – the emphasis on thesis statements, topic sentences and the ubiquitous “hook” – does imply a “correct” – and consequently many “incorrect” – ways of writing. Furthermore, students taught stock phrases to use in email correspondence such as “Dear X”, “I am writing to you…” and “Best regards” cannot be condemned for believing there may be other stock phrases waiting to be revealed by the writing teacher.

For a creative writing class however, these beliefs are contrary to the spirit and intent of the subject. Outside rigid poetic structure (14 line sonnets, 5-7-5 syllable haiku etc.), there is no requirement for students to follow a set structure or pattern, and stock phrases are the enemy of interesting creative writing. Academic writing can be assessed by how near or far it strays from accepted conventions. As Maley (2012) writes, the aim of this kind of writing is “to be logical, consistent and impersonal and to convey the content as unambiguously as possible to the reader” (para. 6). Creative writing in an academic environment is not compared to an ideal form of text, and is instead assessed on “how well students have learned the fundamentals of their craft” (Smith, 2016). In short: is it good enough.

The second problem is far more serious. Liao and Roy’s 2016 study into student perceptions regarding poetry reached a startling conclusion:

> Statistical analyses revealed that there is a significant negative correlation between L2 students’ frequency of reading and writing poetry in English and their confidence, desire, and learning interests of writing poetry in English. This suggests that extensive exposure to poetry may lead to an unrealistic expectation of what a poem should be like. (p. 55)

For the creative writing teacher, this is hugely problematic. Showing students examples of canonical literature may have a detrimental effect on their confidence and motivation, the opposite result from that intended.

There did however seem to be no way round it. Texts need to be a part of a creative writing program. Imitation of examples is a useful part of the learning process. When one learns a musical instrument, one does so by learning how to play the tunes of others. One doesn’t start with composition, one works towards it. Disposing of texts altogether wasn’t the answer; perhaps the solution lay in how the texts are presented.

Background and Context

Prior to 2019, students at this Japanese university attended a dedicated writing class once a week for 90 minutes. The focus from first to third year was entirely on academic writing: research papers in the APA style. In fourth year students could produce a thesis in English, though this was not a popular option. Students in the Department of British and American Studies are English majors with a high degree of motivation since most have some expectation of using English in their future careers. Entrance requirements demand a minimum level of 550 TOEIC/Eiken 2/CSE 1980/IELTS 5.0, or the equivalent of B2 on the CEFR scale.

From 2019 third year students were no longer required to study only academic writing and instead were offered a series of compulsory electives including creative writing, business writing and journalistic writing. Semesters at this university are 15 weeks long. The creative writing syllabus divides this time into four seven-week units (with an introduction class at the beginning of each semester) focusing on travel writing, poetry, fiction and script writing, in that order. The syllabus is based on extra-curricular, uncredited, voluntary classes that have been run by this author since 2017.

Of the 2019 class body, one student out of 14 had experience of L1 creative writing. None had experience of L2 creative writing. The syllabus was designed as a beginner’s introduction to L2 creative writing. This fact alone showed that using example texts was a necessity. In the poetry unit, students were asked to produce a number of acrostic poems; in order to do this, they first had to be shown what an acrostic poem looked like.

It was decided that a potential solution to the problem of textual intimidation was to expose the students to multiple contrastive texts. By showing them that there are multiple ways to approach a piece of writing, and that each approach is valid, it was hoped that the students internalise the core philosophy of creative writing: anything goes, as long as it’s good enough.

Lesson Focus

The creative writing syllabus began with travel writing. The unit methodology and results were analysed in Maloney (2019) but to briefly summarise, over seven weeks the students worked towards producing a piece of travel writing based on their own experiences. Each lesson looked at a unique aspect of travel writing, including reader reaction, dialogue, descriptive writing, and opening paragraphs. Remaining lessons included peer review and teacher feedback on drafts. The lesson which focused on opening paragraphs focused on six texts by professional authors. The texts themselves, the reasons behind their selection and the ways in which they address the two problems raised above.

Table 1 *Opening paragraphs*

Author	Book Title	Publisher
Iain Banks	*Raw Spirit*	Arrow, 2004
Matsuo Bashō (Trans. Noboyuki Yuasa)	*The Narrow Road to the Deep North*	Penguin, 1966.
Peter Carey	*Wrong About Japan*	Faber, 2004
Linda Cracknell	*Doubling Back*	Freight, 2014
Alex Garland	*The Beach*	Viking, 1996
Haruki Murakami (Trans. Noboyuki Yuasa)	*Moshi bokura no kotoba ga uisuki de attanara* [If Our Words Were Whisky]	Shinchosha, 1999. Trans. this author

Each text is an example of travel writing. Some paragraphs were the opening to the entire book; others began chapters or sub-sections. Each was chosen because of the unique way it approached the task of drawing the reader into the story and preparing the reader for what was to come. Table 1 shows the texts in question.

Students were put into small groups or pairs and given a worksheet (appendix A). They read the paragraphs and discussed the questions among themselves before writing down a mutually agreed answer. Once each set of questions had been answered, the class reconvened and the answers were aggregated on the board.

The questions were designed in order to allow students to explore the key theme or themes of each work. It is often difficult in creative writing to know where to start, what information the reader needs up front and what can be withheld for a more relevant or dramatically satisfying moment. The six texts chosen approach this task in divergent, contrastive ways. It should be noted that while these texts were suitable for these high-level students, they would not be suitable for less experienced student writers.

The Beach by Alex Garland is actually a work of fiction, not non-fiction, but the opening paragraph presented in isolation could be from either.

> The first I heard of the beach was in Bangkok, on the Khao San Road. Khao San Road was backpacker land. Almost all the buildings had been converted into guest-houses, there were long-distance telephone booths with air-con, the cafes showed brand-new Hollywood films on video, and you couldn't walk ten feet without passing a bootleg-tape stall … I caught the smell of grass as soon as I got out of the cab, and half the travellers weaving past me were stoned. (Garland, 1996, p.5).

The sense of place in this paragraph is intense. Sights, sounds and smells abound, transporting the reader to the Khao San Road. The story's temporal setting is also clearly marked as early 1990s, through the mention of tapes, videos and phone booths. The narrator remains unnamed, his background and purpose hidden from the reader. This tells the reader that the heart of this work is not character, but place. As the title also suggests, this is the story of a beach.

Peter Carey's memoir, *Wrong About Japan* takes a different track. Carey is an Australian author and journalist. His adolescent son Charley is a fan of Japanese anime and manga. Carey takes Charley on a pilgrimage to Japan and the trip is the subject of this book.

> In Tokyo's Harajuku district one can see those perfect Japanese Michael Jacksons, no hair out of place, and punk rockers whose punkness is detailed so fastidiously that they achieve a polished hyper-reality. Takashi had something of this quality. He had black hair that stood up not so much in spikes but in dramatic triangular sections... He wore a high-necked Cambridge blue jacket with what might have once been called a Mao collar, and which glistened with gold buttons. His trousers were jet black, his boots knee high. No one could doubt his pride, or his sense of dignity.
>
> "Charley-san?" he asked, and bowed.
>
> My son also bowed. (Carey, 2004, p. 21)

Here there is only a brief mention of place, little about Charley and even less about Carey. Instead the bulk of the introduction is taken up with a portrait of Takashi. The text is focused on his appearance, zooming in like a camera close-up would in a film to show him in precise detail. This is a story, the reader is led to understand, about other people, the people Carey and his son encounter.

Murakami Haruki's collection of travel essays about Scotland and Ireland, *Moshi bokura no kotoba ga uisuki de attanara* [If Our Words Were Whisky], is less interested in others and instead opens with a sketch of the stranger side of Murakami's personality:

> Whenever I take a trip, be it long or short, there is usually some kind of central theme. When I went to Shikoku, I ate udon every day until it seemed like I was going to die, whereas in Niigata I drank nothing but crisp, refined sake. I went to Hokkaido with the goal of seeing as many sheep as I could, and when I travelled across America I ate countless pancakes (one time they were so good I wanted to keep eating until I became sick of them). In Tuscany and Napa Valley, I consumed enough delicious wine to permanently alter my outlook. In Germany and China I did nothing but go around zoos. (Murakami,1999. p. 10, translation by this author).

Though Scotland and Ireland are certainly featured, the main theme of Murakami's book is Murakami himself. To understand it, you have to understand him, and so he begins by introducing himself.

Linda Cracknell, by contrast, in her collection of essays on hiking in Europe choses to begin at the end and shows the approach to her destination before looping back and exploring the reasons behind the journey:

> I approached the slipway of the Glenelg-to-Kylerhea ferry on the early evening of the thirteenth day, hastened by an imminent Force Eight gale that might stop the ferry running. High winds were already whipping up a frenzy of waves and rocking caravans on a south-facing beach campsite. A turned-out tent showed me its pale yellow guts. I put on more clothes and quickened my step (p. 183).

17th century Japanese poet Matsuo Bashō takes the opposite tack, beginning at the beginning:

> Days and months are travellers of eternity. So are the years that pass by. Those who steer a boat across the sea, or drive a horse over the earth till the succumb to the weight of years, spend every minute of their lives travelling. There are a great number of ancients, too, who died on the road. I myself have been tempted for a long time by the cloud-moving wind – filled with a strong desire to wander.
>
> It was only towards the end of last autumn that I returned from rambling along the the coast. I barely had time to sweep the cobwebs from my broken house on the River Sumida before he New Year, but no sooner had the spring mist begun to rise over the field than I wanted to be on the road again to cross the barrier-gate of Shirakawa in due time. (p. 97).

For Iain Banks, it's the pure pleasure of the journey itself – the sights and sounds, and the joy of being a tourist:

> Jura. An unbagged island. Always wanted to go there, never been…
>
> Jura is a short ferry ride from Port Askaig on Islay's east coast, close to the Caol Ila distillery, so – as we're here, the weather's fine and there's a whisky book to be researched – it has to be done. The perfect trip will include a visit to the distillery, a look at the house where George Orwell wrote *1984*, and then a hike to the northern tip of the island to see the tidal race there between Jura and Scarba, that wide, roaring whirlpool called the Corryvrecken where Orwell once nearly drowned (p. 69).

When these texts were reduced to their thematic core in this way, the students could see not only that there were a variety of approaches to beginning a piece of travel writing, but how these lessons could be applied to their own writing. The students were asked to think for a minute or two about their own stories and try to isolate which is the most important aspect of it: place, other people, or themselves, the first steps, the journey or the destination. If their story, for instance, had as its motivating incident something their father said or did, then like Carey they should use the first paragraph to sketch out their father's character. If they themselves were the chief protagonist, then that's where the focus should be. If they were writing about how a typhoon stranded them in Okinawa or the sunburn they received in Hawaii, then that was where they should begin.

Examples of Work

For homework the students were set the task of writing their opening paragraph. Below are some examples of students' work that show the influence of the texts on their writing.

> "Not only did I miss orientation, other international students must be shopping for necessities as we speak."
>
> My head was filled with these thoughts as I waited for my suitcases at the baggage claim area. I should

> have already been in America a day earlier; but having been unable to take the plane I intended to take, like a lost child separated from her mother because there was no Asian around me, I stand looking like a pitiful thing. (Mina).

Mina's story begins near the end, with her waiting for a new flight having missed the first one after forgetting her passport. As with Cracknell's story, the drama doesn't lie in revealing that she has missed her flight, it's in reliving the – in the case uncomfortable – experience of the events leading up to that ending.

> "It was a dream. Like an evanescent dream for me. I felt as I thought I was enchanted by him. A year ago, I had a fateful encounter in a cold country. There are many men in the world, but I met one boy and it was love at first sight for the first time. However it was the beginning of the hell in my life. What a fool I was. Because, I did not follow my friend's advice. Finally, I became aware, "Life is but an empty dream". (Ruriko)

Here Ruriko is combining elements from both Carey and Murakami, introducing herself and this "boy" who will go on to break her heart while she is studying abroad in Canada. Every character who matters is present in the introduction, including the friend who warns her of the boy's true nature. But the bulk of the paragraph is reserved for Ruriko herself, and the trauma this experience caused her.

> "Every year I go on a trip with my mother, aunt and grandparents. Our trip is always in November and we always go to Echizen in Fukui prefecture, because all of us like crab! There is a very very delicious crab called "Echizen crab" which is a special food in Fukui, and it is said to be the king of taste of winter! In the first place, Echizen crabs are male snow crabs which landed in Fukui, and the history of the snow crab fishery in Echizen is said to be the oldest in Japan. Moreover, it is also the only crab that the emperor eats. I think it is high class and so delicious. I am full of gratitude to my family for taking me there and feel pleasure for eating it every year." (Mei)

Why devote an entire paragraph to the snow crabs? Because Mei suffers a massive allergic reaction to them, ends up in hospital and hasn't been able to eat them since. The "king of taste of winter" is the main protagonist in the story that will unfold.

In the next class, the students recreated the activity described above – answering questions on a worksheet about the opening paragraph – but this time as an act of peer review. Having done it multiple times on "proper" texts, they were comfortable with the process and really dug into each other's texts, shaping them. The activity bore out to them the central point that there are multiple ways to approach the task of drawing a reader into a story, all of them equally valid, be it Murakami's odd thematic holidays or Ruriko's broken heart.

Difficulties and Further Work

The students described here were upper-intermediate to advanced level, well-motivated English majors. The complexity of the texts and the number of them would challenge lower level students and more time, a reduced number of texts or graded texts may be preferable for different abilities. The main point is that the texts need to be sufficiently different from each other to defuse any notion of a "correct" way of writing or performance anxiety.

This lesson has been used three times to date at this Japanese university and each time it has produced quality writing from the students. More specific research needs be done to quantify whether this approach does indeed counter the negative impact exposure to canonical texts can have on students' confidence, as outline in Liao and Roy's study. Likewise, a further qualitative analysis of students' beliefs is needed to pin down the nature of their beliefs regarding the nature of writing in English. Both of these are being undertaken at the moment.

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Appendix

Extract from worksheet

Read the introductions. For each one answer these questions (if you can – some may not apply):

- Where?
- When?
- Why?
- Who?
- What information is given first?
- What is described?
- What is kept secret?

Now answer these questions:

1. Which opening paragraphs do you like the best? Why?
2. Which do you like the least? Why?
3. Which ones make you want to read more? Why?

26 Creating an Effective ESP Course for Japanese University Environmental Science Majors

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Non-English majors in Japanese universities are required to study English in their first and second years. The author's university also requires third year students to study Science English, for which the author created a related course. The author's background is not science, so self-study was conducted in science and students' needs were discussed with faculty members. The course includes topic-based accessible and challenging readings, interactive vocabulary exercises, and projects where ideas conceived on paper are presented. Post-course, a ten-item five-point Likert scale questionnaire was used to gather 33 students' opinions of the course; the questionnaire also obtained reasons for their answers. Results found that 46% of students strongly agreed that vocabulary learning was useful and 34% strongly agreed that they could elevate their critical thinking skills, among others. This paper offers all Likert scale results and includes reasons for students' answers.

我が大学では一般教養課程修了後の 3 年次にも理系学生に科学英語一サイエンスイングリッシューの履修を課している。教材の開発は理系領域全般に共通するトピックやフレーズおよび発表に必要なスキルの研究、学生側のニーズの調査、理系学部教員とのディスカッションを通じて行った。この通年コースでは、各トピックごとに身近かつ適度な難易度の読解、インタラクティブな語彙演習、紙面で構成した内容を発表する「プロジェクト」を行う。コース終了後、10 項目 5 点のリッカート尺度アンケートにより、学生のコースに対する感想とその理由について調査した。結果、46%の学生が語彙学習が有益であったことに強く同意し、34%の学生がクリティカルシンキングの向上に有益であったことに強く同意した。ここでは、すべてのリッカート尺度への学生の回答と回答理由を明らかにし、教材の有用性を示す。

Introduction

In Japan, non-English university majors must pass general English courses during undergraduate study. This is a requirement by most universities after the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) suggested an improvement of English proficiency evaluation in high schools and universities in 2016. Usually, students in non-English majors study required English for two years. These English courses are largely four-skill, conversation-based classes aimed at elevating students' general communicative competency. However, many students still leave university with under-developed specific English skills, perhaps due to poor conceptualization of the ESP course. To alleviate this lack of skills in English, more specialized, better-designed ESP programs should be instituted during the four years of university study that focus on elevating ESP competency that can be used for students' employment and livelihoods long into their futures.

Moritoshi (2008) notes that most university departmental majors have their own specific linguistic, technological, and vocational needs in both English and other fields, and examined ways in which English teachers can positively motivate non-English students. Several problems were found in the study that could contribute to low motivation: perceived high difficulty of the lessons; negative perceptions of the native English teacher; and perceived irrelevance of the material. While specific training may not be necessary to effectively teach an introductory course in general English, some extra technical knowledge, study, or research may be required of the teacher in order to create successful ESP lessons.

Nasr (2015) recognizes the important relationship between the facilitator and the subject matter; an ESP student who is more knowledgeable about subject matter than a teacher can lead to problems creating successful ESP classes in several areas: generating adequate chunks of useful information, using the students' potentials, and using scaffolding to balance the three elements of the ESP teaching process. Those are: the subject matter, the instructor, and the ESP learner. Nasr's study focused on a questionnaire that collects data regarding teachers in a science curriculum at Jazan university, Saudi Arabia, and focused on difficulty with the texts and barriers to teacher-student communication and was basically split between teacher-based tools and student-based tools. Results found that some students were dissatisfied with their teachers' performances due to their strong motivation to learn English. Students reported in one case that a teacher often "stumbled" through various parts of the subject text and was unfamiliar with scientific information presented. The teacher had trouble fathoming different branches of ESP, such as English for Science, Business, and Medicine. Gorska-Perecka (2013) states that the ESP teaching situation is a complex process and is generated from a conceptualization that starts from planning, designing, and implementing a needs-based ESP course for adequate facilitation of learning. Important in ESP is the notion of TLA/KAL (teacher language awareness) and (knowledge about language) which can enable teachers to teach effectively (Gorska-Perecka, 2013).

To further this research, the author designed an ESP course for Environmental Science students in the third year of study at a mid-size public Japanese university, which was used and tested in class. Post-course, a questionnaire gathered information such as: interest in the topic, ease of understanding the information, usefulness of the text sections for students' knowledge, appropriateness of the topics, and usefulness for future endeavors.

Section two includes a general background of ESP. Section three offers an explanation of the ESP material used in the class. Section four examines the survey by the author conducted in the Science English course. Section five contains the survey results; section six offers a discussion. Section seven concludes.

Background of ESP

Since the 1960s ESP has been used to teach English for agriculture, science, and technology. ESP is characterized by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) as an approach rather than a methodology, through the foundation that employees learn ESP for definite reasons or to fulfill certain job-related objectives. Because of this, teaching ESP does not entail any set method. Dudley-Evens and St. John (1998) divide ESP teaching into two aspects: 1) absolute characteristics, in which tasks are created to meet special needs of the learner, make use of the underpinning of the particular discipline, and are centered around the language of the discipline and its skills, discourse, and genres; and 2) variable characteristics, in which tasks are related to, or designed for, specific occupations. These tasks may require a specific method of teaching other than that of standard English, are likely to be designed for adult learners, and are implemented mainly for intermediate and above learners who have some basic knowledge of English or ESP.

The author self-determined that the elements of a successful ESP program in Environmental Science would include training in both specific and broad skills. Many environmental Science students must make presentations in English in their futures; therefore, training in both bottom-up skills, such as grammar and pronunciation, and in top-down skills such as building top-down communicative competency skills needed in presentations. Vocabulary training is of utmost importance too because in science, specialized vocabulary use, relating to the atmosphere, recycling, and alternative energy to name a few, is the norm, not the exception. Other important facets of a successful ESP program in science include focused listening to understand important points, writing to share thinking and information, and critical thinking in generating answers to specific questions. Other useful grammatical structuring includes recognizing and creating word forms by using prefixes and suffixes, often found in science-related academic vocabulary.

In order to meet the needs of Environmental Science students, ESP administrators need to take certain steps when creating effective ESP Science English programs. These steps are divided into three categories: 1) pre-program activities, 2) in-program activities, and 3) post-program activities (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

Pre-program activities are those administered by the institution or teacher before ESP courses are created. Needs assessments of the students before the program begins are conducted immediately before a course. This enables program teachers to fully understand the needs of the science students; it includes finding information including other required courses and the English factors that support these courses. The next step of pre-program activities is course design. Here, results of the pre-program survey data as well as the results of the needs analysis are considered. Certain aspects must be considered in this phase: 1) The intensity of the program; 2) learners' ability assessment in Science English; and 3) The length of the program. Other items noted by (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) that need to be taken into account are class sizes and class meeting times, although these factors may be set by the university. Data from pre-program questionnaires are used to incorporate meaningful activities into useful classroom-based activities.

In-program activities involve administering all the elements of the course; during the course, students should be actively involved. This aspect is largely dependent upon the teacher. Teachers of ESP for Science should have some experience studying or teaching ESP for various branches of science, such as biology or chemistry. During the course, ample time should be given to allow the students to experience real situations; in addition, their progress should be assessed periodically, accomplished by quizzes, comprehension checks, and role-plays.

A critical evaluation of the program takes place during the post-program stage. This could be in the form of a survey where the students are interviewed after completing the program to assess what was effective for them, what they learned from it, and how they think it will assist them in their futures. Other post-program activities include on-the-job evaluation when finally working (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998), and internships in which students can get a firmer grasp on the field, although English is not always used in science related fields in Japan.

Course Materials

In addition to general English, the author's public university requires that third year Environmental Science majors also study Science English. The author's background is not in science, so a large amount of self-study was conducted and students' needs were discussed with faculty members. The students are aware of science topics in Japanese, but have insufficient English skills, so the author focused on topics familiar to students such as the atmosphere and recycling. The material was based on similar material created by the author used in an English course for majors of technology at a different university during the years 2003 to 2013. Having found increased motivation and interest from these particular students, the author modified the material to be used in this Science English course. In designing the new material, the author focused on conceptualizing the material from the standpoint of a non-English major class containing some students who may have an interest in English, while others may not. In conceptualizing effective ESP material, several important questions came to mind: 1) What kind of English-related material would be beneficial to Science English students? 2) How can students practice the four skills of English while focusing on a Science related program? 3) How can new vocabulary be most effectively internalized? 4) How can student retain interest in the material and practice offering their own ideas through presentations?

Study Sample and Methodology

The material was used in class for one year, after revisions which were made during discussions with other professors and after a trial questionnaire which was administered to students at the end of the previous year. Many students in the Environmental Science department enter graduate school where they must conduct presentations in English; PhD students must write two science-related papers and have them published in international journals in addition to making presentations in English. Because of this, the author hoped that students would see the material as useful.

The study was conducted in a third year required Science English class of 33 Environmental Science majors in a mid-size public university in Western Japan on February 8, 2019. After the course, the students were given a ten-item, five-point Likert questionnaire on their feelings regarding the material on certain aspects. The questionnaire items were: 1) The material was useful

Table 1 *Item meaning and Abbreviations*

Questionnaire Item Meaning	Abbreviation for statistics table
The material was useful as a whole.	Useflness of txt.
The reading section topics were interesting and useful.	Rdng. topics
The illustrations were well done and pertinent.	Illustr.
The vocabulary section was useful and important.	Vocab. Lng.
The vocabulary comprehension section helped me internalize the vocabulary.	Vocab. Compr.
I practiced grammar through the sentence writing section.	Sentence Wrtng.
The listening section helped elevate my listening skills.	Listening
I could practice my critical thinking skills through the question and answer activity.	Quest./Ans.
My design skills were elevated while designing the picture.	Dsgn. Pic.
I was able to practice my explanation skills through explaining the design.	Dsgn. Expl.

as a whole; 2) The reading section topics were interesting and useful; 3) The illustrations were well done and pertinent; 4) The vocabulary section was useful and important; 5) The vocabulary comprehension section helped me internalize the vocabulary; 6) I practiced grammar through the sentence writing section; 7) The listening section helped elevate my listening skills; 8) I could practice my critical thinking skills through the question and answer activity; 9) My design skills were elevated while designing the picture; 10) I was able to practice my explanation skills through explaining the design. Answers were recorded using a 5-point Likert: 5) Strongly agree; 4) Agree, 3) Neither agree nor disagree; 2) Disagree; 1) Strongly disagree.

Questions were also given to which students could write open-ended answers regarding their opinions. Those questions were: 1) What kinds of things worked the best for you? 2) What did you wish we had done differently? 3) What was your favorite part of the textbook/class procedure? 4) What was your least favorite part? 5) Do you think this book helped you with Science English and will benefit you in the future?

Each unit of the material contains a reading passage, followed by a ten-word vocabulary activity based on the reading. The next activity focuses on using the vocabulary in cloze sentences, and then asks students to write sentences each sentence using one word chosen from the vocabulary list. Students then exchange books with partners and check their partner's sentences in a peer-review fashion. In the next section, students listen to a spoken passage and while writing everything they are able to hear, while stressing that they are not required to be perfect. A question-answer activity follows this, and here, students brainstorm answers to questions related to the topic and write answers in English. Finally, they are given a task in which to design an object, machine, or process based on that unit's topic. They are to draw the item and write an explanation in English. In the subsequent class, they present their ideas to the other class members who evaluate them on a sliding scale. An extract of a sample lesson can be found in the Appendix.

Results

The next section offers results of the questionnaire. Before this, a breakdown of the questionnaire items and abbreviations used for result tables and statistical calculations will be given in Table 1. Next, a synopsis of the number of students who answered each Likert question will be offered in Table 2. Finally, answers to open-ended questions will be examined and explained at the end of the section.

The questionnaire items were abbreviated corresponding to each question. The item and abbreviation can be found in the following item/abbreviation table.

Likert Results

The answers to the items on the Likert questionnaire were checked and the reasons as to why

Table 2 *Responses to Questions (in number).*

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Usefulness of xt.	16	13	4	0	0
Rdng. Topics	10	13	10	0	0
Illustr.	10	17	6	0	0
Vocab. Lng.	15	14	4	0	0
Vocab. Compr.	6	15	12	0	0
Sentence Wrtng.	7	18	7	1	0
Listening	7	18	7	1	0
Quest./Ans.	11	12	10	0	0
Dsgn. Pic.	17	13	3	0	0
Dsgn. Expl,	17	14	2	0	0

students answered the way they did were compiled. After this, the total number of answers was drafted into table form. The results of any study are of utmost importance. In this study, results found that most students were positive about the material, and basically agreed with each item on the questionnaire.

The paper will now offer a breakdown of student responses regarding different aspects of the material based on the data in Table 1. In question 1, as for usefulness of the text, 48% *strongly agreed*, while 40% of students answered they *agreed* that the text as a whole is useful. Of the total, 12% *neither agreed nor disagreed*. Question 2 found that when answering if the reading topics are useful, 31% *strongly agreed*, 39% *agreed*, and 30% *neither agreed nor disagreed*. In question 3, illustrations, 30% *strongly agreed* that they were useful and pertinent, 51% *agreed*, and 18% *neither agreed nor disagreed.* As for question 4, of the total, 46% people *strongly agreed* that the vocabulary learning exercises were useful and important, while 42% *agreed*, 12% *neither agreed nor disagreed*. As for question 5 totally, 18% of students *strongly agreed* that they could internalize vocabulary better through the vocabulary comprehension exercises, while 46% *agreed*, and 36% *neither agreed nor disagreed*. In question 6 asking whether or not the sentence writing section helped with grammar and spelling, 24% *strongly agreed* and 55% *agreed*, while 21% *neither agreed nor disagreed.* Of the total in question 7, 21% *strongly agreed* that they could elevate their listening skills, 55% *agreed*, 21% *neither agreed nor disagreed*, and 3% disagreed. When students were asked if they could practice their critical thinking skills through the question and answer activity in question 8, 34% *strongly agreed*, 36% *agreed*, 30% *neither agreed nor disagreed*. As for question 9, of the total, 52% *strongly agreed* that their design skills were elevated through the design drawing activity, 39% *agreed*, and 9% *neither agreed nor disagreed*. Finally, in question 10, 52% of students *strongly agreed* that they were able to practice their design explanation skills, 42% *agreed*, 6% *neither agreed nor disagreed*.

Qualitative Results

This section will examine the qualitative results; answers will be shared by question and give reasons for the students' answers.

Question 1. What worked best for you in the class?

Fourteen students felt that the design and explanation worked best for them as they felt that this skill in English helped them immensely. Twelve responded that they liked discussing the questions and answers with partners because they had time to think. Hearing partners' answers was interesting. Three thought the vocabulary worked best for them because they were able to internalize words related to the lesson and therefore became attracted to the material.

Question 2. What do you wish the class had done differently?

Twelve students wanted to present less because it was stressful, and they felt their English was not good. Ten students wanted to learn about the topics on the Internet. This is probably because the class had Internet access, and the teacher from time to time showed some things using on-line sources. Five in the class wanted to read science related topics more because they are interested in many topics. Three wished the textbook had an order that mixed difficult and easier topics. Three wished to have more writing practice, as academic writing was a difficult aspect for them.

Question 3. What was your favorite part or unit of the textbook or the class procedure?

Fifteen answered that the natural disaster topic was their favorite. This is because the students' city experienced earthquakes three years prior. Eight responded that "ecosystems" was their favorite unit because the students are interested in studying environmental science. Four felt recycling was their favorite because their city has had a recycling program for many years. Two felt that alternative energy was their favorite topic because it is very important. One found sustainable tourism to be their favorite because tourism will grow in the future and the only responsible way for tourism growth is through sustainability.

Question 4. What was your least favorite part or unit of the textbook or the class procedure?

Thirteen students answered that they enjoyed every topic, while twelve answered that the lightning section was their least favorite, and eight responded that the section on nuclear energy was their least favorite. This is most likely because of the negative feeling towards nuclear power following the Fukushima nuclear accident in March 2011.

Question 5. Do you think this book helped you with Science English and will it benefit you in the future?

For this question, all students answered that they thought it helped and would benefit them in the future.

Discussion

Table 2 contains the answers in total number of students for each Likert scale item; most students answered ranging between *strongly agree* and *agree* for most questions; however, there were several cases where a high percentage of students who answered *neither agree nor disagree*, such as in the questioning regarding internalization of vocabulary (36%), and in whether the sentence writing section helped with grammar and spelling (21%).This is telling because obviously some students felt more comfortable with the material while others did not. Positive results showed that 48% of the students strongly agreed that the text overall was interesting and useful, 21% strongly agreed that they could elevate their listening skills, and 34% strongly agreed that they were able to practice their critical thinking skills through the activities. In the final question, 52% of the students responded that they were able to practice their design and explanation skills, crucial aspects for students in this department, especially for those who continue on to graduate school. The author wanted to focus on elevating aspects such as critical thinking, writing, and explanation when creating the tests due to the fact this is a science class and English is out of the norm of study for these students. Where students may have the opportunity to elevate their writing and presentation skills as English majors, non-English majors may have less opportunity to practice various aspects of English learning even though such skills may be needed in their futures. The fact that 55% of the students found sentence writing was very interesting for the author because some students in this department in the author's experience usually show less interest in writing in general. because scientific writing is quite difficult for the students, especially at the graduate level. The design and explanation section worked very well for them and will undoubtedly be a very important skill to maintain long into the future.

Conclusion

The material creation process was useful and interesting after a conceptualization was realized. The time and energy spent to study extra elements of science so as to be able to put together interesting and effective materials leading to a textbook was found to be well-worth it from the answers from the students who used the material in class for one year. Although it was not perfect, the students felt that the text did offer some good material that could help students internalize vocabulary and gain speaking, writing, and presentation practice. The students were able to gain many opportunities to increase their specific scientific English skill abilities in such activities as vocabulary, writing answers to questions, and presenting in English, and through an increase in skills, the author found that their motivation has also increased. With increases in motivation, students in any major can further strive to realize their own abilities.

The author was delighted to see that the material to help students in studying and learning English for science was taken seriously by science-major students, and that they may find the impetus to utilize it in real-world situations in their futures. If the need for utilizing English skills arises, the students have a backdrop on which to base their English for writing and presenting. In this way, the author feels that the materials and subsequent creation endeavor was a success.

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Appendix

Sample Textbook Unit

Unit 2. The Atmosphere
Part one. Read the passage and understand as much as possible.

The atmosphere contains various things that help us breathe and live. Aerosols in the atmosphere from various cleaners or hairsprays have been very destructive over the past few decades. Aerosols have chlorofluorocarbons (CFC's). These are organic compounds containing carbon, chlorine, and fluorine. However, this mixture can be quite volatile, and is a major cause of stratospheric ozone depletion. CFC'c have been widely used in refrigerators, air conditioners, aerosol cleaners and fire extinguishers. Much of modern life in the 20th century was made possible through the uses of CFC's, but now scientists are aware of the large problems CFC's cause. Recently, many countries have phased out CFC usage in order to save the atmosphere.

CFC's destroy the ozone layer. They do this because chlorine atoms mix in the wind and are carried to various heights where they settle in the stratosphere. When UV radiation hits a CFC molecule, one chlorine atom breaks away. Then this chlorine hits an ozone molecule, which consists of three oxygen atoms, and takes one of the oxygen atoms, destroying the ozone molecule and turning it into oxygen. When another oxygen molecule hits this new molecule, the two oxygen atoms join together. The chlorine atom breaks free and continues to destroy ozone. Because each chlorine molecule remains in the atmosphere for a long time, damage to ozone will continue to occur.

Part two. Vocabulary learning. Write the number of the correct word on the lines.

1. atmosphere	___ The layer of atmosphere where planes fly.
2. aerosol	___ The smallest building block of a cell.
3. organic	___ A group of atoms bonded together.
4. compound	___ To gradually stop something.
5. stratosphere	___ The air that protects the earth from ultraviolet rays.
6. volatile	___ A substance that creates greenhouse gasses.
7. phase out	___ Related to living things.
8. ozone	___ A gas residing in the highest layer of the atmosphere.
9. atom	___ Likely to change rapidly, many times for the worse.
10. molecule	___ Something that is made up of two or more elements.

Part three. Vocabulary comprehension. Complete each sentence with a word from part two.

1. CFC's can destroy the precious _______________ layer.
2. The chemicals used in the experiment were quite ______________.
3. Two oxygen __________ bond together to form O2.
4. It is essential to ______ ______ out CFC use altogether.
5. The tomatoes were reported to be __________.
6. __________ contain CFC's.
7. The __________ is an important layer in the air above the earth.
8. The earth's __________ contains mostly nitrogen.
9. Material made up of more than two items bonding together is a __________.
10. A __________ is formed when two or more atoms join together.

Part four. Sentence writing. Choose five words from the above vocabulary and write five sentences, each sentence containing one word.

1. ____

2. ____

3. ____

4. ____

5. ____

Now, exchange books with your partner, and check your partner's sentences. Check the grammar, the spelling, and the meaning. Then give your partner a comment!

My comment ____

Part five. Listening comprehension. In the box, write down as much as you can understand while listening to the conversation. Take notes. Don't worry about being perfect!

Part six. Questions about the atmosphere. Write your answers in English.

1. How can countries stop CFC uses now?

2. What is one major cause of air pollution these days other than CFC's?

3. What gasses make up the lower atmosphere?

4. What are ways we can reduce exhaust gas?
5. Name some effects that UV radiation has on flora, fauna, animals, and humans.

Part seven. Design your own atmospheric cleaning equipment, machine, or center. Draw a picture of it. Write an explanation of the sections in English. Make it located in a viable location and realistic.

My picture

My explanation

27 Using Role Plays and Real Plays for Lower-Level Students

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Role Plays and Real Plays (RPRP) can be used to scaffold interaction among lower-level learners, increase time spent inside and outside the classroom on listening and speaking, and encourages creativity and personalization of L2 by students. This paper defines what is meant by RPRP, outlines the potential benefits of RPRP, potential limitations, and describes how the author has been using them for the past three years in a Japanese university with first- and second-year students in their required English communication classes. Examples of RPRP handouts, grading rubrics, and scripts are also included.

ロールプレイとリアルプレイ（RPRP）の使用は、低レベルの学習者間の相互作用を支援とし、教室内と外ではリスニングとスピーキングに費やす時間を増やし、学生による L2 の創造性と独自を促進できます。 この記事では、RPRP の意味を定義し、RPRP の潜在的な利点、潜在的な制限について概説し、著者が条件な英語コミュニケーション授業で 1 年生と 2 年生の日本の大学で 3 年間前からを使用した方法について説明します。 RPRP の配布資料、採点基準、および台本の例も含まれています。

Although the exact mechanisms of language learning and development is still under debate, most teachers and researchers would agree that language will not be learnt without spaced repetition, opportunities for input and output, practice, and some degree of corrective feedback. Repetition and review are crucial for memories to be created and second language acquisition (SLA), but not many students encounter the same language items enough times to create strong memories or knowledge of language items. If students do review on their own, it is often receptive and not productive, limiting their ability to have a deep knowledge and use of the language item, and keeping them in the lower levels of Bloom’s Taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002). Learners might be able to remember and understand, but unable to apply, analyze, evaluate, or create with their new language items (Krathwohl, 2002). From what learners have said through personal conversations in class, this lack of repetition seems to stem from the desire for new stimuli, the boredom of repetition, forgetfulness, lack of time, feeling they know it well enough already, or other reasons and excuses. Many teachers review language items by tests, vocabulary activities, homework, watching videos or reading articles and answering associated questions, games, or other activities which are beneficial for SLA but might not foster student creativity and experimentation with language (as there is usually only one correct answer) or tend to be made by teachers, textbooks, or websites, and so may be dry and less interesting for students. Group discussions, interviews, role plays, and real plays tend to be more student-centered as students are in control of the content, implementation, and foster abstract answers. There are more opportunities for interaction, personalized production, and communication repairs and requests. Although all three are certainly useful for SLA, this paper will focus on role plays and real plays, how they are being implemented in the author’s classes, possible benefits, and limitations.

What are Role Plays and Real Plays?

Role plays in this paper are defined as when students take on an imagined role (doctors, tourists, waiters, etc.) and act in this new identity in various imagined scenarios. Real plays are where students retain their own identities but act as they would if they were in various imagined scenarios. They both can be more or less structured, more or less spontaneous, and more or less reliant on textbooks; because of this they both are completely adaptable and dependent on the goals of the teacher, learner, or class. Ladousse (1987) wrote that students, “are experimenting with their knowledge of the real world and developing their ability to interact with other people” (p 5). Ladousse (1987) also mentioned the aim of role plays are "to train students to deal with the unpredictable nature of language...they need to think on their feet and handle the skein of language as it unravels" (p. 6). Basically, role plays and real plays try to prepare the students for spontaneous language use outside of the classroom, and allow for creativity, personalization, and practice with language items.

The Benefits of Role Plays and Real Plays

Firstly, role plays and real plays (RPRP) provide opportunities for scaffolded interaction and review, creativity, as well as spontaneous production. RPRP focuses learners on using the language items and achieving their "goals," which might range from ordering food at a restaurant to talking about what they want to do after graduation. They are scaffolded by using already learnt language, focusing on a goal to achieve, and being given time to prepare but not being allowed to use textbooks, dictionaries, or electronic devices. This pushes them to apply and synthesize their knowledge rather than just remember and comprehend it (Krathwohl, 2002), which pushes their L2 knowledge from receptive to productive skills. RPRP help learners by scaffolding and bridging interaction between lower level students and other lower levels students, as opposed to between lower-level and more proficient language users, and helps them by decreasing their reliance on outside support (textbooks, dictionaries, electronic devices or software, etc). Interaction is crucial for SLA where learners might display and use, and/or cultivate instantaneously sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge (Tateyama, 1998). Learners must interact in order to clarify, question, achieve understanding, and/or demonstrate understanding (Rost, 1994). However, not many lower level learners have the language at their disposal to interact for long periods of time, at ease, or without major outside support. This is regrettable because there are multiple benefits to interaction. RPRP help scaffold interaction, and they offer a much wider range of language opportunities than the textbook alone. Najizade (1996) found that RPRP are positive activities for bringing real language situations into classroom, and RPRP were considerably effective in improving subjects' acquiring the foreign language structures. They are fun and motivating (Harmer,1989), because the world of the classroom is broadened to include the outside world. They provide chances for quieter students to express themselves in a more forthright way, and to many people, mastering speaking abilities is the ultimate goal of acquiring a foreign or second language (McCarthy, 1998; Nunan, 2001).

Mendelsohn (1994) found "of the total time spent on communicating, listening takes up 40-50 %; speaking 25-30 %; reading 11-16 %; and writing about 9%," (p. 9). Although speaking is the medium through which much language is learnt, listening is even more. In order to develop listening skills, Rost (1994) has mentioned that "Listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input at the right level, without which learning simply cannot begin...Listening exercises provide teachers with a means for drawing learners' attention to new forms," (p. 141-142). Morley (2001) has also written that listening is a nonpassive and very complex receptive process, that comprehension is a fundamental skill, and there is a need for focused practice in the classroom. RPRP address these points by increasing the time spent on and amount of comprehensible input. Through personal conversations from talking with students after watching RPRP, they say they could understand almost everything (as long as it was audible) and, after having had looked at comprehension questions and other written work from listening to RPRP, this does appear to be true. The RPRP activities discussed here are used as review after textbook units, so students should have high comprehension, as it is accessing previously learnt and studied language items. This high level of comprehension is sustained for about an hour, which should aid in listening automatization and fluency development (Segalowitz, 2010). If there are errors in comprehension, this lets them (and teachers) notice holes and gaps in their L2, which relates to the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990) and alerts them as to where they should focus their efforts to improve upon their L2, should they choose to do so. Finally, creatively using and sustained comprehension of language items should help move students to a deeper level of knowledge according to Bloom's Taxology (Krathwohl, 2002) from simply remembering language items to understanding, applying, evaluating, and creating with them.

The only caveats concerning RPRP are it requires a decent amount of time and planning, and teachers might find their time is better well spent elsewhere doing other activities, especially if the class is not focused on speaking and listening. Also, Baker (1989) believes that since the learners are required to play parts or roles, they need to be given clear instruction and sufficient time to understand these parts. Finally, RPRP are under-researched therefore at the time of writing, the author was unable to find studies showing strong positive evidence of student SLA development.

Role Plays and Real Plays Example Procedures

The following describes how RPRP activities have been implemented by the author for the past 3 years, which have been informed by research but unfortunately has not been formally researched yet. In the future, it is hoped that RPRP will be able to be researched by the author, given the university's permission. All steps to the activities have been informed by research, and each step and its' associated research will be explained below.

Before RPRP

Teachers' preparation would be to create RPRP handouts; first with space for student names, second with a list of RPRP topics (which students will choose from or create their own), and lastly a grading rubric. Allowing students to choose their topics puts the locus of control in their hands (Dörnyei, 2001) and is an achievable task for the group. On the back of the handout is the grading rubric, please see Appendix A for an example of a full RPRP handout and Appendix B for a detailed grading rubric. The grading rubric is based on criteria for language use and effort, not perfect language, because RPRP are more focused on interaction, experimentation and creativity with language, and repetition of language items than flawless language use. Over-emphasis on correct L2 use and corrective feedback can decrease willingness to communicate, fluency, confidence, and increase anxiety (Dörnyei, 2001). Lastly, create Google Documents for each group, and put links on the class webpage. Google Documents lets a group of individuals work on the same document at the same time, which at the time of writing, Microsoft Word does not allow for. There is also a tracking mechanism, which can show teachers which students have been writing and who has not..

Week 1

After finishing one or two units in a textbook, divide the class into groups of three to four people. The author has found that groups of three to four people work well, as larger groups become unwieldly and smaller groups become too shy. Careful consideration should also be given to balances of introverted and extroverted, males and females, lower and higher proficient in each group. Then, give the groups an icebreaker or achievable task, such as two truths and one lie, charades, figuring out a riddle, or others. This is done to create a relaxed and friendly atmosphere in the group, and to begin a pattern of communication in English. Then, teach some phrases for discussing the handout and write them on the board, such as "Which topic do you like? How about topic (2)? It looks hard/easy/ok. Who wants to type the script? Let's rock, paper, scissors." This is done in order to increase the likelihood that students will speak in the L2 rather than immediately switch to L1 and give them something to look at for reference if they forget the language or lapse into the L1. Then, give them the handouts and let groups talk and choose their topic. After a group decides their topic, this topic is out, and other groups cannot choose it. This is done to increase the variety of topics and use of language items. Have student access their Google Document, and have them write their names and a number or letter after it (for example, Yuki (A), Sora (B), etc.) Students should start writing in class, while the teacher reminds them to open and use the book. All language items should be underlined. This is for ease of checking for teachers, as well as to keep students focused on review. They do not need to finish their scripts in class and can finish for homework. Scripts can be as loose or as structured as teachers prefer, but again remind the students that you are looking for them to spontaneously talk and use the new language items-not to memorize a script. However, for lower-level students they may want to write out full sentences for reference. Teachers might feel it is beneficial to start the role plays with a more structured script and gradually transition to a looser script throughout the semester. A sample of a RPRP script is in Appendix C.

Week 2

In the following class the group scripts are due, either on Google Documents, email, or printed paper. It's up to the teachers as to which is the easiest for them to check in class. Have students do a timed table read-through, and then write the total time on the top. This is to show the students if their work is the appropriate length or not. Generally, for lower-level students 1 minute of speaking for each person is achievable, while higher level students can speak for up to 3 minutes. While students are doing another activity, check their work for use of book language items, length of RPRP, and major L2 mistakes. Teachers give feedback to each group and to the whole class. Have students do another table read-through with their corrections, but also remind them there is no holding papers or reading in the final role play. Correction is important for students to identify the errors, holes, and incompletly-learnt items in their L2. For lower-level students, direct corrective feedback of major errors has been used, while for higher-level students less direct corrective feedback (such as circling, underlining, question marks, or other marks to draw attention to errors) and then having the group make corrections has been effective. Generally, the author has found that because the lower-level students have less linguistic knowledge, they are unable to make corrections properly or easily, which takes a substantial amount of time out of class. However, with the higher-level students, after being given corrective feedback, helps them interact to make corrections together and is achievable in a reasonable amount of time. assu

Week 3

In their groups, students practice for 5-10 minutes. After that, teachers explain how to be a good listener (do not use phones, reactions are good, make eye-contact, do not chat too much with classmates, etc.).

During the RPRP, students should be listening and taking notes: each group's topic, words/phrases/anything or everything that they could catch, answers to questions about the role play from the teacher, and/or give three strong and three weak points of each role play. After all groups have performed, students write which group was their favorite and why, and self-reflect on their own work. This should raise metacognitive awareness about what was good, bad, and the point of the RPRP. Lastly, teachers should give feedback to the whole class, and if there is time, to each group. This again is to address the main good and bad points of the RPRP, which might include volume, gestures, grammatical points, pronunciation of tricky words, etc.

Scores

RPRP performances are worth 0-20 points, with each category being worth 0-5 points:

a) Non-verbal Communication (Volume, speed, gestures, eye-contact, intonation, etc.)

b) English (correct, no translation software, length, used English from the textbook, etc.)

c) Effort (Tried hard to memorize, stressed out or relaxed, natural reactions or questions, use of conjunctions to give short answers with extra information, etc.)

d) Extra/Other (Used props or music, had audience participation, original, funny, etc.)

It cannot be emphasized enough, scoring is less about an actual assessment of their English ability and more about their effort and attitude towards using the L2, because an over-emphasis on correct L2 use increases anxiety, decreases willingness-to-communicate, and cuts students off from experimenting with and personalizing the L2 (Dörnyei, 2001). Scoring can be done in class during the RPRP, which cuts down on marking outside of the class.

RPRP listening are worth 0-10 points, with a few questions to be answered for each group. Generally, students write the group number and their topics, then answer four to six concrete and abstract questions. For example, concrete questions or ideas might be: "Write down everything that you can catch," "What were their likes and dislikes?", "Where did he want to go?", or "Why are they shopping?" Examples of abstract questions or ideas might be: "What were three strong points and three weak points of this group?", "What do you think they will do next?", "Would you do the same thing in their situation?" or "Do you agree with him or her-why?" Generally, concrete questions are easier to answer than abstract, so teachers should be sensitive to students needs and they should be given enough time to answer. Then, students write about which was their favorite group and give three reasons why. Lastly, they self-reflect and on a scale of 1-

10 rate themselves, explain what went well and how they can improve for next time. This should raise metacognitive awareness of their own English, performance, listening, and preparation skills. Marking the listening will generally take one minute per paper, so it depends on the class size how long it will take to grade.

Possible Problems and Solutions

Students might not be used to vocal projection, so practice with breathing from the diaphragm and other vocal warm-up exercises (many are available on YouTube) is advisable. Students who were absent for week one will not have a group, so the author has had success with either pairing them with other absent students or with herself. If students are absent for week three, then their group will be missing a person, then the students can try to improvise (higher-level class) or the teacher can read the parts of the missing student (lower-level class).

Takeaways

In conclusion, please consider RPRP in the classroom because they are helpful activities for allowing students to practice listening and speaking outside and inside of class, use and start internalizing new language items, practice performance and nonverbal communication skills (gestures, eye contact, intonation, vocal projection, etc.), become more autonomous and creative, are fun, make introverted students more comfortable, give students specific goals, are a good bridge to making presentations, give students opportunities to make friends in class, and are easy to grade for teachers. Although RPRP are under-researched, they have been designed with many logical theories in mind, and from personal conversations with students the author has found many students who enjoy them and credit them with their improvement in English.

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Author biography

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Appendix A

Elementary II, Role Play # 2

<u>Before</u> class:

a) From the list below, check the box for ONE topic / situation

b) Write an original script together with your group (with questions, answers, and reactions).

c) Use vocabulary / questions / grammar from that unit. Underline them

d) One person types, prints, and gives Ms. Nicole a copy .

e) Each person speaks for 1 – 1 1/2 minutes.

Group members & student numbers:

<u>Topics / Situations Choices</u>

- ☐ Talking about things you can do well and can't do well (Unit 9)
- ☐ Talking about things you couldn't do well before, but now you can (Unit 9)
- ☐ Oh no, you were attacked by Godzilla! Talk about things you can't and can do since the attack (Unit 9)
- ☐ Talking about things you like, don't like, enjoy, and dislike and why (Unit 10)
- ☐ Talking about things you want to do after graduation, in the future- use "looking forward to –" and "interested in –" (Unit 10)
- ☐ Talking about things you want to do next year- use "going to –" and "might –" (Unit 10)
- ☐ Your idea but ASK ME IF IT IS OK!!!!! (nicoleamoskowitz@gmail.com)

Names & Student numbers: ____

____

Role Play: 0-20 points

Volume, Speed, Memorization, Intonation

1 2 3 4 5

Notes

Speed: Very good / average/ not great Too many stops Too slow / fast

Volume: Very good / average/ too quiet Sometimes ok, sometimes too quiet

Memorized: Very well / good effort / average / pretty bad / not at all

Intonation: Very natural / good effort / average / very flat / not at all

English

1 2 3 4 5

Notes

Interesting Original Funny Good vocabulary / grammar

Too boring / easy / difficult Short / Long sentences Translation software

Used the book well Very natural Didn't use the unit vocabulary / grammar

Too many mistakes Hard to understand Didn't check spelling / grammar

Attitude/Effort

1 2 3 4 5

Notes

Tried hard Put in a lot of effort Didn't try at all Gave up

No eye contact Good eye contact Some gestures Stiff

Only looking down / up Too nervous Relaxed Made / used props

Other

1 2 3 4 5

Notes

Pronunciation was smooth Good Q / reactions / props Worked well together

Forgot parts, but could adlib Forgot to prepare No script

Appendix B

Role Play grades are 0-20, 2 points for each category

___ **Speed**

Really good! Average Too fast / slow Too many stops Pause more

___ **Volume**

Really good! Average Sometimes ok, sometimes quiet Too quiet

___ **Information**

Interesting Boring On / Off topic Too much / little Too easy / hard

___ **English in general**

Correct Mistakes Too easy Too hard Too crazy

Long turns Short turns Natural / Good questions Natural / Good Reactions

___ **English pronunciation/intonation**

Natural Smooth Didn't practice hard words Katakana pronunciation Lots of pauses Easy to understand Hard to understand
Yes/No Questions went up Wh- Questions went down

___ **Script**

Correct English Hard to read Easy to read Good organization Strange organization

Translation software Spelling problems Typing problems

___ **Group work**

Worked well as a group Helped each other practice Everyone works evenly

One person did all the work Relaxed / Had fun Stressed out

___ **Eye contact**

Excellent Ok Sometimes ok, sometimes not Looking down/up

Only looking at teacher Only looking at other group members Looked at audience

___ **Memorized/Improvisation**

Tried hard to remember If forgot, tried to think of similar ideas/words

Forgot and panicked and froze Too much Japanese

___ **Attitude**

Good smiles	Friendly and relaxed manner		Props	Showed photo
Laughed at mistake	Jokes	Very nervous	Forgot, and got a lot of stress	

_____Total Score (A=20-17 B=16-13 C=12-8 D=7-4 F=3-0)

Appendix C

Structured Script Example:

Yuki (A), Sora (B), Rei (C)

(A) I can't believe we're going to graduate from university in two years! Sora, what are you interested in doing after graduation?

(B) I'm not sure. I'm interested in travelling, working, and starting a family. How about you Rei?

(C) I don't know yet, but I'm looking forward to living by myself.

(A) Really? I'm not looking forward to living by myself! I hate cooking and cleaning!

(C) I don't mind that. I think it's relaxing, fun, and I like to see my clean room.

(B) Aren't you interested in travelling? It's more fun than cooking and cleaning.

(And so on)

Loose Script Example:

Yuki (A), Sora (B), Rei (C)

(A) ... can't believe ... from ... in two years! B, what are you i-i-d- after graduation?

(B) I'm not sure. I'm i-i- 1, 2, and 3. Ask C

(C) ...don't know yet, but I'm l- f- t- l- by myself.

(A) Really? I'm not l-f-t- living by myself! ...cooking and cleaning!

(C) I d-m-t- 3 reasons why

(B) travel- more fun than

(And so on)

28 Wider Implications of the Foreign Language Effect

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The Foreign Language Effect (FLE) refers to the phenomenon in which people are less prone to cognitive biases when asked to make decisions in a second language (L2) than they are when presented with the same questions in their first language (L1). There are a number of implications of the FLE for language teaching in Japan discussed in this paper. First, it is advised that assessment in the language classroom distinguishes between marking for language and content. Second, implications for the increasingly popular Model United Nations events are explored. Next, it is suggested that FLE could affect learners' understanding of humour. Finally, the authors consider study abroad programmes, with the suggestion that the FLE may play a role in risk-taking among students studying overseas. Although further research is needed to demonstrate FLE influence in each of these four domains, it is suggested that a greater acknowledgment of the effect be made.

「Foreign Language Effect」（FLE）とは、第 1 言語に示された事に対する感情的な反応に対する研究参加者の現象を指し、第 2 言語の記憶をより合理的な反応を引き起こす。FLE の言語教育との関連性の多くを含意する。最初に、言語の教室では言語と内容で採点を区別することが勧められます。第二に、最近参加者が増えている模擬国連大会への影響が与えられている。次に、学習者がユーモアを習うのに効果がある。最後に、著者は FLE がそれ以上の学びをする学生の間でリスクテイキングにおいて役割を果たすかもしれないという示唆と共に、留学プログラムを検討している。他のところにも FLE の存在を証明するにはさらに研究が必要である。これらの 4 つの領域およびそれ以降では、その効果について大きな認識が得られることが示唆される。

The effect on the speaker of using a foreign language has received a lot of attention by researchers in areas such as anxiety. However, another area of increasing interest is the effect which the use of a second or foreign language (L2) has on the making of decisions. The "foreign language effect" (FLE) is a term that refers to a phenomenon in which various types of decisions appear to be processed differently according to the input language, with speakers of a second language appearing to be less prone to cognitive biases when compared with control groups faced with the same decision-making tasks in their first language (Keysar, Hayakawa & An, 2012). The authors of this paper became interested in the phenomenon through conducting research on university students in Japan, the results of which appeared to align with previous studies (eg Costa et al, 2014). The initial research (Musty & Andrews, 2018) reported the results, while the current paper aims to consider implications of the FLE which may be of relevance to language instructors.

Background to the Foreign Language Effect

The Foreign Language Effect (FLE) has been attributed by researchers to a number of possible mechanisms such as either an emotional distancing in the second language or a necessarily more deliberative cognitive style when processing a second language. Regardless of the mechanisms for the effect, the main conclusion of research into the FLE focuses on two contrasting traits: emotionality and rationality. When an ethical dilemma is presented in a subject's native language (L1), a tendency towards emotional responses is observed, in contrast with a higher prevalence of rational or utilitarian decisions made when the same decision is required in L2. This is said to be due to the increased cognitive and emotional distance created through the L2 channel (Keysar et al, 2012). In common with previous works, Musty and Andrews (2018) approached the FLE through a set of dilemmas commonly referred to as "The Trolley Problem," designed by Foot (1967). One hundred and eighty-three students of two universities in West Japan were asked to consider two of these problems, the first being the *switch* scenario ("scenario 1") and the second being the *footbridge* scenario ("scenario 2"). The former describes a trolley moving along a track towards five workers on the line, who are unaware of their impending death. According to this scenario, a bystander observing the trolley is presented with an option to pull a nearby switch diverting the trolley onto a sideline, where one other person is working. Pulling the switch would result in the death of this single worker as opposed to the five. The latter scenario also involves a trolley which is about to end the lives of five workers, but in this instance, an observer is standing on a footbridge from where it is possible to stop the trolley, but only by pushing another nearby observer, who is judged to be of sufficient weight to stop the trolley, down on to the track to their certain death. In most studies (eg. Cathcart, 2013; Greene, 2013), around 80% of respondents opted to take action in scenario 1, sacrificing one person for five. This is in accordance with a utilitarian principle, identified by Bentham (1789), of a moral action being that which serves the interests of the greater number. On the other hand, only around 20% of respondents were willing to sacrifice the person on the footbridge despite the utilitarian arithmetic being the same. Researchers often explain the discrepancy between the two scenarios as being a result of the more emotionally charged second scenario obscuring the utilitarian calculus. Although various studies have often replicated this discrepancy between scenario 1 and scenario 2, researchers have discovered that this discrepancy narrows when subjects are asked to respond to these scenarios in a second language. The foreign language effect appears to be responsible for this reduction, although it is not necessarily clear why.

With the FLE having been observed in a number of cultures (Costa et al, 2014), the authors of this paper tested the FLE in Japan. Although Nakamura (2015) had identified its existence through a series of trolley problem experiments, the mechanism behind these decisions remained unclear. In addition to a replication study, Musty and Andrews (2018) also considered the possibility that the cognitive load involved with speaking a second language could also contribute to the FLE. To test this, an additional treatment group was tested in which the L1 text of the trolley problem containing a series of lexical and grammatical mistakes, was provided, in order to test whether a similar narrowing of the discrepancy between the results of the trolley problem scenarios was observed. A positive finding may have suggested that the cognitive load, rather then the reduced emotionality of the language was responsible for reduced discrepancy between situation 1 and situation 2.

However, one finding from Musty and Andrews (2018) raises additional questions related to culture, and that is the comparatively low number of subjects who opted to pull the switch in scenario 1. Only 57% opted to do so, compared with figures of 80% that were found in earlier studies. It has been argued that many social science experiments tend to take place in Western, educated, industrialized, rich and democratic (WEIRD) nations (to use an acronym attributed to Heinrich, Heine and Norenzayan (2010)). Studies conducted elsewhere in the world, with non-WEIRD subjects, have produced different results. Gold et al (2014), for example, found fewer than half of Chinese participants willing to push the switch in scenario 1, far lower than the 80% of their British equivalents. Costa et al (2014) found similar results among Korean participants, which they surmised may be a product of a Confucian outlook. The difference between Japanese and Western cultures may also contribute to a different perspective on ethical dilemmas. As a result, differing cultural outlooks are examined in this paper along with the FLE.

Implications of the Foreign Language Effect

The FLE has implications not only for hypothetical workmen on trolley tracks, but also for teachers and students in the language classroom and in extra-curricular activities. L1 and L2 tend to alter the speaker's relationship with various language forms such as “taboo words, reprimands, expressions of love, and advertisement slogans” (Keysar et al, 2012:1). This paper describes four diverse areas in which language learners are likely to be affected by the FLE. The areas under discussion here are marking, Model United Nations, humour, and study abroad programmes.

Marking

Although it is not a new idea to separate content and language when marking papers, as scholars such as Lightbown & Spada (2006) have argued, the FLE gives further support for this practice. This may be particularly true in areas where students have written about personal or sensitive issues. Peer assessment activities could be improved by having the marker tasked with focusing only on language elements. On the second treatment, the peer reviewer could focus on content. Alternatively, half of the class could be responsible for grading a given set of criteria, and the remainder for another set of criteria. There are obvious pedagogical reasons for having the learner involved in both, as this practice enables the learner to develop an understanding of both content and language, but the existence of an FLE provides a reason for approaching these areas separately. Instructors may well also struggle to mark language and content simultaneously.

Moreover, in standardized tests, such inter-rater reliability may be impaired by the FLE when multiple markers from various different cultures and L1 backgrounds are involved in large, coordinated programmes. It is already established that different standards are applied by different markers (Stayanchi & Musty, 2019). However, it could be further hypothesized that, where raters include both L1 and L2 speakers, the amount of emotional distance is likely to be different and may affect grading. This is not to state that the distance set up by an L2 marker (such as a Japanese instructor of English at a university in Japan) would be better positioned to make judgements which are more rational, but it does suggest the need for such factors to be investigated further. If a discrepancy were to be found, this would lead to a call for consideration when comparing the results of learners from each class. As with any widely-administered test, this could be dealt with through a wider training programme which seeks to bring all raters together in their approach to marking (Walker, 1990). Large-scale tests such as the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) (n.d.) trains examiners of its oral test to follow a carefully constructed rubric when assigning scores. Inter-rater reliability is brought about by having all parties calibrate their marking in accordance with this rubric, as opposed to a much more general score sheet. It is therefore proposed that the FLE can to some extent be counterbalanced through the use of training and careful implementation of a standard assessment measure.

Model United Nations

Another learning situation in which the FLE might need to be acknowledged is that of Model United Nations (“MUN”) events. The practice, established in the 1940s (Muldoon, 1995), of organizing a mock conference at which participants represent the nations of the world and are charged with writing resolutions aimed at solving global issues, has been linked to the improvement of critical thinking skills (Gao, 2016; Musty, 2019), and opportunities to join such conferences in Japan have increased in recent years. While participants from overseas, including delegates whose L1 is English, travel across the globe in order to take part, the majority of the participants at such events in Japan are likely to be domestic (eg JEMUN). Representing a particular nation as a delegate involves hours of research in order to understand matters of relevance to the conference agenda (Adamson, 2016). However, it is the role of the student delegate to decide which aspects are relevant and which require emphasis during MUN debates. It is these decisions which will influence the recommendations placed within the MUN resolutions. It is reasonable to state that such an event is pedagogical and will have no impact on the global political situation. On the other hand, participants may approach such a learning event with some intention of going into a career in diplomacy, or develop an interest in such a career as a result of participation. Such assumptions are reasonable, given that one aim of MUN is to develop political engagement (Levy, 2016). While participation at international events is likely to be in English, research (ie the input language) need not necessarily be so. However, with English, and not Japanese, as an official language of the United Nations (United Nations, n.d.), students who research sufficiently to meet the needs of participating in MUN do need to undertake extensive research in English (Adamson, 2016). The authors were unable to find any evidence of tests which investigate the effects of input language on, ultimately, diplomatic decisions. However, the existence of the FLE is evidence that participants may arrive at different decisions depending upon the use of their native tongue or their second language. The FLE is likely to be one of many factors, conscious, sub-conscious and unconscious, coming into play when matters of diplomacy are being considered. It is beyond the scope of this paper to speculate on the appropriateness of either emotions, rationality or a combination when it comes to negotiating United Nations resolutions. However, the event of the MUN itself allows speakers of different linguistic backgrounds to come together and share responses to a set of global problems. Further research is needed to ascertain whether or not L1 and L2 speakers engage a different set of principles in MUN debates.

International MUN conferences such as JEMUN do involve participants of various nationalities. In order to develop a greater sense of cultural and linguistic awareness, organizers generally aim to form committees of delegates from multiple backgrounds. While each individual will bring their own set of biases, the resolutions compiled at a conference are a joint production by learners. Speeches and position papers, produced by the individual learner, are likely to reflect the attitude of the learner. The FLE suggests that delegates operating in an L2 are likely to be operating in a utilitarian frame. A comparison of position papers written by L1 and L2 delegates would be able to explore this idea. It could then be followed up by an analysis of a resolution produced by a delegation of diverse backgrounds. Such analysis would offer some new insight into the FLE, to add to the growing body of work, much of which is focused on psychological tests (Musty & Andrews, 2018).

Humour

Humour is another area of language in which the FLE may play a role is one in which learners and, frequently, non-native teachers struggle (Banitz, 2018). The evidence in favour of instructors providing humour in the classroom is overwhelming (Bell, 2009). Learners seeking to enjoy the learning environment may benefit from some injections of humour, known to reduce anxiety (Smith, Ascough, Ettinger & Nelson, 2016). Although instructors might not instantly receive the laughter that they desire, language teacher intuition suggests that exposure is likely to increase understanding and therefore would help learners to grow accustomed to the types of joke that they are likely to encounter when interacting with other speakers of English. In some cases, instructors may feel that showing some examples of jokes in English would be beneficial and doing so could have benefits for future interactions.

However, while humour has the benefit of provoking laughter or a smile, some forms of humour require more specific components such as the need for a punchline twist or an utterance meaning which differs from the literal meaning (Kitazume, 2015). Humour often differs across cultures. It has been stated that there are some unique aspects of humour in Japanese culture (Oda, 2006:15-26). For example, expressions of laughter would traditionally have been restrained, especially by women. This inevitably affects comprehension of humour in the language classroom (Zhao & Fan, 2010). The finding that emotional responses are more readily provoked by L1, contrasted with comparatively rational responses resulting from L2, would go some way to explaining the effect of input language on response to humour. Instructors of English have been known to lose their jobs as a result of making jokes perceived to be inappropriate in the language classroom in Japan. Occasionally, offensive jokes (eg Mainichi Shinbun (2017), an example in which the remark was actually made in both English and Japanese, may even be reported as news. The FLE suggests speakers in their L2 may not appreciate the level of offence that some jokes or taboo words cause L1 speakers.

Study Abroad Programmes

The notion that stress increases when using a foreign language (Caldwell-Harris & Ayçiçegi-Dinn, 2009) is one with which many instructors will be familiar. However, it does not appear to follow that these increased stress levels lead language learners into being more cautious. In fact, a tendency has been observed towards a lower aversion to risk as the cognitive load placed by the foreign language increases (Benjamin, Brown & Shapiro, 2013; Keysar et al, 2012). This may be because of the increase in emotional distance established by a foreign language (Hayakawa, Ka Ying Lau, Holtzmann, Costa and Keysar, 2017). In other words, an L2 speaker would appear to be more likely to participate in high-risk activities than the same speaker when acting through L1. Studies by Keysar et al (2012) and Hayakawa et al (2017) both involved decisions related to betting. Engaging emotional faculties is associated with fear, which leads to an avoidance of risky activities, such as those taken in academic writing (Cetin, Ilham & Yilmaz, 2014). If the FLE were to have the effect of reducing fear by a greater appeal to rational faculties, speakers may end up making different decisions. This may have implications for study abroad programmes. It is thought that currently around 80,000 students from Japan embark on overseas programmes of study in a foreign language per year (JAOS, 2017). Suppose a student is given to be hesitant to take part in high-risk activities at home. Different factors come into play when such decisions are called for in a foreign country, particularly when invited to do so by classmates or other non-L1 speakers. In some cases, the difference in response may be of some assistance to the learner, enabling them to participate in activities which they would not otherwise have had the confidence to attempt. On the other hand, they could be persuaded to engage in potentially harmful activities. Hayakawa et al (2017) explored differences among risk taking strategies by language of input, depending on whether the risk was beneficial or harmful. The study revealed some tendencies towards increased risk taking in L2 where the risks were judged to be either beneficial or harmful, but results were not conclusive enough to confirm this for either risk type. It would appear that the reduced aversion to risk is affected by the level of cognitive load. Among learners who were judged to have the greatest increase in cognitive load, risk aversion was seen to decrease by the largest amount (Benjamin et al, 2013), although this study did not deal specifically with linguistic competence. However, as low competence in a language may be equated with cognitive load, those going to study abroad with lower levels of L2 competence are the ones thought to be in greatest need of guidance. It is recommended here that preparatory sessions take place, ideally in students' home country and/or L1 before setting off on the study abroad programme, as well as in the destination country, using the L2. They would be asked to consider a number of decisions in which they are likely to be involved during their time overseas. This would enable the learner to take advantage of their potentially less cautious disposition, without making decisions likely to be harmful. Accidents and tragedies can happen and universities are expected to minimise these. Giving sufficient opportunities for students to consider what actions they might take in a variety of situations could contribute to more careful responses during the period of overseas study.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the FLE likely affects learner decisions in a number of areas. Research highlighted in this paper has shown it to play a part in hypothetical moral decisions (Musty & Andrews, 2018) as well as in a number of gambling decisions (Hayakawa et al, 2017; Keysar et al, 2012). Based on the findings of these studies, it has been suggested that there could be far-ranging implications for this phenomenon, such as when grading student papers, participating in Model United Nations, considering humour in the classroom, and planning study abroad programmes. These areas of concern are disparate enough to suggest that there are likely to be many more areas in which the changing nature of mental processing according to the language of input is likely to affect judgement, both within the domain of language teaching and, inevitably, far beyond the walls of the classroom. The current study does not go so far as to establish positive links between the input language and the decisions being made. Therefore, it is suggested that future publications examine these areas, as well as suggest other areas in which the effect is likely to have a significant impact. Until such experiments can positively demonstrate these connections, it is recommended here that instructors acknowledge a likely difference in processing according to the language of input, and make allowances for learners in order to assist them in accessing both emotional and rational processing mechanisms when operating in a foreign language.

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29 Implementing Cooperative Board Games

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Games in language classrooms often prioritize language practice over gaming aspects. Despite adding excitement, these are game-like activities (Ur, 2009), not authentic games. Authentic games (e.g., Monopoly, Clue) offer truer game-like experiences. However, the restricted roll-and-move mechanic provides little intellectual engagement (Mayer & Harris, 2010). Recently, utilizing the more engaging mechanics of modern board games has been proposed (Vaittinen, 2017), but there is a lack of detailed concrete implementation examples. We will present task-based learning (TBL) implementations of the modern cooperative board game Forbidden Island in high school, university, and adult learning. Using our experiences and student survey responses, we compare the contexts regarding the benefits of using the game, the processes for creating engaging game-based TBL lessons, and the challenges implementation presented. We aim to demonstrate cooperative games are a well-suited platform for TBL by showing they are authentic, intellectually engaging, and provide ample opportunity for language use.

言語の授業で使うゲームは教育学上の側面より言語の練習が優先してる。楽しさに与える一方で、この活動は本物のゲームより、ゲームのような活動です(Ur, 2009)。モノポリーなどのゲームで、ゲームのような活動がより本物に近いものですがサイコロを転がしてトークンを動かす手順では、知的活動にはならない(Mayer & Harris, 2010)。近年、EFL 授業は、現代のゲームを使ってそれらのより確かな手順をうまく活用することが提案されている(Vaittinen, 2017)。しかしそれらの詳細で具体的な実行例は不十分である。Forbidden Island という現代の協力的ボードゲームの TBL を高校、大学、社会人学習の場面で実践した。私達の経験と生徒への調査結果を用いて、ゲームの利点、TBL 授業を作り出す過程、そして明らかになった課題に関して、場面間を比較する。私達の目的は、協力的ゲームはオーセンティックであり、知的な活動であり、多くの言語使用の機会を与えることを示し、TBL 法の台として適していると証明することである

This essay examines the implementation and benefits of integrating cooperative board games into the classroom in three separate learning contexts: high school, university, and business classes. Humans have long used games as a source of entertainment and have been credited as having great social importance. According to the ancient Greek historian, Herotodus, games were played as far back as 2,500 years ago by the Lydians (2010). They used sheep knuckles as dice and used games to stave off an 18-year famine by diverting their focus. This shows the power of games to capture the attention and interest of the players, characteristics that teachers often strive for when creating activities for the classroom. However, the power of games as a pedagogical tool extends beyond simply diversion or entertainment.

The game used in this study, Forbidden Island, is a cooperative board game. Most traditional board games like Chess, Monopoly, The Game of Life, and Othello are competitive board games. The goal of competitive board games is to defeat your opponents to become the sole winner of the game. This is the most common type of board game. Recently, however, cooperative board games have been gaining popularity. These are games where the participants work together as a team to achieve a common goal. In other words, there is no single winner; participants win or lose together as a group. This promotes a group dynamic that encourages teamwork and camaraderie.

Through teacher observations and student surveys, we determined using cooperative games engages learners at all ability levels in each of our contexts. It does this providing a challenging and motivating environment where learners can use English in an authentic context, notice gaps in their language abilities, and use English as a tool to complete a fun and engaging task.

Cooperative Games and Task Based Learning

Cooperative games such as Forbidden Island are an ideal activity in a task-based learning curriculum. They fulfill the six basic criteria for communicative tasks, as described by Willis and Willis:

1. Engagement of learners' interest
2. A primary focus on meaning
3. An outcome
4. Success judged according to outcome
5. A focus on completion.
6. A relation to real-world activities. (2007: 12-14)

First, games clearly engage learner interest. They are defined as "an activity that one engages in for amusement or fun" ("game," n.d.). Forbidden Island engages player interest by being exciting. In the game, players are treasure hunters attempting to recover four magical treasures from an island designed to start sinking if anyone comes to it. It is also engaging because it is an exciting combination of logic and chance. Players have a high amount of known information. For example, they know what treasure cards they each have. Treasure cards are gained at the end of each player's turn and must be collected in sets to get the treasures. Also, the island is made of tiles laid out randomly within a fixed pattern. This means the players know where they will need to go to get treasures after completing sets. However, there are random elements. Especially important is the island sinking mechanism, which is done through a shuffled deck of "flood cards" that are negatively affected by certain cards hidden among the "treasure cards." These effects include making flooded parts of the island more likely to sink and be removed from the game, and an overall increase in the island's sinking rate. Second, playing games primarily focus students on meaning because they use meaningful language to perform a task rather than engaging in language drills. In Forbidden Island, the focus on meaning revolves around players discussing the best use of their limited actions based on the information they have and what they can predict will happen later. Next, games obviously have clear outcomes, for example, in Forbidden Island, you win by escaping with all four treasure or you lose if the game ends in any other way, for example, a treasure being permanently lost because it sank before it was recovered, or the team helicopter sinking leaving the players stranded. As such, in a game-playing context, success is always judged according to the outcome. Winning is synonymous with being successful. Similarly, in a game like Forbidden Island, there is a clear focus on task completion as the players want to win. Furthermore, the game has an island-sinking mechanism acting like a timer, so players are especially focused on completion before time runs out and the island sinks completely. Finally, playing a board game is not only related to a real-world activity, it *is* a real-world activity. Furthermore, the skills developed through playing such games, such as group discussion, consensus-building, and logical thinking relate usefully to many other real-world tasks. In this way, Vaittinen asserts modern tabletop games are beneficial to language classes, especially because they encourage authentic goal-orientated communication (2017: 186).

Method

The game was implemented to improve teaching practice. This study involved observing the success of integrating Forbidden Island into three learning contexts: high school, university, and lessons for businessmen at an international corporation in Osaka, Japan. The three contexts used largely similar methods to teach the game, with small variances in preparation, unit duration, and evaluation based on context. Observation methods were limited to notes made by the teachers (the authors) and a survey given to students after the game-playing units were complete.

School contexts

At the high school level, the game was used with 386 students divided into nine classes. Each class participated in the Forbidden Island unit for a total of nine 50-minute lessons each. The first five lessons were devoted to pre-task activities. These activities included conversation activities about games, a jumbled text reading to introduce the game's context, reading activities to set up the game, listening and watching tasks to learn the basic rules, and further such tasks to learn more advanced rules. In the sixth lesson, the students engaged in the task by playing the game for the entire class period. The seventh lesson was a focus on form activity analyzing a video on YouTube and the accompanying script. Focuses included spoken grammar, use of conditionals, and backchanneling. Students were then given another lesson to play the game. Groups that finished were introduced to game variants, such as increased difficulty or alternative island shapes. In the final lesson, students practiced and gave reports prepared for homework. These either summarized their final game and their use of English in that game or gave an evaluation of the game-based unit.

In the university classes, the game was used with a single class of 25 non-English majors at a national university. An hour to 90 minutes was devoted to the unit over the course of four lessons. The lesson was preceded by a unit on giving suggestions to prime students with English that is valuable to complete the task. In the first lesson of the unit, students read the story outlining the context of the game, underlined unknown words and attempted to guess their meanings through context in groups. The rules were explained in a scaffolded PowerPoint and learners began to play to become accustomed to the rules. The subsequent lesson involved an explanation of the final examination, which was an evaluation of students' ability to use English to play Forbidden Island. Next, groups were given one hour to play. Students were encouraged, but not required to use all English. In the following lesson, the students played the game for one more 50-minute session to prepare for the final exam. Afterwards, the students had a conversation about the ideal characters to use in the game. This was to prepare students to negotiate during the exam which character each person would play. While character selection is normally random, students were allowed to choose for the final evaluation. The evaluation measured student awareness of the rules, their frequency in participating to discussions of strategy in English, and the comprehensibility of the English used.

With adults, the game was used in four one-hour lessons for a group of 17 male employees at a global corporation. The first lesson involved practice of various suggestion starters (e.g., you should..., If I were you, I would..., etc.) and conversations about board games to prime learner interest. For homework, learners wrote about their favorite games in their journals and watched a YouTube video on how to play Forbidden Island. In the next lesson, learners memorized pertinent vocabulary words and quizzed each other before the backstory of the game was explained via PowerPoint with visual scaffolding. After a reading task to aid learners with setting up the game, they played a shortened version of the game to get become accustomed to it. For homework, learners watched a YouTube video of the game being played and wrote a journal entry describing the game to a friend. In the third lesson, groups were given fifty minutes to play, after which learners had a five-minute reflective conversation. Due to a large amount of absences in the previous class, learners played a full game the following lesson as well. They concluded the unit by creating original characters with special skills that could be played in the game.

Teacher notes and student survey

Teacher notes were made with attention given to learner engagement and language used while engaged in the task. Observation focused on whether students were playing the game and whether they were using English. The teachers also listened carefully to the language being used in the groups, especially comparing the playing before and after the focus-on-form activities. Although the high school classes had more students, the author had a teaching assistant for those lessons. The survey first asked students to give comments reviewing their game-playing performance in terms of clear and logical expression in English, active participation, and cooperation. Then it asked for assessment of the game-based unit in terms of improving English, discussion skills, and logical thinking.

Results

The teacher notes and student comments showed the implementation to have been successful. The latter are presented in Figure 1, a word cloud showing the frequently used words (the more frequent the use, the larger the font) from the survey responses that was generated via an online world cloud generator. While a more detailed presentation is beyond the scope of this article, the word cloud provides a view of the concepts that the students frequently wrote about.

Fig 1. *Student Survey Word Cloud*

Learners in all three contexts seemed highly motivated to complete the task. The scope and difficulty of vocabulary words required to understand the rules and participate in this game were larger than typical units, but students in each context were motivated by the challenge of playing the game. Importantly, in each context students of all levels remained engaged throughout the task. In other words, lower-level students did not lose interest due to the task being too difficult and higher-level ones did not lose interest due to it being too simple.

Regarding use of English, both the high school and adult groups successfully engaged in playing the game in English throughout the unit. The high school students were allowed to use Japanese if they had any questions. Other than this exception, they played the game without Japanese. The adult group did not use Japanese during the game. The university students, however, were very inconsistent in their use of English and Japanese. Some groups used English exclusively while others used mostly Japanese. This seemed to be caused be differing strategies for the evaluation. Since students were being evaluated on using English to play the game, some students felt it best to practice playing the game using English. Others, however, wanted to play in Japanese to ensure they understood the game before being evaluated playing in English. These students were willing to put their daily participation score in peril for the sake of the higher-stakes evaluation.

Discussion

Despite differences in language usage, implementation of the Forbidden Island unit was deemed successful in each context. Based on teacher observation and student surveys, the activities were highly motivating for nearly all students, accessible to a wide range of language levels, fostered group discussion, and created opportunities to practice English beyond the typical exam-oriented, grammar-focused experiences of many learners. Based on common or striking student comments, this section discusses how cooperative games interacted with the concepts of intellectual engagement; collaborative dialogue and collective scaffolding; noticing gaps; authenticity, challenge, and motivation; fun; and flow. (Note Japanese comments were translated by the authors, and some minor English errors were corrected.)

Intellectual engagement

One of the key aspects of this unit was it was intellectually engaging. One student wrote:

At first, I was surprised at playing the board game in lessons because I thought it was not equal to study. But after all, I changed my mind. It was good for us to play Forbidden Island because we had to read, speak, listen to English at the same time. It was difficult, but interesting too.

Students frequently commented on the enjoyable mix of difficulty and challenge. Another student explained, “we lost the last game but compared to the previous games in this one we talked lots and could choose the best way to proceed. As much as possible, I shared my ideas.” During games there were numerous times teammates had multiple potential ways to advance. This creates the challenge of discussing and choosing the best direction, a challenge which many students asserted they enjoyed.

Collaborative dialogue collective scaffolding

Learners also described participating in collaborative dialogue peers while playing the game. Collaborative Dialogue, defined by Swain (2000) as “dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building” (p. 102), allows learners to work together to speak at higher levels than they could individually. Donato (1994) stated “learners are capable of providing guided support to their peers during L2 interactions in ways analogous to expert scaffolding” (p. 51). Some learners playing Forbidden Island noticed this too. One noted, “...because it was a game, when I couldn’t use the right phrase, I could use simple words or gestures and then my group mates worked together to put it into full English.” Not only were students engaging in collaborative dialogue, but some were cognizant of it. Another student responded to the survey:

It was because everyone having the will to discuss in English and have big reactions raised the atmosphere. Whenever my speaking got stuck or I wasn’t sure what to do, my group helped me, and I was happy.

Cooperative games help to facilitate an atmosphere of collaborative dialogue and collective scaffolding.

Noticing gaps

Some students also reported playing Forbidden Island allowed them to notice gaps in their linguistic knowledge. According to Schmidt and Frota (1986), noticing occurs when language learners discover their interlanguage is different from the target language form. One student commented on this specifically, saying “I think that through Forbidden Island I have gotten used to English a little. I thought my ability to explain logically wasn’t good enough, so I want to review things like conjunctions.” Without being as specific as the student quoted, other students wrote about increasing their vocabulary or using a higher level of English to better explain themselves.

Authenticity, challenge, and motivation

Playing cooperative games in class adds a high degree of authenticity to the curriculum. Learners are partaking in a game created by native speakers for a native-speaking audience. Learners rose to the challenge of playing this difficult game perhaps not in spite of the difficulty but rather because of it. Mishan (2005) asserts “the very feature of authentic texts that is often perceived as an impediment to their use with language learners, difficulty, is in fact an advantage” (p. 45). One student expounded on the idea overcoming challenges brings pleasure: “Communicating my ideas and opinions to others was difficult, but I was always so happy in that moment where they understood what I was saying.” Pinner (2016), goes deeper into the processes of overcoming challenges in authentic materials. He states “the authentic content, being more challenging, is therefore more engaging. In other words, challenge connects authenticity to motivation and language acquisition.” Another student also connected the difficulty of the activity to increased motivation: “I think this game was a little hard for us. At first, we had no clue what we were doing. However, we in my group worked hard together, and it was good because we came to really get along.”

Fun

Another reason playing cooperative games in class increases motivation is they are fun. While personal tastes in games differ, no one disputes games are played because they are fun. In all three contexts, the teachers noted nearly all students were having fun playing the game. Lazzaro (2009) describes four different types of fun: hard fun, easy fun, altered states fun, and people factor. Hard fun is the enjoyment of overcoming obstacles or challenges. Easy fun involves exploration and discovery. Altered states fun is the term for the enjoyment of encountering new experiences, playing with new characters, and reacting to novel circumstances. Finally, the people factor refers to the enjoyment of social interaction, regardless of whether it is in competitive or cooperative contexts. It is our assertion playing Forbidden Island activated hard fun, altered states fun, and the people factor within the students. Many students also commented on the fun and enjoyment they derived from playing this game. Figure 1 shows the words *fun*, *enjoy*, and *enjoyed* were some of the most frequent words used in student survey responses. One example of which was a student who said, “we were constantly in a state of having fun trying to get our ideas across to group members while understanding their ideas.”

Flow

Part of what makes cooperative games so effective in the classroom is their ability to capture the attention and focus of students in a way lectures, practice exercises, and even many communicative language tasks cannot. Such games have the ability to enter learners into a state of flow, defined by Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi (2009) as “the experience of complete absorption in the present moment” (p. 195). Csikszentmihalyi (1975) specifically refers to games, asserting they “are obvious flow activities” and that “play is the flow activity *par excellence*” (p. 37). Indeed, as we observed the students playing Forbidden Island in all three contexts, they were completely immersed in the game and deeply invested in the outcome.

Conclusion

The exploration of these three implementations show board games are recommended in secondary, tertiary, and adult-language contexts. In each of these contexts, learners are motivated by the intellectual challenge and by the inherent fun of the game mechanics and story. This increased motivation leads to heightened engagement which helps stimulate second language acquisition.

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30 Cultivating a Willingness to Communicate: Practical Applications for the Japanese Junior High School English Classroom

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Through the administration of a quantitative survey, this study analyzed Japanese junior high school student self-reported willingness to communicate attitudes on language activities often conducted in the classroom. As WTC is a crucial component in foreign language speaking development, teachers in the EFL classroom must endeavor to develop and encourage student WTC in order to cultivate proficient speakers. Although changes are currently in place to change Japanese English education for 2020, at the time of this study, a focus on passing entrance exams resulted in grammar-translation teaching styles to prepare students for examinations, not communicative language teaching. Student attitudes on language learning activities from the survey provided the foundation for identifying teaching strategies that specifically targeted increasing WTC. The results indicated that CLT activities do, in fact, improve students' self-reported WTC in English.

本研究では、日本人中学生に英語科の授業で一般的に行われる様々なアクティビティに対し、自身の Willingness to Communicate (WTC) を評価してもらい、その結果を分析した。外国語のスピーキング力の向上において、WTC は極めて重要であり、英語教員は学生の WTC を向上させるべく取り組むべきである。現在日本の英語教育は、2020 年に向け改革が進んでいるが、本調査を実施した当時は、高等教育機関の入学試験に合格することに重きが置かれ、Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)ではなく、文法訳読式の指導が一般的であった。本量的調査により、英語科授業のアクティビティに対する学生の反応が得られ、彼らの WTC を向上させるために最も有効な指導法を見出すための基礎を築くことができた。本調査の結果、CLT こそ学生の WTC を向上させる指導法であるということが確認できた。

This quantitative survey research investigation focused on identifying learner attitudes towards communicative language teaching (CLT) practices to develop teaching strategies that improve student willingness to communicate (WTC) in the classroom. WTC can be most easily defined as an eagerness to use language when given the opportunity to do so (Bradley, 2013). The concept of student WTC is particularly important for teachers working abroad with English as a foreign language (EFL) as students' opportunities to use English are often found only within the classroom environment. A common belief among EFL teachers is that English should be taught using CLT techniques in order to increase motivation and willingness to communicate. In the Japanese junior high school (JHS) EFL classroom, however, traditional grammar-translation teaching methods remain the preferred teaching approach for English. Therefore, English learners' needs are not being met.

Previous research related to Japanese learner WTC failed to provide useful, practical teaching methods for the EFL classroom (Weaver, 2009). Therefore, through the administration of a quantitative WTC opinion survey, teaching strategies were identified that specifically target student WTC in English based on in-classroom teaching activities presented to students in the survey; thus, the results of this research project help to fill the gaps in current WTC research.

Research Question

What language teaching activities would Japanese junior high school students identify as having a positive impact on their self-reported WTC in the English classroom?

The Impact of Japanese Sociocultural Factors on English Education

Recent historical and cultural research of Japanese English education highlighted challenges currently facing the Japanese ministry of education. In Japan, entering a prestigious university is the primary goal of secondary education (Bradley 2013; Hosoki, 2011; Maftoon & Ziafar, 2013; Yashima et al., 2004). Samimy and Kobayashi (2004) compiled research on Japanese learner English motivational factors and discovered that as “the date for university exams draws nearer, students expect their teachers to focus on [entrance examination English] since the entrance exams will affect the future success of their lives” (p. 251). However, separate studies showed that this type of grammar-translation English teaching, commonly used in Japanese English classrooms, constituted one of the largest demotivating factors for students learning English (Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009; Kikuchi, 2009). It is essential to note here, however, that the Japanese ministry of education is planning on amending the entrance examinations to include communicative components from 2020. Although this proposed change will surely cause alterations to junior high school English education in Japan in the future, at the time of this research (2016), entrance examinations remained unchanged.

Japanese English Education and its Impact on Japanese Learning Styles

The reliance on grammar-translation teaching techniques, therefore, significantly impacts Japanese student learning styles. Analyzing Japanese student learning style was the next step in understanding WTC in English. One study conducted by Ken Hyland (1993) analyzed the connection between culture and learning style among Japanese students and found “that the Japanese education system does not seem to value independence nor assign creative or imaginative tasks…[where] classes are teacher-centered and students are expected to be passive” (p. 73). Hosoki’s (2011) report of the history of Japanese education also supports how this learning environment creates learners who have a deference to authority, passive learning attitudes, humbleness, and a fear of making mistakes, which makes learners timid in expressing themselves freely and inhibits the development of communication skills. From this research, a clearer connection can be made between Japanese culture, English education, and learning styles.

Willingness to Communicate Research and Japanese EFL Learners

Willingness to communicate (WTC) has become a popular second language acquisition research topic to study over the last 20 years. Within WTC research a popular method of data analysis was the use of surveys or questionnaires to determine student opinions or attitudes towards WTC, which provided the basis for using a survey for this research (Chu, 2008; Iwamoto, 2014; Osterman, 2014; Watanabe, 2013; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004). Within the literature on WTC and EFL learners, one common theme appeared: the need for communicative in-class activities to improve student WTC. Many studies echoed this need (Ayedoun et al., 2015; Aubrey, 2011; Bradley, 2013; Chu, 2008; Maftoon & Ziafar, 2013; Matsuoka et al., 2014; Osterman, 2014). However, as Weaver argued, recent WTC research simply suggested that there is a need for these kinds of activities in the classroom. He stated “most suggestions [for pedagogical changes] have been limited to recommendations of trying to create a classroom environment that maximizes learners’ level of self-perceived competence while reducing their anxiety” (2009, p. 9). Prior research has not clarified models of useful, practical, implementable instructional approaches or strategies that have been shown to be effective in enhancing student WTC. Thus, this study addressed the previously identified gaps and shortcomings found in current WTC research.

Methodology

Design

The quantitative survey research data-collecting phase of the study involved distributing a questionnaire to 3rd year junior high school Japanese EFL learners. There is a particular reason why surveys were administered to only the 3rd year students. At the time of survey distribution, this researcher had co-taught English to the survey participants for approximately two and a half years, since they first started junior high school. The rational for this choice came from a study where Japanese students who received instruction from a native speaker for two years or more often favored group or communicative learning (Hyland, 1993, p. 80). The question items on the survey itself identified if particular traditional and communicative language teaching activities did or did not increase student self-perceived WTC. These items were marked using a 1-5 Likert scale. Since many Likert scale style WTC studies have been conducted before, this researcher adapted and modified concepts from other research (Aubrey, 2011; Matsuoka et al., 2014; Ockert, 2015; Tomoko et al., 2002). To ensure student comprehension of the survey items, however, they were translated into Japanese. Additionally, as research suggested that allowing EFL students to self-report their beliefs and attitudes toward self-perceived communicative competence and WTC results in a positive relationship, this researcher believed that using a survey, as a tool, would deliver accurate results (Weaver, 2009). The results were then coded and categorized to inform this researcher's project goal, identifying specifically targeted communicative teaching strategies that increase Japanese EFL learner WTC in English.

Participants and Setting

The survey was given to 3rd year junior high school students at a school in northern Hyogo, Japan. The population for this study was selected by purposive, or judgment sampling, as this researcher was employed at the participating junior high school. Due to the fact that the Japanese ministry of education mandated an English curriculum that is ubiquitously taught throughout Japanese junior high schools, this sample provided an adequate representation of Japanese junior high school students throughout Japan. As the students being surveyed for this project were under 18, a consent form was required. After receiving approval from the school to conduct the research, an IRB approved letter of consent (Appendix B & C) was translated and distributed to students to take home for parents to sign. In total, 86 (*N*=86) consent forms were received with parental signatures and only those students were surveyed. Only 3rd year students were selected at the junior high school for this project because at the time of the survey distribution, they had over two years of formal English education, as opposed to 1st or 2nd year students who had less exposure to the English language classroom.

Data Collection Instruments: Quantitative Survey

A Japanese translated survey was the tool used to obtain student opinions on WTC for this project (Appendix A). The question items were adapted and modified from previous researchers' concepts and questionnaires to best fit this project's Japanese junior high school learning scenario (Matsuoka et al., 2014; Ockert, 2015). The activities chosen for survey items 1-12 were designed with Japanese junior high school students in mind. These questions asked students to share their opinions and attitudes about their own WTC in English on a 1-5 scale. Students were presented with a teaching activity and determined if the activity was enjoyable and could potentially increase their willingness to use English by choosing strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5). However, it should be noted that survey item 6, *recording my voice for pronunciation and grammar practice*, was not an activity that students had experienced at this point in this study and may have impacted survey results for this item. Student opinions interpreted from the survey results were then collected, scored, and analyzed to identify practical and implementable teaching strategies that can be used by English teachers in Japan.

Analysis Overview

The data received from the Likert scale survey results was analyzed using an IBM's statistical analysis program SPSS for conducting the descriptive analysis, internal consistency, and survey reliability results. Out of the 194 consent forms sent home to students' guardians, 86 were received. Therefore, a total of 86 (*N*=86) surveys were used in the data analysis.

Descriptive Analysis Results

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics for all 12 survey items that answers the research question regarding students' attitudes of self-perceived WTC on activities deemed as traditional and communicative. The students' opinions, as displayed by Table 1, indicated interesting findings. The lowest M scores were Recording voice (M = 2.67), Repeating from text (M = 3.05), and Lecture (M = 3.05). The top three scores for M include Small Group/Team Activities (M = 3.94), Problem solving activities (M = 3.85), and Moving around the room activities (M = 3.61). This data shows that students did, in fact, feel that communicative activities would increase their WTC in English.

Table 1:

The Descriptive Statistics for the Twelve Teaching Activities (N = 86)

Variable		*M*	*SD*
Teaching Activities			
1.	Pair work	3.47	.90
2.	Small group/ team activities	3.94	.92
3.	English Presentations	3.15	.96
4.	Moving around the room activities	3.61	1.12
5.	Problem solving activities	3.85	.89
6.	Recording voice	2.67	.79
7.	Lecture	3.04	1.04
8.	Listening exercises	3.34	.92
9.	Repeating from text	3.05	.93
10.	Translation exercises	3.37	.98
11.	Writing exercises	3.23	.94
12. Grammar drills with workbook		3.15	.91

Note. Answered on a 5-point Likert scale in which 1 = the activity feels that it would strongly not motivate or increase their WTC and a 5 = the

Internal Consistency Results

When conducting Likert scale survey research, it is necessary to determine if a survey tool has internal consistency. This type of analysis measures if items on the survey are similar to each other in content. The internal consistency reliability of the scales measured using Cronbach's alpha for this survey of 12 items was α = .828, thus indicating a high reliability among the items (George and Mallery as cited in Gliem, J. & Gliem, R., 2003).

The survey's ability to measure two separate dimensions of communicative and traditional teaching activities was confirmed using a Principal Component Analysis (statistics.laerd.com, 2016). With regards to having an adequate sample size for conducting a PCA, research showed that there was no agreed upon definitive value (Osborne & Costello, 2004, p. 1). Bartlett and Kline (1981), however, suggested that any survey with a sample of n of 50 or above is adequate for a PCA analysis (Bartlett & Kline as cited in Osborne & Costello, 2004, p. 1). Therefore, for the sake of this analysis, a sample size of 86 was enough to perform the PCA displayed in Table 2.

Survey Reliability Analysis Results

The survey reliability analysis section details the results of the KMO Bartlett's test and the PCA. The data from these results answered the question regarding the reliability of the survey to measure student opinions based on the two categories of communicative and traditional activities. Before a PCA can be conducted, a KMO and Bartlett's test of Sphericity was required to determine if a PCA can be adequately performed on the data set. Therefore, the KMO and Bartlett's test results are explained first. According to statistical researcher Henry Kaiser, a KMO factor of .8 and above indicates a "meritorious," or second-best level, for PCA ability (Kaiser, 1974, p. 35). The results of the KMO sampling adequacy value of the 12 teaching activities showed a level of .806, meaning that a PCA factor analysis was useful for this data set sample. Additionally, when looking at the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, a data set is significant if the p value is less than .05. These data showed a highly significant Bartlett measure of $p < 0.001$ further confirming that factor analysis was appropriate for these data. The KMO and Bartlett's test provided the necessary confirmation to ensure that a PCA can be utilized effectively.

Table 2 shows the results of a PCA of the 12 teaching activity survey items. The data in the PCA indicates the degree in which a variable item loaded to the teaching categories factors of traditional or communicative. The PCA concretely displays where variables clustered according to the two factors. Conducting a PCA with smaller sample sizes requires a loading cutoff to determine where the item values will fall into which factor. For doing a PCA with N – sizes less than 200, researcher Stevens suggested that the cutoff to determine factors should be .40; therefore, a level near .40 was used to determine the factors for this data set (Stevens as cited in Ockert, 2015, p. 15). This PCA factor analysis shows that two factors were significant. As expected, the variables clustered into 2 factor groups.

Table 2

The Rotated Component Matrix from a PCA Factor Analysis of the Twelve Teaching Activities (N = 86)

Variable	Factor 1 *Traditional*	Factor 2 *Communicative*
1. Pair work		.790
2. Small group/ team activities		.810
3. English Presentations	.374	.612
4. Moving around the room act.		.718
5. Problem solving activities		.790
6. Recording voice		.398
7. Lecture	.832	
8. Listening exercises (CD/DVD)	.832	
9. Repeating from text	.849	
10. Translation exercises	.753	
11. Writing exercises	.800	
12. Grammar drills with workbook	.821	
Eigenvalues	4.78	2.937
% Total rotated variance explained per factor	36.479	24.474

Note. Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation and Kaiser Normalization with 60.954 % variance explained.

The factors were distinguished by which variables loaded to what side. As previously mentioned, items 1-7 were to be considered communicative language teaching activities while 7-12 were to be considered traditional grammar-translation based activities. Therefore, factor 1 was labeled traditional and factor 2 was labeled as communicative. In order to better interpret the loadings for each value, an absolute value was set at suppressing values less than 0.3. Variable 6, recording voice for grammar and pronunciation practice, shows a low loading to the communicative language factor and therefore might want to be removed or altered for further research. Additionally, variable 3, English presentations, had a slight cross-loading of .374 on the traditional activities factor that also may need to be altered or investigated further. Excluding variable 6, recording voice for grammar and pronunciation practice, these data revealed that the survey was composed of two subscales: traditional teaching activities and communicative teaching activities. This was a desired outcome for this project because the researcher was interested in student opinions on two differing types of teaching activities in the classroom; therefore, this survey can be said to have a relatively strong reliability in garnering student opinions based on the two factors of traditional and communicative teaching activities.

Discussion

The survey utilized in this study helped explore students' attitudes and opinions about what teaching activities they believed would increase or improve their WTC in English in the classroom. The results from this study, however, should not lead readers to assume that students participating in the CLT activities would have any measurable improvements in their WTC; this main goal of this research was to garner study attitudes and opinions on those activities. Additionally, this researcher acknowledges that changes are currently in place to include speaking components on university entrance examinations, however, this research focused solely on English instruction at the Japanese JHS level.

Student attitudes on teaching activities

Results from the survey revealed that students did, in fact, identify that communicative language activities would increase their motivation and willingness to use English in the classroom. In particular, the top mean scores for teaching activities that students believed would increase their WTC were the communicative activities of small group/team activities (M = 3.94), problem solving activities (M = 3.85), and moving around the room activities (M = 3.61). This finding was consistent with previously identified research. Research indicated that Japanese students desired more communicative, group orientated, and free-task type activities in the classroom (Hyland, 1993, p. 80; Osterman, 2014, p. 6; Terauchi, 1995 & Davies, 2006 as cited in Bradley, 2006, p. 26). The students' attitudes towards the teaching activities in this study aligned with the sentiments of students indicated in previous studies; that is, an inclination to believe that communicative tasks would increase their willingness to communicate in English in the classroom. Additionally, a factor that could have influenced students' opinions was the duration of time the survey participants were co-taught English by this researcher. As previously mentioned, according Hyland (1993), Japanese students who received instruction from a native speaker for two years or more were more inclined to favor group or communicative learning styles. It is also important to note that this researcher often used the top three activities students identified as motivating their WTC in the classroom. Therefore, because the survey participants had been taught from the same English teacher for over two years at the time of survey administration, there could be a connection in students believing that small group/team activities (M = 3.94), problem solving activities (M = 3.85), and moving around the room activities (M = 3.61) would increase their WTC in the classroom.

The three lowest scored teaching activities were recording voice for pronunciation practice (M = 2.67), repeating from text (M = 3.05), and lecture (M = 3.05). The traditional activities of lecture and repeating from the text low score results also echoed previously identified research. Lecture and Repeating from the text style teaching activities require a passive role from the students. Therefore, students could have scored these activities low due to a desire to take part in activities that are communicative, require active participation, and those that do not focus so intensely on grammar (Hyland, 1993, p. 80; Osterman, 2014, p. 6). An additional interesting discovery was the surprisingly low score received for recording voice for pronunciation practice. Although this teaching activity was considered to be communicative in nature, students identified this score as the teaching activity that would least motivate their WTC in the classroom. There is a possible reason why recording voice scored so much lower than all the other items. Out of all the twelve teaching activities listed in the survey, recording voice was the only teaching activity students did not experience in class. Therefore, it could be assumed that students were reluctant to indicate a more positive opinion about their WTC in English on an activity they have never previously done in class. For future WTC research on student opinions of teaching activities, researchers may want to only include activities that students have already experienced in class.

Implications, Limitations and Considerations for further research

This research study contributed to an aspect of WTC research that was rarely explored, identifying Japanese junior high students' attitudes towards their self-reported WTC and practical teaching activities in the English language classroom. As previous research lamented, the current status of current WTC failed to provide practical teaching strategies that aimed at improving students WTC in English in the classroom (Weaver, 2009). Although this research was unable to make definitive claims on particular teaching methods that could, in fact, improve students' WTC in the classroom, it undeniably exposed the attitudes students have towards their self-perceived WTC to communicate. As WTC in English is a crucial component in the journey towards proficiency, the results of student attitudes provide teachers with invaluable information that can inform their language instruction decisions in ways that improve students' motivation to use English in the classroom. Teachers must recognize the importance of fostering students WTC through effective implementation ofcommunicative activities in the classroom.

There are several limitations in this study that could be addressed and improved in future WTC research. One limitation of this study that requires improvement was the sample size. Due to a variety of factors, only one junior high school in Japan was surveyed. Therefore, due to the small sample size, the results of this survey cannot be generalized for a larger Japanese population. Future WTC research involving junior high school students should consider including a larger sample size of junior high schools throughout all of Japan. Some other unaddressed issues that would improve future WTC research include finding answers to the following questions: Why do students identify one teaching strategy that would increase their WTC over another? Does having a native English speaker in the classroom have an influence on students' WTC in English in the classroom? Which teaching activities show measurable improvement in students' WTC? Does actual student experience with the activities on the survey make a difference on their self-reported WTC? One way to answer these questions could be to conduct a mixed-methods approach that utilizes a before and after assessment of students' WTC along with interviews of students. As discovered in Osterman's (2014) study, research that included interviews of participants added the human element, which was necessary for truly deciphering student WTC needs. As WTC research continues to move forward, it is the hope of this researcher that the results of this study could provide English teachers and curriculum developers with insight into the types of in-class teaching activities that could positively influence student WTC in the English language classroom.

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Author biography

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Appendix A: WTC Opinion Survey

This is a survey to get your opinions about activities in the English classroom and English in Japan and your life. Section one will ask for your opinion about English activities in the classroom. Please circle the number that best matches your opinion.

このアンケートは、英語についての生徒のみなさんの意見を聞くために行うものです。設問１は、英語の授業における活動（アクティビティ）についての質問が書かれています。それぞれの質問について、最も当てはまる番号に○をしてください。

Section 1

What classroom activities are enjoyable and motivating for you to use English?

設問１

英語の授業において、どんな活動が「楽しい」「やる気が出る」と感じますか？

1. 全くそう感じない　2.そう感じない　3.どちらでもない　4. そう感じる　5.とてもそう感じる

1. Pair work ペアでの練習	1 2 3 4 5
2. Small group/ team activities 小グループ／チームでの練習	1 2 3 4 5
3. Doing English presentations and assessing English ability 英語で発表をし、お互いを評価する活動	1 2 3 4 5
4. Activities where I am moving around the room and talking with others. 教室を歩き回って会話を行う活動	1 2 3 4 5
5. Problem solving activities 問題解決型の活動 例: 複数のヒントの英文から答えを当てるゲーム等	1 2 3 4 5
6. Recording my voice for pronunciation and grammar practice 発音や文法練習のために、声を録音する活動	1 2 3 4 5
7. Lecture (listen to the teacher and stay in my seat) 席に座って聞く授業	1 2 3 4 5
8. Listening exercises (using a CD or DVD) CDやDVDを使った聞く練習（リスニング練習）	1 2 3 4 5
9. Repeating practice from text 先生やCDに続いて教科書を読む練習（リピート練習）	1 2 3 4 5
10. Translation exercises 翻訳練習(英語から日本語、日本語から英語に訳す）	1 2 3 4 5
11. Writing exercises 書く練習（ライティング練習）	1 2 3 4 5
12. Grammar drills/practice with workbooks. ワーク等を用いての文法練習	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix B: Consent Letter

RESEARCH SUBJECT INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to gain student opinions about English instruction in the classroom and will be used to further inform the instruction of foreign English teachers in Japan.

Your child is being asked to participate in this study because she is taking English classes at Toyooka Minami Junior High School.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AND YOUR [YOUR CHILD'S] INVOLVEMENT

If you decide to allow your child to be in this research study, you will be asked to sign this consent form after you have had all your questions answered and understand what will happen to your child.

In this study, your child will answer 15 questions based on English classroom instructional activities and measure how their motivation to speak English will be affected. The process will take only 15 minutes at the beginning of English class.

For example: Working in pairs increases my motivation to use English in the classroom.

1 2 3 4 5

RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

There are no risks or discomforts involved. Your child will simply be filling out a short survey at the beginning of English class.

BENEFITS TO YOU AND OTHERS

You may not get any direct benefit from this study, but, the information we learn from this study may help English teachers improve instruction in the Japanese English classroom.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Potentially identifiable information about your child will consist of surveys, however their name is not required or necessary to be on the survey itself. Data is being collected only for research purposes.

Data will be identified by only by class numbers, not names, and stored separately from the research data in a secured locked area. All personal consent files will be kept for a period of 2-3 months and discarded after the research is complete. Access to parent consent forms and student surveys will be limited to study personnel only.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You do not have to participate in this study. If you choose to participate, you may stop at any time without any penalty. You may also choose not to answer particular questions that are asked in the study.

QUESTIONS

If you have any questions, complaints, or concerns about your participation in this research, contact:

Mr. Benjamin Rentler: Assistant Language Teacher # 090-8123-3180

and/or

Mr. Kawasaki: JHS 3rd Year English Teacher # 080-4495-6919

The researcher/study staff named above is the best person(s) to call for questions about your participation in this study.

If you have any general questions about your rights as a participant in this or any other research, you may contact:

DSU IRB Committee

DeSales University

2755 Station Ave

Center Valley, PA 18034

Telephone: (610) 282-1100

Contact this number to ask general questions, to obtain information or offer input, and to express concerns or complaints about research. You may also call this number if you cannot reach the research team or if you wish to talk with someone else. General information about participation in research studies can also be found at http://www.desales.edu/irb

I have been given the chance to read this permission form. I understand the information about this study. Questions that I wanted to ask about the study have been answered. My signature says that I am willing for my child to participate in this study. I will receive a copy of the consent form once I have agreed to participate.

____

Name of Child

____

PRINTED Name of Parent or Legal Guardian

____ ________________

Parent or Legal Guardian Signature Date

____

PRINTED Name of Person Conducting Informed Consent

Discussion / Witness

____ ________________

Signature of Person Conducting Informed Consent Date

Discussion / Witness

____ ________________

Principal Investigator Signature (if different from above) Date

Appendix C: Japanese Translated Consent Letter

平成 28 年 9 月 26 日

保護者の皆様へ

豊岡市立豊岡南中学校

ALT ベンジャミン・レントラー

英語教授法研究の調査へのご協力のお願い

英語科の ALT（アシスタントランゲージティーチャー、外国語指導助手）として授業を担当しておりますベンジャミン・レントラーと申します。本校で英語科の授業を担当する傍ら、外国人教諭による授業の質と効果を高めるべく、英語科教授法の研究を行っており、この度研究の一環として、3 年生を対象にしたアンケート調査を実施したいと考えております。つきましては、保護者の皆様にアンケート調査の内容をご理解いただき、お子様のアンケート調査への参加に同意いただきたく、ご連絡させていただいた次第です。

本アンケート調査の目的は、外国人教諭による英語の授業に関する生徒の意見を集め、またこの情報を日本にいる外国人教諭と共有し、授業の向上につなげることにあります。

アンケートは、授業体系（ペアでの練習、グループでの練習等）に関する設問で構成され、それぞれの授業体系が生徒の「英語で話したい」という意欲にどう影響するかを測るものです。所要時間は 10 分で、授業の初めに行います。

例）ペアでの練習は、英語で話しやすい。

1　2　3　4　5（1：全くそう思わない・・・5：とてもそう思う）

このアンケートは匿名で行われ、得られた情報は、本研究の関係者のみが閲覧でき、英語教授法の研究の目的にのみ使用されます。

以上をご理解いただき、お子様がアンケート調査に参加することに同意いただける場合は、以下にご署名いただき、お子様を通じて、10/11（火）までに各担任にご提出いただくようお願いいたします。

ご意見、ご質問等がございましたら、豊岡南中学校（0796-22-2546）までご連絡ください。

担当：ベンジャミン・レントラー

調査に関するより一般的なご質問、ご意見に関しては、以下の連絡先にもお問い合わせいただけます。

デサレス大学（DeSales University）

DSU 倫理審査委員会

住所：2755 Station Ave, Center Valley, PA 18034

電話番号: (610) 282-1100

-------------------------------- 切り取り線 ---

お子様のお名前　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　日付

____組____番___________________________________　　　　_____________

保護者のお名前　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　日付

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31 Desirable Difficulties in Reading via Typographic Disfluency and L2 Learners

Cameron Romney
Doshisha University

Research with L1 readers has shown that using an unfamiliar typeface creates reading disfluency and increases student performance (Diemand-Yauman, Oppenheimer, & Vaughan (2010). However, Romney (2018b) has suggested typographic disfluency negatively impacts L2 learners and further predicts that using the same typeface as their coursebooks should increase reading performance. To test these two assumptions, 68 students in three intermediate level general English classes at a Japanese university engaged in an exploratory reading assignment. Students were given one of three handouts at random: one with the coursebook typeface, one with a equally common typeface, and one with a disfluent typeface. Results show that students reading text using the same typeface as the coursebook had the fastest time completion and highest comprehension rates. Students engaged in disfluent reading had the slowest time completion and the lowest comprehension rates. This study argues that disfluent typefaces negatively impact L2 learners.

第一言語で何かを読む場合, 見慣れない書体だと読み辛さが生じ, その結果生徒の成績が向上することを示す研究結果(Diemand-Yauman, Oppenheimer, & Vaughan (2010)が存在する。しかし，Romney (2018b)は見慣れない書体は第二言語学習者に悪影響を及ぼし, 教科書で使用されている書体を使用した場合に読解の成績が向上すると提言する。この 2 点の仮説を証明するため, 日本の大学において一般英語の授業の中級クラス３つで学ぶ計 68 名の生徒が調査目的の読解課題に取り組んだ。生徒には 3 種類の課題の中からランダムに選ばれた 1 種類が与えられた。それらは教科書と同じ書体, 教科書の書体と同等の一般的書体, そして見慣れない書体で作成された。調査を実施したところ, 教科書と同じ書体の課題に取り組んだ生徒たちが一番早く課題を終え, かつその理解度も一番高いという結果を示した。見慣れない書体の課題に取り組んだ生徒たちは課題を終えるのが一番遅く理解度も一番低いという結果となった。そのため, 見慣れない書体は第二言語学習者に悪影響を及ぼすと言う説は妥当だろう。

Reading fluency is one of the core components of reading and is often neglected in L2 instruction (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). Reading fluency is a reader's ability to quickly and easily make sense of a text (Anderson, 2014). It is influenced by a number of factors including the reader's L2 linguistic and discourse knowledge, background knowledge on the topic, and cognitive abilities (Ediger, 2001). However, reading fluency is primarily determined by word recognition, which consists of both visual decoding and semantic retrieval (Han, 2015). Typography is the visual representation of language on the page (Drucker, 1984) and highly influences visual decoding. If the text on the page is difficult to make out, reading fluency suffers. This paper explores the intersection between visual decoding via typography and reading fluency for L2 learners.

Typeface Familiarity and Reading (dis)Fluency

A long held tenant of typography is that the typeface that promotes the best reading fluency is the typeface that is most familiar to the reader (Beier & Larson, 2013; Felici, 2012; Garfield, 2011; Romney, 2018a). As typographer Zuzana Licko (1990) put it, “readers read best what they read most” (p. 12). For L2 learners, it has been suggested that the typeface with the most familiarity, and therefore the best fluency, is the typeface found in the student's textbook (Romney, 2018a).

While experimental research comparing the efficacy of different typefaces is often problematic (Beier, 2012; Nedeljković, Puškarević, Banjanin, & Pintier, 2013) numerous studies have shown that unfamiliar typefaces are less fluently read then familiar ones (see for example, Slattery & Rayner, 2010 or Danna, Massendari, Furnari, & Ducrot, 2018) strongly implying that typeface familiarity is directly connected to reading fluency.

On the other hand, Diemand-Yauman, Oppenheimer, and Vaughan (2010) demonstrated that disfluent reading with reading materials that are artificially made difficult by means of an unfamiliar, and therefore challenging-to-read typeface, as well as small text sizes and poor reproduction, can benefit students. They found that students did better on recall and comprehension tests when reading passages were made difficult to read. They theorized that their results were due to desirable difficulties (Bjork, 1994) that caused the students to process the material more deeply, more abstractly, and more carefully. Similar results were also reported by Weltman and Eakin (2014).

Katzir, Hershko, and Halamish (2013) had mixed results with students reading texts made disfluent, not by changing the typeface but manipulating the font size, line spacing, and line length. In their two studies older students in the 5th grade had higher comprehension scores with disfluent reading passages, but younger students in the 2nd grade did not.

While these studies make a strong argument that teachers should at least consider making their teaching materials difficult to read, the results of these studies are not necessarily applicable to EFL teachers in Japan. The studies by Diemand-Yauman, Oppenheimer and, Vaughan (2010) and Weltman and Eakin (2014) were done in the United States with university undergraduates and high school students in advanced placement and honors courses. While not indicated for either study, presumably the research participants were likely to all have been native speakers of English. The research by Katzir, Hershko, and Halamish (2013) was done in Israel and neither the language of the experiment nor the language ability (i.e. native speakers) were reported.

In contrast to these disfluent reading research studies, many reading scholars suggest that anything that increases a readers cognitive load, for example using an unfamiliar typeface, will not only decrease their reading fluency but also lower their comprehension of the text (Cotter, 2012; Gasser, Boeke, Haffernan, & Tan, 2005; Rasinski & Samuels, 2011). Romney (2018b) has suggested that the L2 itself is enough of a cognitive load that no additional benefit can be gained by disfluent reading and may in fact interfere with comprehension.

Finally, a number of studies of L2 extensive reading have shown that gains in reading fluency are often accompanied by gains in comprehension by L2 readers (see Iwahori 2008 for a summary of selected extensive reading research); therefore, it seems more likely that disfluent reading will have an adverse effect on L2 readers.

Aims of the Study

This study seeks to test Romney's (2018a & 2018b) assertions that 1) students will perform the best on a reading task if the reading passage uses the same typeface as the students' textbook and 2) that students will have decreased reading fluency, and therefore perform worse on comprehension exercises, if a disfluent typeface is used.

The following research questions are proposed: 1) Do students perform better on reading tasks when the most familiar typeface (i.e. the textbook typeface) is used? 2) Are students negatively impacted by a disfluent typeface? The following answers to these questions are anticipated: 1) Students will perform better on reading tasks that use the same typeface as the textbook; and 2) students will be negatively impacted by a disfluent typeface. Stated as null hypotheses: 1) There will be no difference in student performance on reading tasks with different typefaces; 2) students will not be negatively impacted by a disfluent typeface.

Methodology

Three first-year, intermediate level (approximately CEFR high B1 to low B2), general English

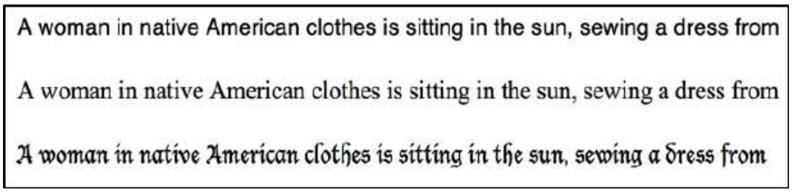

Figure 1. *The first line of the reading passage for all three handouts. Text from World English 2 Online Workbook, by K. L. Johannsen, 2015, Boston, MA: National Geographic Learning.*

courses at a private university in western Japan were chosen for the study. In total, the three courses had an enrollment of 80 students with 68 students participating in the study. All three courses had the same teacher, followed the same curriculum, and used the same textbook, *World English 2* (Chase & Johannsen, 2015). The investigation was conducted during the seventh week of the second semester of the academic year at which point the students had been using the coursebook for 22 weeks.

Materials

Included with the coursebook was an online workbook that had a number of different extra practice activities that followed both the theme and linguistic content of each chapter. Among these activities was an extra reading assignment. Students would download a .pdf file of a reading passage and then answer comprehension questions online. The extra reading passage for *Unit 9: Life in the Past* was chosen and adapted. Instead of reading online, the .pdf file was printed, students were given a handout, and answered the publisher provided comprehension questions on paper during class.

The reading passage was 346 words long, had a *Flesch Reading Ease* score of 61.7 which is approximately an 8th grade reading level (Flesch, 1979) or CEFR B2 (Linguapress, n.d.).

Three versions of the reading passage were created. First, students in the control group read the passage as prepared by the publisher. This handout used the same typeface as the coursebook and was identified as *Helvetica*. In order to test *Hypotheses 1*, students in the first experimental group read a handout whose typeface was changed to *Times New Roman*, a different typeface from the coursebook, but still a common typeface. Finally, to test *Hypotheses 2*, the students in the second experimental group read a handout using the disfluent typeface *Lucida Blackletter*.

Care was taken to ensure that all three handouts had as similar as possible typographic settings so that the only significant difference between the handouts was the typeface. All handouts had a similar line length and leading (line spacing). *Figure 1* shows the first line of the reading passage as it appeared in the three handouts; the top line is *Helvetica*, the middle line is *Times New Roman* and the bottom line is *Lucida Blackletter*.

The point size of all three typefaces was adjusted to ensure all three had a similar x-height (the measurement of the lowercase x from the baseline to the top of the letter) and therefore a similar letter size. *Figure 2* shows the three typefaces point sizes adjusted to make them appear similar in size when printed. On the left is *Helvetica* at 11 point, in the middle is *Times New Roman* at 12 point, and on the right is *Lucida Blackletter* at 11 point.

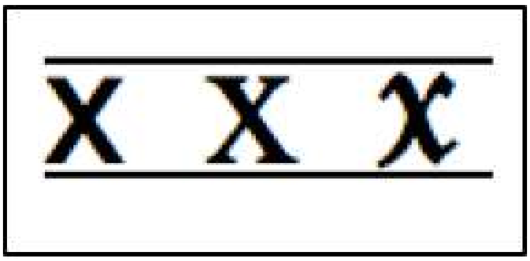

Figure 2. *Adjusted point size of the three typefaces to match x-heights.*

Procedure

In all three courses students were given one of the three handouts at random. They were instructed to take as much time as they needed to read the article and answer the five comprehension questions. When finished, they were instructed to bring their handout to the front of the class and give it to the teacher who noted the amount of time the student took to complete the assignment. After the class was over, the comprehension questions were graded.

Results

Of the 68 students who participated in the study, 22 each were randomly assigned to the *Control* and *Experimental 2* groups and 24 to the *Experimental 1* group.

Between the three groups, students in the *Control* group with the handout that used the same typeface as the textbook (i.e. the handout with the most familiar typeface) had the fastest time to completion (i.e. the highest reading fluency) and the highest comprehension scores on average. Students in the *Experimental 2* group using the handout with a disfluent typeface had the slowest times for completion (i.e. the worse reading fluency) and the lowest comprehension scores. *Table 1* lists all of the descriptive statistics.

In order to test validity between the three groups, two one-way ANOVA tables were generated using the online generator at statpages.info (Pezzullo, n.d.). The results of the ANOVA, one for time performance and one for comprehension scores are listed in *Table 2*.

Discussion

At first glance, the results seem to answer both research questions and contradict both null hypotheses as predicted. Students in the *Control* group had the best time performance and best comprehension scores on average and students in the *Experimental 2* group had the slowest time performance and the lowest comprehension scores. Students in the *Experimental 1* group fell between the other two. On average, students reading in the textbook typeface read the article approximately 16% faster and scored approximately 10% better on the comprehension questions compared to the students reading in the disfluent typeface.

	Control *Helvetica* n = 22		Experimental 1 *Times New Roman* n = 24		Experimental 2 *Lucida Blackletter* n = 22	
	Time	Score	Time	Score	Time	Score
Mean	7:21	3.64	7:27	3.58	8:28	3.27
Max	9:21	5	9:29	5	10:29	5
Min	4:10	1	6:11	0	7:03	0
Med	7:33	4	7:37	3	8:24	3
SD	0.00080654	1.04860245	0.00060493	1.21285386	0.00071330	1.31590339

Table 1 *Descriptive Statistics for Time and Comprehension Scores*

Time Performance

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Variance	F	*p*-value
Between Groups	16.9431	2	8.4716	8.1932	0.0007
Within Groups	67.2079	65	1.0340		
Total	84.1510	67			

Comprehension Scores

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Variance	F	*p*-value
Between Groups	1.7485	2	0.8743	0.6092	0.5469
Within Groups	93.2879	65	1.4352		
Total	95.0364	67			

Table 2 *One-way ANOVA Tables for Time and Comprehension Scores.*

It is also noteworthy that the students in the *Control* group also had the lowest maximum (9:21), minimum (4:10) and median (7:33) completion times. In addition, the students in the *Experimental 2* group had the highest maximum (10:29), minimum (7:03) and median (8:24) completion times. By every measure, students reading the article with the same typeface as the textbook had the highest reading fluency and students reading the article printed in a disfluent typeface had the lowest.

The comprehension scores tell a slightly different story. Students in the *Control* group had the highest mean (3.64), minimum (1) and median (4) scores. Students in the *Experimental 2* group had that lowest mean (3.27) and minimum (0), but some students in all three groups managed a perfect score of five. In fact, while the mean comprehension score was the highest for the *Control* group, only three students scored a perfect 5. In the *Experimental 1* group seven students had a perfect score of 5 and in the *Experimental 2* group four students had a perfect score of 5. So while the mean average score was higher, more students in both experimental groups scored a perfect 5 than in the *Control* group. This might be evidence for the disfluent hypothesis that when students take more time, they do better on comprehension tests, at least on an individual basis.

However, are these values statistically significant? The p-values from the ANOVAs indicate that while the time performance results are statistically significant with a p-value of 0.0007 (less then 0.05), the difference in comprehension scores with a p-value of 0.5469, is significantly greater than 0.05 and therefore not statistically meaningful.

The comprehension questions used for this study were the questions written by the workbook author for use with the reading passage. However, while the questions seem to test the students understanding, they are better thought of as hide-and-seek questions where the answer is hidden in the text and the students simply have to seek it out. For example, question number four provided by the publisher was: "How long did it take the colonists to arrive to America?" with three answer choices of "about 4 months, close to a year, a couple of months." The correct answer can be found on line 14 of the article in the sentence: "The colonists stayed on the crowded, dangerous ships for more than four months." The correct answer, "about 4 months," is a nearly word for word quote from the text.

As discussed by Nation (2009), these type of questions are problematic. If the student is not allowed to look at the text, then they are tests of memory and if the student is allowed to look at the text, they are questions of only being able to locate the answer. Neither are true tests of a student's comprehension of the reading passage. The questions provided by the publisher did not test the students' comprehension, but simply how well they could find the answers in the text. This may account for the high p-value; the results are not meaningful because the questions were not reliable measures of comprehension.

Finally, while Diemand-Yauman, Oppenheimer, and Vaughan (2010) had impressive results with students improved performance with disfluent reading, these results have not been generally reproducible (Kühl & Eitel, 2016) and as noted by Bjork and Yue (2016) the factors effecting comprehension and memory of learning materials are most likely after perceptual encoding, that is, after the physical act of reading, and may have nothing to do with typeface at all. The findings from this study appear to be in line with other research doubting the desirable difficulty effects of disfluent reading. It seems that there is no benefit for EFL materials to be printed in a disfluent typeface and it is therefore recommended that EFL textbooks publishers and teacher-writers producing their own learning materials should use a standard and familiar typeface.

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Cameron Romney has taught ESL/EFL in both the United States and Japan for over 20 years. He holds an MA in Applied Linguistics from the University of Colorado at Denver and a graduate certificate in Instructional Design from the University of Wisconsin Stout. His primary research interest is how the visual elements of language learning materials contribute to, or detract from, learning. In 2020 he was an assistant professor in the Global Communications Faculty of Doshisha University in Kyoto, Japan. *Email: cameron.romney@gmail.com*

32 Self-Generated Worksheets to Support Extended Oral Interaction

Jonathan Rowberry
Sojo University

David Ostman
Kumamoto Gakuen University

Christopher Ott
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Research suggests that “collaborative dialogue” is highly conducive to second language acquisition (Swain, 2000). Moreover, collaborative tasks in which responsibility for learning outcomes is shared among participants can have a positive effect on student motivation (Dornyei, 2001). A collaborative learning activity based on student-generated worksheets was introduced into English Communication classes for non-English major students at a Japanese university. The activity is designed to facilitate sustained student-led interactions in English of up to 80 minutes in duration and is readily adaptable according to topic and student level. This paper describes the learning materials and classroom procedures employed while considering some of the activity’s potential benefits in terms of both language development and learner motivation. In order to illuminate the discussion, data are presented in the form of comments extracted from written reflections in which students evaluated their performance and identified aspects of the activity that they found rewarding or challenging.

多くの研究では「協調的会話」は第二言語習得に非常に役立つと指摘している (Swain, 2000)。さらに、学習結果に対する責任を学習者間で共有する協調的活動は学生の学習動機に好影響を与えることがある(Dornyei, 2001)。学生が作成するワークシートを基にした協調的学習活動を日本の大学で英語専攻ではない学生達対象の英語コミュニケーションの授業に導入した。この活動は学生主体の８０分間の英語での会話継続の促進を目的としており、学生の習熟度や題目に合わせて容易に調節することができる。本論文では、この活動の言語育成と学習動機の両方における潜在的利益を考慮し、使用した学習教材と授業の手順を説明する。本論文の主旨を明確にするため、データは学生が書いた学習結果の自己評価、満足度や難易度など活動に関して認知した側面の振り返りからコメントを抜粋したものを提示している。

“Collaborative dialogue”, in which learners work together to “solve linguistic problems and/or co-construct language or knowledge about language” (Swain, Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller, 2002, p.171), has been claimed to be highly conducive to second language development. In collaborative dialogue, language is both a tool for communication and an object of study. This combination of the social and the cognitive is posited to be an important trigger for interlanguage development (Swain, 2006) and can enable learners to perform beyond their current level of competence (Swain, 2000). Moreover, collaborative learning tasks can reduce anxiety by distributing responsibility for learning outcomes among peers (Dornyei, 2001) and can support the three constructs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, claimed in self-determination theory to be key to nurturing learner motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

A collaborative learning activity based on student-generated worksheets, hereafter called Leader’s Worksheets (Wall Minami, 2016), was introduced at a Japanese university to scaffold extended oral interaction in English between language learner peers. The activity occupies a three-hour learning cycle within the fourth and final semester of a compulsory English Communication course for non-English major students. The students range from pre-A1 to B1 proficiency levels of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001), heavily clustered around the higher A1 and lower A2 levels, and their motivation towards studying English is highly variable. In other words, they are fairly representative of Japanese university students outside of public or elite private universities.

Each cycle consists of two class periods. In the first class students create worksheets using a pre-printed template with four sections corresponding to four different tasks: a vocabulary quiz, simple survey questions, a short personal narrative, and open discussion questions. Then in the subsequent class students use these worksheets to facilitate English conversations in small groups lasting 15 to 20 minutes per student leader, or up to 80 minutes in total, without direct teacher intervention. Both the worksheet creation process and the subsequent conversations are collaborative, student-centered activities with potential for gains in both language development and learner motivation. The worksheet serves a dual function. In the first class students collaborate to create it, then in the second they use it as a tool to scaffold interactions with new interlocutors. In both cases, it mediates communication and facilitates learning within the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978), allowing novice peers working together in one class to become expert peers directing the learning in the next.

The Leader's Worksheet Activity

Leader's Worksheet tasks

Leader's Worksheets serve to review and consolidate topics encountered during the previous three semesters, as well as to help students prepare for a final speaking test. In the first class, each group is assigned a topic then, in the second class, each member of the initial group leads a series of oral interaction tasks related to their topic in a new group. An example Leader's Worksheet is provided in Appendix A. The worksheet consists of four sections: Word Quiz, Quick Questions, My Story, and Discussion Questions, corresponding to four distinct tasks. The tasks are linked by the topic but progress from easy and structured towards more demanding and less structured allowing learners to build confidence as they work through the worksheet.

The first task, Word Quiz, is comprised of hints for key vocabulary items related to the topic. The leaders read the hints, and the group members try to guess the keywords. This is an ice-breaking task, which provides students with a fun, structured start to the activity. When creating items in the first class, leaders are encouraged to use words previously studied in class in order to review target words and to increase the likelihood of members being able to identify them correctly. As learners work together to write and test their hints, they discover that creating good items can be extremely challenging. For the task in the subsequent class to be fun and engaging, hints must use clear, simple, and concise language and must be neither too easy nor too hard to guess.

The second section on the worksheet, Quick Questions, consists of closed survey-type questions that require the members to answer simple yes/no questions. This task facilitates simple, minimal stress interaction while providing an opportunity for students to learn about their classmates. As the title suggests, Quick Questions need not take long, but leaders are encouraged to ask the group members follow-up questions to elicit more detailed responses where appropriate.

The third section on the worksheet is My Story. This is a two-minute personal narrative that the leader recounts to the group members. The story should relate to the worksheet topic and it may be fictional or non-fictional. The leaders are not permitted to read a pre-written story, but they are allowed six keywords, noted on the Leader's Worksheet, that can be used as prompts to help them structure their stories. As they listen, group members are encouraged to use active listening strategies, such as verbal cues, mirroring, and paraphrasing, that they might have studied in class. Then, when the leader has finished the narrative, the group members have an opportunity to make comments and ask questions.

For the final section on the worksheet, Discussion Questions, students prepare open-ended discussion prompts which serve to facilitate longer conversations. This is the culmination of the Leader's Worksheet activity, and after the previous three tasks, students should be sufficiently prepared to speak on the topic for longer and in a less structured manner. The Discussion Question prompts serve as a springboard for follow-up questions and even for branching off onto other topics. All group members are responsible for maintaining a flowing discussion, but the leader moderates the activity, for example by inviting reticent members to speak or by feeding in a new question if the talk starts to dry up. This task occupies all the remaining time allocated for that topic. Therefore, groups that rush through the previous three tasks will need to talk for considerably longer than those who spent more time on Word Quiz, Quick Questions, and My Story. The Discussion Questions task also closely resembles the end-of-semester speaking test and so provides an opportunity to practice conversation strategies, such as showing interest, interjecting, using fillers, and self-correcting, that will serve students well in the test.

Preparing the worksheets

One drawback to the Leader's Worksheet activity is its complexity. As well as explaining the four different task types on the worksheets, the teacher must demonstrate the various groupings and classroom procedures that will be utilized over the two classes. If learners lack a clear overview of what the interaction tasks will entail, they may be unable to create effective items for their worksheets and may become confused or demotivated. Therefore, before students work on their own Leader's Worksheet it is important to provide them with an example and use this to demonstrate the activity (see Appendix B). This can be done by having the teacher act as the leader and the whole class as members, or it can be done in groups, with each student taking a turn to lead one of the four tasks on the worksheet. After the demonstration, students then work in groups of four to create their own worksheets based on the topic they have been assigned. Each student is given a blank worksheet, and they work collaboratively to complete them, though they may prefer to work independently on the My Story section.

Conducting extended interaction tasks based on Leader's Worksheets

In the following class new groups of four are formed with each student taking their Leader's Worksheet with them to their new group. One student in each group is chosen to be the first group leader and they are allocated 15 to 20 minutes to lead a conversation using their worksheet. The leader is tasked with maintaining interaction, helping all participants stay engaged in the conversation, and ensuring that participants speak in English. If there is a breakdown in communication or trouble getting through an activity, the leaders are responsible for getting things back on track. For example, during the Word Quiz activity, if members are not able to guess the target words, the leader might offer additional hints, such as providing the first letter of the word. At the end of the allotted time for each topic another student takes over the role of leader with a new topic. With four students in each group, the entire activity typically lasts for 60 to 80 minutes, after which learners are asked to self-assess their performance against pre-specified learning objectives, such as ability to sustain communication in English or ability to overcome communication problems, and to write a short reflection in Japanese. A sample self-assessment/reflection form is provided in Appendix C.

Language Development and Learner Motivation

The Leader's Worksheet activity offers significant potential for gains in both language development and learner motivation. At various points throughout the two Leader's Worksheet classes there are opportunities for learners to engage in collaborative dialogue. As students work together to design hints for the Word Quiz task, and then again in the subsequent class as they quiz their new group members on the words, they are *using* English to communicate *about* English. The Word Quiz task also generates informative feedback – if group members are unable to guess the word it is likely that either the prompt was poorly constructed, or the vocabulary selected was too difficult. This kind of feedback serves as a useful way of checking that the language used falls within participants' zones of proximal development. Successful enactment of the Word Quiz component and the other Leader's Worksheet tasks demands that learners co-adapt their linguistic resources in the moment according to the exergies at hand, ideal conditions for second language development (Larsen-Freeman, 2010).

There is also good reason to expect that Leader's Worksheets would enhance learner motivation. Self-determination theory (SDT) is an established macro theory of motivation which has been extensively researched in language education including Japanese EFL contexts (see, for example, Agawa & Takeuchi, 2016). SDT claims that intrinsic motivation is supported by the three constructs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Autonomy-supportive teaching involves providing learners with opportunities to take the initiative, as well as providing activities that learners find personally meaningful (Jang, Reeve & Deci, 2010). Word Quiz, Quiz Questions and Discussion Questions are highly learner-centered tasks insofar as learners work with peers to frame their own questions and prompts, while My Story enables them to personalize the topic and speak in their own voice. Consequently, it seems likely that the Leader's Worksheets activity promotes autonomy for most learners. However, the fact that choice of topic is determined by program content rather than by the learners themselves might serve as a constraint on autonomy. A possible extension to the activity, therefore, might be a further round of Leader's Worksheets based on a topic of students' own choosing, such as a sport they play, a comic book series they read, or a local event they are involved with. However, students may need some support in selecting a suitable topic as difficult or unfamiliar topics are unlikely to generate successful items.

Leading and participating in extended conversations may also have a positive effect on learners' perception of their L2 competence. Prior to these classes, students might never have participated in English interactions of such a sustained duration despite studying English for at least six years, so completing the task successfully may result in a strong sense of achievement. In addition, as a physical artifact the Leader's Worksheet provides a clear structure and sense of purpose, which also serves to enhance feelings of competence (Jang, et al., 2010).

Finally, it has been posited that relatedness is vital for ensuring learners feel comfortable in the classroom environment and are thereby able to engage in the exploratory and creative behaviors that are associated with increased agency and motivation (Noels, 2013). The Leader's Worksheet activity contributes to relatedness insofar as both the worksheet creation and the subsequent discussion tasks are highly collaborative with responsibility for learning outcomes shared between peers. Collaboration during worksheet creation provides a support structure independent of the teacher and helps to reduce face threats should things break down in the subsequent oral interaction tasks.

However, one caveat when considering the impact of Leader's Worksheets on learner motivation is the possibility that some students may experience difficulties which cause confusion, frustration, or disappointment. This might be because they do not perceive or relate to the learning objectives, they do not understand task procedures, they have difficulty creating suitable task items, or they feel unable to successfully manage the oral interaction tasks. Under such circumstances Leader's Worksheets are unlikely to reap the potential rewards described above and may even have a harmful effect on language learning motivation in general. With this in mind we now turn to investigation of the feedback provided by learners following Leader's Worksheet activities.

Learner Feedback

Feedback from learners about Leader's Worksheets came from two sources. Firstly, a set of questions about Leader's Worksheets was included in the feedback survey taken by all students at the end of the semester. Secondly, an analysis was conducted of learner reflections submitted at the end of each two-class cycle in which students self-evaluated their performance and identified aspects of the activity they found rewarding or challenging (Appendix C).

Feedback Survey Data

Five items about Leader's Worksheets were included in the end-of-semester student feedback survey. A total of 666 students responded to these items and their responses are shown in Table 1. Items were designed to elicit responses to Leader's Worksheets in five areas: enjoyment (1), usefulness (2), engagement (3), competence (4), and importance (5). The items were presented in the form of a 6-point Likert scale. The percentages reported Table 1 contrast overall agreement (strongly agree, agree, and slightly agree) with overall disagreement (slightly disagree, disagree, and strongly disagree).

Table 1: Student Feedback Survey Responses

	Agree	*Disagree*	*Weighted Average*
1. Enjoyed Leader's Worksheets	93.5%	6.5%	3.73
2. Leader's Worksheets were useful	93.7%	6.3%	3.74
3. I tried very hard during LW classes	96.4%	3.6%	3.84
4. I was satisfied with my performance	86.0%	14.0%	3.48
5. LW are an important component of this course	95.8%	4.2%	3.81

It is clear from the responses that the activity was evaluated positively overall in terms of enjoyment and usefulness. 93.5% of respondents stated that they enjoyed Leader's Worksheets, and 93.7% felt it was useful. These results are encouraging and suggest that for most students, Leader's Worksheets had a positive impact on motivation. In terms of engagement, the vast majority of respondents felt they applied themselves to the activity with 96.4% claiming that they had done their best. Perhaps unsurprisingly given the low proficiency level of some students, 14% of the respondents were unsatisfied with their performance, but a significant majority (86%) expressed satisfaction suggesting that, for these students at least, the activity served to enhance feelings of competence. There was also a high degree of consensus that the activity was worthwhile with 95.8% of respondents agreeing that it is an important component of the program.

Learner Reflections

Permission was obtained to analyze the learning reflections of students in a sample of four classes, over two cycles of Leader's Worksheets. In total, 210 responses were analyzed from 103 students to gain insight into learner interaction with the activity. The feedback was completed in Japanese, after which it was translated with the assistance of Japanese colleagues and coded by one of the authors.

Analysis of the 210 written reflections showed that many students (91 unique instances) associated Leader's Worksheets with positive learning outcomes. For example, one student claimed, "I believe that my ability to converse in English improved," while another said, "I was happy that I was able to ask specific follow-up questions." Many reflections (41 instances) also indicated that the Leader's Worksheet activity was enjoyable, while 54 indicated an intention to continue studying or to study more, suggesting that the activity had motivational benefits, at least for some students. One learner said, "From now, I want to develop my ability to speak English with more fluency," while another claimed that the activity "motivated me to study English harder." Encouragingly, several of the comments indicate that students were able to assess their own performance and formulate specific goals for future study. For example, one said, "I want to improve my ability to ask questions," while another commented, "Because of this class, I now want to improve my vocabulary."

On the other hand, some students clearly experienced difficulties with Leader's Worksheets. For example, 68 reflections mentioned inability to communicate meaning, 42 mentioned difficulty with continuing the conversation, 22 indicated problems with understanding interlocutors, and 18 mentioned having had to resort to Japanese. However, it is not possible to infer from the data whether these difficulties had a negative, positive, or neutral effect on learner motivation. Concerning components of the worksheet that subjects perceived to be difficult, the responses overwhelmingly indicate that the My Story component presented the greatest challenge. One student said, "I tried to tell My Story with long sentences, but I made many grammatical mistakes," while another said, "Telling My Story using only six keywords was the hardest part of this activity." In total, 18 reflections cited difficulty with My Story while just one indicated difficulty with Word Quiz, and none mentioned difficulties with Quiz Questions or Discussion Questions.

Implications

Responses from both the feedback survey and learner reflections indicate that most learners found the activity enjoyable and useful. However, it is important to note that some students experienced difficulties and frustrations as they interacted with Leader's Discussions tasks. With these learners in mind, we offer some recommendations for teachers who are considering adopting similar activities in their own contexts.

Firstly, it is important to tailor activities and procedures according to students' English communication abilities. Learner reflections indicated that My Story is particularly challenging, so for lower level classes it may be necessary to reduce the time required, or even remove the activity completely. The level of challenge can also be adjusted by altering timings. For example, while higher level learners might cope well in the leader role for 20 minutes or longer, for lower level learners it may be better to limit the time to 10 minutes or less. Secondly, students are likely to benefit from explicit attention to communication strategies leading up to the oral interaction tasks. Raising awareness of strategies such as active listening, use of fillers, paraphrasing, and asking for clarification helps learners to effectively sustain communication. Thirdly, explicit objectives, possibly expressed in the form of can-do statements, help focus learners on the goals of the activity and provide criteria against which they can judge their own performance during self-evaluation and reflection. It is also helpful to remind students that while the Leader's Worksheets serve as a guide to scaffold interaction, the ultimate goal is simply to keep talking in English. Therefore, students should not be discouraged from deviating from the worksheet by going off on tangents, provided this serves to sustain communication. Fourthly, since student absence and uneven group sizes can make it difficult to implement the activity, it is helpful for the teacher to prepare spare worksheets on each topic which can be supplied to groups as needed. Finally, having students record their interaction may help them stay on task during the activity and can subsequently provide data for them to analyze, for example, by transcribing and reworking portions of the recording. Moreover, with appropriate consent, such recordings could also serve as a rich source of data for research investigations into students' language production and development.

Conclusions

The Leader's Worksheet activity provides a supportive framework for students to engage in collaborative dialogue working within their zones of proximal development. While Leader's Worksheets impose a clear and controlled task structure, the activity also facilitates free and spontaneous language production which may begin to resemble real world communication beyond the classroom. The Leader's Worksheet activity also serves to redistribute responsibility for learning from teacher to learner, an advantageous outcome for an English communication class in which student-initiated and student-sustained talk are primary course goals. Feedback from learners in the form of both survey data and learner reflections indicating that they enjoyed the activity and found it beneficial to their language studies is encouraging and suggests that the activity has been largely successful in meeting its goals. However, significant adaptations may be needed in order to maximize the learning benefits for learners in other contexts, as well as for different groups of learners in similar contexts.

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33 The Psychometric Properties of the Brief Kambara Locus of Control Scale

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The paper represents the culmination of a line of research (Rupp, 2016a; Rupp, 2016b; Rupp, 2017a; Rupp, 2017b; Rupp & Isemonger, 2018) into the psychometric properties of the Kambara Locus of Control Scale (K-LoCS; 1982, 1987). Rupp & Isemonger (2018) submitted an abridged ten-item version of the instrument to an a priori test using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as the method, producing results which were a marked improvement on previous versions of the instrument, but still not entirely satisfactory. In this study (N = 330), some of these ten items were revised to reduce earlier-reported non-normal distributions, and the data was again submitted to CFA with results which were again not entirely satisfactory. However, post-hoc revision of the model based on theoretical reasoning, and involving the removal of two items, did result in a model with exemplary fit to the dimensionality of the dataset.

本論文は鎌原氏のローカス・オフ・コントロール（統制の所在）尺度(K-LoCS; 1982,1987) の心理測定分析に関する一連の研究(Rupp, 2016a; Rupp, 2016b; Rupp, 2017a; Rupp, 2017b; Rupp & Isemonger, 2018)の研究成果である。Rupp & Isemonger (2018)が 10 項目の短縮型の尺度を先見的な調査データを使用して確認的因子分析(CFA)を行い、その結果は以前のバージョンよりもはるかに改善されたものの、少し未達成な指示があった。本研究(N=330)では以前に報告された非正規分布の減少することを目的にし、調査項目の微調整を行い、再度 CFA 検証行った。結果は不十分なところがまだ残って、その後、論理的な理由に基づいて、二つの項目を削除することによって、本尺度が著しくに想定されたモデルと収集したデータの次元性に適合となった。

The study reported in this paper is part of an ongoing research trajectory (Rupp 2016a, 2016b, 2017a, 2017b, Rupp & Isemonger, 2018) aiming to overcome psychometric weaknesses in an instrument measuring locus of control (LoC), the Kambara Locus of Control Scale (K-LoCS), which is widely-used in the Japanese context (Kambara, 1982, 1987). LoC (Rotter, 1966) is an important psychological construct which is notionally related to learner autonomy, as well as personal agency and self-efficacy (Oxford, 2003; 2008). A person's LoC is seen to fall along a continuum varying from internal locus of control (I-LoC) to external locus of control (E-LoC). Those leaning towards the I-LoC end of the continuum are individuals who tend to believe that outcomes in their lives fall within their own control while those on the E-LoC end of the continuum would tend to blame external factors for the outcomes in their lives. For example, if a student were to do poorly on a test, one who had a higher I-LoC orientation might think that he or she did not study hard enough, whereas a student having more of an E-LoC orientation might instead tend to blame the teacher, the environment, or perhaps the test for being unfair. Studies have correlated a higher I-LoC orientation with better outcomes in language learning (Chang & Ho, 2009; Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2012; Ghonsooly & Moharer, 2012; Ghonsooly & Shirvan, 2011, Peek, 2016).

The K-LoCS was found to have a significant presence in the Japanese literature, not only in secondary English educational studies (Hosaka, 2007), but also in developmental psychology (Fushimi, 2011) and employee psychology (Kanda, 2006). The K-LoCS was originally created as an 18-item scale (K-LoC18) and later expanded to a 43-item scale (K-LoC43). Despite being commonly used in Japan, Rupp (2016a) found that the scale had only been analyzed through exploratory factor analyses (EFA), and had not been subjected to a direct test of the hypothesized model through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In redressing this neglect in the literature, a CFA conducted by Rupp (2016a) showed that scores for both the K-LoC43 and the K-LoC18 fitted poorly with the hypothesized model. Based on these results, Rupp then employed mixed-methods studies involving focus groups (Rupp, 2016b) and EFA (Rupp, 2017a; 2017b) to provide a course for revision of the instrument. These studies showed many areas where the scale had potential for improvement, such as a reduction in the number of items, increases in scale refinement, linguistic issues, and item redundancies. Based on the aforementioned studies, Rupp and Isemonger (2018) worked to create an abridged ten-item scale which was designated as the Kambara Locus of Control 10-Item Scale (K-LoCS10). This revised instrument used a 5-point Likert scale, as opposed to the original 4-point Likert scale used in the K-LoCS. A new set of data (N=211) was collected for a priori CFA analysis with data gathered from the Japanese tertiary context. Results from the 2018 study showed clear improvements over the K-LoC43 and K-LocC18 though the fit indexes fell slightly short of what was required for an acceptable model. Given these encouraging results, the authors decided to make further refinements to the scale, namely by slightly altering the wording of highly skewed and kurtotic items in order to reduce the non-normality of score distributions derived on these items, as well as further refining the scale to a six-point Likert scale. This current version of the scale, used and tested in this study, is designated as the Kambara Locus of Control Scale 10-Item Revised (K-LoCS10R; see Appendix). This revised scale was directly tested, and after still not entirely satisfactory results, further abbreviated in the course of this study to an 8-item scale through the deletion of two items, Items 7 and 10, based on theoretical considerations. This resulted in an abbreviated scale designated as the Brief Kambara Locus of Control Scale, or Brief K-LoCS.

Methods

Instrument

The instrument included ten items (see Appendix A) inherited from the original 18-item and 43-item scales (K-LoCS; 1982, 1987), but with some revision in the item content of some items to adjust for non-normality; that is, non-normality observed in scores obtained by Rupp and Isemonger (2018). The items which underwent revision included Items 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, and 9. As with the 2018 study, five of the items were designed to measure I-LoC (Items 2, 5, 6, 9 and 10) while the other five items were designed to measure E-LoC (Items 1, 3, 4, 7 and 8). The format for administration departed from that of Rupp and Isemonger (2018) in that the previous paper-based administration was replaced with a web-based administration which participants accessed via their cellphone using a QR Code. A further revision was that the Likert scale was increased from five points to six points to offer further discrimination in the possible responses available to the respondent. Administration was in Japanese, including informed consent, and students were made aware that their grades would not be affected by participation. The previous instrument used by Rupp and Isemonger in 2018 had been designated as the Kambara Locus of Control 10-Item Scale (K-LoCS10), and the slightly revised version used in this study was designated as the Kambara Locus of Control 10-Item Scale Revised (K-LoCS10R) to distinguish it from the earlier version.

Participants and Procedure

There were 330 respondents in this study. A feature of the web-based administration was that responses were required. From a positive point of view, this assists with the problem of missing responses often associated with paper-based tests, while from a negative point of view it is possible that some respondents will select randomly when they are having difficulty thinking of a response to an item. The consequence of the decision to make answers required did, however, mean that there was no missing data. Respondents were drawn from two universities in Western Japan, one public and one private, and from seven major fields including: biology (20%), zoology (23%), plant science (18%), business administration (1%), tourism (17%), medical technology (6%), and management (15%). The gender distribution was somewhat skewed with more males (197 or 60%)

than females (133 or 40%). Age of participants ranged from 18 years to 26 years, but with 98% of the sample between 18 years and 21 years.

Analytical procedure

For the calculation of descriptive statistics, IBM/Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS; Version 20) was used and these analyses included: 1) frequency statistics for the sample (i.e. major and gender), 2) the means and score distributions (normality, critical ratios for skew and kurtosis) for each item, and 3) the reliability estimates for each item. The most important part of the analysis was the CFA (two models; one a priori and one a posteriori) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS; Version 21) was used for this.

With respect to skew and kurtosis, criteria for assessing the derived critical ratios were stipulated in advance. A critical ratio, for either skew or kurtosis, of less than 3.0 was used as a more permissive criterion and less than 2.0 as a stricter criterion. CFA indexes of model fit, and the associated criteria for judging the values derived on these indexes, were also adopted from the influential work of Hu and Bentler (1999). These indexes included the SRMSR and RMSEA (absolute fit indexes) and the TLI and CFI (incremental fit indexes). Hu and Bentler recommend that they be used in triangulation with the following cutoff values: SRMSR < .08; RMSEA, < .06; CFI, > .95; TLI, > .95.

Besides these indexes, the $\chi 2$ statistic was also used to test models, and given that it is a statistic and not an index, it is interpreted by comparing the associated probability level (p) to a pre-determined alpha level (greater than .05 for this study). Interpreting the outcome of this comparison is counterintuitive to those only familiar with traditional inferential statistics, because a nonsignificant result (i.e. p greater than .05) is desirable if model fit is desirable; that is, a non-significant result indicates that the model does not depart from the dimensionality of the data, and therefore it fits. Typically, the indexes are used because the $\chi 2$ has excessive statistical power (Byrne, 2001), and therefore it tends to over-reject plausible models, and especially so under conditions of non-normality. In addition to the above analyses, the Bollen and Stine (1992) bootstrap procedure was also adopted, and as a means to cope with non-normality in the data. This procedure also produces a p value which is interpreted under the same logic as just elaborated with respect to the $\chi 2$; that is, a nonsignificant result indicates model fit.

Results

Results for descriptive statistics and reliability estimates are presented below, and in advance of the results for the two models tested using CFA as the method.

Descriptive statistics

The values derived for item means and item standard deviations are presented in Table 1, as well as the critical ratios for skew and kurtosis for each item. A notable feature of central tendency was that the means for the I-LoC items (Items 2, 5, 6, 9 and 10) were higher than the means for the E-LoC items (Items 1, 3, 4, 7 and 8). In fact, the overall mean for I-LoC items was 4.48 while that for the E-LoC items was 3.60; almost a whole point difference on the scale. In terms of score distribution, it is clear that there are some weak results for some items. Item 9 in particular had the highest mean, lowest standard deviation, and expectedly therefore, the highest level of skew (negative). Items 2, 4 and 10 also presented with high levels of skew. Overall, kurtosis was not as problematic as skew, and it was better than for Rupp and Isemonger (2018), but Items 3, 8 and 9 stand out as being more problematic than other items.

Reliability estimates

The Cronbach's alpha value for the E-LoC construct (Items 1, 3, 4, 7 and 8) was .54, which is below the threshold value of acceptability of .70 set by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). The 95% confidence interval (Fan & Thompson, 2001) for alpha on these same five items was .46 (lower bound) and .61 (upper bound). On the I-LoC construct (Items 2, 5, 6, 9 and 10), the value for Cronbach's alpha was .74, and the associated confidence intervals for alpha (95%) was .69 (lower bound) and .78 (upper bound).

Table 1

Item Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and Critical Ratios for Skew and Kurtosis for Scores Derived on Items Comprising the K-LoCS10R (N = 330)

Test Items	M	*SD*	*Skew*	*Kurtosis*
Item 01 (E)	3.72	1.359	-.927	*-2.979
Item 02 (I)	4.55	1.318	**-6.173	-.050
Item 03 (E)	3.62	1.309	.478	**-3.133
Item 04 (E)	3.45	1.276	.510	*-2.711
Item 05 (I)	4.28	1.337	**-4.312	-1.204
Item 06 (I)	4.06	1.384	*-2.964	*-2.049
Item 07 (E)	3.79	1.335	-1.006	*-2.511
Item 08 (E)	3.44	1.557	-.173	**-3.942
Item 09 (I)	4.91	1.193	**-8.392	**3.447
Item 10 (I)	4.61	1.347	**-5.919	-.944

Note. * Indicates item is skewed at a threshold of above 2.0.

** Indicates item is skewed at a threshold of above 3.0.

CFA model results

The initial model tested was the ten-item K-LoCS10R with two subscales, namely, the E-LoC subscale (Items 1, 3, 4, 7 and 8) and the I-LoC subscale (Items 2, 5, 6, 9 and 10), and with these subscales allowed to correlate. The model was recursive with 55 distinct sample moments, 21 distinct parameters to be estimated, leading to 34 degrees of freedom, and thus overidentification of the model was achieved. Maximum likelihood estimation was used, and the test was a priori given that the model was not empirically derived from the same data in which it was tested, and therefore it preceded the data. The value derived for the $\chi 2$ was 70.01 with a probability level of p = .000, indicating, when compared to the predetermined alpha level of greater than .05 for this study, that the model was different from the dimensionality of the data, and therefore not a good fit. The values derived for the four model fit indexes were as follows, with cutoffs (Hu & Bentler, 1999) presented in parentheses: TLI = .888 (>.95); CFI = .915 (>.95); RMSEA = .057 (<.06); and SRMSR = .063 (<.08). These results were not satisfactory because the CFI is somewhat below the threshold of .95 and the TLI is substantially below the threshold. While the results for the RMSEA and SRMSR were acceptable, all four indexes have to be considered in triangulation, and the combination of weakness in the TLI and CFI makes it difficult to accept the model as a plausible one. Given the univariate non-normal properties of the data (reported in the descriptive statistics above), and the presence of multivariate non-normality (Mardia's coefficient of 10.42), the Bollen and Stine (1992) bootstrap procedure (1000 bootstrap samples) was executed. This produced a p value of .01 which did not satisfy the alpha level of greater than .05 set in advance for this study, but nonetheless was not a poor result.

Overall, however, and in view of all the analyses, the model was rejected.

Inspection of the standardized regression weights for each item indicated that three of the items on the E-LoC construct were weak (Items 3, 4 and 8) with weights below .40. However, removal of these three items would have left an impoverished E-LoC construct with only two items, making this empirically-driven solution (inspection of regression weights) not possible. Rather than seeking an empirically-driven solution, therefore, a theoretical solution was explored. The first author had previously received oral comments, from an interested peer at a conference, which had drawn attention to the two items in the set of ten which referenced friends or friendships, and their being the source of possible problems. Our subsequent theoretical reasoning on this was that the two friendship items, one E-LoC item (Item 7) and one I-LoC item (Item 10), may appear too salient within the ten items, and also function as a source of extraneous but systematic variance detracting from the coherence of the locus of control constructs represented by the other items (whether internal or external). These two items were therefore removed arriving at a model which, given that it was antecedent to the collection of the dataset and to the rejection of the originally-hypothesized model, was an a posteriori model. This specification produced an overidentified model with 36 distinct sample moments, 17 distinct parameters to be estimated, and 19 degrees of freedom.

The results from this second model were exemplary. The value for the *χ2* was 29.77 with an associated *p* value of .06 which was greater than the predetermined alpha level of .05, and therefore indicated model fit. The values for the fit indexes were as follows, with cutoffs (Hu & Bentler, 1999) presented in parentheses: TLI = .938 (>.95); CFI = .958 (>.95); RMSEA = .042 (<.06); and SRMSR = .048 (<.08). The Bollen and Stine (1992) bootstrap procedure (1000 samples) also produced a non-significant result (*p* = .186) being greater than the alpha level of .05 set for this study, and thus supporting the overall case for exemplary fit. As a further line of analysis, the values produced for the AIC and BIC indexes (used for within sample model comparisons) were inspected for both models and compared under the interpretive rationale (which is consistent with normal practice) that the model with the lowest value would be the preferable model. The values obtained were as follows: AIC (ten-item model, 112.018; eight-item model, 63.771) and BIC (ten-item model, 191.799; eight-item model, 128.35). Thus, and in terms of both indexes, the eight item model was superior to the ten-item model.

Discussion

The model for the ten-item instrument (K-LoCS10R), which represented a slight modification of the instrument tested by Rupp and Isemonger (2018), did not produce satisfactory results, and although the RMSEA and SRMSR produced values roughly corresponding with Rupp and Isemonger (2018), the values for the CFI and TLI deteriorated when compared to same. The revisions undertaken after the 2018 study were primarily designed to deal with the problem of univariate non-normality, and there were some improvements. For example, there were no items in this revised version producing values for the critical ratio for skew and kurtosis as high as 12.455 and 13.285, respectively, as had Item 9 in the 2018 study. Nonetheless, while kurtosis is a much smaller problem in this dataset than it was in the 2018 study, there remain items with levels of skew which are not desirable.

The most notable positive outcome of this study, however, and in spite of the qualifications around the normality of the score distributions, is that a rival model, motivated by theoretical reasoning, rather than post-hoc empirical analysis, produced a model with exemplary fit to the dimensionality of the data. This model produced a good result for the *χ2* test which is typically not achieved in these kinds of studies, because the *χ2* has excessive statistical power and will detect even trivial departures between the dimensionality of the data and the model itself. All indexes could be considered meritorious except for the value for the TLI which is slightly below the threshold, but as Hu and Bentler (1999) point out, these indexes are to be interpreted on a continuum, and in earlier work by the same authors (Hu & Bentler, 1998) the threshold was weaker at > .90, and the value derived in this study would have easily met the earlier and less stringent cutoff. Thus, and in the context of a good result for the *χ2* test and the Bollen and Stine (1992) bootstrap procedure, the model has to be interpreted as fitting very well.

On a critical note, it could be argued that the reduction of the number of items on the I-LoC and E-LoC subscales necessarily reduces the operational expression of the constructs, and that more items are needed. This could be a direction for future research; that is, adding further items to expand the operational expression of these constructs, but without having referents to "friends" or "friendships," which under this analysis appear to be a source of disturbance for the conceptual clarity of the two constructs. Conversely, however, and also on a critical note, it was pointed out by Rupp and Isemonger (2018), citing (Dragutinovich, White & Austin, 1983; Ross, Kalucy & Morten, 1983), that previous experience with locus of control instruments, and possibly other instruments as well, tends to show shorter instruments producing scores with better psychometric properties than longer instruments. In an educational environment where students are constantly having to respond to surveys, there is merit in having instruments which are brief. This eight-item instrument, designated in this paper as the Brief Kambara Locus of Control Scale, or Brief K-LoCS, could potentially serve this need by allowing teachers to survey locus of control among students with very little intrusion into class time. Also, if the instrument is administered by means of a smartphone or tablet, as it was in this study, the teacher is able to view the data almost immediately.

Conclusion

On a final note, the second model tested in this study was a posteriori, because it emerged after the data was collected, and out of the results (rejection of the first model), even if not empirically-driven. For further confirmation, the eight-item Brief-K-LoCS should be administered in a new sample, so that an a priori test can be conducted. The prospects for such a test are probably good, because the modification of removing the two friendship-related items was theoretically-driven rather than empirically-driven, and so the modification is less likely to suffer from the sample-specific limitations which typically attend empirically-driven modifications. In the long run, having a short form of the original Kambara Scale which is quick to administer, and which has good psychometric properties will be beneficial to SLA classrooms where increasing emphasis is given to learner autonomy and learner development. Both of these aspects are premised upon a strong sense of agency on the part of the learner which is associated with the locus of control for the learner being more internal than external. A good and quick-to-administer instrument provides the teacher with means to evaluate whether this is the case for each student.

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Appendix

The ten items of the K-LoCS10R (Rupp's translation into English followed by the actual Japanese used in the survey) along with indications of internal (I) and external (E) locus of control, followed by the original item number in parentheses from the K-LoCS43.

Item 01	E	It is best just to go with the flow. (1 E) 何でも成り行きまかせが 1 番だ。
Item 02	I	My happiness depends entirely on my own efforts. (13 I) 幸福になるか不幸になるかは, 完全に自分の努力次第だ。
Item 03	E	My future depends mostly on luck and chance. (15 E) 自分の将来はほとんど運やチャンスによって決まる。
Item 04	E	I cannot easily change what happens to me. (16 E) 自分の身に起こることは自分の力で簡単に変えることはできない。
Item 05	I	If I am careful about my actions, people will inevitably trust me. (19 I) 自分の行動に注意していれば必ず人から信頼される。
Item 06	I	If I work hard, I will certainly get the job I wish for. (21 I) 努力すれば希望の職につくことが絶対できる。
Item 07	E	Maintaining long friendships depends on the situation. (27 E) 友人とのつきあいが長く続くかどうかは周りの状況による。
Item 08	E	We cannot easily change how smart we are. (33 E) 頭の良し悪しは簡単に変えることはできない。
Item 09	I	Planning my studies guarantees a better result. (38 I) 前もって計画的に試験勉強をすれば絶対に結果はずっと良くなる。
Item 10	I	If I am kind to my friends, someday they will definitely help me. (42 I) 友人に親切にしていれば絶対にいつかは友人に助けてもらえる。

34 CFER Companion Volume and its Application in University Classes

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CEFR Companion Volume (hereafter CV) was announced in 2018, which is a complement to the existing CEFR. Some main changes in the CEFR/CV are addition of Can-do of written and online interaction, Pre-A and plus levels (A2+, B1+, B2+), and broadening concept of mediation. Changes in the CEFR/CV have reflected language skills needed in the 21st century. Among the changes, the concept of mediation emphasized in the CEFR/CV will be important in this increasing globalized society where English users will be expected to work as mediators in many international settings. In order to incorporate the concept of mediation emphasized in the CEFR/CV and Can-do of mediation from CEFR/ CV, I have been developing an e-portfolio for two classes of an English course at a private university and, in this paper, the process of developing Can-do of mediation adapted from CEFR/CV is presented.

CEFR の補足版として CEFR Companion Volume(以降 CV)が 2018 年に発表された。主な変更点は Written and online interaction の Can-do の追加、Pre-A と A2+、B1+、B2＋レベルの追加、mediation の概念の拡大である。CEFR/CV の変更点は 21 世紀に必要とされる言語スキルを反映している。その変更点の中でも、CEFR/CV で強調されている mediation の概念は英語使用者が多くの国際的な状況で、仲介者としての役割を果たすことが期待される益々進むグローバル化社会でより重要になるだろう。CEFR/CV で強調されている Mediation の概念と、Mediation の Can-do を取り入れるために、私立大学の英語コースの 2 クラス用に e-portfolio を開発しているが、本論文では mediation の Can-do を適用して、開発した過程を述べる。

In 2018, the CEFR Companion Volume (hereafter CEFR/CV) was announced by the Council of Europe. The author of this paper participated in the Launching Conference of CEFR/CV, which was held in Strasburg in France in 2018. The objective of the conference was to launch CEFR/CV with new descriptors, which is a complement to the existing CEFR. The CEFR was issued in 2001. Since then, the CEFR has been influencing language education in the world including English education in Japan. For example, in Japan, in a new Course of Study for junior high school, which was announced in 2017 and will be enacted in 2020 (MEXT, 2017), and in a new Course of Study for senior high school, which was announced in 2018 and will be enacted in 2022 (MEXT, 2018), goals are set in five skill areas of listening, reading, speaking (interaction), speaking (presentation), and writing. The goal setting in the five skill areas are adapted from the self-assessment grid of the CEFR, in which levels of A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2 in five skill areas of Listening, reading, spoken interactions, spoken production, and writing are presented (Council of Europe, 2001).

Since the issue of CEFR in 2001, more than 18 years have passed. In the decades, the development of information technology has accelerated globalization and influenced language learning and teaching, and English skills that learners are expected to acquire have been also changing in this global society. In Japan, the Course of Study changes almost every ten years; therefore, it is not likely that the new Courses of Study for junior high school and for high school will reflect the contents of the CEFR/CV soon ; however, changes and revisions in the CEFR/CV reflecting language skills needed in the 21st century are expected to be introduced in English education in Japan.

Background of Developing CEFR/ CV

In the launching conference, North (2018) made a summary talk of the background of developing the CEFR/CV. Reflecting on the current trend that too much focus has been laid on assessment, North emphasized the importance of reinforcing all aspects of the CEFR and focusing more on learning and teaching. He also addressed the shift from learning and teaching four skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing to learning and teaching four modes of reception, production, interaction, and mediation because communication is an integral part of tasks where participants engage in the four modes or a combination of two or more of these. The CEFR presents the language user and learner as a 'social agent', acting in the social world and exerting agency in the learning process. From that perspective, North (2018) also underlined the importance of a language user and learner as a social agent who engages in negotiation of meaning in interaction and in co-construction of meaning in mediation while mobilizing plurilingual and pluricultural competences. The significance of a paradigm shift in language education in the 21st century was also addressed. What he mentioned as examples of the paradigm shift in education are from grammar to use, from language as code to language as action/ collaboration, from four skills to integrated mode of communication, from producing and receiving to constructing meaning, from a unidimensional view to multidimensional views, from a native speaker as a model to a proficient speaker, from multilingualism to plurilingualism, and from elitist education to inclusive education. Regarding the paradigm shift from a native speaker as a model to a proficient speaker, there had been a debate about the use of "native speakers" in the CEFR, and the expression of native speakers in the CEFR were eliminated in the CEFR/CV (Green, 2018). This reflects changes in language teaching and learning in the rapid pace of globalization where English has been used as a tool for global communication not only with native English speakers but also among non-native English speakers.

Changes and Revisions in the CEFR/ CV

Some main changes in the CEFR/CV are addition of Can-do of written and online interaction, Pre-A levels, and plus levels (A2+, B1+, B2+), and broadening concept of mediation. In the original CEFR, the self-assessment grid shows Can-do of 6 levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2) for five skill areas of Listening, Reading, Spoken Interaction, Spoken Production, and Writing. However, in the CEFR/CV, Writing was divided into Written and online Interaction and Written Production in the self-assessment grid. The followings are examples of Can-do of Written and online Interaction and Written Production for A1 level.

- I can react simply to other posts, images and media. (Written and online Interaction)
- I can complete a very simple purchase, filling in forms with personal details. (Written and online Interaction)
- I can write simple isolated phrases and sentences. (Written Production)

The addition of Can-do of Written and online Interaction reflects the increasing use of SNS and online shopping in this growing information technology society. Those Can-do are useful and applicable for English learners in Japan because many people use SNS and purchase goods online.

Descriptors of Pre-A were also added. In the CEFR, it is stated that there are specific tasks that learners below A1 level can perform using a limited range of language such as asking and telling time and date (Council of Europe, 2001). The followings are examples of Can-do of Pre-A1 for overall listening comprehension and overall spoken production.

- Can recognize every day, familiar words, provided they are delivered clearly and slowly in a clearly defined, familiar everyday context. (Overall listening comprehension)
- Can produce short phrases about themselves, giving basic personal information (e.g. name, address, family, nationality) (Overall spoken production)

The inclusion of Pre-A1 level is an influence of CEFR-J, which was developed for Japanese English learners. According to Negishi, Takada, & Tono (2012), 80% of Japanese English learners are A level. There are English learners who are below A1 Level. Thus, having a level below A1, Pre-A1, enables English educators in Japan who teach students with lower English proficiency to use Can-do.

As for addtion of A2+, B1+, and B2+, using a scale of 9 inluding steps between A2 and B1, between B1 and B2, and between B2 and C1 in the CEFR was suggested when narrower levels of descriptors are needed (Council of Europe, 2001). In fact, A2+, B1+, and B2+ are explained in the CEFR and for example, A2+ is described as the level where learners can more actively participate in conversations given some assistance. The suggestion of adding A2+, B1+, and B2+ are realized in the CEFR/CV. The followings are examples of Can-do of A2+ and A2 for online conversation and discussion in the CEFR/CV.

-Can comment on other people's online postings, provided that they are written in simple language, reacting to embedded media by expressing feelings of surprise, interest and indiffernce in a simle way. (A2+)

-Can post online short simple statements about him/ herself (e.g. relationship status, nationality, occupation), provided he/she can select them from a menu and/or refer to an online tranalation tool. (A2)

The expression of "can comment on other people's online postings" in A2+ shows a slighlty higher level in terms of langauge use compared to "can post online short statments" in A2. Although not all domain or skill areas include plus levels in the CEFR/CV, the addition of plus levels can be useful as a step for students between A2 and B1, between B1 and B2, and between B2 and C1.

Broadening concept of mediation

One of the cores in the CEFR/CV was to broaden the concept of mediation and to develop descriptors of mediation. Mediation is a social and cultural process of creating conditions for communication and cooperation, facing and hopefully defusing any delicate situations and tensions that may arise and in mediation: the user/learner acts as a social agent who creates bridges and helps to construct or conveying meaning (North, 2018). Although the concept of mediation was mentioned in the original CEFR, no validated and calibrated descriptors existed, and roles of mediation have been significantly important with the increasing linguistic and cultural diversity in this global society (Council of Europe, 2018).

In the CEFR/CV, Can-do of mediating a text, mediating concepts, and mediating communication are also added to descriptors of 6 levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2) for five skill areas in the original CEFR. For example, the followings are the examples of B1 level of Can-do of meditation.

-I can convey information given in clear, well-structured informational texts on subjects that are familiar or of personal or current interest. (Mediating a text)

-I can invite other people to speak, to clarify the reason(s) for their views or to elaborate on specific points they made. (Mediating concepts)

-I can communicate the main sense of what is said on subjects of personal interest, provided that speakers articulate clearly and that I can pause to plan how to express things. (Mediating communication)

Skills described in Can-do of mediation such as being able to convey information are important in this information technology society where people obtain a lot of information online in English and are expected to covey the information to those who may not access it. In addition, English users are expected to play a more active and initiative role such as inviting other people to speak than listening to other people's opinions and expressing their opinions in many international settings.

Developing Can-do of Mediation in a University Class

Rationale for Developing Can-do of Mediation

Recently, many ELT textbooks include Can-do being influenced by the CEFR; however, it is assumed that many ELT textbooks published prior to the issue of CEFR/CV may not include Can-do of mediation. I have been using Life 4 from Cengage Publication in English classes at university and it has Can-do after each unit. However, Can-do in the textbook is simple and is not something which asks students for challenges though the textbook itself is designed to aim at B1+. I assumed that it will be meaningful to incorporate the concept of mediation and develop Can-do of mediation in order for university students to acquire skills for mediation and to use English for mediation which can be helpful for them to work globally after they graduate from university.

Teaching Context

I am in charge of two English classes named as Integrated English for freshmen in a private university in Japan. The main objective of the course is to develop students' four skills of English, listening, reading, writing, and speaking. In the course, classes are divided into 8 classes with about 20 students in each class depending on a test result of an English test with reading and listening sections. Though the test is not TOEIC L&R, but it shows conversion scores of TOEIC L&R. In one class, the average conversion score of TOEIC L& R was 737 and in the other class, it was 517.

Process of Developing Can-do of Mediation

This is an ongoing process of developing an e-portfolio including Can-do of mediation from the CEFR/ CV that students can use online to set goals, monitor their study, and evaluate their learning reflecting a cyclical phase of self-regulated learning (Zimmerman, 2002). In this paper, I discuss the process of developing Can-do of mediation from the CEFR/CV for the two classes using the textbook, Life 4. The textbook is designed for cultivating students' critical thinking skills to encourage them to develop and share well-informed opinions. I used the textbook before its revision, but the Can-do in the textbook are not always related to critical thinking skills and many of them are related to grammatical skills such as "I can ask and answer questions about things that are always and generally true, and routines (simple present)". I thought Can-do should be also relevant to critical thinking skills since the textbook is designed for cultivating critical thinking skills. For example, it is important for students to have more opportunities to discuss actively and critically with other students. It is assumed that Can-do of mediation such as passing the summary of the discussion to others can be integrated for deeper discussions. The following shows the process of developing Can-do of mediation from the CEFR/CV.

First, I listed B1 and B2 Can-do of mediation from the CEFR/CV. Second, I analyzed contents of the textbook to see how Can-do of mediation can be integrated for each unit. Third, I added Can-do of mediation to Can-do of the textbook listed after each unit. For the process of selecting Can-do of mediation in the CEFR/CV, I used the following criteria.

- They need to match the contents of the textbook.
- Their levels should be either B1 or B2 since the textbook level is B1+ according to Cengage Publication.

-Fourth, I adapted the original Can-do of mediation in the CEFR/CV. The adaptation is needed because some Can-do of mediation from the CEFR/CV are very long and the expressions are sometimes are difficult to understand. Thus, I simplified and shortened some Can-do of mediation for students to be able to understand their goals and evaluate their learning

Table 1 shows contents of Lesson 2, original Can-do in the textbook, Can-do of mediation in the CEFR/CV, adapted Can-do for the class, and activities to reflect the adapted Can-do. Lesson 1 is for introducing the course, so the textbook was not used. The content of the textbook was introduced from Lesson 2. The topic of Unit 1 is Culture and Identity and in 1a of Unit1 titled as "How we see other cultures", students are to read a passage about stereotyped images and the topic can be developed to a discussion to think whether having stereotyped images is good or bad. However, Can-do in the textbook are not related to the topic, but are related to grammar about simple present and present continuous and stative verbs covered in 1a. In 1b of Unit 1 titled as "Culture and color", they are to learn that different cultures have different images toward colors and the topic can be developed to a discussion about whether understanding that meanings of colors are different depending on cultures is important or not. However, Can-do in the textbook are only associated with grammar about stative verbs and direct or indirect questions covered in 1b. For developing their critical thinking skills, I prepare for discussion questions such as whether having stereotyped images is good or bad and how we can do not to have stereotyped images which may lead to biases. In order for active discussions, I added "Can invite other people in a group to speak" from B1 Can-do of mediation from CEFR/CV without any modification. In addition, for students to be able to support their opinions with reasons, I added "Can ask a group member to give the reason(s) for their views" from B1 Can-do of mediation from CEFR/CV without any modification. Before the discussion, I instructed how to invite others to speak by introducing expressions such as “What’s your opinion?”, “What do you think about that?”, and “Why do you think so?” as well as how to express opinions and supporting reasons

Lesson2: Title of Unit1: Culture and Identity ■ 1a of Unit1: How we see other culture ■ 1b of Unit1: Culture and color
Original Can-do in the textbook I can ask and answer questions about things that are always and generally true, and routines (simple present). I can ask and answer questions about things happening now (present continuous). I can talk about professions and states: thoughts and mental process, etc. (stative verbs). I can use different questions forms: direct and indirect question.
Can-do of Mediation from CEFR/ CV (B1) Can invite other people in a group to speak. Can ask a group member to give the reason(s) for their views.
Added Can-do in this lesson I can invite other people in a group to speak. I can ask a group member to give the reason(s) for their views.
Activities to reflect the added Can-do The topic of 1a is related to stereotyped images. I made them discuss whether having stereotyped images is good or bad and how we can do not to have stereotyped images which may lead to biases. ● Introduce how to express their opinions and supporting reasons. ● Introduce how to ask and answer questions showing interests in other students’ opinions.

Table 1 Adaptation of Can-do of Mediation for Lesson 2

Another example is from Lesson 3, in which 1c and 1d of Unit 1 are covered. Table 2 shows contents of Lesson 3, Can-do in the textbook, Can-do of mediation in the CEFR/CV, adapted Can-do for the class, and activities to reflect the added Can-do.

Lesson3 Unit1: Culture and Identity ■ 1c of Unit1: A world together ■ 1d of Unit1: First impressions
Original Can-do in the textbook I can introduce myself in formal and informal situations. I can open and close a conversation. I can ask for and give personal information.
Can-do of Mediation from CEFR/ CV (B1) Can present his/her ideas in a group and pose questions that invite reactions from other group members’ perspectives. Can consider two different sides of an issue, giving arguments for and against, and propose a solution or compromise.
Added Can-do in this lesson I can present my ideas in a group and ask questions for other students’ opinions. I can consider two different sides of an issue, giving arguments for and against, and propose a solution.
Activities to reflect the added Can-do The topic of a passage of 1c is related to globalization. I would like to make them discuss what globalization is, whether they are for or against globalization, and how we can maximize advantages of globalization and minimize disadvantages of globalization. ● Introduce how they can agree or disagree with other people’s opinions.

Table 2 Adaptation of Can-do of Mediation for Lesson 3

The tile of 1c of lesson 1 is “A world together”. They are to read a passage related to globalization and the phenomena which are brought about by globalization. The topic can be broadened to include discussions such as positive and negative effects of globalization; however, there is no Can-do related to the topic. In 1d of unit 1, they are to study how to open and close conversations and there are only Can-do related to that such as “I can introduce myself in formal and informal situations”. To have students discuss the topic of globalization, I prepared for discussions such as what globalization is, whether they are for or against globalization, and how we can maximize advantages of globalization and minimize disadvantages of globalization. In order for active discussions, I used two Can-do of mediation from CFER/CV as a reference, but since they are long and difficult to be understood by my students, I simplified them and made revised Can-do. For example, one of the Can-do of mediation is “Can present his/her ideas in a group and pose questions that invite reactions from other group members' perspectives.", but I adapted it to "I can present my ideas in a group and ask questions for other students' opinions."

I encouraged them to ask some questions to others while they were listening to others by using expresssions such as "Why do you think so?". In addition, they learned how to be for and against one issue using expressions such as "I think globalization is good because~", and "I don't think globalization is good because~" and how to express advantages and disadvantages of one issue using expressions such as "there are both advantages and disadvantages for globalization and one of the advantages is~". Introducing these expressions can be helpful for students to be able to achieve what are stated in the Can-do. Since this is an ongoing process of developing an e-portfolio including Can-do of mediation from CEFR/CV, at this stage I finished developing Can-do of mediation from Unit 1 to 4 which are to be covered in the spring semester and from Unit 7 to 10 which are to be covered in the fall semester. I included them on the first page of Power Point slides used in each class and distributed to students as a handout every week. As the next step, I will develop an e-portfolio which can be used for students to understand goals for each lesson, monitor their learning, and evaluate their learning reflecting a cyclical phase of Self-Regulated Learning (Zimmerman, 2002).

Concusion

In this paper, I explained the background of developing CEFR/CV, changes and revisions in the CEFR/CV, and developing Can-do of mediation for university English classes with some adaptation. The degree to which we can incorporate the concept and Can-do of mediation in classrooms at universitties may vary as there are a variety of learning and teaching contexts. However, I suggest reflecting Can-do of mediation by choosing appropriate levels and adapting Can-do of mediation depending on learning and teaching contexts because madiating skills will be necessary in this increasingly globalized society.

Since the original CEFR was issued in 2001, as globalization has advanced with the development of information technology, English skills that learners are expected to acquire have been also changing. Therefore, changes in language learning and teaching in the 21st century are inevitable. Additions and revisions presented in the CEFR/CV are what were awaited; thus, reviewing the additions and revisions in the CEFR/CV and reflecting on them in English educaiton in Japan are urgently expected

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35 Mono No Aware: Revisiting the Magic Bonsai Tree

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The use of stories is explored as a strategy to support the development of reading and listening comprehension skills. A rationale is presented to justify a procedure that the author developed in order to apply concepts from reading theory as well as commonly accepted principles of second language acquisition theory. The “Magic Bonsai” procedure presents learners with opportunities to respond non-verbally to an initial hearing of the day’s episode, followed by a second hearing to prompt active questioning by the listeners. The students listen to the episode a third time in order to anticipate what will happen next in the story. The key to success with this teaching approach is to combine familiar contexts with many chances for guessing ahead.

本稿は、読解力と聴解力を上げるための一つの方法として、物語を特定の手順で提示して使用することを提案するものである。著者が開発したこの方法はリーディングの分野の知見と一般的に受け入れられている第二言語習得理論により正統化を試みている。この「魔法の盆栽」と名付けた教育手順は、まず、ある物語の一部を聴かせ、非言語的にその物語に対して、何らかの反応をする機会を学習者に提供する。その後、2 回目の聴き取りの後に、学習者に積極的に口頭で間髪を入れず、質問をするように促す。3 回目の聴き取りでは、学習者は物語で次に何が起こるかを予測させる。この教育アプローチで成功するための鍵は、学習者の既知のコンテキストとストーリーを予測することを組み合わせることである。

In May of 1988, SIUC-Niigata opened one of the first and what turned out to be one of the longest running American branch campus programs, in Nakajo, Japan. In that first year, 459 Japanese students enrolled in SIUC-Niigata’s intensive English program, learning in modular units at a temporary site while construction moved forward on a more permanent structure where they would study the first two years of an undergraduate degree before transferring to SIUC’s home campus in Carbondale, Illinois, as well as to other U.S. universities (Curtis, 1988), as Japan’s population of 18-year-olds was peaking, in the late 1980s and early 1990s (nbakki, 2017).

I traveled to Nakajo as part of the initial teaching staff at SIUC-Niigata with little or no pre-conceptions about what I would find there. What I found were students willing to jump through any hoops a teacher set for them, as long as the teacher was also actively jumping through the hoops himself or herself.

I did arrive on that temporary campus with some predispositions about how people learn, or acquire, a new language. These new students were more fortunate than my first young adult students, at the Instituto de Idiomas de la Escuela Politecnica del Ejército de Ecuador, in Quito, several years earlier. That advanced English class went very nicely for everyone, and lessons often developed into straightforward, highly significant, and very interesting conversations in Spanish, with lots of rapport-building, but, unfortunately, little or no progress in English for the students, many of whom would contact me months and years later to ask for help translating English, which their certificates of graduation suggested they could do competently.

Now, in Japan, and with no knowledge of my new students’ first language, I saw a positive challenge: how to generate communicative events, a level of rapport, and memorable experiences all in English, without any need to resort to translation.

One of my assigned classes was beginning-level reading. The assigned textbook was “True Stories in the News” (Heyer, 1987). I also brought some of my own books to this new job: "Developing Reading Skills: A Practical Guide to Reading Comprehension Exercises" by Francoise Grellet (1981) and "Relevance: Communication and Cognition," by Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson (1986).

Grellet suggests that “reading is a constant process of guessing, and what one brings to the text is often more important than what one finds in it” (p. 7). It seemed to me as a young English teacher in 1988 that Grellet was laying the stage for an approach that would use stories (not necessarily true stories) to generate communicative activity. I interpreted Grellet to be implying that the global context for fiction is concurrently present at several levels: life itself provides the general context which allows a reader to comprehend and empathize with characters and actions in a story; the developing plot provides a more limited context which constrains the possibilities for further developments, i.e., the reader can predict a small number of conceivable next moves; finally, the sentence-level environment of new lexical items helps the reader to guess meanings, such guesses constrained simultaneously at all three levels of context. Grellet also says that it is not accurate to label a text or textbook as “easy” or “difficult”; instead, it is in how we and our students use the text that reading activities become easier or more difficult for learners.

The Sperber and Wilson book was interesting in that it worked out many of the factors involved in determining what constitutes a relevant next statement or sentence in communication. Their research expanded on the relevance principle in H.P. Grice's landmark "Logic and Conversation" (1975), and Grice was in a line of intellectual descendants of Ludwig Wittgenstein (1958), whose proposal it was that meanings of words primarily consist in their contexts, or the other words around them.

The idea was for these beginning students at SIUC-Niigata to experience what Grellet refers to as "global understanding" (p. 6) right from the start, on day one, by the teacher supporting their understanding with familiar items from the local setting. The first day began with a short introduction to a story. That first story lasted just three or four days and was a simplified version of Kafka's "Metamorphosis" (1915).

But I was quickly learning about the Nakajo environment, and switched next to a new, completely original storyline, called "The Magic Bonsai Tree," which introduced a main character named Hitachi and a vague legend about a giant bonsai tree in the Nakajo cemetery.

Clearly, the *gaikokugin* did not understand that bonsai are manicured to be miniatures; yet the local landmarks that were included in the story did seem to catch the attention of my students.

> *Every day, as Hitachi walked to SIU-C at Nakajo with his classmates, they talked about a gigantic bonsai tree in the cemetery near their path. None of them had ever seen the tree up close, but they knew that it was supposed to be magic. The people of Nakajo said that if you ate the leaves of this magic tree the river monsters would creep into your home at night and raid your refrigerator. Hitachi proudly boasted to his friends, "That story does not scare me."*

By now, a routine had been established which took about 15 or 20 minutes from each class period, as the next installment of the story was introduced and students were led through a series of exercises focused on the meaning of that day's episode.

Method

First, students would see up on the board the full text of the previous day's episode, which they had only listened to the day before. They would go over this with the teacher, who would help them by acting out any vocabulary words they wanted to focus on. One day I even found a context that seemed to call for me to stand on my head in front of the class. Whatever it took, I tried my best to demonstrate so that students would understand and remember.

The second step of the daily routine was reading aloud to the students the new episode, and asking them, on a sheet of paper, to draw a picture based on what they had just heard. The students were given several minutes to do this and for this step, as the days went by, they were encouraged to feel very free to be creative, imaginative, and not necessarily bound by any details of what they had heard or thought they had heard in their first hearing of the new episode.

The reader or listener is invited to try this now, briefly, using a story that may or may not be familiar.

> *In Wakegori, a district of the province of Iyo, there is a very ancient and famous cherry-tree, called Jiu-roku-zakura, or "the Cherry-tree of the Sixteenth Day," because it blooms every year upon the sixteenth day of the first month (by the old lunar calendar),--and only upon that day. Thus the time of its flowering is the Period of Great Cold,--though the natural habit of a cherry-tree is to wait for the spring season before venturing to blossom.*
>
> (Citation postponed to facilitate practice with the magic bonsai story technique.)

The reader or listener is asked to use a piece of paper to draw a picture of anything he or she wishes to draw right now, whether it seems related to this new story about the cherry tree or not.

As the third step each day in that beginning reading class at SIUC-Niigata, the same new installment of the story again was read aloud to the students, and the students were supposed to write two or three questions about what they had just heard. I often reminded them that asking a question is the beginning of understanding. Another way to think about it is that a question is like a climbing pickaxe that enables a mountain-climber to pull himself or herself up the side of a cliff or glacier, with the mountain or glacier representing global understanding of the meaning and purpose of what is being read or heard.

The reader of this current paper is now asked to read or listen to the second part of the sample cherry-tree story (citation delayed for effect). The reader or listener may wish to draw a new picture or add to the original drawing, but, most importantly, it is requested that he or she write two questions about this developing story, based on what has been read or heard so far. Any question is fine.

> *There was a samurai of Iyo; and the tree grew in his garden; and it used to flower at the usual time,--that is to say, about the end of March or the beginning of April. He had played under that tree when he was a child; and his parents and grandparents and ancestors had hung to its blossoming branches, season after season for more than a hundred years, bright strips of colored paper inscribed with poems of praise. He himself became very old,--outliving all his children; and there was nothing in the world left for him to live except that tree. And lo! In the summer of a certain year, the tree withered and died!*

Every day with that first group of beginning level students in Nakajo, after showing them the text from the previous day’s episode and reading out loud to them the new episode, once for drawing and once to prompt them to write their questions, I would read the episode aloud a third and final time, and students were given four or five minutes to write their own original ideas for what would happen next in the story. This final step gets at Grellet's suggestion that reading comprehension is primarily a series of guesses about what is coming next.

At this point, the daily exercise was over. Their papers were taken up, and here is how I would respond before handing them back at the start of the next day's class. First, I always wrote positive comments below or next to their drawings, specifying parts that I could identify and, if I had no idea what the drawing represented, my idealism still impelled me to write something positive about the effort. I very carefully corrected their questions for grammar and word choice, because of my belief that it was important to give them specific feedback to help them formulate questions appropriately, with questions being such potentially useful tools in communication and in the language learning or acquisition experience. I also commented with specificity and encouragement on any ideas students gave for what would happen next in the story, and I tried to incorporate as many of their ideas as possible as I was creating the new episode each day.

At this point in my session report from PanSIG 2019, this is to inform the reader or listener that the cherry blossom story — “*Jiu-roku-zakura*”—was written by Lafcadio Hearn and published in 1904. It can be accessed online for those wishing to read the ending of the story.

Discussion

According to research by Wilson and Sperber (2012), listening and reading comprehension are “online processes,” meaning they are not constituted necessarily of a specific sequence of sub-processes, but rather a number of sub-processes running in parallel while yet further perceptions prompt activation of additional sub-processes, in something akin to “just-in-time” fulfillment in a modern-day manufacturing and retail continuum. These researchers furthermore state that communication is based on an expectation of relevance and “human cognition is relevance-oriented …. The greater the cognitive effects, the greater the relevance will be” (p. 175). At the same time, relevance is decreased in proportion to “processing effort.”

> The processing effort required to understand an utterance depends on two main factors: the form in which it is presented (audibility, legibility, dialect, register, syntactic complexity and familiarity of constructions all affect processing effort); and the effort of memory and imagination needed to construct a suitable context.
>
> (Sperber & Wilson, 2012, p. 176)

Three decades later, I am no longer a youthful dreamer, yet still I would like to think that magic bonsai style activities—where local context and familiar landmarks are incorporated into a developing story—will reduce the effort of memory and imagination required, as a balance to some of the form-related challenges. Similarly, if the cognitive effects are strong enough, for example, when something unexpected, shocking, or funny occurs, attention to the story will persist because of its assumed or apparent relevance.

There is a lot of neuroscience research today related to reading, and a cursory review would suggest that different domains of prior knowledge pertain to the distinct skill areas of language comprehension and content comprehension, according to Hruby and Goswami (2011). These researchers also reported brain-response findings suggesting an orthography-semantics connection “produced a more powerful recognition effect than the orthography-phonology and phonology-meaning conditions” (p. 163). Additionally, according to Kuperberg (cited in Hruby & Goswami), “syntactic and semantic processes can have a top-down effect on word meaning processes” (p. 164, Hruby & Goswami, 2011).

These tentative findings suggest that the magic bonsai style activities may be appropriate in a shared emphasis on content, meta-cognition, and relevance. Additional support for using and developing episodic stories for listening and reading instruction is found in a growing body of research on the role of anticipation in human mental activity, according to Lavigne and Lavigne (2000). “When the semantic context is predictive enough,” these researchers suggest, “anticipatory context effects can then facilitate lexical access to the meaning of the target word adequate to the context” (p. 9).

Today there are the remnants of a debate in the field of second language teaching regarding whether language learning or acquisition is essentially an implicit, content-driven, unconscious process or an explicit, rule-driven, conscious process. As author of this report and as the teacher who developed the magic bonsai storytelling technique at SIUC-Niigata all those years ago, I believe that by keeping students’ attention focused on what Grellet calls “global understanding”—reinforced by three concentric levels of context—these story activities are providing the comprehensible input that Krashen and Terrell (1983) and, more recently, VanPatten (2003), have claimed is essential for first- and second-language acquisition.

> Thus, input is related to comprehension in that whenever a learner of a language is engaged in actively trying to comprehend something in the L2, that learner is getting input and that input serves as the basis for acquisition…. As a learner is grasping the meaning, he or she is making connections between meaning and how that meaning is encoded. Without an attempt at comprehension (a primary focus on getting meaning), there can be no connections between meaning and how it is encoded. For this reason we say that “acquisition happens as a by-product of comprehension.” (VanPatten, 2003, p. 26).

To confirm some of my intuitions about the effects of the magic bonsai reading activities, I shared my ideas with a colleague at SIUC-Niigata and we developed lesson plans connecting our classes through magic bonsai style story exercises. These notes retrieved on December 22, 2019, by e-mail from Daniel Castelaz, provide further data to inform my research:

A Second Opinion

> During the time I spent as an ESL teacher at Southern Illinois University in Japan, I had the opportunity to collaborate with Robb Scott on one of his innovative techniques for helping our students acquire English language skills. The technique came to be called "The Nakajo Stories" and involved engaging students with an interactive language learning experience that focused on reading strategies. Looking back on the experience now, it seems as if every teacher should have been doing something similar because it was so effective. But they weren't, and I wasn't, because it was something that Robb had created.
>
> The premise for The Nakajo Stories was that students could become better readers if they were genuinely engaged in the text they were reading. Robb's idea was to have students take part in the writing of the text, thereby getting them intimately involved with it while incorporating valuable skills such as predicting. He also used the local Nakajo environment as the backdrop for the story, which provided a natural entry for our students. In my classroom, students were captivated by the mysterious yet humorous aspects of the story as it unfolded day by day with each new installment. They looked forward to sharing their interpretation of what would happen, and were genuinely interested in what the protagonist was going through. I found that students would write more than required, and more importantly, I could sense the personalities of students emerging as they gave their thoughts about possible outcomes.
>
> Other positives from this approach to teaching reading were the many authentic opportunities it provided for group discussion, for listening practice, and, when necessary, for a bit of grammar practice, all of which took place more naturally and organically as a result of the storyline and the students' engagement with it.
>
> Finally, the collaboration between teachers created a connection among the students in both classes, especially since Robb and I would go into each other's classroom at appropriate (planned) times for the purpose of advancing the narrative. I found that the students Robb and I had taught were more enthusiastic about their language study and recognized that their input and participation were genuinely valued. They weren't just sitting behind a desk getting corrections in red ink on homework assignments.

Those recollections by Dan Castelaz bring out some of the emotional responses of students and teachers working together on magic bonsai style activities. Maftoon and Sabah suggest that second language acquisition research traditionally has emphasized cognitive aspects of input whereas a more "robust and coherent....conception of Vgotsky's zone of proximal development would…embrace both cognitive and affective domains" (Maftoon & Sabah, 2012, p. 40). Larsen-Freeman (2018) explains that agency and "affordances," or relationships which afford both the student and a teacher opportunities to take initiatives moving classrooms and lessons in new directions, are more relevant than the "closed system" thinking of so-called "natural" approaches in which a teacher provides "comprehensible input" to a passive listener or reader. Her philosophy of language learning incorporates ideas from Thoms (2014), who writes, "The affordance construct is attractive…because it recognizes that language learning is not an isolated activity within the implicit causality of input and output but a dynamic process that mandates that the learner be an active participant" (p. 727). A potential explanation for why the magic bonsai reading activities generated so much enthusiasm among our students at SIUC-Niigata in 1988 is that we established "an affordance-rich environment [displaying] organization, several feedback loops, and an abundance of learner agency" (Thoms, 2014, p. 727).

Conclusion

In today's context, when some English teachers may not believe it is possible for students to communicate in a second language without continually pausing to mentally translate every phrase, it is my hope that colleagues will give episodic, in-class stories a try. There is enhanced engagement in the ESL/EFL classroom when beginners and students at any level of proficiency keep surprising themselves by understanding before there has been enough time to start thinking about translating. The teacher who uses stories to generate this kind of excitement is going to find himself or herself motivated to keep the communication going back and forth by guiding students to greater levels of confidence and language skills. It is in such an environment—with comprehension developing quickly in response to engaging contexts and a dynamic, anticipatory cognitive activity—that students unconsciously and indirectly speed up their rates of second language acquisition.

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36 Teaching Reading in Japanese Public Elementary Schools

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There is little doubt that English language learners need to learn to read, but there is some controversy as to when and how this process should begin. In the past reading was not taught until junior high school in Japan, but with the new emphasis on English in public elementary schools, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has recommended that elementary school students should also start literacy activities. The aim of this research was to analyze a number of MEXT approved textbooks in order to assess the type of reading activities that are included in these textbooks, and how they correspond with common methods of teaching reading to beginners. This paper will show the results of this analysis and include suggestions as to what activities might be used to supplement these textbooks in order for beginners to be taught in a more comprehensive manner.

英語学習者は、リーディングを学ばなければならない。これに異論をはさむ教育関係者はまずいないであろう。しかし、リーディングの学習をいつからどのように始めるかとなると、ここは意見の分かれるところである。以前は日本の小学校ではリーディングを教えていなかったが、公立小学校で英語を教えることが改めて取り沙汰されるようになった。この研究の目的は、文部科学省の検定に合格した様々な教科書を分析して、それらの教科書を使用するとどのようなリーディングが指導されるのか、ならびにそれらの指導が英語初心者への一般的なリーディング指導法とどこが共通しているのか、または異なるのかを精査する。本稿では、そうした分析の結果を報告すると共に、英語学習初心者がより包括的な形で指導を受けられるようにするために、どのような指導で検定済教科書を補足できるのかについても提案していく。

Until recently it was thought that elementary school English should focus solely on speaking and listening skills, and that literacy should be taught from junior high school (Nemoto, 2018). However, from 2020 the elementary school English curriculum in Japan will change significantly with English being taught from 3rd grade. In addition, Foreign language activities will be increased to 35 hours per year in 3rd and 4th grades, and 70 hours per year in 5th and 6th grades. Although in the new curriculum speaking and listening skills are still emphasized, literacy skills will also be included (Nemoto, 2018). This will require that elementary school teachers learn to teach basic English reading and writing skills. As most elementary students will not have learnt English before, they will need to be taught the basics of reading in English. There has been extensive research done on teaching reading to young learners in a first language (Goodman, 1967; Hinzman & Reed, 2018; Reyhner, 2018; Castles, Rastle, & Nation, 2018; Enever, 2011) as well as teaching more advanced reading skills as a second or foreign language (Nation, 2009), but there is relatively little literature on teaching literacy to beginners in a second language.

In 2000, The American National Institute of Child Health and Human Development published a report on how to teach young English language learners to read (August & Shanahan, 2006). This study was based on a large number of existing studies into teaching literacy to young learners in a second language. From the analysis of these studies five 'essential elements' of reading instruction were proposed: phonemic awareness (the ability to hear individual sounds in a word), phonics (the ability to decode phonemes to sound out words), fluency, vocabulary and comprehension (Irujo, 2007). August and Shanahan (2006) also found that in addition to incorporating the five elements, second language learners need intensive language development before being taught to read. This is based on findings that students with higher English language skills were found to have benefitted more from reading instruction than those with very low-level English skills. These findings appear to support the current recommendations of MEXT that speaking and listening skills should be emphasized in the early years of English language instruction, but that literacy is still part of learning a language even in the beginner stages (MEXT, 2014).

This article aims firstly to outline some of the differences between teaching literacy in a first and second language. Secondly, it seeks to outline various methods of teaching reading to beginners. Finally, six MEXT approved elementary school textbooks (see table 1) will be analyzed to see what types of literacy activities are included in order to compare the textbook activities with research on teaching reading. Based on this comparison, recommendations will be offered on ways that textbook activities could be supplemented to offer a more effective reading program for elementary school students.

Differences in teaching literacy in a first and second language

When learning English as a first language, most children start to read when they attend full-time primary or elementary school (age five or six). However, in the second language children generally start learning to read later. A review of a number of countries showed that in Europe the average age to start foreign language education is between four and seven years old (Curtis, 2007). In Japan, English education in elementary school used to focus only on listening and speaking from ten years old, with literacy not introduced until junior high school (twelve or thirteen years old), although from 2020 literacy will be taught from age ten.

Macrory (2019) found that students encountering a new orthography may have an extra challenge when learning a foreign language. Japanese and English have very different orthographies, with Japanese based on the phonetic *hiragana* and *katakana* alphabets as well as logographic symbols (*kanji*), which represent meaning. This means that students in Japan may need to be taught literacy in English in a different way than students whose first language also uses the roman alphabet. August and Shanahan (2006) recommend emphasizing phonemes that are not present in the students' native language. In the case of Japanese, this might mean extra work on /r/, /l/ and /v/ sounds which students often have difficulty with.

Although learning to read in a second language has challenges, there are also benefits. As Linse (2006) explains, children who can already read in their native language have an advantage as they have already made the connection between printed words representing spoken words, and they know that reading can be done to get information as well as for pleasure.

How to teach beginners to read

There are three main ways in which children are taught to read: the whole language approach, phonics, and sight words. The battle between the whole language approach and phonics has sometimes been referred to as 'the reading wars' (Castles, Rastle, & Nation, 2018), in which proponents of each method promoted the virtues of their method and criticized the other methods. I will outline the advantages and disadvantages of each method and whether they need to be used in isolation, or if a combination of methods might provide the most effective way to teach literacy.

Phonics

Phonics is a way in which the smallest units of sound (phonemes) are taught as individual sounds with their grapheme or letter representation. These sounds and letters are then blended together to form words. Synthetic phonics also teaches learners how to hear all the phonemes in a word and match them to a letter in order to help learners to spell correctly. For further reading on phonics please see Jolly Learning (n.d.).

Phonics gives students the tools to read for themselves. It can empower students, and can turn reading into a puzzle, which can be incredibly motivating (Ehri, Nunes, Stahl, & Willows, 2001). Phonics instruction has also been shown to raise the reading age of children in their first language by 28 months (Paton, 2014). Unfortunately, only approximately 50% of words in the English language can be decoded using phonics (Reyhner, 2018), which can also be frustrating for learners. In addition, it has been found that although phonics can be extremely useful in helping second language learners to decode words, even at very low levels of language proficiency, it will not aid comprehension if students' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary is not sufficient to understand the words they are decoding (Irujo, 2007). Second language learners need to decode words phonically that they have already encountered, and need to have the phonemic awareness to differentiate individual sounds in words. In addition, they need sufficiently accurate pronunciation to be able to reproduce the phonemes to create words (Irujo, 2007).

Whole Language Approach

The whole language approach to teaching reading was developed by Frank Smith and Kenneth Goodman in the 1970s (Katanoda & Wada, 2003). It is considered a top-down approach where the reader constructs meaning from text, based on prior knowledge of the language. Whole language instruction often involves reading stories and games, as well as songs and chants. Goodman (1967) believed that beginning readers need little instruction to decode letters and that by reading meaningful texts and making inferences students will naturally acquire the ability to read in English. The whole language approach involves recognizing words that have been read before, as well as having sufficient background knowledge of English to guess the meanings of new words from context.

In this way, the whole language approach can be very effective in learning to read English in a first language, where children as young as four or five years old often have an extensive knowledge of vocabulary. However, when teaching English as a second language students often do not have an extensive vocabulary, so cannot guess the words from context, and cannot infer the meanings of words.

Sight words

Sight word instruction is a way in which frequently used words are taught as individual words out of context, usually using flashcards. Hinzman and Reed (2018) list two reasons for teaching sight words. The first is with words that could be decoded with phonics, but appear so frequently that learning to read them without decoding speeds up the reading time. These are words such as *and* or *get*. The second reason to use sight words is with common, but phonically irregular words such as *there* and *have.* Hinzman and Reed (2018) warn against allowing students to become too reliant on sight words at the expense of deduction and decoding of words, as they will always be reliant on what they have already learned and they will not become independent readers.

The best method to teach young learners to read

As can be seen in the previous section, each method of teaching reading has pros and cons, so a combination of methods may produce the best results. A solid grounding in phonics gives students the building blocks to tackle any unknown words they come across. The whole language approach encourages students to use their schema to guess the meaning of unknown words through context and encourages a love of the language through introducing interesting and motivating topics and stories. The learning of sight words can help learners to read quickly. Reading quickly allows learners to pay more attention to meaning, which in turn will aid comprehension. Ultimately the majority of fluent readers read most words as sight words and through inferencing as in the whole language approach. It is only when new and unknown words are encountered that fluent readers resort to phonics, however phonics is a crucial first step for many students learning to read.

Methodology

The current MEXT approved elementary school textbooks were analyzed using Littlejohn's Levels of Analysis (2011) to see what type of reading activities are included and how these correspond to recommended approaches to teaching reading in a second language. The six textbooks analyzed were *Hi, Friends! 1* (2012), *Hi, Friends! 2* (2012), *Let's Try! 1* (2018), *Let's Try! 2* (2018), *We Can! 1* (2018) and *We Can! 2* (2018).

Littlejohn's Levels of Analysis (2011) has three levels 'what is there', 'what is required of users', 'and what is implied'. Firstly, a list of literacy activities appearing in the textbooks, was compiled (Table 1). This is equivalent to the first level in Littlejohn's framework (2011). The textbooks were analyzed page by page for these activities, which were counted and shown in Table 1. Although some activities overlapped, an effort was made to identify each

		Hi, Friends!1 (Tokyo Shoseki, 2012)	*Hi, Friends!2* (Tokyo Shoseki, 2012)	*Let's Try! 1* (Tokyo Shoseki, 2018)	*Let's Try! 2* (Tokyo Shoseki, 2018)	*We Can! 1* (Tokyo Shoseki, 2018)	*We Can! 2* (Tokyo Shoseki, 2018)
Alphabet	Upper	1	1	1			
	Lower		1		1		
Sounds and Letters						5	5
Dialogues			1	1		5	2
Song Words		1		1			
Short sentences							4
Short Stories			1	1	1	5	12
Folk tale			1				
Sight Words			1		5	9	15

Table 1 *Elementary School Textbook Comparison*

activity as only one type. Subsequently, each activity was analyzed to see which method of teaching reading (whole language, phonics or sight words) it might be utilizing. This responds to the second level of Littlejohn's (2011) framework trying to see what the learner is expected to do and how this is connected to learning. Finally, a short summary of the textbooks and how they approach reading was written as the third level of Littlejohn's (2011) framework to try to see what is implied by the inclusion and exclusion of literacy activities.

Results

Level 1 'What is There'

Hi, Friends! 1 is not intended to include literacy activities. The uppercase alphabet letters are introduced, but phonics activities are not included. One song is included with words, which might be used as a whole language approach activity. There are no sight word activities. In general, it appears that students are expected to do very little reading.

Level 2 'What is required of users'

Hi, Friends! 2 is not intended to include literacy activities either. The upper and lowercase alphabets are included, but they are not connected to phonic sounds. There is one short dialog, one short story, and one Japanese folktale written in English. These are all whole language activities. The months of the year are also introduced as sight words with flashcards at the back of the book. As there are no phonics, it appears that students are introduced to reading in English through the whole language approach. Probably students read and listen while the teacher reads the stories aloud. Some teachers may incorporate read and repeat activities.

Let's Try! 1 is very similar to *Hi, Friends! 1*, but in addition to the uppercase letters of the alphabet and a song, there is also a short story. The short story could be used as a whole language activity. There are also flashcards at the back of the book, which may be used as sight word activities, although these words do not appear to be included in the main part of the textbook. The whole language approach is probably used in this textbook, but it may be supplemented with sight words.

Let's Try! 2 introduces the lowercase letters of the alphabet, but there are no phonics activities. There is one short story, which could be used as a whole language activity. The major difference between this textbook and the ones discussed so far is that there are five different pages of sight words as well as matching flashcards at the back of the book. This indicates that sight words are encouraged through this textbook as well as the whole language approach.

We Can! 1 is intended for 5th grade students, and contains more literacy activities than the previous textbooks. There are five pages of 'letters and sounds'. It is possible that the teachers may introduce these sounds as phonic practice. The 'letters and sounds' pages are at the end of the textbook, but seem to be intended to be introduced as chants with the themes of the textbook. I would not classify this as phonics instruction as there is no explicit blending of letter sounds to read words or breaking down of words into phonemes to aid spelling. In addition, only individual letters of the alphabet are used. There are no diagraphs (th, ch, sh, wh) or long vowel sounds (ai, oo, ee, etc.) introduced. The textbook includes five pages called 'Story Time' which have simple dialogs. These dialogs could be used as whole language activities. There are nine pages of sight words activities with flashcards to supplement their teaching at the back of the book. In general, this textbook appears to encourage a variety of whole language activities with flashcards which could be used as sight word practice. There is an introduction to phonic sounds, but no blending activities.

We Can! 2 contains the same letter and sound activities as *We Can! 1*, although they don't seem to be integrated into the textbook and there are no explicit phonics blending activities included. There are two short dialogues and four pages of short sentences about familiar topics with clear visuals, which could be used for whole language approach activities. In addition, there are twelve pages called 'Story Time'. These pages have a short written text with plenty of visual clues. This is almost certainly designed to be used as a top down reading practice such as in the whole language approach. For example, there is a story about a boy whose father is a baker and he wants to become a baker too. The visual clues show the boy dreaming of wearing a white chef's coat and hat whisking something in a bowl. Students who know that chefs and bakers often wear these clothes and do these things, will be able to infer some of the meaning from the pictures. There are also fifteen pages of sight words with supporting flashcards in the back of the book. *We Can! 2* has significantly more literacy activities than *We Can! 1,* with a mixture of whole language approach and sight words.

Level 3 'What is implied'

Based on this analysis a number of points can be inferred as to the way in which the textbook writers intend reading to be taught. *Hi, Friends!* and *Let's Try!* focus almost entirely on speaking and listening activities, although the short stories and folktales might be aimed at teaching reading through the whole language approach. Unfortunately, as there is only one short story in each textbook, there is not enough reading for students to gain much competence.

We Can! 1 and 2 contain far more reading activities. Five pages of letters and sounds are also included. This could be an introduction to phonics, although as explained earlier, phonics should be introduced gradually and students need to learn to blend sounds to make words, not only recognize individual sounds. It can be inferred that phonics are introduced, but they are not taught systematically as a method to learn to read.

With five short stories and five dialogs in We Can! *1* and twelve short stories in *We Can! 2* it can be inferred that the whole language approach is being used in these textbooks. Each story is simple with enough supporting visuals and common schema that students could guess the meanings of words from context. Each textbook also contains various pages of vocabulary, which might be taught as sight words using the flashcards at the back of the book. The flashcards contain pictures and words, which means that students do not necessarily have to read the words. In addition, frequent words that are commonly taught as sight words are not included. From this it can be inferred that sight word reading was not a main aim of the textbooks, but could be incorporated if the teacher wished to do so.

Conclusion and recommendations

Based on this analysis it appears that most of the current textbooks are mainly using a whole language approach to teach reading. Research shows that incorporating phonics, sight words and whole language approaches to be the most effective way to teach early literacy skills to young learners (Irujo, 2007). In view of this, students would benefit from teachers supplementing the textbooks with phonics and sight words. As all of the textbooks introduce first letter phonic sounds for the letters of the alphabet, this could be built on by teaching students to blend the sounds to make words. Teachers also need to introduce a few extra common diagraphs such as 'th', 'ch' and 'sh'. A few sight words are introduced in the current textbooks, these could be supplemented with frequent words such as *and*, *have* and *are*, which could be taught by making flashcards or writing the words on the blackboard.

Although the elementary school textbooks are set to change from 2020, it is hoped that by analyzing the previous textbooks teachers will be able to identify what is lacking in the textbooks they are using. Teachers can then supplement the textbooks with extra literacy activities to enable students to learn to read in the most effective way. Through having a clear understanding of the methods of teaching reading, it is hoped that literacy can be incorporated in elementary school English classes.

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37 Teacher Verbal Feedback on English Presentations

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This study aimed to identify the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals for English presentations, to analyze the teacher's verbal feedback content, and to explore whether the content provided opportunities for the postgraduates to reach the objectives and the goals. The research tools were observations, interviews, and document analysis. The audio-recorded data were transcribed and analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The results showed that the main course objective was to improve the students' presentation skills. Similarly, the teacher's teaching goal was to provide the students with techniques for improving their presentations. The content focused on structure, coherence, speaking skills, involving the audience (including visual aids), and self-presentation. These contents provided opportunities for the students to reach the objectives and the goals because they were directly related to their presentation skills. The findings have pedagogical implications for presentations in English courses; for example, teachers can reflect on their providing verbal feedback, which would lead to reaching course objectives and their teaching goals.

この研究は教師からの助言をもとに英語で発表する為にコースの目的及び目標を特定します。それから、大学院生の目標及び目的を到達するために特定した内容の検討で提供します。研究ツールは監視、インタービュー、文書分析などであり、録音されたデータを書き起こし、定性的及び定量的の両方で分析しました。研究の結果により、主な目的は生徒のプレゼンテーションスキル向上を示されていました。同様に、教師の目的も生徒にプレゼンテーションスキル向上の支援を提供します。この内容は視聴覚教材、体制、スピーキングスキルなどに関する興味を持つ聴衆を注目しています。さらにこの内容もプレゼンテーションスキルを直接関係しているために　目標及び目的を到達したい生徒に適しています。今回の調査内容は英語コースで発表に関する意味合いがあります。例えば、コースの個人的な目標及び目的を到達するために、教師が意見を述べられることなどです。

Stevens (1996) explained that "presentations have a broader purpose. As well as seeking to persuade they are used to explain ideas, share knowledge and experiences, help the audience to make informed decisions and often to elicit feedback from them" (p. 1). Moreover, presentations are a useful way to contribute to English language learning experiences because they enable people to practice all language areas (i.e. vocabulary, phonology, and grammar) and skills (speaking, reading, writing, and listening). However, the most important thing is to build people's confidence in presentations. Normally, presentations may make people feel nervous speaking in front of others. Presentations in front of a class, a workplace, or a public place, in a language which is not one's first native level, can be difficult. Leichsenring (2010) conducted an analysis on first year Japanese EFL undergraduate students and found that the students thought that giving a presentation in English was difficult. They had problems with planning and preparing and worried about remembering the presentation content. More recently, in their study, Ličen and Bogdanović (2017) mentioned that when students give a presentation, they normally do not provide enough introduction or conclusion and do not use visual aids successfully. It can be concluded that for teaching presentations teachers should give their students the practice and support they need, and they should provide presentation instructions in a safe and encouraging environment during the students' presentations.

One of ways for improving presentations is assessors' or evaluators' feedback. Feedback is one the necessary helpers that lots of researchers apply in order to improve presenters' presentation skills (Ličen & Bogdanović, 2017). Because of assessors' or evaluators' feedback, presenters will get to know simultaneously what has been done right and what could be improved after performance. In fact, most researches show that giving feedback is negative because it reduces the confidence of the presenter directly (Méndez & Cruz, 2012). However, the studies so far specifically related to the teacher's verbal feedback on a presentation are scarce and have not been informative. Consequently, this current study fills this gap by identifying the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals for English presentations, analyzing the teacher's verbal feedback content, and investigating whether the use of the feedback provided postgraduate students with the ability to reach the objectives and the goals. In the following sections, presentation skills and teacher verbal feedback are described.

Presentation skills

Having effective presentation skills is very important, whether in the classroom or in the workplace. These skills are a valuable life skill, which can help people in their education and future careers. A presentation can be defined as the communication of information to an audience. It can happen in a classroom, or in the workplace and public places. It involves speaking aloud, but it is also about using the presenters' critical thinking, listening, and non-verbal communications skills to get their message across. There are broad essential techniques and structures for giving a presentation that presenters should understand. According to Ličen and Bogdanović (2017), there are eight significant presentation factors designed to help with both presentation training and assessment processes, these include *content*, *structure*, *grammar*, *coherence*, *vocabulary*, *speaking skills*, *involving the audience*, and *self-presentation*. The use of visual aids is not listed as a separate category because their use should not be made mandatory when considering the quality of a presentation. However, it can be placed within the "involving the audience" category. In this study, eight presentation factors, which were adapted from Ličen and Bogdanović (2017), are described as follows.

Content: a single topic without digressing to other subjects/topics. The topic should be discussed in great detail and interesting examples should be offered.

Structure: the basic introduction-body-conclusion organizational pattern. Presenters have to be familiarized with thesis/topic sentences, the introduction, and supporting sentences.

Grammar: the use of grammatically correct sentences

Coherence: a well-ordered and logical flow of ideas should be presented, and there is a need for repetition, re-wording, and summarization in individual organization units.

Vocabulary: selecting the most appropriate words in order to convey precise meanings, as well as for using a wide range of words, linking expressions, appropriate phrases for introducing a subject, involving the audience, presenting one's argument, ordering points, starting a new section, referring to visual aids, defining, rephrasing, and giving examples and offering conclusions. These make the speech more vivid and effective.

Speaking skills: these are voice/speech traits such as volume, intonation, fluency, expression, clarity, and projection, but they also include pace and pause.

Involving the audience (including visual aids): raising interest by offering examples, anecdotes, impressive statistics, interesting quotations, asking rhetorical questions, and the use of visual aids

Self-presentation: several different presentation skills and aspects, such as body language, gestures and eye contact, to establish a pleasant relationship with the audience, to be open and to show a sense of humor

Teacher verbal feedback

According to Hadzic (2016), in the classroom verbal feedback is as a natural part of the verbal interaction between teachers and students. It is the key to formative assessment (Sadler, 1989). It can be as "a key process in learning, providing information on actual performance in relation to the goal of performance" (Molloy & Boud, 2013, p. 2). Although normally the teacher's verbal feedback is used to instantly correct students' mistakes (Tonekaboni, 2016), it should be given without personal judgments or opinions (Boud, 2002). The teacher's verbal feedback should be given based on the facts, should always be neutral and objective, constructive, and focus on the future. Teachers should provide the information that is being given on how an action is developed in terms of its quality for success. The primary characteristic of the teacher's verbal feedback is the use of its information to improve the students' performance. Recently, Rahmat and Munir (2018) explained that there are two main purposes for teacher verbal feedback: "to let students know how well they have performed and to increase their interests and motivation to talk far more" (p. 127). In their research, Mahdi and Saadany (2013) found that the students indicated that teacher verbal feedback was needed so that they could know what to improve in their language use. In addition, some of these students explained that when they receive verbal feedback, they can memorize what they did wrong and do it right the next time. Consequently, they can learn from the teacher's verbal feedback how to make sense and further their learning (Winne & Butler, 1994).

Research questions

1. What are the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals in English presentations?
2. What is the content of the teacher's verbal feedback related to presentation factors?
3. Does the content of the teacher's verbal feedback provide opportunities for students to reach the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals? If yes, how are the opportunities to reach these objectives and these goals provided through the content of the teacher's verbal feedback?

Methods

Participants and setting

One presentation class in a master's degree program in the field of English at a public university in Bangkok participated in the study. The participants were one Thai female teacher, one Thai female master's student, and two foreign male master's students who will hereafter be referred to as the teacher and the students (T, S1, S2, and S3) respectively. Pseudonyms are given to the participants for confidentiality purposes and to ensure their privacy. However, the gender and the nationalities of the participants were not focused on. For the teacher, she had almost two years of teaching experience. She had received a Ph.D. in translation studies from the United Kingdom. Concerning the students, their ages ranged from 25-35 years and their English study period ranged from 15 to 20 years. All of them were studying giving presentations in English for the first time, and they took this course for a semester (three hours a week for 18 weeks). The class was designed to help them improve their presentation skills.

Procedure

The investigation focused on the content of the teacher's verbal feedback regarding the students' presentations during nine weeks (W3, W4, W6, W7, W10, W12, W14, W17, W18) was observed by using an audio recording. During six weeks when the students learned how to give a presentation, the class was observed with taking notes. Moreover, the class was cancelled for three weeks so the total observed weeks was 15. Based on the observations, the teacher asked the students to give a presentation based on topics in the textbook or on the student's topic preferences, such as owning a business, his or her current job, academic topics, selling a product, etc. Each presentation task was related to the teaching topic of each week. As the researchers noticed during the presentations, the teacher and the other students paid attention to the presenting student. The teacher asked all of the students to give a presentation, and then provided verbal feedback on each student's presentation by giving suggestions or comments on their presentation performance.

After observing the class, a semi-structured interview was conducted. The teacher was asked about the course objectives and her teaching goals for an English presentation class. Each student was asked about the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals and teacher verbal feedback's contents. The students were also asked whether the use of teacher verbal feedback provided them for reaching the objectives and the goals. Each interview was conducted separately, audio-recorded, and transcribed. The sequence of interview questions and topics followed a semi-fixed sequence.

The last research tool was document analysis. The documents analyzed was the course syllabus where the course objectives could be found. More details of presentation techniques taught for each week could be also found in the syllabus.

The data from the observations, the interviews, and the document analysis were analyzed qualitatively. The research findings are presented in the same order as the research questions below.

Results and discussion

In this section, the results related to the research questions mentioned are explained and discussed.

Research question 1

In regard to Research Question 1, the analysis of the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals for English presentations suggested that the objectives and the goals were quite similar (Table 1). It is possible that the teacher wrote the course syllabus based on her personal teaching goals.

Table 1 *The Course Objectives and the Teacher's Teaching Goals for English Presentations*

The Course Objectives (Course Syllabus)
To *learn techniques* on how to give effective and successful presentations. To *practice* giving presentations. To *improve* presentation skills.
The Teacher's Teaching Goals (The Teacher's Interview)
My goal was *to make the students improve even a little bit* because *presentation are skills that you have to practice* and some people may be better at it or some are not as good. So, it just takes time to practice. My goal is just to let them *be aware of these techniques*, which *the techniques they can use to improve their presentations*.

Examples of interview responses concerning the teacher's perceptions about reaching her course objectives and teaching goals are shown below.

"Letting them practice in class and also through feedback, every student have to evaluate themselves and their friends as well. So, we will learn through mistakes and examples, and practice."

"Let them watch the videos, see the examples and then try to apply it into their own presentations and then let them evaluate themselves and their friends."

"When we learned on next time, you all did better, some point maybe we pointed out the week before that maybe you can do this better next time, and then when the week came, you did better. So, I think it help, maybe it's not only my feedback, other students' feedback that they got from other students and that also helped."

Research question 2

Research Question 2 focused on the content of the teacher's verbal feedback. The data from the observations in this study suggested that each week the teacher taught a presentation technique to the students and asked them to give a presentation using the taught presentation technique of that week or the previous week. The taught presentation techniques included structuring a presentation and signposting, body language and voice power, introducing your presentation and rapport building, delivering your message, using visual aids, concluding, and impact techniques. Upon starting to analyze the transcripts from the observations, an interesting pattern began to emerge. When the teacher provided verbal feedback for the students' presentation performance, her verbal feedback content was based not only on the taught presentation techniques, but also on the eight presentation factors of Ličen and Bogdanović (2017) as can be seen in the following examples.

Example 1

"You got pretty much everything there. I mean you did *put the outline out*. Everything's along the way. *The structure is quite clear*."

"So, you have the basic things, you all *have introduction, body, structure, and conclusion*."

"I think navigation, I think you have some, didn't you? like you tell us going to show us the product a little bit of it, right? Some of navigation thing like you told us or this is the product that I want to talk about that's one way of doing it. *There is a way to navigate us, you tell us what you going to talk about*, and then you show us the video but you didn't use it consistently in the presentation.

The above examples demonstrate that the teacher gave verbal feedback related to *structuring a presentation (using the core structure and signposting)*, which was the presentation technique taught during W4 (Week 4) and two of the presentation factors, *self-presentation* and *coherence* (Ličen & Bogdanović, 2017).

Example 2

"Now it seems like *your voice is not powerful*."

"So, you actually can work on the voice power, the stress and the pauses that we did last time. *You can adjust your voice or you can add the pauses where it's appropriate*."

"The first impression somehow okay, I mean you smile, but enormously *body language and eye contact you did not really eye contact with us*. I mean you try, but you didn't always look at your notes but you didn't look at us either."

It is clear from the examples above that the teacher gave verbal feedback content related to *voice power* and *body language,* which was the presentation technique taught during W5 (Week 5), and two of the presentation factors, *speaking skills* and *self-presentation* (Ličen & Bogdanović, 2017).

Example 3

"And you started with the quote, that's one thing *you attracted audiences' attention first*, and then you have your welcome the audiences. *There was anecdote which is very good*."

"*You tried to include your audiences*, but in the questions. And you gave examples, using what the audiences are familiar with this material, for example."

"*Visual aids*, *it's not always important*. If it can help you as good, if it gonna be obstruct you there is not good. So, it depends on your, how you use. I mean you can make use of it, but you think No, I don't need it, that's fine."

The above examples show that the teacher gave verbal feedback related to *introducing your presentation (understanding your audience), rapport building*, *using visual aids,* and *impact techniques*, which were the presentation techniques taught during W6, W8, and W16 (Week 6, Week 8, and Week 16), and one of the presentation factors, *involving the audience (including visual aids)* (Ličen & Bogdanović, 2017).

Research question 3

In order to address the third research question, the analysis of the students' interviews was performed. For each of the following interview narratives, the interviewees referred to S1, S2, S3 throughout. Each summary was written from the perspective of the researchers.

Interview 1: S1

Based on S1's interview, S1 mentioned the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals, stating that "it is a preparation for us to do any business presentations in the future." S1 indicated that the objectives and the goals were appropriate for this course because "this course is mostly about communication and business. It brought you a spectrum, if you are looking for job somewhere, you can ease to a lot of things. It's a skill and it really necessary to have that skill." For teaching the presentation techniques and improving presentation skills, S1 indicated that "the teacher tried. I love the fact that we used to have a class discussion and we made at least every month, we had a presentation that increase confidence when speaking in front of the class, speaking to people". Moreover, S1 insisted that teacher's verbal feedback helped the students accomplish the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals.

Interview 2: S2

S2 explained that the course objectives supported developing the students' presentation skills: "the course objectives lead to improving our presentation skills that we can use in the future." In addition, S2 said about the taught presentation techniques that "when giving a presentation, she told that we should not only stand still, but also can walk around or use body language to make a presentation relax and not to make audiences stressful". Similarly, for the teacher's teaching goals she continued to state that "the teacher's teaching goals made us improve our presentations. If we can use her verbal feedback for our presentations, it will be a benefit for us. The effective presentation techniques that the teacher taught us can let our audiences know that we were trained or studied about giving a presentation before. This can impress audiences." Furthermore, S2 remarked that based on her teaching goals, the teacher wanted to make the students' speech more natural and wanted them to involve the audience in the presentation. Finally, the researcher asked S2 to describe how the teacher's verbal feedback was helpful for reaching the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals. S2 indicated, "yes, it helped. Because when we got verbal feedback from the teacher, it made me know more about myself." She continued to explain that she used the feedback to improve her presentation skills although they were not good enough. She tried to make her presentations better.

Interview 3: S3

The researcher asked S3 to describe the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals. S3 stated that the objectives and the goals were "to learn techniques of a presentation and how to have a successful presentation, to practice giving a presentation, and to improve our presentation skills." He concluded that based on the objectives and the goals, the teacher taught the techniques to improve his presentation skills. She taught a lot of techniques to improve them, such as improvig voice, tone, and body language and using graphics to present information. To conclude, S3 mentioned that teacher's verbal feedback was helpful for improving his presentation skills, which was one of the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals. He said that "the teacher immediately gave verbal feedback after finishing each presentation. Then I used her feedback to improve his next presentation." S3 continued to indicate that "normally the teacher's feedback is about my speaking skills, particularly his voice". Consequently, he tried to improve his voice for the next presentations. Finally, he got good feedback about speaking skills.

Based on the above interviews, it can be concluded that the contents that the teacher provided through her verbal feedback on the students' presentation performance could reach the course objectives and her teaching goals. All of the students indicated that they learned effective presentation techniques that led to improving their presentation skills.

Conclusion

This paper has focused on the content of the teacher's verbal feedback, leading to the course objectives and the teacher's teaching goals in an English presentation class. As was noted in the introduction, feedback is one of the ways of developing presentation skills because with such feedback the presenters are able to learn what they did right and what they could improve. Moreover, the results suggested that in a presentation class the content of the teacher's verbal feedback can help her accomplish the course objectives and her teaching goals. The teacher can provide messages related to the students' presentation performance and information she intend to teach her students based on her course objectives and teaching goals. Nevertheless, due to the small scale of the study, it is too early to make any firm conclusions about the use of the teacher verbal feedback content. Larger studies with more participants would help to develop a better understanding of the issues. However, the researchers hope that other teachers will find it practical using the content of the teacher's verbal feedback on the presentations in their own classes.

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38 Yes-No Vocabulary Tests and Synform Pseudowords

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Stubbe and Nakashima (2019) introduced synform pseudowords to the yes-no test format. The present study answers their call for future research by testing an item list containing 50% real words prone to synformic confusion (vase versus base, for example). Two versions of a yes-no test were created, version A contained six synform pseudowords and nine regular pseudowords, and version B contained 15 regular pseudowords. The tested real words were 30 synform words and 30 non-synform words. Participants (N = 235) also took an English to Japanese translation test of the same 60 items, to check for over-estimation of word knowledge on the yes-no test. Results suggest that synform pseudowords do help adjust yes-no test scores to better reflect demonstrable vocabulary knowledge, but correlations with translation test scores, as well as with actual over-estimation were higher for the regular pseudowords. Thus, synform pseudowords do not greatly assist the yes-no test format.

Stubbe and Nakashima (2019) は、学生が語彙の習得度を自己判断するためのテストに疑似語を取り入れた。本研究では和訳問題に実際にある語彙 (例えば、vase/base)を用いることで、自己診断の正確性が向上するかを検証した。学生の自己診断テスト単語テストには疑似語を用いたが、和訳テストには実在する語を 60 語用いた（綴り字が似ている単語と似ていない単語が 30 語ずつ）。結果として、自己診断テストに綴り字が似ている疑似語を導入する方が学生の語彙習得に対する認識をより正確に測ることができるが、その程度はさほど大きいものではないことが分かった。

Pseudowords were originally added to the yes-no (YN) test format to provide a means of checking whether or not test-takers were over-estimating their knowledge of the tested items (Anderson & Freebody, 1983). Stubbe and Nakashima (2019) investigated the usefulness of including synform pseudowords in the item pool of a yes-no (YN) vocabulary test. That study featured a YN test that measured student self-assessed knowledge of 45 items, 30 real words and 15 pseudowords. Of the pseudowords, five were synform pseudowords and the other 10 were regular pseudowords drawn from Meara (2010), which provides a list of some 400 pseudowords. The 2019 study reported “no significant difference (p = .46) between the full 15 pseudoword h-f adjusted yes-no test results and participant demonstrable knowledge of the 30 tested real words, as measured by the L2 to L1 translation test” (Stubbe and Nakashima, 2019, pp. 237-8). However, correlations between the scores for the two types of pseudowords and actual incidents of over-estimation favored the regular pseudowords over the synform pseudowords. It was speculated that the reason for the poor correlational performance by the synform pseudowords was because “only one of the 30 tested real words suffered from what Laufer (1989) labeled “synformic confusion” (Stubbe and Nakashima, 2019, pp. 238). In other words, there were not enough real word items prone to possible synform error confusion in the item pool for the synform pseudowords to correlated with. Stubbe and Nakashima (2019, p. 238) concluded that “Future research should utilize an item list which contains a higher proportion of words that are prone to synformic confusion (“law” versus “raw”; “vase” versus “base”, for example).” This present study answers that research call.

Background

Yes No Vocabulary Tests

Compared to other vocabulary testing formats, YN checklist tests allow for the testing of the largest number of words, while placing the fewest demands upon administrators and test-takers (Anderson & Freebody, 1983). In this format, participants are presented with a series of items in isolation and simply indicate if they know each word or not. One liability of this convenience is that many test-takers over-estimate their vocabulary knowledge by signaling knowledge of words they do not actually know a correct meaning of. To compensate for this potential, pseudowords, otherwise referred to as non-words, were introduced to the YN format by Anderson and Freebody (1983). This use of pseudowords in YN tests has remained widespread through present day versions. In YN tests, knowledge of a real word is referred to as a ‘hit’, while claiming knowledge of a pseudoword is called a ‘false alarm’. Not claiming knowledge of a real word is labeled a ‘miss’ and not claiming knowledge of a pseudoword is a ‘correct rejection’. Claiming knowledge of words that do not exist is seen as a possible indication of falsely claiming knowledge of real words (overestimation). The test results from learners who claim knowledge of pseudowords are adjusted downwards using a variety of scoring formulae, to better reflect the actual vocabulary size. (Beeckmans et al., 2001).

The most common of these adjustment formulae is called h-f (Anderson & Freebody, 1983), which is calculated as follows: the proportion of FAs (pseudoword hits) relative to the total number of pseudowords (the FA rate, f), is subtracted from the proportion of real word hits relative to the total number of real word items (the hit rate, h), thus h-f.

Synform Errors

According to Batia Laufer (Laufer, Meara, & Nation, 2005) synform errors “are word pairs or groups of words with similar (though not identical) sound, script, or morphology, which learners tend to confuse” (p. 4; see Laufer, 1988 for a detailed explanation of synforms). Stubbe and Cochrane (2016) found a high number of synform errors in an English to Japanese (L2 to L1) translation test. For instance, using back translations, Stubbe and Cochrane (2016) reported that many participants had translated the word row as raw, law and low and suggested “that the l/r distinction remains a problem for these low-level students” (p.168). Other researchers from various countries have similarly reported synform errors in their classrooms and vocabulary studies (Gu, and Leung, 2002; Kocić, 2008; and, Nural, 2014).

Synform Pseudowords

Stubbe and Nakashima (2019) combined the concepts of Anderson and Freebody’s (1983) pseudowords with Laufer’s (1988) synform errors to create synform pseudowords. The YN test used in that study contained 40 real words and 15 pseudowords, five of which were synform pseudowords. These synform pseudowords were created by substituting one or more letters from common words from the first two 1000 frequency band of the 2003 version of the JACET 8000 (JACET Basic Words Revision Committee, 2003). For instance, value became balue. That study presented conflicting data concerning the usefulness of synform pseudowords in YN testing. As mentioned, one weakness of that study was that only one of the 30 tested items was vulnerable to synformic confusion. “The word “vase” was translated as “base” by 32 of the 205 test-takers (15.6%)”, which led to their call for future research, quoted above.

Aim

The present study attempts to answer Stubbe and Nakashima’s (2019) call for future research by testing a 60 item word-list comprised of 50% synform words, which are real words prone to synformic confusion with a similar word of a higher frequency (vase versus base, for example). This study will use a YN test containing 15 pseudowords, six of which are synform pseudowords to determine whether synform pseudowords improve the functioning of the YN test.

Methodology

Real Words Items

A list of 30 possible katakana synform words pairs was created, based onthe following consonant pairs: f-h; l-r; v-b; and m-n in syllabic final position. For example, paired words included: appeal – appear, hill – fill, van – ban, andsum – sun. Using the JACET 8000 Level Marker 2015 (JACET Basic Words Revision Committee, 2016), the frequency level for each of the 60 words was determined (from 1K for the 1000 most frequent English words, through 8K being words from the 7001 – 8000 band.) With only one exception, the less frequent word of each pair was tested. With the pair grass – glass, grass is rated in the 1K band while glass is rated as a 2K, which went against the researchers' expectations.

A similar list of 30 non-synform words was also created. Using the older version of the JACET 8000 (JACET Basic Words Revision Committee, 2003), which ranks the top 8000 words from 1 – 8000, non-synform words from very close in ranking to each of the 30 synform words were selected. These non-synform words were only slightly more frequent on average than the 30 synform words, 4.33 and 4.5 average frequency level, according to the new JACET 8000. Table 1 displays the 30 items in each group.

Table 1.

30 Synform and Non-synform Tested Items.

30 Synform Items		30 Non-synform Items	
Appeal	lime	arctic	lucrative
Brow	load	awesome	machinery
Clash	lush	bitter	maximum
Clown	mime	excellent	nurse
Collect	raw	exile	onto
Dairy	rent	eyebrow	organization
Fair	rip	fighter	Pig
Fear	rot	fragrance	Qualify
Flesh	row	generation	Quiet
Fork	scare	grief	Reservoir
Fright	sum	ill	Secretion
Grass	tiled	infancy	Shade
Hence	van	intake	Sprinkle
Hill	vest	intricate	Striker
Hound	warn	local	User

YN Test Creation: Real Words and Pseudowords

To test the effectiveness of synform pseudowords, two YN tests were created, labeled YN A and YN B. The first version (YN A) included the 60 items discussed in the previous section, plus the same15 pseudowords used in the pilot study (Stubbe and Nakashima, 2019), six of which were synform pseudowords. Five of those synform pseudowords were created by changing one or a few letters in a katakana synform word to make a non-word, detail became detair, for instance. One of the 10 other regular pseudowords, which were all randomly selected from Meara (2010), ralling, was re-designated as a synform pseudoword because of its popularity in the pilot study, likely due to its proximity to the real word rolling. Thus, YN A contained 60 real words, plus six synform pseudowords and nine regular pseudowords. To test the effectiveness of these six synform pseudowords, a second YN test, YN B was created, in which those six synform pseudowords were replaced by six others, randomly selected from Meara (2010), while keeping the same 60 real words. In YN A all 75 items were randomly distributed, and in YN B, the synform pseudowords were replaced with the six additional Meara pseudowords (hereinafter regular pseudowords), while keeping the same item order as YN A.

Again, both YN tests, versions A and B, contained the same 60 items (30 synform words and 30 non-synform words), plus the 15 pseudowords (six of which were synform pseudowords, in YN A).

Testing, Participants and Scoring

A third vocabulary test, an English to Japanese (L2 to L1) translation test of the same 60 items, randomly ordered, was also created. The purpose of this third test was to act as a criterion measure for evaluating the accuracy of the YN tests results and the usefulness of the synform pseudowords compared to the regular pseudowords.

The YN A and B test versions were intermixed prior to distribution. Participants randomly received either YN A or YN B at the beginning of class. These YN test versions were completed in about 10 minutes, and immediately collected. Towards the end of that same class, student took the translation (Tr) test of the same 30 synform words and 30 non-synform real words. This test took about 15 minutes and was also immediately collected. Participants (n = 235) were low- to mid-intermediate level first, second and third year students enrolled in one of seven mandatory English classes at a Japanese university.

Both YN A and B test forms were scored using an optical scanner, and the translation test was marked manually by one of the authors. Prior to marking the translation test, 24 test forms were randomly selected (10% of 235), copied and sent to a different Japanese teacher of English for marking. Co-rater reliability between the two raters was good at 91%, supporting the reliability of the original rater.

Results

Descriptive statistics for both the translation (Tr) test and the YN test, versions A and B, are presented in Table 2. For version A the translation test mean of 48% of the 60 real words was 17% lower than the YN test mean of 65% for the 119 participants, suggesting that there was over-estimation of demonstrable knowledge of the real words on the YN test. The false alarm rate of 8% exceeded the 5% rates reported in two other studies reporting on Japanese EFL learners (Mochida & Harrington, 2006, and Stubbe, 2012). Correlations with translation test results were moderate for the YN test real words (.65) and negligible for the pseudowords (-.05).

For version B the translation test mean of 47% of the 60 real words was 19% lower than the YN test mean of 66% for the 116 participants, suggesting that there was again over-estimation on the YN test. The false alarm rate of 2% was a quarter of version A's 8%. Correlations with translation test results were stronger for the YN test real words (.71) and the pseudowords (0.32) than version A's .65 and -.05.

Paired t-test were used to determine whether the differences between the mean scores for the version A and B tests were statistically significant (Table 3). The difference between the 119 version A and 116 version B translation tests was not statistically significant ($t = .74$, $p = .46$). As the difference between the YN 60 real word scores was even less (.16 compared to the TR difference of .62) a t-test was deemed unnecessary. Only the false alarm means were significantly different ($t = 6.33$, $p = .0002$). This suggests that the only significant difference between the two test versions resulted from the pseudoword differences.

Table 4 presents the scores for the pseudowords used in both YN versions. The six synform pseudowords were much more popular than the nine regular pseudowords in version A (means of 19.17 and 3.67, respectively) and even more so than version B's regular pseudoword mean of 2.73.

Table 2.
Translation Test and YN Versions A and B Tests Descriptive Statistics

Version /Test	mean (%)	SD	range	*R*
Ver. A				
Tr	28.71 (48%)	6.18	13-46	1
YN	39.24 (65%)	7.30	21-57	0.65
YN FA	1.24 (8%)	1.36	0-7	-0.05
Ver. B				
Tr	28.09 (47%)	6.61	9-47	1
YN	39.40 (66%)	8.21	14-56	0.71
YN FA	0.35 (2%)	0.70	0-3	0.32

Note: Tr denotes translation test scores for those participant who took the YN version A or B; YN denotes yes-no test scores for the 60 real words; FA denotes false alarms on 15 pseudowords; *r* denotes correlation (Pearson Product Moment) with translation test results; *N* = 119 for Version A, 116 for Version B; *K* = 60 words (and 15 pseudowords on the YN test).

Table 3.

Versions A versus B *t-tests for Significant Differences*

Test	A	B	difference	*t* (*p*)
Tr	28.71 (48%)	28.09 (47%)	0.62	0.74 (0.46)
YN	39.24 (65%)	39.40 (65%)	0.16	unnecessary
FAs	1.24 (8%)	0.35 (2%)	0.89	6.33 (.0000)

YN Test h-f Scoring Formulae

To compare the usefulness of the pseudowords used in version A versus version B, they were utilized in the fore mentioned h-f YN scoring formula (the hit rate minus the false alarm rate). Applying the h-f correction formula using all 15 pseudowords adjusts version A's YN test mean (from 65% to 57%), substantially closer to the translation test mean (of 48%), but also lowers the correlation with translation test results from (.65 to .61, Table 5). Applying the h-f formula using only the six synform pseudowords dramatically adjusts version A's YN test mean (from 65% to 49%), very close to the translation test mean (of 48%), but further lowers the correlation (from .65 to .55). If fact, a paired t-test found the difference between the Tr scores and the synform h-f results to be not statistically significant (t (118) = .91, p = .37), whereas the difference between the Tr scores and 15h-f results were significantly different (t (118) = 8.89, p < .001). Using only the nine regular pseudowords results in the highest mean (62%) and the worst correlation (.52). Similarly, using the 15 regular pseudowords in version B results in only a slight 3% reduction in the YN test mean (from 66% to 63%) but maintains the highest h-f correlation with translation test scores (.68).

Over-estimation and Pseudowords Correlations

By comparing the real word results for the YN test with the translation test results on a student by student, item by item basis, the amount of over-estimation can be determined. Table 6 looks at the mean amount of over-estimation of the YN real word items (synform and non-synform) for version A versus B. As anticipated, the over-estimation mean for the 30 synform real words (27% and 28%) was significantly greater than for the non-synform real words (15% and 14%). Using paired-t tests, the differences were found to be statistically significant (t (118) = 11.72, p <.001 for version A; and, t (115) = 12.21, p < .001 for version B)

As pseudowords were added to the YN test format as a means of checking for probable over-estimation, correlations between pseudoword (synform and regular) scores and actual over-estimation (from Table 6) are provided in Table 7. Again, as expected, the synform pseudowords had higher correlation with the real word synform over-estimation scores (.31) than with the non-synform over-estimation scores (.16). Also, the regular

Table 4.

Pseudoword Scores: Synform and Non-synform

Version A Pseudowords				Version B Pseudowords			
6 synform	score	9 regular	score	15 regular	score	regular	Score
Crealy	46	curify	14	curify	16	milne	1
inprove	43	degate	5	hoult	6	perryman	1
Ralling	11	glandle	5	noot	4	troake	1
Balue	6	oxylate	4	degate	3	balfour	0
Detair	5	noot	2	oxylate	3	dowrick	0
Grav	4	perryman	2	arain	2	lannery	0
		balfour	1	glandle	2	werrell	0
		dowrick	0	proctalize	2		
		lannery	0				
Mean	19.17		3.67				2.73

Table 5.

Applying h-f Using the 6 Synform and 9 Regular Pseudowords.

Version / Test	mean (%)	SD	difference	*R*
Version A				
Tr	28.71 (48%)	6.18		1
YN	39.24 (65%)	7.30	10.53	0.65
15 *h-f*	34.13 (57%)	8.22	6.04	0.61
6 Synform pseudowords *h-f*	29.58 (49%)	12.46	1.49	0.55
9 regular *h-f*	37.39 (62%)	7.09	9.30	0.52
Version B				
Tr	28.09 (47%)	6.61		1
YN	39.40 (66%)	8.21	11.31	0.71
15 regular *h-f*	37.98 (63%)	7.26	9.98	0.68

Note: 15 *h-f* denotes the *h-f* formula results using the false alarms on all 15 pseudowords; *r* denotes correlation (Pearson Product Moment) with translation test results; difference denotes difference with Tr test mean; *N* = 119 for version A and 116 for version B; *K* = 60 words (plus 15 pseudowords on the YN test).

pseudowords had higher correlation with the real word non-synform over-estimation scores (.24) than with the synform over-estimation scores (.18). This difference was even greater for version B's regular pseudowords correlations of .49 on the non-synform over-estimation scores and .16 on the synform over-estimation scores. Combining the over-estimation for all 60 (synform and non-synform) real word items, as well as all 15 synform and regular pseudoword items (version A, 6+9) results in a higher correlation for version B (.36) than version A (.34).

Discussion/Conclusion

The results presented above present conflicting data concerning the usefulness of the synform pseudowords. Version A's synform pseudowords received a lot more false alarms than the regular pseudowords in either YN test version. Using Version A's 15 pseudowords (six synform and nine regular pseudowords) in the h-fcorrection formula decreased the YN test mean from 65% to 57%. Using only the six synform pseudowords in the h-f adjustment lowered the YN mean to 49%, which was not significantly different from the translation test mean of 47% (Table 3). Using version B's 15 regular pseudowords in an h-f adjustment only decrease that YN score from 65% to 63%. From this, it appears as if using synform pseudoword with the h-f correction formula holds promise for YN tests. However, pseudowords were included in YN test to signal possible over-estimation of vocabulary knowledge by test-takers. Correlations between pseudowords scores and over-estimation results were considerably lower for the version A's synform pseudowords (.31 on synform real words) than for the version B's regular pseudowords (.49 on non- synform real words; Table 6). These over-estimation correlations, coupled with the lower correlation for version A's synform pseudoword h-f adjustments on translation test scores than version B's regular pseudoword h-f correlations (.55 versus .68, respectively; Table 5), seriously questions the usefulness of including synform pseudowords in YN tests.

One of the weaknesses of the present study is that the tested items were presented in decontextualized lists. Future research should investigate whether placing synform real words in context, say a story, decreases the amount of synformic confusion and consequently YN test

Table 6.

Over-estimation by YN Test Version

Version	Item type	*K*	Mean (%)	SD	Range
A	Synform Over-est.	30	8.01 (27%)	3.28	1 - 17
A	Non-Syn Over-est.	30	4.45 (15%)	2.53	0 - 13
A	All items Over-est.	60	12.45 (21%)	4.83	2 - 25
B	Synform Over-est.	30	8.48 (28%)	3.71	1 - 19
B	Non-Syn Over-est.	30	4.32 (14%)	2.56	0 - 12
B	All items Over-est.	60	12.80 (21)	5.20	4 - 28

Note: Over-est. denotes over-estimation; Non-syn denotes non-synform real word items; *K* denotes number of real word items; *N:* version A = 119, version B = 116.

Table 7.

Pseudoword Score Correlations on Over-estimation Results

Version	Item type	*K*	*r*
A	*Synform Pseudowords*	6	
A	*Synform Over-estimation*	30	0.31
A	*Non-Syn Over-estimation*	30	0.16
A	*Regular pseudowords*	9	
A	*Synform Over-estimation*	30	0.18
A	*Non-Synform Over-estimation*	30	0.24
A	*All Pseudowords*	15	
A	*All items Over-estimation*	60	0.34
B	*Regular Pseudowords*	15	
B	*Synform Over-estimation*	30	0.16
B	*Non-Synform Over-estimation*	30	0.49
B	*All items Over-estimation*	60	0.36

Note: *K* denotes number of real word items; *r* denotes correlation of pseudoword scores on over-estimation results for synform and non-synform real words.

over-estimation. Such a study may shed further light on the problem of synformic confusion in vocabulary acquisition and assessment.

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39 Investigating the use of a video game to enhance vocabulary acquisition and recall of Malaysian secondary school students

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This paper attempts to address the gap in knowledge in this field by investigating the potential of video games that were designed for entertainment as a language learning tool in Malaysia. Studies have shown that the amount of time that teenagers spend on video games has been increasing. In Malaysia, students find it difficult to learn English, as to them it is a second language (ESL) or even a foreign language (EFL). Research has shown that many Malaysian students lack interest in learning English, thus creating a need to look for new methods to motivate students in ESL/EFL classrooms. The introduction of video games is an effort towards building interest in these students. The results of the study showed positive effects on vocabulary acquisition as well as student motivation. Using a game designed for entertainment led to limitations such as difficulty in targeting specific words and a lack of interaction between students, as the game used was designed for a single player. However, compared to educational games, which the students found to be boring and unauthentic, the students in this study showed high levels of engagement and intrinsic motivation.

この論文は、楽しく語学学習ができるようにマレーシアで開発されたビデオゲームの可能性を調査することによって、この分野に関する知識のギャップに対応するよう試みるものである。調査によると 10 代の若者がビデオゲームに費やす時間が増加している事を示している。さらに多くのマレーシア人学生は英語学習に興味がなく、ESL / EFL の教室で学生をやる気にさせる新しい方法を探す必要があることが明らかになった。ビデオゲームの導入は、これらの学生への関心を高めるための取り組みである。この調査研究では、学生にビデオゲーム”Scribblenauts Unlimited”をプレイする事を求めた。データを集めるためにいくつかの方法を使用した。量的データはゲームをした 3 日後に学生が記憶していた単語の数と新しく学んだ単語の数を記録して集めた。その後、学生と短いインタビューを行った。研究者の観察は、ビデオゲームへの学生の関与を説明するためにも使用された。結果は、語彙習得、学生のモチベーション、ゲームへの高い関与度に効果的であることが示された。

Introduction

Studies have shown that the amount of time that teenagers spend on video games has been increasing. Amory (2010) demonstrated in his research study that the implementation of educational computer games in classrooms had positive impact on student performances. Through an analysis of past literature, Rasti & Dehan (2018), discovered that seven key factors are responsible for the effectiveness of video games in the acquisition of vocabulary: Motivation, Repetition, Feedback, Virtual World, Dual Encoding, Interactivity, and Instantiation. Out of all these factors, motivation was found to be most effective in influencing vocabulary acquisition/learning. In this study, vocabulary learning and vocabulary acquisition are used interchangeable though it is acknowledged that the former has a broader meaning than the latter. To be more precise, “vocabulary learning” has been described as the process of acquiring building blocks in second language acquisition (Ramos & Dario, 2015) whereas “vocabulary acquisition” has commonly been described as the process of learning new words. Researchers have posited that video games provided various sources of motivation to learners. Garris, Ahler, and Driskell (2002) proposed that video games enhance control as well as confidence which lead to increase in motivation and finally desirable learning. Other features in video games that enhance intrinsic motivation includes interactivity, rules, goals, challenge, risk, fantasy, curiosity, control (Pivec Dziabenko, and Schinnerl, 2003; Dickey, 2007). Video games have also been found to enhance language learning and vocabulary learning/acquisition (Tseng & Schmitt, 2008; Turgut & Irgin, 2009; Jasso, 2012).

In Malaysia, students find it difficult to learn English as to them it is a second language (ESL) or even a foreign language (EFL). Research has shown that students lack interest in learning English in Malaysian classrooms (Thang, Ting & Jaafar; Ganapathy & Gooi, 2016). Due to this lack of motivation, there is a need to look for new methods to motivate students in ESL/EFL classrooms. As mentioned earlier the introduction of video games has the ability of motivating and building interest in these students. In addition to that, as pointed out by Rasti & Dehan (2018), video games have the potential to promote learning through providing repetition, feedback, virtual world, dual encoding, interactivity and instantiation. However, there are hardly any studies undertaken on the influence of video games on vocabulary acquisition/ learning in Malaysia. Back in 2009, Roslina and Azizah pointed out that more studies needed to be conducted in Malaysia to generate more knowledge on educational game design and development as well as the effectiveness of educational games in enhancing learning among Malaysian students. Research conducted in this field is also in line with the Malaysian ICT Master Plan (2001) which called for the integration of ICT in education and training programs (Lubis et al., 2009). Despite these calls, the amount of research done is still low. A factor that contributes to this may be the Malaysian education system, which requires teachers to adhere to the syllabus designed by the Ministry of Education. Teachers are reluctant to introduce pedagogical innovations as time taken out of the syllabus may mean that they may not be able to complete the syllabus in time for their students’ final examinations (Kamisah Osman & Nurul Aini Bakar, 2012). Recently the Ministry of Education has taken steps to move away from this rigid system of education. This shift in policy and the popularity of video games among youth in Malaysia have led to renewed efforts to introduce technology, including educational games, to classrooms at all levels in Malaysia.

This research proposal is designed to address the gap in knowledge in this field by investigating the potential of a video game that was designed for entertainment as tool for vocabulary acquisition and recall in the Malaysian context. Paivio’s Dual Code Theory (DCT) (1971) proposed that new materials presented simultaneously in both visual and verbal forms should improve learning as both channel are receiving and processing information together. However, Mayer and Moreno believed it is more complicated than that. Their Mutimedia Theory presupposed that dual coding exists but learning requires a higher level of processing in both verbal and visual channels than what is proposed by the DCT (Mayer & Moreno, 2003). Mayer (2005) further posits that digital games unlike educational games do not possess mental representations from words or pictures designed to make information easier to access and remember, hence they are less effective for language learning than educational games. Despite this, advocators of the use of digital games such as video games for learning believe that digital games have the potential of enhancing learning more so than educational games as they are more engaging and stimulating. The current study takes on this premise and seeks to find evidence to support the benefits of using a video game in teaching vocabulary acquisition and recall.

Specifically, the study attempts to seek answers to the following research questions:

a) What are the students’ perceptions of the use of a video game as an English lesson?

b) Does playing the video game help the students in the acquisition and recall of vocabulary?

c) What other benefits do students’ gain from playing the video game?

d) Are there any limitations in using the videogame in teaching English vocabulary? If yes, what are they?

Literature Review

Theories related to the use of video games to learn

This study is framed by the following theories.

Lewin's, Dewey's, and Piaget's models of learning through games

Using Lewin's, Dewey's, and Piaget's models of learning theories on experiential learning as the guiding principles, Kolb (1984) concludes that experiential learning: 1) is a process, not merely outcomes, 2) is a continuous process grounded in experience, and 3) involves transaction between learners and the environment. Learning through games fits this theory as learning through games is by nature a process that is filled with tension and conflicts. This process of learning which provides an informal learning environment filled with fun, further involves self-directed as well as subconscious/unconscious learning processes (incidental learning).

Dual Coding Theory

The dual-coding theory (DCT) is a general cognition theory that was proposed by Allan Paivio in 1971. Paivio originally used this theory to account for verbal and nonverbal influences in memory, however, since then, the theory has been applied by other researchers in other areas of cognition. This theory proposed that a person can learn new materials using verbal associations (that deal with language) or visual imagery (such as graphical or visual information). This theory posited that new materials presented simultaneously in both visual and verbal forms should improve learning as both channels are receiving and processing information together. (Whitton, 2014: 169). Some researchers, argued that there is insufficient evidence to support this. (e.g. Clark & Craig, 1992). Despite that, it is a theory that remains popular and commonly applied to literacy and language learning.

Multimedia Theory

This theory presupposed that dual coding exists but proposed that learning requires a higher level of processing in both verbal and visual channels (Mayer & Moreno, 2003). Mayer (2005) posited that multimedia applications built for educational purposes will have the mental representations from words or pictures to support or guide student learning but this will apply less to digital games which are built for entertainment as these games do not possess features designed to make information easier to access and remember.

How video games promote vocabulary learning/acquisition

By motivating learners

Motivation is an important factor in second language learning. In a Malaysian context, students often struggle with learning English because they lack motivation to learn the language. According to Ushioda (2003, 2012), motivation is an important part of the learning process. However, it is not something which is constant. Motivation can oscillate during the learning process due to internal and external factors. Therefore, the teacher must not only be able to create motivation, but also must be able to maintain it.

In view of the growing interest of children, young adults and adults in video games, it is now timely to explore the possibility of including video games into learning environment for their development and maintenance of motivation. Video games can help show students that English is not simply something to add to a repertoire of skills, but a personalised tool that enables them to access new and interesting sources of entertainment.

By allowing repetitions

Repetitions in video games are also effective in enhancing the learning of vocabulary. Bakar and Nosratirad's (2013) in their study found that participants mentioned that frequent exposure to the same words as one of the key factors for their success in learning vocabulary items through a video game called "The Sims III". Yip and Kwan (2006) earlier explained gamers repetitively played the same game because they enjoyed the competition and this led to the learning of new words.

By providing immediate feedback

Allum (2004) proposed that immediate feedback in CALL is a distinctive feature that makes it effective in vocabulary learning because immediate and appropriate feedback motivates learners and encourage learners to make more efforts to learn and produce new vocabulary items. Feedback is a distinctive feature of video games. These feedbacks are outcomes of trials and errors for solving problems (Kiili, 2005) and if the problem is not solved, the gamer cannot proceed, thus increasing motivation, and encouraging greater efforts on the part of the gamer which leads to more learning including the acquisition of new words. (Cornillie, Clarebout, & Desmet, 2012).

By creating virtual worlds

Video games through the use of audio-visual components, are able to create authentic contexts for learning (Gee, Halverson, Shaffer, and , 2005). In this virtual world, the learners are immersed in the target language, hence the degree of exposure is very high, and gamers will be able to learn more new words than through traditional methods. For example, Second Life, a game made by Linden Lab in 2003, can provide virtual simulation games that allow learners to immerse in real life situations and in the process are exposed to authentic interactive environments which promote language learning including learning of new words (Milton, 2010).

By creating contexts for dual coding

Contexts where dual encoding take place can be easily created by video games thorough the use of audios, videos, pictures and, graphics aids. Therefore, learning vocabulary through video games is more productive and simulating than through the traditional mode. Vahdat and Rasti Behbahani (2013) claimed that this support “the Dual coding theory” which proposed that when input or words enter the memory through two or more channels, the chance of integration of the input/words into the memory is elevated and this leads to more effective learning.

By enabling control, manipulation and interactivity

In addition to that, features such as, control, manipulation, and interactivity can help in vocabulary learning. These features allow guessing from the context and testing through trials and errors. Through these processes, gamers arrive at the desired outcomes, hence leading to learning. Ali Mohsen (2016) found evidence to support this. In this study he found that video game players, who had the opportunity of interacting with the video game on surgery, learned more new vocabulary than the control group, who just passively watched the video game.

By providing instantiation opportunities

As we know a word has more than one meaning and it is through exposures we learn the different meanings of each word. Anderson et al. (1976) believe that these meanings could be retained in the memory through the process of instantiations which involve recalling or experiencing a particular instance or example of the meaning of a word. Instantiation is very important in sentence comprehension and different instantiations take place according to contexts (Oakhill, 1983). It is also important in learning and understanding linguistic messages in both oral and textual formats as well as learning of vocabulary (Nation, 2001). Zheng, Bischoff, and Gilliland (2015), found “Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Games (MMORPG)” to be very resourceful in providing instantiations.

Other advantageous of video games for Language Learning

Video games have also been shown to have successful impact on other behavioural, cognitive and physiological outcomes (Boyle et al. 2016). Studies of Hong Kong Chinese gamers found that L2 (second language) gaming undertaken primarily for pleasure. promoted self-directed L2 learning (Chik, 2012). Additionally, educational games have been recommended as another method for providing effective and engaging instruction (for a review, see Clark et al., 2009) by leveraging on students' intrinsic enjoyment of gaming (Jackson & McNamara, 2013, McNamara, Jackson, & Graesser, 2010).

A study done by Ebrahimzadeh (2017) in Iran found that students who learned vocabulary from playing a digital video game outperformed students doing intensive reading and concluded that digital video games could be beneficial as an activity for vocabulary acquisition. In the Malaysian context, there are very few studies on the use of video games for language learning. One of the few studies was undertaken by Melor Md. Yunus et al. (2012) who investigated the influence of video games on students' writing skills and their perceptions of the incorporation of video games in the of teaching writing. The study found that video games (such as Anytown) were able to motivate students to learn English and there was also a positive correlation between gaming and students' writing skill development.

Research Design

This is primarily a qualitative study comprising two parts (1) a short interview with the students after they played the game and (2) the researcher's observations which were used to explain the students' involvement in the video game. A quantitative component was included to provide information regarding the number of words the students could recall and also the number of new words they had learnt immediately after the playing of the game. This procedure was repeated after a lapse of three days.

Research Intervention

For this research, students were required to play the video game Scribblenauts Unlimited. Scribblenauts Unlimited is a game which involves controlling a character named Maxwell who goes through the virtual world helping people and addressing their problems. The tasks include rescuing a cat from a tree or creating a work of art for a museum. To accomplish these tasks, the player can type a word and the object will appear on the screen in the game world. For example, the player can type the word *ladder* and a ladder will appear, allowing the player to rescue the cat stuck in the tree as mentioned earlier. Each task can be approached through a variety of ways. For example, instead of using a ladder to rescue the cat stuck in the tree, the player can type the word *fireman*, and a firefighter will appear to rescue the cat in the tree. The only restrictions imposed by the game are the use of profanity, obscenity and copyright material. Beyond that, the players can use their own creativity and ingenuity to complete the puzzles.

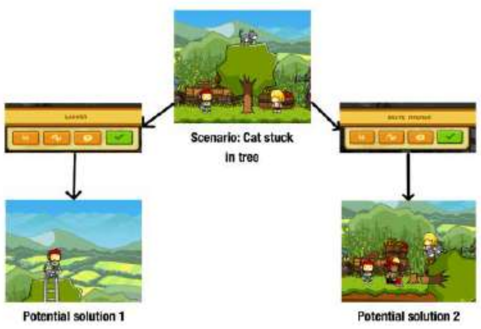

Fig. 1 *Multiple methods to solve puzzles*

Scribblenauts Unlimited is suited for this research because it is a game in which the player directly interacts with the game environment using his or her knowledge of English. The game also allows players to check the names of objects that are present in the game environment. The game also has a scaling difficulty system in which initial levels are easier to complete. This allows students to participate at different levels according to their abilities.

The research study investigated the effects of playing video games on both students' vocabulary acquisition and recall, with a secondary focus on learning through communication. To facilitate communication, participants in this study played the game in pairs of two players, hence, allowing them to share ideas and knowledge. Since the scenarios, each team of players would be participating in would be similar to a certain extent, it would be possible to predict what words the players would learn in the process (adapted from Campos, 2013).

Sample Population

The students chosen for this study were six Secondary Three male students from a Malaysian National Secondary school. The medium of instruction of all six students at the primary level was Mandarin and all had to take one year of Remove before entering Secondary One. The medium of instruction in the secondary school was Bahasa Malaysia. Only male students of Chinese origin were chosen to avoid issues related to cultural and gender differences. This decision was made to reduce the number of variables being studied.

The students were recruited on a voluntary basis. They were of low to above average proficiency in English. Table 1 provides a breakdown of the students' background. As shown in Table, S1 had above average proficiency in English; he spoke English at home. He was the only student who had experience playing a digital educational game. He was paired with S2 who was less proficient than him and only spoke Mandarin at home. This pair could be described as an "uneven pair", with one student being more proficient than the other. S3 and S4 both scored B in English in the UPSR (Ujian Pencapaian Sekolah Rendah) (Primary School Evaluation Test) and they spoke only Mandarin at home. This could be considered as the "even pair". The third pair was also an uneven pair. The reason for having "even" and 'uneven" pairs was to find out whether different types of groupings would yield similar or different results. All these students had some experience playing video games.

	Team 1 (uneven pair)		Team 2 (even pair)		Team 3(uneven pair)	
Description	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6
Age	15	15	15	15	15	15
Form	3	3	3	3	3	3
UPSR results	3As & 2Bs	5As & 2Bs	2As	2As & 3B	1A &3B	No
UPSR English score	A	B	C	C	B	D
Hometown	Kajang	Kajang	Perak	Kajang	Kajang	Kajang
Language(s) use at home	English, Mandarin & Cantonese	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin
Primary school	SKJC Sg Chua	SKJC Sg. Chua	SJKC Sg. Chua	SJKC Sg. Chua	SJKC Sg. Chua	SJKC Sg. Chua
Secondary school	SMK Jalan Bukit	SMK Jalan Bukit	SMK Jalan Bukit	SMK Jalan Bukit	SMK Jalan Bukit	SMK Jalan Bukit
Father's occupation	assistant manager	mechanic	not sure	driver	Salesman	Boss
Mother's occupation	housewife	housewife	housewife	clerk	housewife	housewife
Previous video game experience?	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Favourite video games	Grand Theft Auto Online	Blackshot	NBA	Sports or adventure games	Dota 2	Dota 2/Black Shot/PS2
Age started playing video games	7 years old	13 years old	12 years old	10 years old	9 years old	12 years old
Hours played video games per day	3-6 hours	2 hours	3 hours	2-3 hours	1-2 hours	1 hour
Things learnt from video games in their opinion	English, random history, solving puzzles	No	No	Basketball skills	No	Learning how to win
Have they played education video games before?	yes	no	no	no	no	no
Name the educational games	Tidy up	no	no	no	no	no

Table 2 *Background of the students.*

Pair 1	Words recalled after game	New words learnt	Words recalled after 3 days	New words learnt recalled after 3 days	Additional words recalled after 3 days
S1	35	2	27	2	3
S2	32	4	17	2	0

Table 3 *Summary of word recall of Team 1*

Pair 1	Words recalled after game	New words learnt	Words recalled after 3 days	New words learnt recalled after 3 days	Additional words recalled after 3 days
S3	23	3	20	1	5
S4	25	6	21	2	6

Table 4 *Summary of word recall of Team 2*

Pair 3	Words recalled after game	New words used	Words recalled after 3 days	New words learnt recalled after 3 days	Additional words recalled after 3 days
S5	38	2	42	2	10
S6	47	4	51	2	8

Table 5 *Summary of word recall of Team 3*

Research Procedures

The students played the game in pairs. Since only one student could play at a time, students took turns to play the game, with each student playing for 25 minutes. If the students ran into difficulties, the instructor would first provide prompts to aid the students, then key words if they were still stuck. Each pair of students were observed and supported by the researcher throughout the gameplay. Their interactions with each other were recorded in audio form and their gameplay sessions were recorded on the computer in video form.

After the conclusion of each session, the students were interviewed by the researcher on their perceptions of the games in terms of helping them to learn English words. The students were also asked about their opinions of the game in terms of fun and effectiveness in learning English. The students were then required to list down on a piece of paper the words they had used in the gameplay and to highlight new words they had learnt. After three days, the students were asked to list down the words they could remember from the gameplay. A summary of the words the students could remember immediately after the treatment and in three days' time are presented in Table 2, 3 and 4.

Presentation of findings

Quantitative findings

For Team 1, S1 was the stronger student and S2 was the weaker student (in term of English proficiency). It was seen that S2 had learnt through working with S1 as he was able to use vocabulary beyond the level expected of him with S1's help, leading to both students being able to recall over 30 words that they had used during the game. (as shown in Table 2). When tested to see how many words they could recall three days later, it was found that S1 was able to recall 78% of the words (i.e. 27 words and out of this, two were new words he learnt through playing the game). He even managed to recall extra three words not mentioned three days ago. One of the words, S1 could recall was "cupid", a word not used by them during the game session but it was displayed in the environment of one of the levels. This shows that incidental learning (Kolb, 1984) had taken place to a substantial extent in the case of S1. S2 recalled only 52% of the words (19 words). However, interestingly, he recalled both of the new words he learnt. Thus, both had benefitted from the gameplay especially S2 who had benefitted from partnering with S1.

Team 2 comprised an even pair of students (in term of English proficiency). As shown in Table 3, both students recalled about the same number of words after the gameplay, although S3 stated he learnt three new words and S6 said he learnt six new words. They also both recalled almost similar words three days later. Both students forgot some of the words in their earlier list but both could recall several new words. Similar to Team 1, S3 and S4 were able to recall several words that appeared in the background during the game (e.g. cannibal). Incidental learning had also taken place in this case.

The students in Team 3 were an uneven pair in which S5 had much better UPSR result in English than S6. For this team, surprisingly S6 recalled more vocabulary than S5 on the day of the game session and also three days later as shown in Table 4. Both managed to recall two new words learnt. This is indeed very encouraging as the student with lower English proficiency had managed to learn and recall more words than the better student showing that the video game is indeed a tool that can motivate learning.

Qualitative findings

During the interview all of the students who participated in the research reported that they enjoyed playing the game. They all also agreed that this type of game should be used in their class for teaching English.

A scrutiny of the words in the lists revealed that there was a high degree of similarity in vocabulary recall between the members of each team. The researcher also observed close collaboration between team members and intense engagement in the game though interaction was less evident.

It was also observed by the researcher that this videogame did not have a specific focus hence vocabulary learnt varied from one team to another. This is because Scribblenauts Unlimited is a commercial game designed for entertainment purposes; the learning being done is incidental learning. The game also has branching paths depending on the choices and abilities of the player. This means that it is difficult to teach specific items using this game

Discussion of findings

The findings are discussed according to the research questions.

Research Question 1

What are the students' perceptions with regard to the use of a video game as an English lesson?

All the students said they enjoyed playing the video game. Research has shown that video games can increase motivation and stimulate higher order thinking skills (McDonald, 2017). Motivation in learning English is one of the major issues facing English teachers in Malaysia. Many students simply do not see the benefit of learning English, which they rarely use. Many video games are only available in English and these could be introduced to the students.

Research Question 2

Does playing the video game help the students in the acquisition and recall of vocabulary?

The study clearly revealed that video game can help students in the acquisition and recall of vocabulary. It further demonstrated that pairing a stronger student with a weaker student (in terms of proficiency in English) seemed to be more beneficial for the weaker student. In the case of Team 1 and Team 3, the stronger student was able to scaffold the weaker student and helped the weaker student improve his performance to a level beyond what he would normally be able to achieve.

As Vygotsky (1978: 86) pointed out:

the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers.

In Team 1, S2 was able to recall many more words than S3 and S4 from Team 2 despite being of the same English Proficiency level as them because he was aided by S1 during their gameplay session. However, he was not able to remember many of the words used after three days which suggested that reinforcement activities need to be built in after gameplay sessions. Similarly S6 was able to learn and recall many words despite being of much lower proficiency because he was supported by S5 and in this case he was able to recall many of these words even after three days. One possible contributory factor for this was because S6 was very keen on video games. As he stated in his background information he viewed games in a very competitive manner. Hence S6 might have been approached this task as a competition, meaning he was more motivated and hence was able to remember more words (Cagiltay et.al, 2015). This raises the possibility that if students are competing with each other it might help to motivate them to perform better. A possible issue with this approach is that in a strong-weak pair, the stronger student may not share as much with the weaker student due to the competitive environment.

Research Question 3

What other benefits do students' gain from playing the video game?

As mentioned in the findings, all the students became very involved and engaged in the game they were playing. They also observed their partner playing closely and attentively and as a result could recall many of the words they used together in solving the puzzles even after three days. This showed that they had learnt from each other and were playing with full attention which indicated playing the video game had led to total engagement and intrinsic motivation to learn as found in other studies (Clark et al., 2009).

Research Question 4

What are the limitations in using the videogame in teaching English vocabulary?

This game did not lead to much interaction between the students hence it is not a game that would be useful to stimulate interaction. In addition to that the game does not enable the teaching of specific vocabulary as learning of vocabulary tends to be incidental and varies from each team due to the non-linear nature of the game. Thus, if a teacher wants to run a class around a theme found in a particular level of the game, students may not even arrive at that level in their gameplay. Thus this game is not appropriate if the intention of the teacher is to teach specific items in a set curriculum as it is not possible to modify this video game to meet the teacher's needs.

Implications and conclusion

The results from this study clearly suggest the advantages of introducing video games to motivate students in Malaysia. It shows that the game investigated has the ability to motivate students and drive them to perform better not only in the game but also in the acquisition of vocabulary and recalling of words learnt. The other advantages of playing video games as proposed by Rasti & Dehan (2018) could have also come into play to make their learning experiences both enriching and educational. Although using video games such as this one has its limitations in that it is does not allow teachers to customise it to teach specific vocabulary items, it has its strength in that the students involved have benefited substantially from playing this game.

This study strongly suggests that it is now timely to explore other video games for learning of vocabulary and other skills, not only in Malaysia but also in Japan and other countries too. The three conditions that must be present are: students who are keen on video games; access to such games are easily available; and most important, teachers who are willing to take on the challenge of experimenting with these games to enhance their student learning.

The advantageous of video games over educational games is that educational games are less entertaining and not sufficiently competitive or challenging. Thus, it is our belief that despite educational games having advantages in that they have features that make accessing and remembering information easier (Mayer, 2005), video games will have the edge over them, as educational games are designed around the content and not around the fun factor, negating the motivational advantages of video games. Thus, the final suggestion is that videogames designers should be invited to work with educationists to produce games that are both fun to play and educational at the same time. This is happening in the west and hopefully more such efforts will be undertaken in Malaysia and countries in this region. It would be interesting to investigate the effectiveness of such games in the future.

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40 Implementing Kahoot! to Enhance Student Learning in an EMI Environment

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This practice report shares the process and results of an implementation of Kahoot! in EMI (English medium instruction) classes in a private university setting between 2017 and 2018. After summarizing the challenges commonly faced by students in EMI classes, this paper explains why and how Kahoot! was implemented. While the 2017 implementation increased positive learning behaviors, a new set of challenges emerged, which required further adjustment to the implementation. With some modifications, the 2018 implementation solved a few of these problems. The results of a student survey conducted in 2018 indicated that the majority of the students favorably evaluated the 2018 implementation of Kahoot!, recognizing its benefits. Kahoot!, therefore, appears to be a potentially useful tool, and its effectiveness in terms of reducing the burdens that EMI tends to impose and enhancing student learning warrants further testing.

本論文では 2017 年度から 2018 年度にかけて都内の私立大学にて実施された英語による専門科目の授業(EMI)における Kahoot!の導入とその結果について報告をする。初めに EMI において学生が頻繁に経験する困難についてまとめた後、Kahoot!を選択した理由と 2 年間にわたる導入の過程について解説する。2017 年度においては、Kahoot!の導入によりポジティブな学習行動の増加が見られたが、同時に新たな課題も生まれ調整が行なわれた。導入方法の微調整の結果、2018 年度においては学習効果に少しの改善が見られた。2018 年の授業評価によれば過半数の学生が Kahoot!のメリットを認識し、その導入を好意的に受け止めている。導入過程における注意深い観察と細かな調整を継続することにより Kahoot!は EMI に伴う困難さのうち集中力やモチベーションに関する問題を緩和し学生の学びを向上させる可能性があるように思われる。

To internationalize their education, an increasing number of universities in Japan have started implementing EMI (English medium instruction) into their curriculum (MEXT, 2018). EMI refers to the “use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English” (Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, & Dearden, 2018, p. 37). Therefore, EMI is different from CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), in the sense that EMI instructors only teach an academic subject, while CLIL instructors teach both the subject and the language used as the medium of instruction (i.e., English). The reasons for the rapid expansion of EMI vary depending on the university, but the proponents of EMI in Japan typically mention one or a combination of the following reasons: improvement of English skills (both students and instructors), an effective method to prepare students for studying abroad, and a measure to make classes more accessible to international students (Sugimoto, 2016).

While many universities have proceeded with the implementation of EMI, which emphasizes its benefits, studies have found that instructors and students face diverse challenges in their EMI classes (Sugimoto, 2016). After briefly summarizing these challenges, I explain why and how Kahoot!, a web-based platform that allows for real-time quizzes, was implemented in my EMI classes. Then, I report the results of the implementation and offer suggestions for future studies.

Challenges of EMI Classes

Studies have found that students face three interrelated challenges in EMI classes. First, they experience comprehension problems. Many students find it difficult to understand lecture contents owing to their limited English abilities (Bozdoğan & Karlıdağ, 2013, for instance). Although a few top students with high English proficiency levels can thrive in EMI classes without assistance, the majority of the students with low-to-mid proficiency levels need some form of language assistance to comprehend lecture contents. Among the four dimensions of EMI classes (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing), students found listening to be especially difficult (Rogier, 2012). Inadequate listening skills make it difficult for students not only to understand lecture contents but also to ask questions or seek support. To formulate a question, students should be able to recognize what they did and did not understand. However, when students' listening skills are inadequate, they often find themselves unsure of where they lost track of the lecture. Without knowing which questions to ask, most students give up on seeking assistance (Sugimoto, 2019), which leads to an accumulation of confusion and frustration.

Consequently, students face concentration problems, which is the second most common challenge associated with EMI. When it is troublesome for students to understand lectures, it is difficult for them to maintain concentration. They tend to engage in unproductive behaviors, such as falling asleep, chatting with peers, and using cellphones for purposes irrelevant to the lecture. In fact, sleeping and irrelevant internet usage were the two major problems I often observed when teaching EMI classes, especially in large lecture halls.

Third, students face motivational problems. During registration, students decide to enroll in EMI courses for various reasons, such as an interest in the subject (Sugimoto, 2019), improving their English skills (Chapple, 2015), and superior job opportunities (Ellili-Cherif & Alkhateeb, 2015). However, after facing challenges in terms of understanding or concentrating on the lecture, it becomes difficult for them to sustain the motivation required to complete their EMI classes. In fact, Chapple (2015) found 34% of Japanese students dropped out of or failed to complete EMI courses. Another study suggested that only those students who were confident of their English skills remained sufficiently motivated (Hengsadeekul, Koul, & Kaewkuekool, 2014). When English becomes an obstacle to learn in EMI classes, students struggle to maintain their motivation levels.

Problems related to comprehension, concentration, and motivation create a vicious circle, which, once established, makes it difficult for EMI instructors to intervene. Without effective intervention or a support system, students can eventually develop negative opinions of EMI and claim that they would learn the subject more effectively in their first language than in English (Kirkgöz, 2014). From my own teaching experience and based on the literature, some form of assistance is needed to help students maintain their understanding, concentration, and motivation during EMI classes.

What is Kahoot!?

To alleviate the difficulties commonly faced by students, I implemented Kahoot! in my EMI classes. Kahoot! (https://Kahoot.com/) is a free, web-based, interactive learning platform that allows users to create and complete online quizzes in real time. It allows the entire class to take multiple-choice quizzes together, whereby it projects the questions onto a screen through Internet-connected devices, such as an instructor's computer or students' smartphones, tablets, or computers. The procedure for using Kahoot! is addressed in detail elsewhere (Harold, 2017), but its strengths include its user-friendly interface that allows users to intuitively learn how to use the platform with a little practice. Although instructors need to create an account with a working email address and password, students only need to visit a website (https://Kahoot!.it/) and enter a PIN number and a nickname to participate in a quiz. Quiz results can be downloaded in the form of a Microsoft Excel file once the quiz is completed.

Why Kahoot!?

I decided to implement Kahoot! because it appeared to have the potential to help students manage the three aforementioned challenges of EMI classes. For instance, Kahoot! can function as a comprehension test for students. In EMI classes, students are often unsure about whether they have accurately understood a lecture.

However, by using Kahoot!, they can identify what they did and did not understand. Moreover, Kahoot! is likely to help students maintain concentration. If they are informed that there will be a quiz after a lecture, they are likely to make more efforts to focus on the lecture. Finally, the peer-recognition factor involved in Kahoot! could motivate students to understand lectures in detail. After each question, Kahoot! displays the top five players' usernames, and at the end of the entire quiz, Kahoot! displays the scores of the top three players. A few students may develop the desire to achieve high scores to gain peer recognition. For these three reasons, I implemented Kahoot! in my EMI classes. Although a few reports about the use of Kahoot! in university classrooms can be found in the literature (Licorish, Owen, Daniel, & George, 2018; Plump & LaRosa, 2017; Wang & Lieberoth, 2016), few studies have reported its use in EMI environments.

Implementation Context

To internationalize its learning environment, the university in which the present experiment was conducted has been actively implementing EMI courses. By increasing the number of EMI courses to up to 50% by 2032, the university aims to increase the number of international students and to provide domestic students with opportunities to improve their English skills. Kahoot! was implemented in one such EMI course called "Cultures of English-Speaking Countries." This course introduces various cultural aspects of English-speaking countries, such as language, customs, and values, through 90-min lectures. Although the lectures, at times, involved instructor–student interaction through open-ended questions at the beginning and student–student interaction through pair/group discussions, for the most part, they involved one-way information flow from the instructor to the students. The course is elective and is available to students in the second year and beyond. Annually, approximately 100 students, including several international students, enroll in this course to improve their subject knowledge and their English skills. Before this course, all students are required to complete two courses in their first year, namely "Tutorial English" (general English language course) and "Current Topics" (CLIL type course), and are expected to have the minimum language skills required to enroll in EMI courses. Their academic backgrounds can vary from the sciences to the social sciences given the department's interdisciplinary curriculum. Students are evaluated based on attendance, participation in class activities, and a final group project. I instructed the students to write their Kahoot! nickname on the back of their attendance cards because their Kahoot! scores were counted as participation.

First Implementation

Kahoot! was first implemented during the spring semester of 2017, and 98 students registered for the course. At the end of each lecture, the students were instructed to participate in a Kahoot! quiz, which consisted of 10 questions related to the content of the day's lecture. While some questions asked in the lecture were simply about facts, other questions were more complex. They involved critical thinking and synthesis skills, such as the questions asking students to select an appropriate context to which a concept they learned could be applied. They were given 20 second to answer each question.

The implementation caught the students' attention and brought about changes in their behaviors. Positive attitudes and behaviors, such as improved attention, posture, and participation, were observed from the first day of this implementation. The data downloaded from Kahoot! showed that all 98 attendees participated in the quiz, although the percentage of correct answers varied across individual students. They appeared to enjoy verifying their correct answers, the distribution of student responses, and ranking of the top students. From the second day of this implementation, the teaching assistants (TAs) and I observed that the number of students who took lecture notes increased, and the number of students who tended to fall asleep decreased. The students started to bring tools that better suited their needs during the lecture and the subsequent Kahoot! quiz. While most of the students initially used their cellphones to participate in the Kahoot! quiz, more than half of the students started bringing along a laptop in subsequent lectures for this purpose. According to a TA's observation, students started using their laptops before the Kahoot! quiz to take lecture notes, understand the vocabulary used in the lecture slides, and search websites for content relevant to the lecture.

Simultaneously, a new set of challenges emerged. First, the percentages of correct answers were not as high as the instructor expected. On average, 49% of the students selected a correct answer for each question, and in every class, only a few students could answer all questions correctly. Second, the students did not seem to perceive the low percentage of correct answers as a problem. Both I and the TAs felt that the students were more focused on responding quickly and less on carefully reviewing their responses. A few students said they enjoyed Kahoot! because it is like "a game," and perhaps for that reason, they seemed to care more about the results of the competition (quiz) and less about understanding the lecture thoroughly. Third, the students would leave the classroom once the Kahoot! quiz was completed. Given that I administered the Kahoot! quiz during the last 15 min of a 90-min lecture, the class did not have adequate time to review each question and discuss the responses. I felt the need to spend a few minutes, at the very least, after each question to discuss why a specific choice was correct and the other options were wrong based on a review of the relevant part of the lecture.

Second Implementation

In 2018, 78 students registered for "Cultures of English-Speaking Countries." Based on the experiences gathered in 2017, I made three changes to the 2018 Kahoot! implementation. First, I raised the time limit to answer each to 1 min to give the students more time to carefully select an answer choice. Second, during the Kahoot! quiz, I spent 3–5 minutes after each question to discuss why a specific answer choice was correct and the others were not. I expected that doing so would help the students to accurately understand lecture contents and rectify any misunderstandings. Last, to gauge whether the students liked Kahoot!, I included a few questions about Kahoot! When the department conducted course evaluation at the end of the semester. Although both I and the TAs believed that the students appreciated the 2018 implementation, we felt the need to collect feedback directly from the students for validation.

Thanks to the above changes, the students did not compete in terms of how fast they could respond to the questions. Instead, they seemed to select an answer choice more carefully. In the extra time that was given, a few students reviewed their lecture notes, while others searched online for additional information. A few students discussed the question with their peers before selecting the final answer. The provision of 3–5 min of review time between questions seemed to reduce excitement among the students who preferred to quickly proceed with the quiz. Telling the students in advance that I would stop Kahoot! to ask them a few questions to clarify why they selected a specific answer choice seemed to help them engage more carefully with the quiz because they would have to justify their choices. Consequently, the average percentage of correct answers increased to 56%.

Results of Student Evaluation

At the end of the semester in 2018, as a part of course evaluation, the students were asked to anonymously respond to an open-ended question, "[w]hat do you think of Kahoot!?" Among the 78 students who had registered for the course, 63 responded to the question. Their responses were classified into three categories: positive, negative, and neutral. As illustrated in Figure 1, the majority (79%, n = 57) of the students described their experiences with Kahoot! as positive.

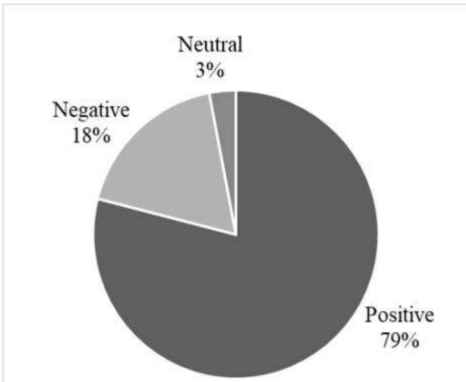

Fig. 1. *Student responses.*

Table 1 provides a summary of the positive responses. By contrast, 18% of the respondents (n = 13) described their experiences as negative. Table 2 provides a summary of the negative comments. Several students provided neutral responses, including "neither (I neither like nor dislike it)" and "we could use Wasepochi" (an online clicker to which the university provides free access).

・I like Kahoot! because I can check my comprehension instantly.
・Kahoot! helps me maintain concentration during lecture.
・Kahoot! stimulates competitiveness among us.
・I could enjoy Kahoot! like a game.
・Kahoot! evaluates students fairly.

Table 1. *Summary of positive responses.*

・Unnecessary.
・The font size was too small to recognize from the back.
・I don't like the fact that I cannot change my response once I submit it.
・The time limit was too short.
・Poor internet connection was distracting.

Table 2. *Summary of negative responses.*

Discussion

The results of the students' evaluations and observations indicated that overall, they welcomed the use of Kahoot! in the EMI class. Its implementation increased positive learning behaviors among the students, such as active listening and note-taking, and decreased negative behaviors, such as sleeping and texting. Additionally, the 2018 student survey results demonstrated that the majority of the students appreciated Kahoot!. This is consistent with the findings of the previous studies on the influence of Kahoot! implementation in non-EMI university classrooms, most of which found that students welcomed Kahoot! as a fun and enjoyable learning aid (Licorish, Owen, Daniel, & George, 2018; Plump & LaRosa, 2017).

Although a few students negatively evaluated the 2018 Kahoot! implementation, most of the problems they mentioned were technical and, thus, fixable. These problems included small font size, inability to change their response, short time limit, and poor Internet connection. The instructor can inform students of these possible problems in advance so that students are aware of them when they take a Kahoot! quiz. Before commencement of a quiz, instructors can also provide suggestions to students for managing such problems (e.g., moving to a front seat if students cannot clearly read instructions). Given that Kahoot! is a web-based tool, the use of Kahoot! is not recommended in settings where instructors do not have access to a stable Internet connection.

In addition to this limitation of dependency on a stable Internet connection, instructors should be aware of the pedagogical challenge that can emerge because of Kahoot! implementation. For managing the "low" percentage of correct answers and rushed responses, I increased the amount of time provided for Kahoot! while reducing lecture time. Although this alleviated the aforementioned problems, I had to sacrifice lecture time and, therefore, was able to cover less information than I did in the previous year. When considering the implementation of Kahoot!, EMI instructors must think about how to manage this tradeoff, and when determining what to prioritize, they must consider the course objectives.

In terms of the percentage of correct answers, an average of 49% was achieved with the 2017 implementation. I considered it too "low," and to increase this number, I made several adjustments to the 2018 implementation. In retrospect, this judgement was made rather intuitively, and future implementations should, ideally, be based on evidence rather than instructors' intuitions. To date, few studies have investigated students' comprehension in EMI contexts. Consequently, little is known about the reasonable level of understanding that EMI instructors should expect from their students (Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, & Dearden, 2018). Thus, I do not objectively know yet whether the percentages of correct answers obtained with the 2017 and 2018 Kahoot! implementations are high or low. Future studies will benefit from comparative analyses of learning outcomes among groups with and without Kahoot! to investigate its benefits more comprehensively. Additionally, in future studies, researchers could investigate student comprehension when a lecture is delivered in L1. EMI instructors, including myself, tend to believe that student comprehension would be significantly better in L1 than in L2, but the assumption is not necessarily true or backed by research. Testing this assumption would help EMI instructors to set realistic goals in terms of student comprehension.

During both implementations, I observed that during the lecture and the subsequent Kahoot! quiz, the students started to use an Internet browser on their laptop or smartphone. Since their internet usage was relevant to the lecture contents or the Kahoot! quiz, we considered it a positive learning behavior. However, it should be noted that the usage of Internet-connected devices can very easily have detrimental effects on students' learning, and instructors should be aware of these disadvantages. Students can use the Internet for various purposes in a Kahoot! session, such as vocabulary verification or fact checking. Whether to allow Internet usage depends on the nature of the questions and the purpose of the quiz. I and the TAs felt the need to set a rule regarding Internet usage by the students for purposes other than participating in Kahoot! sessions. Similarly, I felt the need to set rules about peer discussions during the quiz. After extending the time limit for answering Kahoot! questions, I often observed the students discussing the questions with their classmates. Whether to allow such peer discussions depends on what an instructor wants her students to achieve through the Kahoot! quiz and how she evaluates their performance. The instructor should clarify these rules to students at the start of the semester.

The results of the 2018 student survey not only demonstrated the students' appreciation of Kahoot! but also indicated the potential of Kahoot! to alleviate the common challenges associated with EMI classes. A few students, for example, stated that Kahoot! helped them comprehend or concentrate on lectures. Studies that have examined the effects of using game-based student response systems in non-EMI classrooms have reported increased levels of attention, participation, and motivation among students, in addition to deeper learning (Barrio, Muñoz-Organero, & Soriano, 2016; Wang & Lieberoth, 2016). Future studies should quantitatively and qualitatively investigate the extents to which the same trends can be observed in EMI contexts. In the present study, the findings of the student survey are based on the students' perceptions. Therefore, it remains unclear whether their positive evaluations of Kahoot! were accompanied by positive learning outcomes. Future studies should analyze the benefits of Kahoot! implementation from multiple perspectives, including learning outcomes measured using objective instruments (e.g., exam scores). Additionally, Kahoot! could be implemented for multiple purposes, such as fact-checking and application of concepts, each of which could affect student learning differently. Future studies should focus on various types of Kahoot! questions and their effects on learning outcomes.

Conclusion

In this paper, I reported the reasons for, processes associated with, and results of implementing Kahoot! (real-time online quiz) in EMI classes at a private university in Japan between 2017 and 2018. In describing the process of improving the Kahoot! implementations, I aimed to highlight the types of benefits and problems that emerged as a result and the manner in which these problems were managed. In addition, I intended to explore Kahoot!'s potential for helping students to manage challenges that are commonly encountered in EMI classes, such as comprehension, concentration, and motivational problems. My observations and the findings of the student survey indicated that the majority of the EMI students appreciated the Kahoot! implementation. It encouraged them to engage in positive learning behaviors, such as active note-taking and peer-discussion. In addition, a few students provided feedback stating that Kahoot! helped improve their concentration in and comprehension of the lectures. These findings suggest that it is worthwhile to further test the effectiveness of Kahoot! in the EMI context. Future studies should qualitatively and quantitatively investigate the extents to which Kahoot! can contribute toward improving concentration, participation, and comprehension among EMI students.

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41 Learning Formulaic Sequences Through Text Messaging Tasks

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Learning formulaic sequences remains one of the challenges language learners face, especially in an English as a foreign language (EFL) context where exposure to the language is limited outside of class. This study suggested the use of text messaging for learning formulaic sequences through tasks and compared the results with traditional face-to-face learning for oral language development. Face-to-face and text messaging groups each conducted a series of tasks that included formulaic sequences. Oral speaking tests and cloze tests were used to measure pre- and post-task development. The results indicated no significant difference in the total score for cloze tests. The results of the speaking test also revealed that the mode of learning may affect different aspects of speech development. The detailed analysis of the pre- and post-test results were discussed in terms of sentence complexity, accuracy, and fluency.

本研究は、オンラインによる文字のコミュニケーション活動を利用した学習方法を検証する。特にタスク活動を利用して定型表現を習得した場合、オンラインでの学習と対面学習ではどのような学習効果があるのかを明らかにする。また、学習環境の違いとスピーキングに与える影響も検証する。対面学習とオンライン学習の 2 群において、定型表現を含むタスクを実施した。両群には、事前テストとしてスピーキングテストと空欄穴埋め問題を利用した。タスク活動終了後、事後テストにも事前テストと同様の試験を行い、結果を比較した。学習環境によって定型表現の習得に差はなかったが、スピーキング領域に発達の違いがあることがわかった。事後テストを複雑性、正確性、流暢性の観点から分析した。

Advances in technology have afforded different mediums of communication, such as text messaging. Text messaging is a synchronous form of communication in which the message is exchanged in a written form. As it plays an important role in today's communication, it is meaningful to consider online media as platforms for language learning and the necessity of understanding how language used in text messaging affects traditional methods of communication, such as speaking. Previous research has explored the possibility of how text messaging may affect oral speech (Abrams, 2003; Payne & Whitney, 2002; Sotillo, 2000). However, little is known of the relationship between the use of tasks and the acquisition of new vocabulary such as formulaic sequences. Thus, it is worthwhile to investigate how the use of text messaging in a language-learning environment may or may not afford equivalent outcomes compared to face-to-face interactions. The purpose of this study is to compare the effect of tasks in learning formulaic sequences in a traditional face-to-face setting and a text messaging setting and how different modes of learning impact speaking skills.

Background

Text Messaging for Foreign Language Learning

Previous research has reported many advantages of text messaging for foreign language learning. As text messaging is a synchronous means of communication that is exchanged in written form, this characteristic of the method may account for the saliency of the gap between the target language and the interlanguage (Pellettieri, 2000). Pellettieri (2000) claimed that reading the text appearing on the screen provides more time to process the information. Compared to audio input, recipients of the message may be able to reread or slow down their pace for unfamiliar speech. The extra online processing time may also account for refined output (Smith, 2012). Pellettieri (2000) claimed that communication through text messaging allowed learners to visually monitor their own output, which makes it more likely for them to spot their errors and achieve greater accuracy than face-to-face spoken interactions. Salaberry (2000) supported the claim of accuracy in a study on acquisition of Spanish verb endings. According to Salaberry (2000), text messaging led to increased accuracy compared to face-to-face oral communication.

Research on corrective feedback has also pointed out the benefits of language learning using online text-based interaction on the advantage of the saliency of the written exchange. Sauro (2009) investigated the possible advantages of incorporating communication through online text and focused on corrective feedback. The results indicated that corrective feedback with metalinguistic information achieved greater gains in the target language. The research on corrective feedback through text messaging indicates the affordance of text messaging to language learning.

Although previous studies have highlighted that written forms of interaction improved the ability of learners to notice linguistic items, the relationship between the noticed item and acquisition was not clearly understood until Smith (2012) used the eye-tracking method and confirmed that learners noticed corrective feedback through eye gaze and stimulated recall. Research on text messaging mostly relied on analyzing the text log, which is available after the exchange has been submitted. Smith's research, however, provided valuable evidence on how attention shifted during the production of text. The result of Smith's study (2012) on text messaging demonstrated that semantic and syntactic items may become targets of attention instead of morphological ones. The use of text messaging for learning new vocabulary has a positive effect on second language learning.

Learning Formulaic Sequences

Recently, studies on formulaic sequences have suggested that they are often processed faster than lexical items (Erman, 2007), and it has been recognized that they play an important role in fluency development (Towell et al., 1996). According to Jiang and Nekrasova (2007), formulaic sequences were processed as a whole and stored and retrieved as a whole. This holistic representation has been reported as being processed more quickly and accurately than nonformulaic sequences (Jiang & Nekrasova, 2007). The research results imply that building a repertoire of formulaic sequences will eventually lead to gains in oral fluency. However, research has also suggested that formulaic sequences were problematic for language learners to acquire since they were not easily noticeable (Lewis, 2009; Spötttl & McCarthy, 2004). Spöttl and McCarthy (2004) claimed that acquisition of formulaic sequences was closely related not only to the proficiency of the learner but also to exposure to authentic formulaic sequence usage outside the classroom. Learning formulaic sequences in an environment where there is less use of the target language may not be ideal.

Oral Development

In an EFL learning environment, improving speaking skill is a critical issue. Outside the classroom, few chances exist to practice speaking. As learning formulaic sequences may facilitate fluency in oral speech, the aim of the current study is to investigate how formulaic sequences in an online setting offers additional time and saliency for processing foreign language. Payne and Whitney (2003) reported that the spontaneous conversation in text messaging may resemble oral exchange (Payne & Whitney, 2003). It has been argued that the additional time offered in text messaging allows language learners to reduce their cognitive load for processing foreign languages (Yuan & Ellis, 2003). The goal of this research is to investigate how acquisition of formulaic sequences can develop oral skills by taking advantage of the inherent features of text messaging and compare the results with face-to-face learning.

The present study addresses the following research questions:

(1) Is there a difference in cloze test results between the text messaging group and the face-to-face group?

(2) Will learners be able to use the target formulaic sequence naturally in oral speech?

Methodology

Participants

This research included 37 university students majoring in engineering or informatics in Japan. All the participants were Japanese nonnative English speakers, aged from 19 to 22 years old. Their English proficiency levels were A1-B2 in Common European Framework (CEFR), with Test of English as an International Communication (TOEIC) scores ranging approximately from 400 to 620. The data for this current study was collected during an English class. Due to absences, only data from students who attended all classes and who provided written consent were used for analysis.

This study followed a quasi-experimental design and used pre- and post-tests. Two classes were asked to participate in this study. Both groups took a vocabulary quiz on formulaic sequences before and after the three-week interventions. The first class functioned as a control group with 16 students doing only the face-to-face tasks. The second class functioned as an experimental group with 21 students and used only text messaging for communication in all tasks.

Procedure and Tasks

Two kinds of tasks—repetition and interview tasks—were used for learning formulaic sequences. The repetition task was adopted to ensure practice of the target items and to present the translation in the students' native language. In order to compare the results with the previous studies (Abrams, 2003; Payne & Whitney, 2002), the interview task was chosen to elicit speaking by making use of their own experience. The repetition task for face-to-face groups was practiced orally by repeating after the teacher three times. For the text messaging group, the target formulaic sequences were practiced silently by typing (Figure 1). The students were asked to practice typing the target formulaic sequences three times in the designated activity page. All the activities for the text messaging group were presented in the language manage system, Moodle. Students were using the same school computer with keyboards. After the repetition practice, both the control and experimental groups engaged in face-to-face and text messaging interview tasks, respectively. Learners were paired, and they interviewed each other using the questions in the worksheet that included the target formulaic sequences. The interview questions were created to ask about their favorite city or what they would like to do there. Examples of the interview questions are:

- If you can choose to go anywhere in the world, what do you look for in a place to live?
- Is it easy to get around by public transportation there?

Figure 1: Web page of learning formulaic sequences for the text messaging group

After the interview, learners were then asked to summarize the content of their interview to the teacher.

On the first week, all the participants took the pre-test. Through the second to fourth weeks, learners practiced new sets of formulaic sequences each week through repetition and interview tasks. On the fifth week, learners were asked to take the post-test.

Pre- and Post-Test

Two tests were used as pre- and post-tests—the cloze test and the one-minute speech test. The cloze test consisted of 15 sentences that included the target formulaic sequences. Learners were to fill in the blank to make the sentence match the translation. Learners were not allowed to use outside resources. The time limit was 15 minutes. The test was conducted online in a classroom where the teacher monitored the screen. The test was created using Google Forms and was conducted using a school computer with keyboards. The topic for the one-minute speech was “If you could live in your favorite city, where would you live? Explain your reasons.” Before recording, learners had one minute to prepare for their speech. The speech was recorded in the classroom by using the school’s computer and a microphone. The “Sound Recorder” application was used to record individual speeches. The teacher monitored and gave additional technological support when necessary.

Target Formulaic Sequences

Prior to the current study, a pilot study was conducted with 20 cloze sentences to ensure the desired difficulty level of the target formulaic sequences and the difficulty of the quiz. Formulaic sequences were referenced from the textbook used in class (Bolhke, 2016). Fifteen formulaic sequences were chosen based on the difficulty score. Interview questions were generated by using the target formulaic sequences. Interview questions were selected to ensure learners were able to practice and learn formulaic sequences in context. By testing the ability of students to ask and answer questions, the tests sought to determine students’ ability to think about their ideal city and express their ideas clearly.

Linguistic Analysis

Cloze Test

The difficulty index for each item was calculated by the number of students with correct answers divided by the total number of students in each group. Index scores closer to zero indicated that the item being responded to was being answered less accurately by a greater proportion of the test takers, and it was thus a difficult item. The differences between pre- and post-tests were calculated to measure the effect of task interventions.

Speech Test

Pre- and post-tests of the one-minute speech were used for linguistic analysis. The recorded data was transcribed and pruned by eliminating filled pauses, repetition, and self-corrections. There were seven variables used for analysis: accuracy, complexity, fluency (broken into the following components: speech fluency, breakdowns, repairs, and total number of words), and variation (word type). Trained coders used the transcribed data to analyze accuracy, complexity, and repair ($r = .91$). Word count and word variation were analyzed using the R program. The number of pauses for breakdown was counted using Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2019). Differences in the score between pre- and post-tests were calculated for effect size. The effect size was considered in terms of Plonsky and Oswald’s (2014) criteria on paired tests—small, $d = .060$; medium $d = 1.00$; and large $d = 1.40$.

Complexity and Accuracy

Building on previous research (Norris & Ortega, 2000) and considering students’ proficiency, the number of clauses per AS-unit (Analysis of Speech unit) was used to measure development of syntactic complexity. AS-units (Foster et al., 2000) have been commonly used in speech analysis (e.g., Suzuki & Kormos, 2019) for linguistic analysis.

AS-units were also used to calculate accuracy. The percentage of error-free AS-units was used to measure accuracy. Local accuracy measures such as wrong word choice, morphological mistakes such as S-V agreement, and tense mistakes were counted as errors.

Fluency

It has been argued that the major components of fluency are speed, breakdown, and repair (Suzuki & Kormos, 2019). Breakdown has been defined as filled and unfilled pauses with silences longer than 250 milliseconds (Jong & Bosker, 2013). Speech fluency refers to the number of pruned words per minute. In the current study, breakdown is the total number of Japanese words and filled and unfilled pauses divided by pruned words. Repair refers to the number of dysfluencies (false starts and repetitions) divided by pruned words.

Results

Cloze tests on 15 formulaic items were used to answer the first research question. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between the two groups (Table 1). Paired-sample t-tests between pre- and post-cloze tests were conducted. The results revealed that the face-to-face and text messaging groups had significant differences with a large effect size (face-to-face group: $t(15) = 8.73$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.18$; text messaging group: $t(20) = 8.01$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.74$).

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for cloze test on formulaic sequences (15 items)

		Pre Test			Post Test		Pretest-Posttest comparison	
Mode	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	p	Effect Size (d)
F2F	16	5.31	3.26	16	10.94	2.57	0.000	2.18***
Texting	21	6.05	2.52	21	11.14	2.31	0.000	1.74***

d> .60*,d> 1.00**,d> 1.40***

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for learning formulaic sequences through text messaging

				Pre Test			Post Test	
		Mode	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Accuracy		F2F	16	42.95	27.23	16	42.28	28.43
		Texting	21	28.03	15.42	21	52.11	23.65
Complexity		F2F	16	10.78	2.71	16	12.34	3.54
		Texting	21	9.34	2.54	21	11.3	3.73
Fluency	Speech Fluency	F2F	16	44.25	11.38	16	57.06	12.66
		Texting	21	45.52	16.86	21	65.05	33.32
	Breakdown	F2F	16	0.32	0.19	16	0.26	0.17
		Texting	21	0.39	0.26	21	0.25	0.18
	Repair	F2F	16	0.06	0.04	16	0.04	0.03
		Texting	21	0.03	0.03	21	0.03	0.02
Total Words		F2F	16	52.94	14.39	16	65.50	12.69
		Texting	21	52.81	19.70	21	71.43	34.65
Word Type		F2F	16	27.50	6.63	16	34.38	6.69
		Texting	21	27.00	7.34	21	36.90	14.81

To answer the second research question, a one-minute speech test was conducted. There was a small number of usages of formulaic sequences in the post-test speech for both the face-to-face and text messaging groups. Formulaic sequences appeared twice in one speech for the face-to-face group and four times in four different speeches in the text messaging group. Although there was only a small number of formulaic sequences in natural use, both the face-to-face and text messaging groups demonstrated evidence of usage.

To analyze the results, transcribed speech was examined for complexity, accuracy, and fluency (Table 2). Paired-sample t-tests between pre-test and post-test revealed that accuracy was higher in the text messaging group than in the face-to-face group with a large effect size (face-to-face group: $t(15) = .07$, $p = .947$, $d = .02$; text messaging group: $t(20) = 3.90$, $p = .001$, $d = .85$). For speed fluency, the face-to-face group was larger in effect size than the text messaging group (face-to-face group: $t(15) = 5.05$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.26$; text messaging group: $t(20) = 3.64$, $p = .002$, $d = .80$). There was no difference in terms of breakdowns for the face-to-face group, $t(15) = 1.66$, $p = .080$, $d=.42$; however, differences were found in the text messaging group with small effect size, $t(20) = 2.67$, $p = .014$, $d = .58$. For repair, differences were found for the face-to-face group with small effect size, $t(15) = 2.40$, $p = .03$, $d = .60$; however, no differences were found for the text messaging group, $t(20) = .37$, $p=.71$, $d=.08$. Both the face-to-face and text messaging group gained more in word type with medium effect size (face-to-face: $t(15) = 4.07$, $p = .001$, $d = 1.02$; text messaging group: $t(20) = 3.78$, p¬ =.001, $d=.83$). No difference was found in complexity for both groups (face-to-face: $t(15) = .005$, $p = .996$, d =

1.02; text messaging group: t(20) = .866, p¬ = .397, d =.19).

Discussion

Acquisition of Formulaic Sequence and Text Messaging

As the results indicated, learning formulaic sequences through text messaging was equivalent to learning face-to-face, with both groups having a large effect size between pre- and post-tests in terms of the cloze test results. There were no significant differences in the total test score.

In terms of usage of formulaic sequences, there was only a small amount of data where learners used formulaic sequences in speech tests. Although the interview tasks aimed to facilitate the acquisition of formulaic sequences in a natural context, this intervention only lasted for 3 weeks, which may have been insufficient. Samples 1 and 2 are excerpts from the dialogues of the face-to-face and text messaging groups with formulaic sequences incorporated in their speech. Both samples demonstrated that they used formulaic sequences together with "with friends," which they learned through asking and answering the interview question "Where do you often hang out with your friends?"

Sample 1

Student 1 from face-to-face group:

Pre-test: …I think Tokyo has many things. For example, very favorite shops and Tokyo tower. I want to visit sightseeing. ….

Post-test: …I think Tokyo has many newest shops. I want to hang out with friends. My best friend lives in Tokyo now so I want to hang out with her….

Sample 2

Student 1 from text messaging group:

Pre-test: ... there are a lot of store and amusement and I want to shopping in Tokyo.

Post-test: I want to shopping to search for good items and I want to hang out with my friends in some amusement parks.

Text Messaging and Speech Development

This study shows a sample of how foreign language practice through text messaging can lead to differences in speech development compared to face-to-face practice. According to the results, practice through face-to-face communication led to improved speed fluency with fewer repairs. However, breakdown, which includes filled and unfilled pause and accuracy, did not appear to improve between pre- and post-tests. By contrast, the text messaging group had a difference in accuracy between pre- and post-tests. Speed fluency improved, but the effect was not as large as that of the face-to-face group. As for the number of breakdowns, the text messaging group also improved with a small effect size; however, the face-to-face group displayed no difference. Results corroborate previous studies on online communication that suggested that text messaging improves oral output (Abrams, 2003; Payne & Whitney, 2002; Sotillo, 2000), particularly for accuracy (Salaberry, 2000; Smith, 2012). From the results, it can be assumed that students in the text messaging group were more careful and perhaps more attentive to what they were producing. The inherent characteristic of communication through text messaging may allow learners to pay more attention to linguistic items (Pellettieri, 2000) that may be overlooked in face-to-face practice.

Conclusion

The present study analyzed cloze test results and oral speech test results for face-to-face and text messaging groups of students. From the cloze test result, learning formulaic sequences through text messaging leads to results equal to that of face-to-face practice. There were no significant differences found in total scores of the post-test. In both modes, formulaic sequences were used naturally in context; however, there were few samples, and it may not be justifiable to generalize from this result. Through the task intervention, speaking improved in both modes especiily text messaging group improving in accuracy. The unique feature of text messaging may enable additional attention to linguistic aspects otherwise overlooked. As the current study only lasted for 3 weeks, it would be worthwhile to do research spanning a longer period of time in order to observe the longitudinal differences in terms of acquisition in both mediums.

Task-based learning in an online environment may offer opportunities, such as text saliency, that may not be available for traditional face-to-face learning environments. As online communication is text-based, learners may pay more attention to linguistic aspects of learning and attempt their best to stay focused in the target language and be more aware of the errors they make. With the use of text messaging, opportunities are created to practice the target language in a synchronous written form, promoting language acquisition.

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42 Can More Rater Training Improve Peer Assessments?

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This paper will detail the results of a follow-up study examining the reliability of a group of second-year university students' peer assessments of their classmates' oral presentations. The original study calculated the inter-rater reliability coefficient of the peer assessments and found them to be only fairly reliable. It was theorized that increasing the amount of time spent on rater training would improve these scores. This paper will detail the findings of a two-year follow-up study in which the amount of time spent on rater training was doubled. The results of this increased rater training on the reliability of the peer assessments was calculated, with very little improvement being observed. The results of the study are provided as well as some hypotheses as to why more significant improvements were not made.

この論文は前回行ったクラスの生徒間での相互評価による集中力の増加、モチベーションの増加などの実績の研究の続きである。今回は前回よりも良い結果を残すために総合評価の回数を二倍に増やし、研究をし直した結果と今後の改善点などをまとめた。明らかな改善は見られなかったので、その原因を推測し、今後の課題などについて書いている。

The ability to both prepare your thoughts logically, and then present your message clearly and persuasively has always been recognized as an invaluable skillset. As such, being able to conduct a successful presentation is considered one of the most important proficiencies needed for career advancement as well as for becoming an influential and productive member of society (Al Nouh, Abdul-Kareem, & Taqi, 2015).

Unfortunately, in the increasingly technology-driven world in which we now live, a lack of face-to-face communication has had a detrimental effect on the development of some students' interpersonal communication skills. To offset this trend, many Japanese universities have included oral presentations in their curriculums to give their students an edge in the competitive global business market (Brooks & Wilson, 2014).

One of the obvious difficulties with including oral presentations in the classroom, however, is the time-consuming nature of assessment. As student after student comes to the front of the class to present on the same or similar topic, the other students are often relegated to being passive audience members. One solution to this 'downtime' is to have the students become more involved through peer assessment. Instead of being passive observers they instead could critically evaluate the performances of their peers, and then provide formative feedback to help them further develop their presentation skills in future performances.

If properly implemented, peer assessment allows for the direct participation of learners in the assessment process, which enables learners to reflect on their experience and monitor their learning (Reynolds & Trehan, 2000). Some teachers, however, may feel uncomfortable ceding some of the responsibility of grading to the students. A large part of the hesitance teachers have in involving students with assessment stems from their belief that the students' scores will be unreliable (Saito, 2003). This is certainly how this author felt when asked to include peer assessment in a presentation class he was teaching.

Despite a lack of experience with peer assessment as well as a profound uneasiness with allowing students a say in contributing to student scores, an attempt was made to incorporate peer assessment as part of the overall assessment procedures for the class. Furthermore, in an attempt to better understand peer assessment, research was conducted to learn more about its potential benefits and/or drawbacks when implemented in the language classroom.

While there have been numerous studies examining the ability of students in writing classes to reliably peer assess their classmates' compositions, comparatively little research has been directed at oral presentations. When focused more narrowly on English as a foreign language (EFL) the lack of research becomes even more apparent (Fazel, 2015, p. 80).

At the conclusion of the first year experimenting with peer assessment, a study was conducted to ascertain whether the scores the students were providing could be considered reliable. Unfortunately, the findings in the resulting paper (Townsend, 2012) were rather disappointing. This prompted the current study, a follow-up study conducted six years after the first, to examine the effects of significantly increased rater training on the reliability of the peer assessments.

This paper will briefly review the initial study and its findings. Following this, the current study will be explained with a detailed account of the changes made to rater training as well as the underlying justifications for these changes. Finally, the findings from the current study will be presented as well as the implications these findings have on our general understanding of the reliability of peer assessments of oral presentations in the context being examined.

The Initial Study

In the 2010-2011 academic year, a study was undertaken to determine the reliability of the peer assessments of oral presentations by a group of second-year English majors at a private Japanese university. The class was mandatory for all sophomores and met twice a week for a total of 32 90-minute classes per semester.

The students were required to perform three presentations a semester on an assigned topic, for a total of six presentations over the course of the year. Each presentation accounted for 15% towards that semester's final grade. For each presentation, the cumulative score from their peers amounted to 30% of the final score for the presentation, with the remaining 70% coming from the teacher. Students were required to speak for 3 to 5 minutes.

Initially, students were introduced to the basic organization of a presentation which followed a structure that included an introduction, a body, and a conclusion. Following this, the students viewed a video containing two sample presentations. While the contents of the two presentations were virtually identical, the first was an example of a poorly conducted presentation, while the second was of a well done presentation (see details in Harrington & LeBeau, 2009).

After viewing the sample presentations, the students worked in small groups comparing the two with a focus on identifying what factors contributed to the second presentation being more effective than the first. From this the students came up with the core set of five basic presentation skills as follows: (1) posture, (2) eye contact, (3) voice, (4) gestures, and (5) easy to understand language (English). These were then used as the basis for assessment.

Finally, over the course of three 90-minute lessons, the students engaged in a series of structured activities where both good and poor examples of each of the five aforementioned presentation skills were introduced and practiced. This was followed by students undergoing practical training with each skill through structured pair and group-work activities.

Limited rater training was conducted before every set of presentations, with the teacher explaining what constituted a poor, fair or an excellent score. It should be noted at this time, that the primary goal of peer assessment in this class was to assist in the identification of the strengths and weaknesses in each of their presentation skills in the hopes that this knowledge would help the students improve their performances in subsequent presentations.

The class was randomly divided in half. One group sat at the front of the classroom and the other group at the back. Students then took turns presenting in front of their peers. While each student was presenting, the other students in their group were instructed to watch carefully and fill out an assessment/comments sheet provided (see Appendix).

The items to be assessed were listed, and scoring was done with a 10-point Likert scale, with 1 being the lowest score and 10 the highest. All of the six presentations were conducted after completing two units from the prescribed textbook. For each unit the students prepared and practiced a presentation, but were allowed to choose either of the presentations to perform.

When filling out the assessment/comments sheet, the raters were instructed to fill out the content section (Part 1) corresponding to the presentation the presenter had elected to perform. However, the presentation skills section (Part 2) was filled out for all presentations regardless of which unit they chose. It should be noted that for this study, only the scores for the five presentation skills were included in the calculations for this study. The reasoning for this is that while the contents of each presentation changed from one presentation to the next, the skills remained constant.

At the bottom of each assessment/comments sheet, there was a space provided where students were instructed to write comments on their peers' performance to supplement and reinforce the numerical scores as well as provide some more specific information. It was requested that students make three comments in each of the two categories (for a total of six), though students rarely provided this many. Students were not formally assessed on the quantity or the quality of their comments, and as such this was outside the purview of the study.

While both groups were presenting I positioned myself in the middle of the classroom in a good position to observe both presenters. I took extensive notes on each presenter and assigned a grade based on a holistic interpretation of each performance. Finally, the assessment/comments sheets were collected and the reliability for the student assessments was calculated.

An inter-rater reliability coefficient was calculated for the student-assessed scores of all six groups of presentations. While there are various ways to measure the reliability of assessments based on the number of items being assessed and the number of assessors, in the case of subjectively-rated tasks judged according to a rating scale (such as presentations), determining reliability usually takes the form of calculating an inter-rater reliability (IRR) coefficient.

The Online Kappa Calculator (Randolph, 2008) was used to calculate kappa – a chance-adjusted measure of agreement – for any number of cases, categories, or raters. This calculates the degree of agreement in classification over that which would be expected by chance and is scored as a number between 0 and 1, where 0 represents the amount of agreement that can be expected from random chance, and 1 represents perfect agreement between raters (McHugh, 2012). The inter-rater reliability coefficients for the six presentations are as follows:

Table 1
K Values for Initial Study

Presentation #	(IRR) Kappa
1	0.28
2	0.33
3	0.28
4	0.42
5	0.27
6	0.31

With the IRR coefficients being calculated, the next job was interpreting the results. A review of the literature on assessment reliability shows that the interpretation of inter-rater reliability coefficients – what is considered reliable or not – is contentious at best. While there is no generally agreed on measure of significance, the following table provided by Landis and Koch (1977) is perhaps the most widely used resource for interpreting κ values:

Table 2
Guidelines for Interpreting K Values

κ	Interpretation
< 0	Poor agreement
0.01 – 0.20	Slight agreement
0.21 – 0.40	Fair agreement
0.41 – 0.60	Moderate agreement
0.61 – 0.80	Substantial agreement
0.81 – 1.00	Almost perfect agreement

According to these guidelines, all but one of the sets of presentations conducted in the initial study could be considered fairly reliable. Only presentation #4 achieved moderate reliability. The results show that within the confines of this limited study, the peer assessments provided by the students were not altogether reliable. Furthermore, the scores did not improve in a linear fashion, which led to the conclusion that "repeated exposure to peer assessment had a limited effect on improving inter-rater reliability" (Townsend, 2012, p. 242).

As mentioned above, these results were rather disappointing. In the ensuing discussion much consideration was given to how the reliability of the peer assessments could be improved upon in the future. Ultimately, it was concluded that more robust rater training was required to aid the students in better understanding what they were assessing as well as to more consistently interpret the rating scales. Furthermore, additional research was conducted to better understand what effective rater training should look like.

Rater Training

In order to improve the reliability of the peer assessments, measures must be taken to limit the variance among ratings to the greatest extent possible. This can be done through rater training, whereby explanations and practice are given to assessors on the interpretation and use of rating scales. This is generally referred to as Frame of Reference (FOR) training, and typically involves an explanation of the rating system, discussion of avoiding bias and common errors, advice on observing and making judgements as well as practice observations (see Graham, Milanowski, & Miller, 2012, for a more comprehensive overview of FOR training).

Research has shown rater training to be useful in improving rating accuracy, reliability and validity (Woehr & Huffcutt, 1994; Schleicher, Day, Bronston, Mayes, & Riggo, 2002; Gorman & Rentsch, 2009). Attempts at improving rater reliability through rater training have come up with some promising results. One study by Saito (2008) concluded that rater training improved inter-rater reliability by reducing the possibility of a misfit in the data. That is, after training it was less likely for one rater to have a wildly different score from the other assessors.

Several L2 language testing studies (Shohamy, Gordon & Kraemer, 1992; Weigle, 1994, 1998) have examined training effects in relation to both expert and novice raters. These studies offered evidence that supports the unsurprising conclusion that trained raters are more reliable than untrained raters. In regards to the optimum length for rater training, Graham, Milanowski and Miller (2012) determined that training begins to be effective after an hour or two, and rater training sessions lasting 5 hours or more are significantly more effective than those lasting fewer than 5 hours (pp. 15-16).

Even extensive training sessions, however, will not ensure that every observer agrees with a standard or with his or her peers (Myford & Wolfe, 2009). In addition, research has demonstrated that even after raters have undergone sufficient training, they will not necessarily continue to be reliable raters. Over time, and without constant attention, the consistency of the raters suffers, and the scores become less reliable. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct periodic follow-up training sessions to ensure rating is conducted as reliably as possible (Graham, Milanowski, & Miller, 2012, p. 18).

One final consideration when designing a rater training program is accountability. Johnson, Penny and Gordon (2009) found in a study they conducted that raters are more attentive to requirements and score more closely to the rubric when they know their ratings are going to be monitored. These findings suggest that observers are more accurate when they feel accountable for their compliance with the rubric and/or standards as prescribed by the teacher.

In summary, to improve rater training it is important to consider the length of training with more than five hours being optimum. As well, training should include making raters aware of the rating scale as well as how to apply the rating scale to a particular performance. Furthermore, training should not be a one-off, but should be continuously revisited and reinforced.

Finally, there should be some accountability for the scores raters give, with follow up provided if a rater consistently falls far outside the norm of what is expected. With these points in mind, the revised training program for the current study will now be detailed.

The Current Study

In the 2016-2017 and 2017-2018 academic years the rater training for the oral presentation component of the class was doubled, with all other aspects of the class remaining unchanged. After being introduced to the basic format of a good presentation, the students once again viewed the video demonstrating a good example of a presentation as well as a bad example of a presentation. As before, in small groups the students discussed why the second video was much more effective, and they came up with the same set of five basic presentation skills which formed the basis for assessment.

Unfortunately, a second suitable practice video like the one described above was unable to be procured. In lieu of this, a different activity was devised to further the development of rater consistency. The students were required to each prepare, practice and perform a simple presentation introducing their favorite place. The students were then divided into small groups of four. As each student performed their presentation, the remaining three students in the group were tasked with observing the performance and filling out an assessment/comments sheet as a group.

The usual assessment procedure has the students fill out one assessment/comments sheet by themselves, and their scores and comments are anonymous. However, in this case the three members of the group observing their classmate's presentation filled out a single assessment/comments sheet as a team. They were also encouraged to discuss amongst themselves what score they would give for each skill as well as the rationale for their decisions. The other members might recommend a higher or lower score and explain their rationale. In this manner they would negotiate a mutually agreeable score for each of the five presentation skills being assessed.

Students were additionally instructed to write some comments that would give more practical suggestions for how future presentations could be improved upon. It was hoped that this activity would develop more consistent raters, as they would be more familiar with the rating scales and how they should be interpreted.

Next, instead of the three 90-minute lessons in the initial study, the students underwent six 90-minute lessons whereby they underwent extensive practical skills training through pair and group-work activities. As was the case before, the focus of this practice was to demonstrate both good and bad examples of each skill in action, and how – if done well – they can make a presentation more effective.

In the initial study, limited rater training was conducted before all six of the presentations. In the current study, the rater training was increased to include not only the pre-performance training, but also follow-up training in the next lesson after their performances. In both of these rater training sessions it was carefully explained what constituted a poor, fair and excellent grade.

Finally, in both the initial and current study, students were required to write their student number on the back of the assessment/comments sheet. This allowed the teacher to provide additional rater training to students when necessary. For example, if students were giving scores dramatically inconsistent with their peers, or they were marking the exact same score for all five presentation skills, individual follow up training was conducted. This was done in the hopes of improving accountability, and was conducted more frequently in the follow-up study. Once again, The Online Kappa Calculator (Randolph, 2008) was used to calculate the IRR coefficients, and the scores are as follows:

Table 3
K Values for Current Study

Presentation #	(IRR) Kappa 2011-12	(IRR) Kappa 2016-17	(IRR) Kappa 2017-18
1	0.28	0.24	0.25
2	0.33	0.23	0.29
3	0.28	0.30	0.32
4	0.42	0.35	0.19
5	0.27	0.30	0.28
6	0.31	0.27	0.30

Discussion

Despite the increased rater training the reliability of the peer assessments did not improve. In fact, with mean scores of 0.31, 0.28 and 0.27 respectively, the latter scores were slightly less reliable. In the confines of this study, it seems that the initial training offered may have been adequate for the students to understand the rating scales and how they should be applied, and the increased rater training did not improve the reliability of the peer assessments.

It could be surmised that the level of instruction on all the oral presentation skill aspects in the initial study was sufficient to establish a certain level of correlation, and the additional training in the current study may not have added any more advantages to the assessors on top of instruction in the skill aspects.

While more research is needed, it might be time to begin rethinking what a reliable score should be for EFL students conducting peer assessments of their classmates' oral presentations. In light of the generally consistent inter-rater reliability scores for all three years being examined, and despite the doubling of rater training for two of those years, the question must be asked whether or not interpretation of the scores fits in this context.

There is precedent for interpreting the scales differently depending on the context being examined. For example, McHugh (2012) has suggested that in the context of healthcare research, any kappa value below 0.60 indicates inadequate agreement among the raters and little confidence should be placed in the study results (p. 279). The justification for this view is clearly that the reliability of healthcare workers to assess accurately a patient's condition could be the difference between life and death.

McHugh goes on to suggest that in other contexts it is not uncommon for researchers to accept low kappa values in their inter-rater reliability studies (p. 282). Perhaps in the context being examined here, EFL students conducting peer assessments of oral presentations, a lower kappa value should be considered acceptable. While this study is limited, the inter-rater reliability coefficients of student peer-assessments in the three years examined were remarkably consistent, with 17 of the 18 sets of presentations being fairly reliable.

While further research is needed to determine what other factors might be responsible for contributing to the rather low rater reliability, it might be time to concede that the guidelines for interpreting kappa scores as Landis & Koch (1977) proposed are unnecessarily harsh in this context. Furthermore, this might necessitate the creation of a new set of guidelines specifically designed to interpret the reliability of peer assessments of oral presentations in an EFL context.

Finally, while the increased rater training did not significantly improve the reliability of the peer-assessed scores, there were other notable observed benefits. The extensive practical skills training activities were very useful in improving the overall quality of the presentations. The doubled exposure through the pair and group-work activities seemed to better demonstrate the importance that the individual skills have on making a presentation more effective. As well, the students were better able to provide more appropriate comments to their partners both in the practice stages as well as through the formal comments provided on the peer-assessment sheets. For these reasons, the increased rater training was considered a success, and will continue to be an important part of the class.

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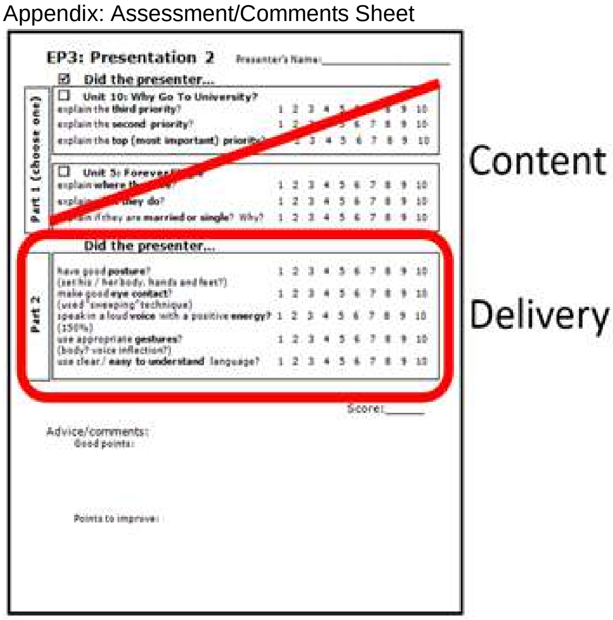
Appendix: Assessment/Comments Sheet



43 Approaching the Issues of Auxiliaries in English for Japanese L1

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Auxiliary verbs are salient in both English and Japanese especially to convey aspect and voice yet their differences can pose problems in the learning process. This study thus explores how auxiliaries are used by providing a descriptive grammatical comparison of English and Japanese auxiliary verb use. Furthermore, curricular suggestions are provided for intermediate Japanese L1 learners by exploring ways they can be pre-tested and taught auxiliaries. Finally, a small sample of textbooks is comparatively analyzed for how tense and aspect, modal and interrogative formation, conditionals, and passive voice are presented by focusing on implicit (contextual, authentic practice focus, open ended practice) and explicit (metalinguistic, accuracy focus, repetition practice) methodological elements. Ultimately, this study employs descriptive methods to provide a useful collection of analysis for practitioners to use when approaching the instruction of English auxiliaries to Japanese L1 learners.

助動詞は、英語と日本語でアスペクトとボイスを言い表す場合には主要共通点がある。しかし、英語と日本語の中に文法的な相違があるため学習過程で問題があります。この論文の目的は記述的文法比較することで、英語と日本語でどのように助動詞が利用されるのかを説明します。更に、英語中間レベルの日本人向けの教材を作成のため、まとめた助動詞の教える方法が分析される。最後に、少数の教科書の中では、暗黙的と明示的の方法に中心した研究することで、アスペクト、ボイス、法助動詞、受動態、条件文の使用等が分析される。尚、この論文は、記述的方法を活用することで英語中間レベルの日本人向けのリソースを作成のため、複数の分析がまとめられます。

Learner Population

This study targets intermediate ESL learners of Japanese L1. The target points cover the most salient implications of auxiliary and modal verb use. Of course, these implications are abundant, and not all of them should or can be introduced in succession, but many of the usages of auxiliary verbs are not easily transferable for Japanese L1 learners of English. An intermediate level is chosen to emphasize practical auxiliary verb usage and provide bootstrapping for advanced proficiency. Furthermore, many ESL text series do not introduce complex usages of auxiliaries in beginner levels. Consequently, in intermediate programs, learners are not only introduced to many new auxiliary uses, but they are also trying to extend and apply the rules that they know, and in the case of Japanese L1 learners, syntactic transfer is not always helpful. To emphasize this point some of the most divergent points of syntax between Japanese and English auxiliary usage are presented along with a series of grammatical comparisons. These points are then supported by textbook reviews and further curricular action needed to address learning implications is suggested.

Grammatical Comparisons

Japanese use of auxiliaries, in comparison to English, is mostly based on postverbal inflection or affixation and is often following the “gerundive” *te-form* (Ono, 2000, p. 40). Kiyoharu Ono’s study “Grammaticalization of Japanese Verbs” (2000) focused on 18 lexical Japanese verbs, and certain auxiliaries that, when following *te-form*, appoint semantic and syntactic changes that are semantically similar to English progressive aspect, perfect aspect, negation marking, and modality (p. 56, 65-66, 69).

Present progressive aspect

ame	ga	mada	hutte	i-masu
rain	subj	still	fall	-ing

雨がまだ降っています。

It is still raining.

Here we can see that the *te-form* is being followed by "*i-masu,*" which acts similarly to "*-ing*" in forming an *–ing participle* for progressive aspect, but it lacks an external moveable auxiliary like "is" or the base form and primary auxiliary "*be*" (Ono, 2000, p. 56). However, "*i-masu*" and other postverbal inflections in Japanese are used in many of the same ways that English auxiliaries are.

Perfect aspect

a.

momizi	ga	sukkari	titte	shimatta
leaves	subj	completely	falling	finished

紅葉がすっかり散ってしまった。

The leaves have completely fallen.

b.

watashi	ga	kinō	no	yoru
I	subj	yesterday	gen.	evening
kara	benkyōshite	i-masu		
since	study	-ing		

私が昨日の夜から勉強しています。

I have been studying since last night.

These examples exhibit two expressions with similar semantic meaning to the English present perfect aspect, *have + -ed* although they are syntactically different. It is important to note here that unlike the clear difference in meaning between simple present and present progressive aspects, present perfect and present perfect progressive are very similar in meaning with perfect progressive emphasizing a continuation of the action referenced (past action, present relevance vs. accumulation of experience) (Berry, p. 102). Example a. expresses aspect through the use of "*shimatta*" after *te-form* inflection, indicating a finished event, action, or activity. In contrast, example b. expresses present perfect (progressive) aspect lexically through the use of "*kinō*" and "*kara*," and not through the use of a postverbal inflection.

Furthermore, modality and interrogative forms are structured differently in English and Japanese (Ono, 2000, p. 65). English usually requires the inversion of subject and auxiliary.

Modal and interrogative

moo	kaette	mo	yorosii	ka?
Now	returning	emphasis	good/fine	question marker

もう帰ってもよろしいか？

May (I) go home now?

This example highlights the use of both modal auxiliary and the inversion process for an interrogative expression (p. 66). Because a modal or auxiliary is present (in the English sentence), a fronted "dummy" auxiliary is not used. However, in the case that an auxiliary is absent, "do" is used as a placeholder for the auxiliary position. This "dummy" auxiliary takes the duties of the numerous tasks that any other auxiliary would such as tense marking or negation.

Negation and "dummy" auxiliary

kyō	wa	moo	eigo	no	benkyō
today	subj	any longer	English	gen.	study
wo	shi-naku-te	mo	ii	yo	
obj	not doing	emphasis	good	you know	

今日はもう英語の勉強をしなくてもいいよ。

(You) do not need to study English any longer today.

This example shows the inverted and fronted "*do*" with subject verb agreement, negation marking, and tense inflection. Although Japanese L1 learners may be able to understand this implicitly, presenting these comparisons may help some learners especially those with fragmented foreign language education or gaps in their grammatical understanding.

Passive voice

a.

Dareka	ga	korosa	reta
someone	subj	kill	passive/past

誰かが殺された。

Someone was killed.

b.

Dareka	ga	kisetsukan	ni	korosa	reta
someone	subj	policeman	by	kill	passive/past

誰かが警察官に殺された。

Someone was killed by a policeman.

These examples highlight the difference between the Japanese and English expression of passive voice. English requires a primary auxiliary "*be*" in a pre-verbal position in the verb phrase; on the other hand, Japanese requires the postverbal inflection *"-reru*" or "*-rareru*." Furthermore, the Japanese passive does not require a past form of the verb or past participle in passive voice, as it is required in English.

Grammar Description

Auxiliary verbs are widely used in English to express modality, progressive and perfect aspects, passive voice, and question inversion. Because of the salience of auxiliaries and their diverse implications, the teaching process should be carefully considered, especially in terms of the learners' L1.

Auxiliary verbs are a closed class of function words among prepositions, coordinators, and pronouns. This closed class indicates their specific, limited, and fixed grammatical use. As opposed to open classes like verbs and nouns that regularly have new words introduced such as "e-bike, n.," "MacGyver, v," or "misgender, v.," closed classes are less flexible (OED, 2019). Furthermore, closed classes have very necessary functions, their use is not limited to register, and they occur in most contexts of communication (Bieber, Conrad, Leech, 2002, p. 16).

Auxiliary verbs are further divided into two classes, (1a.) primary and (1b.) modal auxiliaries: 1a. *The purse was stolen*; 1b. *The purse should not have been stolen*. Primary auxiliaries only include *be*, *do*, and *have,* while modal auxiliaries have a far larger list of lexical items (list following) (Bieber et al. 2002, p. 26). Despite verb phrases being able to contain up to four auxiliaries, the only necessary constituent is the main verb (Berry, 2012, p. 35). Additionally, in spite of the disorderly appearance of the verb phrase, it is, of course, a rule bearing syntactical structure. For instance, *be* and *have* are used to form perfect aspect, progressive aspect, and perfect progressive aspect. The forms depend on both auxiliary choice, position, and lexical inflection for example, *have* + *-ed* (perfect aspect); *be* + *-ing* (progressive aspect); *have + be (-ed) + -ed* (perfect progressive aspect); *be + -ed* (passive voice), and adhere to the syntactical order of *modal position, perfect aspect, progressive aspect,* and *passive voice* for example, "*will have been being sung"* (p. 35).

Primary auxiliaries can be immediately confusing for L2 learners because of their cross grammatical functions (auxiliary and lexical verb): 2a. *She is happy*, 2b. *She is running*. These two examples may erroneously convince a learner, who is unfamiliar with pre-verbal auxiliaries, that "*is*" functions as a lexical verb and that "*running*" is an adjective (2a, b).

Modal auxiliaries, on the other hand, express "modality" such as possibility, necessity, prediction, and volition: will, can, shall, may, must, would, could, should, might (Bieber et al. 2002, p. 28). The position of modal auxiliaries further complicates the role of the primary auxiliaries when presented together by taking the role of tense inflection, negation marking, and subject verb agreement for example, 3a. *She is not studying*, 3b. *She should not be studying*; 4a. *They are studying*, 4b. *They ought to be studying*. Additionally, not only do modals take a specific position in the verb phrase they also contain a number of distinct semantic categories. The specific order of modals, auxiliaries, and the essential main verb is detailed in a chart that may prove useful to ease some of the ambiguity learners may initially have:

Verb Phrase Structure

	Modal aux 1	Perfect aux 2	Progressive aux 3	Passive aux 4	main verb
ex:	will	have	been	being	sung
form:		infinitive	-ed part	-ing part	-ed part
finite:	finite	non-finite	non-finite	non-finite	non-finite

(Berry, 2012, p. 36, Table A6.2.1).

The interrogative auxiliary and subject position inversion, generally referred to as "fronting," can also pose problems for learners whose L1 does not mark interrogative by fronting. The learning implications of interrogative structure include negative marking, absence of auxiliary, distinguishing wh- versus yes/no question, and conditional use. Within an inversion movement, "*not*" cannot be placed after the main verb, and a negative marker is rarely used without a contracted form after an auxiliary or modal in the fronted position: 5a. *I can do it*; 5b. *Can('t) I do it?* (Berry, 2012, p. 41). In the absence of an auxiliary verb, a "dummy" auxiliary is introduced to take the front position: 6a. *She works hard*; 6b. *Does she work hard?* (p. 41). The distinction between wh- questions versus yes/no questions further adds to the problems of the "dummy" do or auxiliary inversion because of the fronted position that the wh- question word takes over auxiliaries and modals (p. 121). This rule might seem contradictory to learners, and they might attempt to use previously learned rules that apply to fronted positions with these wh- words. Inversion is also used for conditionals to indicate a hypothetical situation or counterfactual situation: 7a. *Had I been aware, I wouldn't have said it* (Berry, 2012, p. 64; Yule, 2003, p. 139).

Curricular Action

Since some auxiliary use is necessary for even beginner levels of English proficiency, at the intermediate level, learners should have a basic understanding or should, at least, be aware of many of the implications of auxiliary usage. This makes teaching the verb phrase a highly productive task in the classroom. Furthermore, because of the diversity of learner knowledge and the often fragmented proficiency in ESL classrooms, it is commonly recommended to take a postmethods approach while focusing on the particularities of learners' needs. An ESL context demands a more learner-centered approach, as it requires acquiring language skills not just language studies. Therefore, many questions about approaching an auxiliary teaching curriculum should be considered.

Since auxiliaries are such a necessary component of English syntax, and since they are likely covered fragmentally throughout early levels, assessing learners' knowledge and ability can illuminate the needs and consequently the scope necessary to reach learning outcomes. Moreover, review and reiteration can be a positive effort to provide scaffolding for intermediate proficiency goals with an aim towards advanced proficiency and beyond. Due to the numerous usages of auxiliaries, isolating the most useful and necessary implications in a text series or through supplementary materials (although complicating the planning process) ultimately proves essential in a postmethods approach. This approach not only utilizes one material source but deconstructs the effectiveness of each material and its potential function.

Initial Assessment: Learner's Knowledge and Ability

Before a curriculum is planned and implemented, instructors should be aware of the learners' needs including their knowledge, ability, and language-use context. By understanding these needs, a curriculum can be better suited for learners, and thus, a more successful approach can be developed. Folse (2009) outlined the many implications of the verb phrase and particularly auxiliary verbs to support learner assessment (p. 46).

Auxiliary verb implications: Assessment support

a. Problems with auxiliary verbs in negating

*My sister no lives in Texas now.

b. Problems with auxiliary verbs in questions

*Why you need more medicine?

c. Wrong verb tense: present tense for present progressive

*She can't go now because she cooks dinner.

d. Wrong verb tense: present tense for present perfect

*How long do you live here?

These problems provide a guide for proficient use of auxiliaries: a. provides an example of "dummy" do insertion for negation, marking when an auxiliary is not present; b. shows the absence of the auxiliary position (after the *wh-word*) in question formation with a *wh-question* (and in this case requires a "dummy" do auxiliary); c. and d. exhibit the misuse of tense and aspect with an absent or misused auxiliary for the semantic requirement in the context.

Another possibly worthwhile activity is a quick review regarding verb forms. Likely this review does not need to be extensive, and instead, just serve the purpose of assessing the learners understanding of forms to provide bootstrapping for auxiliary use. Folse (2009) further details these forms by providing four regular verb types and four irregular verb types. A prompt should illicit responses from learners and push output of the inflections or changes assessing knowledge of verb forms such as suffix –ed, suffix –en, suffix –ing, internal vowel change, or no inflection. Learners should also be tasked to complete a chart of base, past, past participle, and present participle verb forms (p. 47). This review can help reiterate the forms for learners who are familiar with the content or provide scaffolding and resource building for learners who are less familiar with the forms.

Furthermore, before approaching auxiliary verb tasks, a sharp distinction between the verbal and primary auxiliary usages of *be*, *do*, and *have* should be understood by the learners, and reiteration can provide necessary scaffolding. A simple cloze exercise increases the learners' awareness of these two functions and aids in their understanding of the usages in specific contexts:

1. (be) a. You should _____ studying.
   b. I _____ happy.
2. (have) a. He _____ worked there for five years.
   b. He _____ a new car.
3. (do) a. _____ you like apples?
   b. You should _____ it.

In these examples, (a.) uses a cloze of the primary auxiliary verb function, whereas (b.) uses a cloze of the main verb function. Other usages could be tested quickly with this type of exercise for example, tense and aspect, subject verb agreement, or passive voice (Folse, 2009, p. 49-50).

Lastly, modals should be a final but necessary point to pretest learners' knowledge. This can be done by prompting learners to name modals that they are familiar with, and then prompted to order the modals in order of weakest to strongest and provide contextual sentences to match their semantic categories (p. 51).

Textbook Elements

Often, in texts, a similar sequence is followed in presenting English auxiliary use although the overall approach often varies greatly. In this section, a three intermediate level grammar texts will be analyzed in terms of their effectiveness for Japanese L1 ESL learners. Furthermore, based on these findings, supplementary materials and approaches will be suggested for a comprehensive curriculum.

Understanding and using English grammar (2009)

Azar and Hagen's *Understanding and Using English Grammar* (2009) presents individual chapters that cover verb tenses, aspect, subject verb agreement, modals, passive voice, and conditionals. The general approach of this text focuses on forum with visual charts. In most cases, the chapters begin with a brief warm-up activity and immediately introduce grammatical charts full of explanations, rule exceptions, and graphs. In particular, "The Passive" chapter introduces a chart that contrasts active and passive voice. The form is introduced as "be + past participle" (p. 211). After learners are tasked to identify active and passive voice, they form active to passive voice using a range of tense and aspect forms. The particular implications of auxiliary verb tense inflection are not mentioned but are introduced implicitly throughout the text with textual enhancement (highlighted, underlined, or italicized). Interrogative formation, however, is covered explicitly although very little practice is present (p. 213). A useful section in this particular chapter introduces modals in passive form (p. 220). This section introduces ten commonly used modals in authentic language and offers extensive practice; however, very little semantic descriptions are offered (they are offered in previous modal focused chapters). Another useful feature of *Understanding and Using English Grammar* (2009) is the internal resources. Particularly the list of common regular verbs and irregular verbs is a useful reference for learners (p. 20). This text is particularly useful in providing assessment materials, exercises, introducing syntactical structures, and chart based syntactical descriptions with a more explicit leaning approach.

Grammar and beyond 3 (2012)

Blass, Iannuzzi, Savage, and Reppen's *Grammar and Beyond 3* (2012) offers a different approach to *Understanding and Using English Grammar*. The approach differs primarily in its use of authentic texts. Every chapter begins with a reading exercise that introduces the structures implicitly followed by explicit rule oriented charts. Although these charts are often comprehensive, they require some supplementary materials or at the very least extra descriptions to holistically aid the target structure. Although *Grammar and Beyond 3* seems to present target structures in a truly explicit manner and appears to be comprehensive in this respect, it often falls short of providing necessary explicit and metalinguistic resources. In the chapter "Present Perfect," useful contextual descriptions are provided, yet very little is presented that might provide metalinguistic bootstrapping. For instance, useful descriptions are presented contextually and semantically, but there is a lack of truly grammatically explicit descriptions. I have personally found Folse (2009) to be a useful and actually requested supplement in an ESL classroom due to its clear syntactical model form (p. 79). Ultimately, this text provides useful contextual descriptions and reading resources for target structures. These resources can help scaffold and increase learners' ability to notice forms to prepare for more advanced language tasks with a more implicit approach.

Oxford practice grammar (1999)

Eastwood's *Oxford Practice Grammar* (1999) offers useful supplements to both *Grammar and Beyond 3* and *Understanding and Using English Grammar*. Specifically, "The Passive" chapter introduces forms clearly with many of the implications of auxiliary use in passive voice presented initially for example, tense inflection, modal use, and negation (p. 130). This text also offers a greater variety of descriptions that can accommodate different learning styles. Furthermore, it provides a clear and visually explicit description of subject position/agent or nominative structure (active) and the contrasting subject position/receiver or accusative structure (passive). The passive example (a.) presented in the "Learner Population" section (Dareka ga korosa reta/Someone was killed) shows a clear distinction between Japanese passive voice expression and English passive voice expression. Additionally, because there are some similarities between these forms, they can be utilized to provide bootstrapping for learners. One similarity is that even though passive voice is expressed postverbally in Japanese, the tense inflection is also taken by the postverbal element similar to English auxiliary inflection. Furthermore, Japanese relies on the use of postparticles. In passive voice, "に" indicates that the previous noun is the agent, and similarly "by" indicates that the following noun is the agent of the predicate indicated in the example (b.) (dareka ga keisetsukan ni korosa reta/Someone was killed by a policeman). These comparisons can be used to further bootstrap the concept of the auxiliary use in a passive voice lesson while also utilizing visual aids that stress the distinction between the grammatical structures of active and passive voice (p. 132).

Lessons and Curriculum

Sequence

A similar sequence is often found in ESL textbooks in presenting English auxiliary use. For the specific purpose of introducing auxiliary verb usage at an intermediate level in an ESL context, the following sequence considers salient forms, opportunities to provide scaffolding grammatical forms, and necessary components that inevitably build on each other. A specific sequence might not be necessarily dependent on a learner population. However, understanding the learner population certainly helps clarify an approach such as grammatical transfer from L1 and ultimately L2 language goals. As this study focuses on Japanese L1 ESL learners at an intermediate language proficiency, it considers four points: 1. issues of salience are marked by authentic language use, 2. scaffolding is provided in anticipation of ultimate L2 language goals, 3. L1 transfer is utilized for bootstrapping, and 4. a circular curriculum is emphasized for skill building.

The following list provides one possible order that aims to provide such a sequence.

1. Comprehensive Assessment
2. Tense and Aspect
3. Modals and Interrogative Formation
4. Conditionals
5. Passive Voice

This order is chosen largely based on the salience of the forms in the verb phrase. Tense and aspect clearly prove to be the most important forms that will be used frequently when practicing others forms. Especially if attempting to provide an authentic task-based methodology, an intermediate level of tense and aspect must be solidified first. Modals and interrogative formation are presented next because of the syntactical implications that can be usefully focused on together (fronting modal for interrogative formation). Conditionals that use inversion can thus now be better processed and used by learners. Passive voice is recommended last because of its lack of overall salience in language use, its overall similar semantic meaning and use, and its additional usefulness to review tense, aspect, modal, and interrogative.

Materials and further suggestions

Of the materials presented and reviewed in this study, aspects of each may be successfully used in an ESL context classroom of various L1 backgrounds, but some specific suggestions towards their use in a particularly Japanese L1 context are provided.

Tense and aspect

Folse (2009) provides a very comprehensive chapter, "Twelve Verb Tenses," that is very useful in explicitly detailing the target tenses in isolated forms, which can be especially useful for focusing on specific problem points. Blass, et al. (2012) provide the most useful materials for presenting more complex forms such as present perfect and past perfect tense and aspect. The readings are practical for raising the learners' awareness of the forms and especially the particular contexts in which they are used for instance, whether an event has a clear beginning and end with an extra time marker or whether the beginning or end of the event is undefined or close to the moment of speaking. These semantic implications may be difficult for Japanese learners to express through syntax because of L1 and L2 differences (shown in the examples of perfect aspect a. and b. as one is expressed with a postverbal conjugation, but the other is expressed through a lexical adverbial). Furthermore, Azar and Hagen (2009) and Eastwood (1999) both provide a number of useful practice exercises that can help reiterate the grammatical forms before attempting authentic use to avoid fossilizing erroneous forms. Blass, et al. (2012) also provide writing tasks based on each target form that prove to be useful authentic activities.

Modals and interrogative formation

Eastwood (1999) offers useful materials for modal and interrogative specifically covering negation in *wh-questions* versus *yes/no questions*. Modals are introduced through a dialog that could well supplement Blass, et al. (2012) by prompting learners to report their understanding of the relationship between the context of the dialog and the semantic meaning of the modals. Depending on the needs of the learners Azar and Hagen (2009) provide useful exercises especially for detailing the uses of tense and aspect in modality expression as well as offering a resource for semantic categories. For Japanese L1 learners, conveying meaning of modality through auxiliary may be frustrating especially once verb phrases become complex; therefore, introducing the Berry (2012) "Verbal Phrase Structure" chart can prove helpful to identify the positions of the various items in a verbal phrase to raise metalinguistic awareness of the forms before attempting to practice and automate the structures (p. 36).

Conditionals

Because conditionals have far more significance in English usage than a focus on auxiliary verbs can cover, a brief introduction to interrogative formation through conditional use is suggested (within the auxiliary target lessons). Example "7a." conveys a hypothetical or counterfactual situation by inverting the initial clause. Learners should be instructed to produce this form for additional practice with inversion and its many uses in English. Additionally, Azar and Hagen (2009) provide a comprehensive unit on real and unreal conditionals covering tense and aspect. This unit offers a clear and explicit form focused presentation with closed practice exercises.

Passive voice

Blass, et al. (2012) provide a useful and authentic introduction to passive voice with a reading exercise; however, it ultimately lacks clear descriptions, visual aids, and comprehensive exercises for classroom use. Alternatively, Eastwood (1999) offers much of what Blass, et al. (2012) are insufficient in providing. "The Passive" chapter begins with clear and explicit forms while providing a comprehensive list of the various tenses and aspects in English in both active and passive form. This can aid Japanese L1 learners in recognizing not only the shift in nominative and accusative forms but also the implications of the auxiliary in forming passive voice. Furthermore, Eastwood (1999) includes useful visual elements such as pictures and grammatical diagrams that further provide a way for the learners to notice and contextualize not only the syntactical differences but also the semantic use of passive voice in an English speaking context. Finally, Azar and Hagen (2009) further provide supplementary resources such as common passive + preposition collocations. A general aim towards preparing learners for an authentic task that self-assesses their work throughout the lesson can supply the learners with a greater understanding of not only the target forms but also their own ability to use the target forms.

This study has thus aimed to show the salience of auxiliaries in English specifically within the frame of approaching Japanese L1 learners and how an intermediate curriculum can be approached. To accomplish this, a range of syntactic and sematic focused comparisons have been shown with learning implications for each token. Useful language texts have been analyzed for their presentation of auxiliaries and specifically how they present auxiliaries explicitly and implicitly. Lastly, a curriculum outline has been provided, one that builds on grammatical and semantic complexity and allows for circular practice and skill building. By accomplishing these goals, a beneficial resource for practitioners to approach the issue of auxiliaries in English for Japanese L1 learners should be accomplished.

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44 Write to Speak: Journals In Oral Communication Classes

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This paper examines the perceptions of 18 first-year university students at a private university in Japan who wrote weekly journal entries in English for homework over the school year. Data collected for the study consisted of surveys and interviews and found that students believed that writing in their journals each week helped them to not only speak English better in class, but also helped them to better learn vocabulary. The study concluded that journal writing can be beneficial in oral communication classes and can help students to become more self-aware of their own learning process as they reflect weekly about their speaking performance in class in their journals.

この論文では、日本の私立大学において、18 名の新入生に、一年を通して英語で書いたジャーナルを毎週の課題として提出させ、この課題によって学生たちが感じたこと、気づいたことを調査した。この研究は、提出されたジャーナルそのものの調査と学生へのインタビューによって成り立つものである。これによって次のことがわかった。学生たちは、毎週英語でジャーナルを書くことが授業での会話スキル工場に役立つだけでなく、自身の会話のボキャブラリーを増やすことにも効果的であると信じているということである。この研究によって、英語でジャーナルを書くことはオーラル・コミュニケーションの授業に有益であり、さらに、学生たちにとって、授業中の英会話のパフォーマンスに毎週反映される、英語学習のプロセスにおける自己認識を促すことに役立つものと言えると結論付けられる。

Journals (or diaries, etc.) can be of great use to both students and teachers alike in a language-learning classroom. Weekly journal entries can help students to engage in written dialogues with their teachers throughout the term or school year. This open channel of communication with students can allow teachers to better understand how their students are feeling about the class and to give feedback or further explanation about class content when needed. Cohen (1990) states that "journals have been transformed into vehicles for dialogue between teacher and student" (p. 112) while Brown (2007) adds that "Because journal writing is a dialogue between student and teacher, journals offer a unique opportunity for a teacher to offer various kinds of feedback to learners" (p. 476).

Journals can also give students a much-needed chance to reflect on how lessons went afterwards while they write in them at home, thinking back on their performance in class. This can help second language (L2) learners to become more aware of how they communicate in the language during class and most importantly, how that communication potentially changes over time. Students are better able to raise their awareness of the interactional resources they use during discursive practices in the classroom with their classmates. With the help of journal writing, students can also notice the changes in how they handle and manage communicative problems over the school year as their interactional competence develops. According to Young (2011), interactional competence "involves participants recognizing and responding to expectations of what to say and how to say it" (p. 427). By writing in journals about topics covered in class, students are much more likely to be ready to respond appropriately to questions their classmates may ask them and have suitable vocabulary ready to use as well. Hall and Pekarek Doehler (2011) pose the question of how can a learner's interactional competence be assessed? They ask "What are the relevent units of analysis (actions, practices, methods, linguistic items, etc.) that allow documenting change in IC across time, and warrant comparability between interactional conduct at two different moments?" (p. 7). By writing in a journal and assessing their "actions, practices, methods, linguistic items, etc." for a full year, language learners are potentially able to assess the development of their own interactional competence as they are able to compare how they performed earlier in the school year to how they did towards the end based on what they wrote.

When implementing journal-writing tasks in an L2 classroom, there should be some basic understandings and rules for the process. For starters, unless the journals are specifically being used in a writing class, teachers should try to avoid correcting too many of students' written errors in them (or any at all for that matter). Teachers should use the journals as a tool for allowing an open dialogue with their students, one that miraculously allows them to connect to every one of their students individually regardless of the class size. What should be most important is that students are able to give their opinions about class and their performance while still being able to ask any questions about previous lessons or about anything they still do not understand in terms of class content. Cohen (1990) explains his rule for how to manage dialog journals by stating that:

> Teachers are to operate under one basic constraint with respect to dialog journals – namely, they are not to *correct* the language. They are simply to respond to the queries – writing their responses directly into the dialog journal, in the space provided by the learner (p. 113. Italics original).

Writing is a personal experience that often allows us to reflect in a way that speaking to others does not. In a sense, it is our chance to have a dialogue with ourselves, not only in the present as we write, but also in the future when we sit down and reread what we have written. Writing can help us organize our thoughts and flush out our ideas in ways that we can revisit when we need to. Writing in a journal can make us more aware of how and when we learn. As Oxford et al (1996) state, "Language learners benefit by keeping a diary or journal because they become more aware of and attentive to their own learning processes" (p. 21). Furthermore, writing can help us prepare for future tasks, whether it is something as simple as a reminder list of things we need to do, or a quick email to a colleague discussing a work project. Journals, however, have the added benefit of being able to help us look back on past experiences while simultaneously planning for future ones. In a language-learning classroom, journals can be used to help learners with many aspects of language learning, possibly even with learning to speak it.

Method

Research Questions

The current study examines the following research questions:

1. How can writing in English journals impact students' speaking skills in oral communication classes?

2. How can we as teachers, approach journal writing in a way that helps our students to benefit the most from the process?

Participants and setting

This study examines 18 first-year university students who enrolled in a required English oral communication course. Students were French majors and had a considerably lower level of English ability compared to the English majors at the school. During the yearlong course, students were trained to use communication strategies (CSs) during timed-conversations in class and in the university's Speaking Lab where students video-recorded their conversations in recording booths. The primary function of the journals in the beginning stage was to help raise awareness of how and when students were using the CSs that they were learning in class. Tarone (1977) states that "Conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought" (p. 195). So, in a sense CSs are what students can use to prevent communicative breakdowns (asking for clarification or asking for something to be repeated). It is important, however, to add that they can also be employed simply to maintain the flow of communication and show interest in what the speaker is saying (interjecting, agreeing/disagreeing, shadowing, etc.). According to Nakatani and Goh (2007), "CSs are regarded not only as problem-solving phenomena to compensate for communication disruptions, but also as devices with pragmatic discourse functions for message enhancement" (p. 208).

From the second week of class on, students had to write weekly in their journals (referred to as "Action Logs" in class) for homework. In these journals, students were required to write about their use of CSs in class, about how well their conversations in English went with their classmates in the previous class, how they want to improve their future conversations, etc. Furthermore, the journals also gave students the opportunity to reflect on their own learning process outside of the classroom and a way to become more aware of how they were performing in class.

Classes were held once a week for 90 minutes over two semesters. Students were required to write in their journals for homework and to put them in their instructor's mailbox by Friday evening at 5pm. The instructor would then read and grade the journals over the weekend and pass them back at the beginning of the following week's class. Students who submitted late journals would lose points for that week's homework.

Data Collection

Data for the study came from survey results from the entire class and interviews that were conducted with a sample of five students. The survey (Table 1) asked general questions about students' feelings and attitudes towards writing in their journals each week for homework. The interviews, however, asked more in-depth questions concerning how useful the journals were towards helping students to learn and speak English and about how difficult they found the writing process in a foreign language.

Surveys

Survey data were collected from all students during the final class of the school year. The survey featured four questions and asked students whether or not writing in journals helped them to learn English, if they had written in English journals before for another class, if they wanted to continue writing in English journals after the present class finished, and if they thought writing in journals helped them to better speak English during class. Based on students' answers from the surveys, more in-depth questions were created to be used during the next phase of data collection, the interviews.

Interviews

Five students were selected as a sample to be interviewed by the instructor. The five students all agreed to be interviewed, signed consent forms, and were told that their names would be changed in the event of the research ever being published. Interviews lasted generally between 10 – 15 minutes and involved students answering questions about whether they found the homework journal writing assignments useful or not. They were also asked questions about whether or not they thought that writing in an English journal each week was helping them to improve their speaking skills in English. The interviews were conducted in English, however, which is one limitation to the study considering that students could have more clearly articulated their answers and views had the interviews been conducted in their native Japanese.

According to the majority of the students who were interviewed, the journals were a particularly useful tool for learning English vocabulary. This was one of the most noticeable themes to emerge in the interview data. Some students also reported that they found the task of writing in a journal each week difficult. However, while these students believed it was difficult, they also found it useful and understood the value of the task. During the interviews, one student even confessed to writing in a

Table 1 Survey results

1. Do you think writing in an English journal each week helped you learn English better?		
YES – 11	NO – 0	Maybe – 7
2. Have you ever used English journals in another class before?		
YES – 1	NO – 12	Maybe – 5
3. Do you want to keep writing in an English journal after this class finishes?		
YES – 3	NO – 2	Maybe - 13
4. Do you think writing in a journal helped you speak English better in class?		
YES – 12	NO – 1	Maybe – 5

second English journal at home, a private one that she could write whatever she wanted to in English in it.

Data Analysis

Here we will examine and analyze the data from the surveys and interviews and look closer at how the students felt about writing in English journals and its effect on their learning of the language.

The survey results showed that students had an overall positive attitude towards the journal writing and thought that it helped them improve their English skills. The majority of students also believed that the journals helped them to speak English better in the classroom. Only a small percentage of students, however, reported that they wanted to continue writing in an English journal at home after the course finished.

As for the interviews, they helped to confirm what students had reported in the survey data while adding more detail to the subject of how journals impacted their speaking ability in English. It is important to note here that students' comments from their interviews have not been corrected or reworded by the researcher. Although there are some grammatical errors in students' statements, it is the researcher's belief that in the interview data presented here, the meaning of what students want to convey is still clear enough to be understood by the reader. Furthermore, pseudonyms have been given to all of the students who were interviewed and have been used in the interview data featured in this study.

Yuto and Tomomi believe that the journals were useful for learning vocabulary as well as for reviewing what they had learned in class.

"I think it's a good thing [writing in journals] because it's useful to get many vocabulary because if there're some words I don't know, I use the dictionary to research. I could get many vocabulary and also I can review in class, so it's a good thing." – Yuto

"I think it is helpful because we can review every week's class, what we learned and my English vocabulary was growing up. I think so." - Tomomi

Ayako believed that writing in the journals was difficult, but like others, believed it was helpful for learning vocabulary.

"I think it was difficult, but also helpful…umm…for vocabulary." – Ayako

Natsuko and Motomi said that they could learn new words that they could then use in the following class.

"I can learn new words and practice writing. I can know new words, so I can use them in talk." – Natsuko

"When I write, did the homework, I used the dictionary, so I know new words and next week we talked about the topic, so it was really useful." - Motomi

Yuto said that the journals helped him to obtain new knowledge and helped him to speak English.

"For me, thanks to the action logs [journals], I could get many knowledge and vocabulary, so it helps me to speak English." - Yuto

Tomomi reported that she searched for certain English words and then would use those words in the next class.

"When I write in the journal, I have to search English words and next class I use English words…the ones I wrote in the journal." – Tomomi

Natsuko said that it took her a long time to write in her weekly homework journal while Motomi wrote in a personal journal of her own, but believed it would be good if a teacher could check it.

"The bad point is it takes me a long time to write, about one hour or more. Good points…you can get new words." – Natsuko

"I write in a [personal] English journal at home, but if a teacher checked it, I'd be glad." – Motomi

Yuto felt that writing in the journals also helped him with his English outside the classroom.

"It helped me to learn English because for example, I don't have much opportunities to write English, so if I write in English in the journal, sometimes I can use those phrases on Facebook or send emails…so I think this English skill that I have learned helps me not only in class, but also in daily life." – Yuto

Discussion

From the survey and interview data that were collected and analyzed, it appears that students believed that writing in weekly journals in English helped them to actually speak the language better in their oral communication class. The journals helped them to prepare for their future lessons and topics while also giving them the chance to reflect on their performance in the previous classes.

In regards to the first research question, there seem to be many potential ways that journal writing positively affects students' speaking skills in English. To begin with, it appears that the journal writing assignments helped to improve students' English by giving them a chance to write down vocabulary words they wanted to use during their upcoming conversations with their partners in future classes. Students were also able to write down questions they wanted to ask their partners in their journals as well as write down good questions that their partners asked them in class. These actions can help contribute to students' interactional competence by allowing them to be able to anticipate the types of questions classmates would ask them and allow them to be prepared with contextually appropriate vocabulary and responses in English. Writing in the journals can also help students to assess their own speaking and raise their awareness of how they speak with their partners in class and how they take turns during interactions. Students were able to write about the CSs they used with their classmates and which ones they used when they got into communicative trouble and needed to stop their communication from breaking down. With journal writing, students are cabable of better understanding the interactional resources, such as CSs, that they use during paired-conversations by writing and reflecting on them each week. Over the school year students were able to reflect on their video-recorded conversations in their journals as well as their speaking test performances and notice changes in the way they communicated. By reflecting weekly outside of class, it gave students the opportunity to evaluate how they were using the language and helped them to notice deficiencies or areas of development that needed to be worked on in terms of their language learning. Students often wrote personal goals in their journals, particulary when it came to CSs that they wanted to use in class. While it cannot be measured exactly how much their increase in ability can be attributed to the journals, it can be said that based on the survey results and interviews, that students do believe that journal writing helped them and clearly did more good than harm in improving their English skills. Importantly, journal writing can also help students to become aware of how their interactional competence is developing as they are are able to read earlier entries assessing their in-class performances and compare them with how they managed their communication in later entries. Raising students' awareness of their own interactional competence and how they interact in the language is vital if we are to make them successful communicators in the language. As van Compernolle (2015) states, "Interactional competencies underlie successful interaction, which is a necessary condition for many aspects of L2 development" (p. 179).

For the second research question concerning how to approach the process in a way that helps students to benefit the most, it is important to stress to our students that the journals can also be used as a direct channel of communication to us. We should encourange our students to ask us questions in the margins about material covered in class that they are not quite sure about. Journal writing for students in this study provided them with such an outlet and students did indeed ask their instructor specific questions about class content as well as about general language questions they had throughout the year. This opportunity for one on one communication can be particularly important for shyer students who can quietly ask questions directly to the instructor in their journals as opposed to asking them in front of their classmates or worse, not asking their questions at all. Although many students reported that it took them a lot of time to write each week in their journals, they were able to recognize the benefit and understand the use in doing it.

Conclusion

From the perspective of the teacher, having students write in journals is a unique opportunity to connect weekly with them individually. It provides us a chance to know what our students are thinking about the lessons and how they feel they are performing. It allows us to better assess our own teaching by understanding students' feelings about the classes. Furthermore, it allows us a better glimpse into how our students are learning the class material. As Oxford et al (1996) believe, "Diaries also help the teacher to understand what the students are doing as they try to learn" (p. 34).

In terms of research, the use of journals provides a unique and useful way for instructors to collect qualitative data from their students. As Macaro (2001) states, "For collecting data over a considerable period of time, diaries are a useful tool" (p. 45). Of course, this may depend on whether or not students understand the research goals and provide the instructors with consent to use their journal entries for research purposes. For this study, the research was explained to students on the first day of class when they were told about the journal writing homework. Students were asked if it would be okay to potentially use things they had written in their journals for research that was being conducted. A consent form was glued to the inside of students' journals, asking permission to use the journals for research purposes. Students were told that there would be no penalty or judgment whatsoever from the instructor if they decided not to sign it and could leave the signature line blank if they wanted to. It was explained that the research being conducted and the data in their journals could potentially improve not only their classes, but also those for years to come. The consent forms were signed by every student and at the end of the school year many students even volunteered to donate their journals to the researcher.

Although there are many positive aspects of using journals in class for learner development as well as to collect research in our classrooms, there are also some drawbacks that must be taken into consideration as well. If a student loses their journal the instructor/researcher could potentially lose access to important or useful data. During the course of this particular study, one student lost their journal in the first semester. From then on a research assistant photocopied students' weekly journal entries on the department's copy machine to ensure that no further data were lost. If journals are being used for data collection purposes in a class, photocopying entries weekly can be a useful insurance policy and something very much worth doing.

Further issues could be that some students may not take the writing tasks very seriously and only write the bare minimum required each week, not going very deep in their reflections of their performance in class. Also, since students know that their instructor will be reading their journals, they may only write things that they believe the instructor will want to read and gloss over any shortcomings on their part or neglect to mention any problems they are having with class content, etc. At times students can get off topic and begin to write about things unrelated to class or what the instructor wants them to write about. This can lead to large amounts of writing that cannot be used for research purposes, but that the researcher must still sift through as they attempt to look for relevant qualitative data that the students have provided. Cohen and Scott (1996) write that "Two serious drawbacks of diaries and dialogue journals are the volume of data produced and the potentially random nature of the entries" (p. 100). They, however, go on to add that, "In spite of these limitations, diaries and dialogue journals can be useful research tools" (ibid, p. 100). Based on the data collected in this study, it is also the opinion here that despite potential drawbacks and logistical issues, the use of journals in oral communication classes benefited the students by helping them to improve their speaking skills in English as they both self-reflected on their performance in class and as they planned ahead for future classes. Importantly, journals also benefit instructors by qualitatively allowing us to better understand how learning takes place in our classrooms on a weekly basis and to give us a chance to connect with our students each week individually.

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45 One Night Werewolf: An Approach to Game-Based Vocabulary Acquisition

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Game-based learning can be a powerful tool in the second language classroom. The entertaining nature of games can motivate students to engage more deeply with the material presented in class. The wide variety of games and the even wider variety of approaches to utilizing games in the second language classroom provide a near endless supply of resources and deserve careful pedagogical investigation. This research investigates how smartphone games may be utilized in EFL classrooms to increase vocabulary retention rates by incorporating course specific vocabulary into the mechanics of gameplay. This particular study analyzes post-game vocabulary test results of a test group (n=13) receiving game-based instruction with the smartphone version of *One Night Werewolf* by Akihisa Okui. In order to ascertain the effectiveness of the intervention, these test results using *One Night Werewolf* as an intervention are compared to pre-game test scores (without game-based instruction) from the same sample group.

ゲームに基づいた教育法は第二言語教室での強力なツールとなりえます。ゲームの面白い性質は、生徒が授業で使用される教材に、より深くのめり込み、夢中にさせる事ができます。第二言語習得時に、多種多様なゲームと、無数のアプローチよって、ほぼ無限の教育的リソースが提供され、更には、入念な教育的調査に値します。本研究では、コース固有の語彙をゲームプレイの仕組みに取り入れる事で、語彙保持率を高めるために英語の授業でスマートフォンゲームをどのように利用できるかを調査します。本研究では、奥井晶久氏作のスマートフォン版「ワンナイト人狼」を利用し、ゲーム教育法に基づく指導を受けたテストグループ（n = 13）のゲーム後の語彙テスト結果を分析します。上述のテスト結果は、同じテストグループのゲーム教育法に基づく指導を利用していない語彙テスト結果と比較されます。

The pedagogical potential of utilizing games in the second language acquisition (SLA) classroom lies in the entertaining nature of gameplay. When integrated successfully into an educational environment, games can create highly motivating atmospheres to supplement (or even serve as the foundation of) curricula in a wide array of educational fields. Motivation is a well-researched component to increasing proficiency in a second language (Dörnyei, 1994), and with the right selection of games, students can be highly motivated to interact with course material in the target language that they would otherwise have absolutely no interest in whatsoever. However, when selecting an appropriate game for use in the SLA classroom, entertainment value should not be the only factor under consideration, and certain game mechanics should unquestionably be prioritized in order to provide the most effective instruction in as many skills as possible concerning the acquisition of a foreign language; games that can be harnessed to build upon skills in the target language such as speaking, listening, reading, writing, and vocabulary should be considered just as pedagogically viable tools in the SLA classroom as more traditional educational materials such as language textbooks. This study investigates how the game *One Night Werewolf* by Akihisa Okui (in Japanese ワンナイト人狼), a smartphone edition of the communication game “Mafia” or “Werewolf,” was used to successfully increase target language vocabulary retention in three university English as a foreign language (EFL) courses at a private Japanese university.

Akihisa Okui's *One Night Werewolf* is a smartphone adaptation of the communication game known as both "Mafia" and "Werewolf." The game's origins can be traced back to the game "Mafia" created by Russian psychologist Dmitry Davidoff in 1986 to simulate conflict between an informed minority, represented by the Mafia, and an uninformed majority, represented by innocent civilians (Xiong, Li, Mao, & Iida, 2017). Andrew Plotkin applied a werewolf theme to the game whereby a number of new roles and incantations of the game evolved over time (Eger & Martens, 2018). Whether playing a version of the game *Mafia* or *Werewolf*, the core game mechanics have remained largely unchanged since its inception in 1986. The following explanation of gameplay will be greatly simplified.

The game is typically played orally in groups of varying size with each person having been secretly assigned at the start of the game to either the informed minority (mafia members/werewolves) or to the uninformed majority (civilians/villagers). The informed minority all know who each other are, and the uninformed majority do not know the role of any of the other players except for themselves. Gameplay is divided into two phases, a night phase and a day phase. During the night phase, a game moderator instructs all the players to close their eyes. After it has been sufficiently confirmed that all players are cooperating with the instructions, the moderator then asks the informed minority to open their eyes and silently confirm amongst themselves a member of the uninformed majority to kill. After the innocent civilian/villager from the uninformed majority has been selected for murder, the moderator instructs everyone to open their eyes again in unison and informs the players of who was selected for murder. This act commences the start of the day phase. The player who was murdered by the informed minority is then removed from gameplay altogether and can no longer participate in the game except as an observer. During the day phase, all of the players who still remain in gameplay must discuss amongst themselves about who they think is a member of the informed minority and select, by simple majority vote, one player to banish and remove from gameplay in a similar fashion to the murdered player from the night phase. If the uninformed majority can banish all of the players forming the informed minority, then the uninformed majority group wins the game. Likewise, if the informed minority can kill off the members of the uninformed majority, then the informed minority group wins the game. A typical gaming session of either *Mafia* or *Werewolf* can take many hours to complete, depending on how many players are participating and how long the discussions take. The potential for this communication game to be an effective educational tool in the SLA classroom (particularly for building communicative skills) is not to be understated. Indeed, games such as these have been shown in research to have positive effects on students' willingness to communicate using the L2 (Reinders & Wattana, 2012). With that being said, however, the game can be time consuming to utilize in a course which may have other topics to cover in its curriculum other than playing *Mafia* or *Werewolf.* These potential drawbacks to classroom integration can be overcome with a particular version of the game known as *One Night Werewolf*.

The smartphone edition of the game *One Night Werewolf* by Akihisa Okui operates on the same gameplay mechanics described above, albeit with some minor alterations. These alterations, however, make *One Night Werewolf* the superior game for classroom integration. Again, the following explanation of gameplay for *One Night Werewolf* will be greatly simplified. The most noticeable of these alterations to gameplay is the elimination of both the moderator and day/night phases. The game is conducted on one smartphone which is passed around the group. Since all of the information needed by each player is presented on the one smartphone screen, which only one player is holding, there is no need for a game moderator to conduct secret information exchanges whereby only certain players may have their eyes open. Furthermore, gameplay is condensed into one night phase (hence the name *One Night Werewolf*) and one three-minute discussion round which makes this version of the game much more conducive to classroom integration in which time is a highly valued commodity. At the end of the three-minute discussion round, a vote is tallied on the smartphone, and a player is chosen to be burned at the stake. If the player chosen for execution is on the werewolf team (the informed minority), each player on the villager team (the uninformed majority) for that round wins a certain amount of points. Likewise, if the player chosen for execution is on the villager team, each player on the werewolf team for that round wins a certain amount of points. Gameplay may be continued whereby the points earned by each player in the previous rounds are carried over to an entirely new game with new roles assigned to each player. This is also a beneficial change in gameplay conducive to active classroom integration as it eliminates the situation in which one player is removed from the game and can only passively observe the remaining gameplay. Finally, the smartphone application of the game also allows for customizable player names. It is this very feature of customizable names during gameplay which was used to improve target-language vocabulary retention.

The feature on Akihisa Okui's *One Night Werewolf* that allows for customizable player names was utilized in this study to incorporate course specific vocabulary from three university EFL courses. At the start of each gaming session in each course, a list of the target-language vocabulary equivalent to the number of players was written down on a separate sheet of paper in Japanese (the L1 of 11 of the 13 students participating in this study). Each student chooses one Japanese vocabulary term as a moniker to be used during gameplay and writes their name next to the Japanese vocabulary. This sheet served as a reference guide during gameplay as to which student is represented by which word. After each student has chosen a vocabulary moniker, the English equivalent of each vocabulary term is entered into the game. Throughout the game, there are a number of scenarios during which the players must confirm which word represents which student. For example, the informed minority (the werewolves) have the ability to confirm who the other werewolves in the game are. This information is presented to the students as a to-be-learned vocabulary term in English. The student on the werewolf team must then match the English vocabulary to the Japanese vocabulary/student name written on the reference sheet. Another scenario in which students must match the English vocabulary to the Japanese vocabulary/student name reference sheet is during the execution vote. At the end of the three-minute discussion round, each student must vote for which player they want to be executed whereby the English vocabulary representing each player must be matched to the reference sheet. The players therefore have the incentive to actively recall what each of the words being used during gameplay mean, because, without said information, the students will be put at a strategic disadvantage. This method of utilizing vocabulary terms as player monikers in *One Night Werewolf* coupled with the regularity of playing the game each week in class was successful in increasing test scores in post-game vocabulary tests relative to pre-game vocabulary tests. The mechanisms which are hypothesized to be involved in the increased vocabulary retention are discussed in the following section.

Hypothesized Post-Game Vocabulary Retention Mechanisms

The students who participated in this study all saw increases in post-game vocabulary test scores relative to pre-game vocabulary tests. Although there could be a number of factors at play when considering how this game was effective at increasing target language vocabulary retention (such as individual motivation level to succeed during gameplay or frequency of self-study outside of class), this study proposes three mechanisms related to these vocabulary retention gains. First, increased motivation induced by the entertaining nature of the game *One Night Werewolf* increased the level of cognitive processing of each vocabulary term utilized during gameplay. In order to interact with and succeed in the game (for which the students are highly motivated due to the entertaining nature of the game), the students must, as a result of the methodology of the study, frequently interact with the target vocabulary, which in turn increased the level of cognitive processing for each target vocabulary. Furthermore, a large body of research has shown that increased motivation is beneficial to reducing anxiety and increasing the effectiveness of SLA instruction (Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre, 1992). Second, the same vocabulary being covered throughout multiple gaming sessions produced a spacing effect. Spacing vocabulary presentation over multiple sessions relative to massed presentation in one session has robustly been associated with increased vocabulary retention for many decades (Melton, 1970; Janiszewski et al., 2003). By utilizing the so called spacing effect in the design of curriculum (in this present study with multiple gaming sessions covering the same vocabulary terms), an instructor can induce the spacing effect to increase vocabulary retention (Sobel, Cepeda, & Kapler, 2011). For this particular study, lists of 20 vocabulary terms were studied in two separate classes with a week separating each study session. Third, by creating new associations (other than simple English/Japanese meaning) between the vocabulary terms and the players they represent during gameplay allowed for novel semantic processing of the meaning of each vocabulary term. The spacing effect is not the only mechanism that can be effectively utilized to increase vocabulary retention. Research has also shown that how students cognitively process the vocabulary is linked to how well the vocabulary is retained (Challis, 1993). By associating vocabulary terms with players in the game, new semantic contexts for each vocabulary term are created which allows for varied cognitive processing and increased retention. This study proposes that these three mechanisms are responsible for achieving the statistically significant increases in post-game vocabulary test scores observed throughout all three participating courses.

Methodology

Course Details

As mentioned previously, there were three EFL courses that participated in this study at a private Japanese university. The three EFL courses were a Communicative English course (n=6), a TOEIC Workshop (n=3), and an English Writing Workshop (n=4). The Communicative English course met three times a week for 90-minute classes, and the remaining two courses met once a week for 90 minutes each. A total of thirteen students participated from all three courses. Eleven of the thirteen students were native Japanese students, and the remaining two students were exchange students, one from South Korea, the other from China. Both of the exchange students were enrolled in the TOEIC Workshop course. Apart from the two exchange students, all students participating in this study had TOEIC scores between 250-500, and their English proficiency level could be described using the guidelines provided by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) as novice mid to novice high (Breiner-Sanders, Lowe Jr, Miles, & Swender, 2000). The two exchange students both had achieved the N1 proficiency on the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT), had achieved TOEIC scores over 800, and their English proficiency could be described using the ACTFL guidelines as being between advanced mid to advanced high. All data in this study were collected during the 2018 fall semester at a private Japanese university.

Testing and Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures

The students were tested bi-weekly on a list of 20 vocabulary terms throughout the semester. The vocabulary content of each bi-weekly test was different for each class and different for the pre and post-game testing. Each vocabulary list was course specific, but the test format was identical. The tests themselves consisted of five vocabulary reproduction questions, five vocabulary matching questions, and ten multiple choice questions. There were a total of four pre-game vocabulary tests from each of the three classes for which no game-based instruction was used. The results of these four pre-game vocabulary tests are compared to the results of four post-game vocabulary tests using paired two-tailed t-tests to identify the statistical significance in test score differences between pre-game test averages and post-game test averages. Any result from the paired two-tailed t-tests with a p-value of <0.05 was considered to be a statistically significant difference between pre-game and post-game test averages. The following section will present and discuss the results of the data collected in this study.

Results and Discussion

Cumulative Course Averages

When the data collected for this study are analyzed, the difference between the pre-game vocabulary test averages and post-game averages is statistically significant (Figure 1). The average vocabulary test scores from all three courses, Communicative English (CE), TOEIC Workshop (TW), and Writing Workshop (WW), prior to the game-based intervention was a 68.45 (out of a maximum of 100 points); the post-game test score average from all courses was an 80.62. When analyzed with a paired two-tailed t-test, the p-value is <0.001 thus indicating a significant increase in vocabulary retention from pre-game to post-game testing. When looking at the difference in pre and post-game vocabulary test score averages from each individual course, both CE and WW show statistically significant increases in vocabulary retention. The pre-game average from CE was 65.4, the post-game average 77.083, and the p-value 0.014. The pre-game average from WW was 61.25, the post-game average 79.5, and the p-value 0.011. However, when looking at the test data from TW, the pre-game average was 84.167, the post-game average 89.167, and the p-value 0.529. Although there was a slight increase in test scores from pre to post-game intervention in the TW course, the difference cannot be ruled out as being caused by a statistical anomaly, and therefore the null hypothesis for the TW course cannot be rejected. With that being said, when all of the data is analyzed together from all three classes, the game-based intervention using *One Night Werewolf* to increase vocabulary retention in an SLA environment has been shown to be effective. The following section will delve further into the possible reasons why the data from TW does not reflect the same results as was seen in both CE and WW.

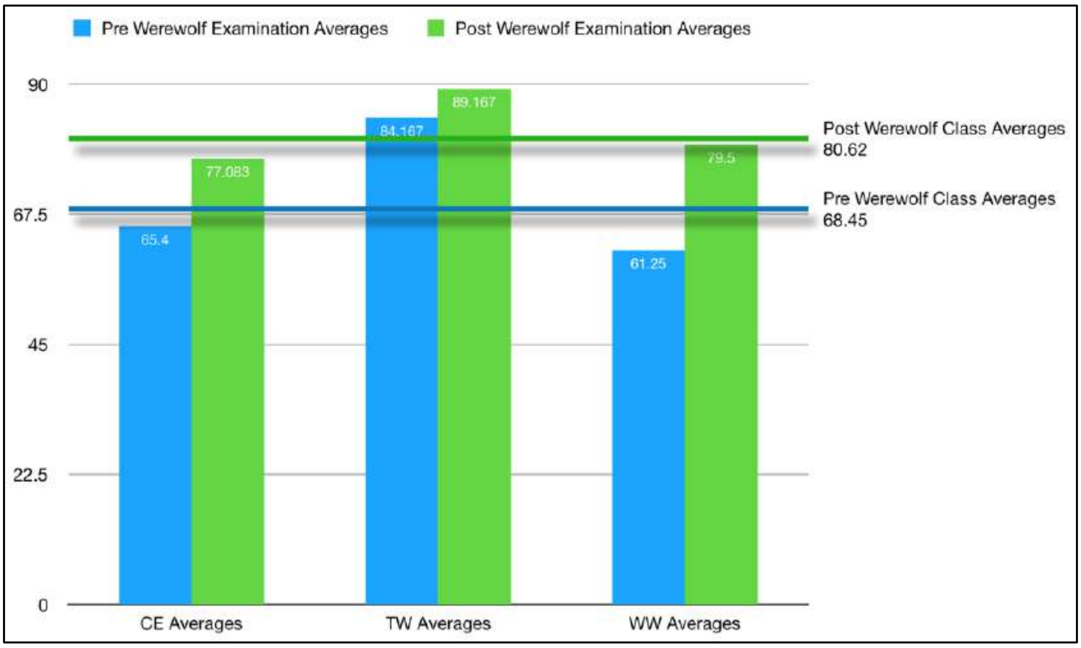

Fig. 1 *Pre and Post-game Vocabulary Test Score Averages*

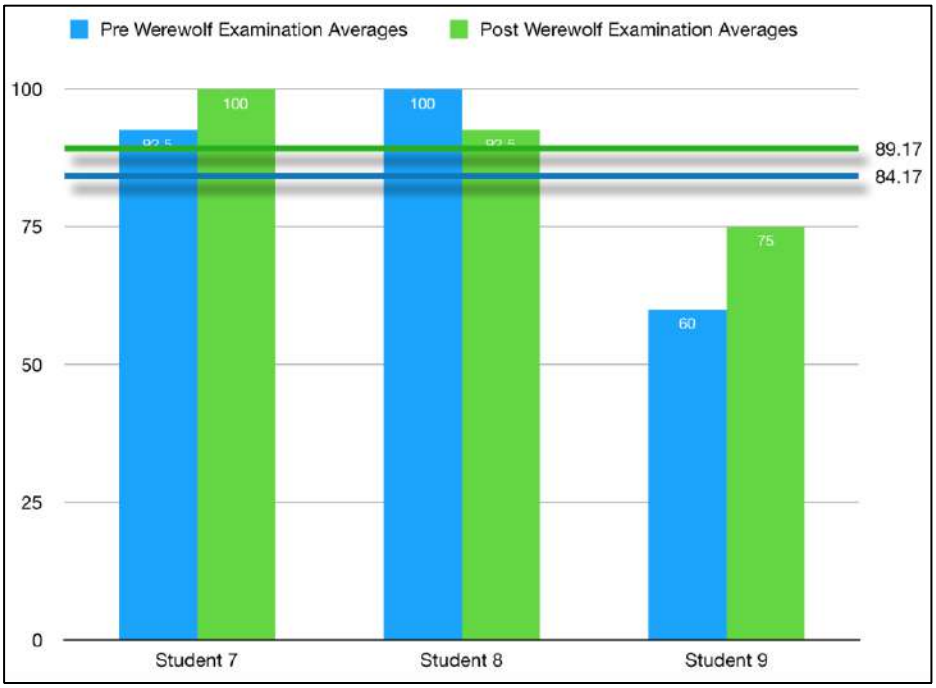

Fig. 2 *TOEIC Workshop Individual Pre and Post-Game Test Score Averages*

TOEIC Workshop Course

To analyze why TW did not benefit as much from the game-based intervention as the other courses in the study, it is necessary to look at the pre and post-game vocabulary test score averages from each of the three students enrolled in the course who participated in this study (Figure 2). As was referenced in the *Course Details* subsection of this article, two of the three students from the TW course who participated in this study were foreign exchange students. Students 7 and 8 shown in Figure 2 are the foreign exchange students (student 7 from South Korea and student 8 from China). Student 9 in Figure 2 is a native Japanese student. As can be seen in the data, the test scores from student 7 increased only slightly from pre-game to post-game intervention (93.5 to 100), and the test scores from student 8 actually decreased from pre-

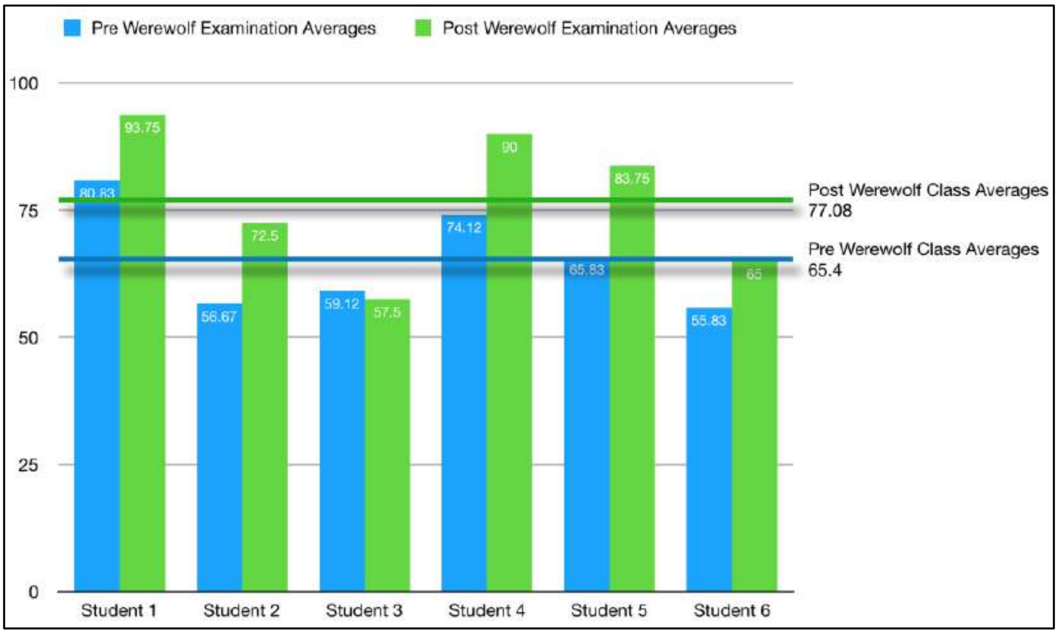

Fig. 3 *Communicative English Individual Pre and Post-Game Test Score Averages*

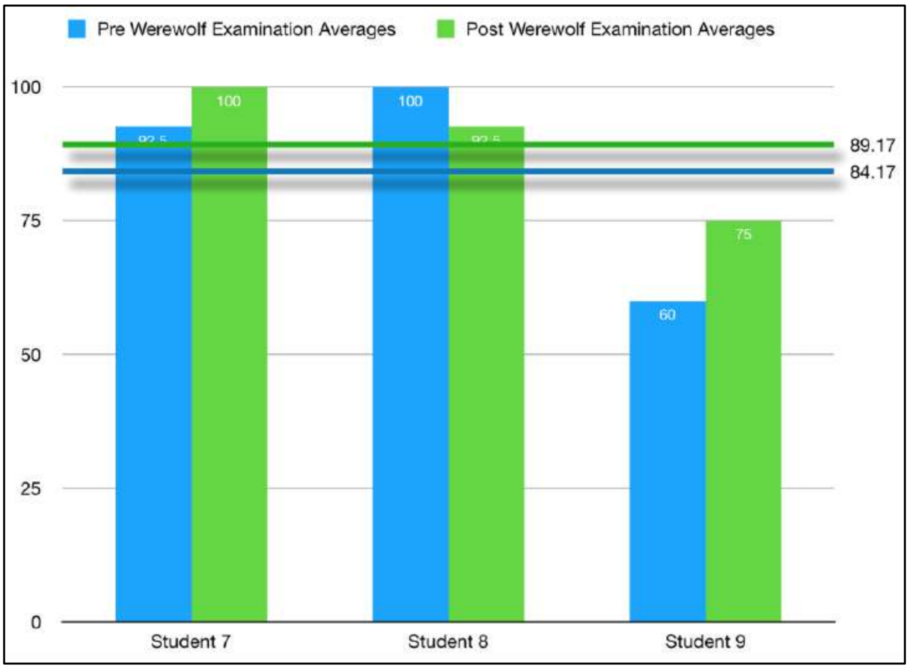

Fig. 4 *Writing Workshop Individual Pre and Post-Game Test Score Averages*

game to post-game intervention (100 to 93.5). Student 9, on the other hand, shows a sizable increase in test scores from pre-game to post-game intervention (60 to 75). As was already alluded to, the reason behind these differences in scores could lie in the overall level of English proficiency at the start of the study. Both exchange students were both trilingual students (proficient in Korean/Chinese respectively, Japanese, and English) with starting TOEIC scores of over 800. In contrast to the two exchange students, student 9 had a starting TOEIC score of between 250-500. Furthermore, when looking at the average test scores from exchange students 7 and 8, their pre-game averages were exceedingly high (or perfect in the case of student 8). In contrast to this, the pre-game average for student 9 was a 60. It therefore seems to be much more the case that the vocabulary presented in this class was much too easy for students 7 and 8 to benefit from the game-based intervention than the case that the game-based intervention is not effective for all students with a broad range of English abilities. It may also therefore be concluded that the effectiveness of the game-based intervention presented in this study is dependent on the level of difficulty of the words being used during gameplay relative to the proficiency level of the students receiving the intervention. With this being said, however, there are data from the CE course which might suggest that the game-play intervention presented in this study is not universally effective for all students.

Communicative English Course

Out of the thirteen students who participated in this study, two students saw a drop in average test scores from pre to post-game intervention. The first example, mentioned in the previous section, was student 8, an exchange student from China, who saw a drop in pre-game to post-game test score averages from 100 to 93.5. This drop in test average test scores, however, is more than likely due to the relatively easy nature of the vocabulary presented in the TW course and not the ineffectiveness of the game-based intervention to increase vocabulary retention. However, as can be seen in Figure 3, there was one other student in this study who saw a drop in average test scores from pre to post-game intervention. The pre-game average test score of 59.12 from student 3 dropped to an average of 57.5 in the post-game intervention. Unlike student 8 from the TW course, there is not an easy explanation as to why the game-based intervention was not as effective for student 3 as it was for almost every other student who participated in this study. Relative to the other students enrolled in CE, student 3 had a similar TOEIC score at the start of this study (250-500), similar performance during class, and similar pre-game vocabulary test scores. The situation of student 3 is further complicated when looking at the data presented from WW in Figure 4. All students enrolled in the WW course also saw statistically significant increases from pre to post-game intervention. The only conclusion that can be drawn with the limited sample size and study period presented in this study is that there remains the possibility that the strategy of using Akihisa Okui's smartphone adaptation of *One Night Werewolf* to increase vocabulary retention in SLA classrooms may not be universally effective for every single student, even when care is taken to select appropriate vocabulary relative to the proficiency level of the students who are receiving the game-based intervention.

Limitations and Future Considerations

The game-based intervention presented in this study utilizing Akihisa Okui's smartphone adaptation of *One Night Werewolf* to increase vocabulary retention in SLA classrooms has been shown to effectively increase vocabulary test scores in the majority of the students who receive the intervention. With that being said, there are two major limitations in the execution of this study which need to be addressed before making any generalizations about how effective the game-based intervention presented in this study is at increasing vocabulary retention in SLA environments. The first of these limitations is in sample size. With a limited sample size of 13 students, it is not only difficult to make broad generalizations about the effectiveness of using game-based interventions for vocabulary retention in SLA environments, but it is also difficult to generalize the effectiveness of the *One Night Werewolf* intervention presented in this study. With a larger sample size in a future study, the universal effectiveness of this particular game-based intervention could be explored in further detail. The second of these limitations is in the difficulty level of vocabulary relative to the level of proficiency in the students participating in the game-based intervention. In this present study, vocabulary was chosen which was specific to the courses that each student was respectively enrolled in without specific regard to the target language proficiency level of the participating students. In future studies, varying the level of difficulty of the vocabulary used and analyzing the differences in pre to post-game results will help identify the most effective difficulty level of vocabulary to be used in this particular intervention. With these limitations set aside, the game-based intervention utilizing *One Night Werewolf* was a highly motivating and overall statistically effective method of increasing vocabulary retention in three separate EFL courses at a private Japanese university which deserves further pedagogical investigation.

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JALT Special Interest Groups & the PanSIG Conference

Extensive Reading SIG (ER)
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.

Framework and Language Portfolio SIG (FLP)
FLP 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. This is currently practically pursued in a Kaken Project. Also, the bilingual Language Portfolio aimed at Japanese universities is available on the SIG moodle.

Gender Awareness in Language Education SIG (GALE)
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.

Global Issues in Language Education SIG (GILE)
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. GILE 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.

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The mission of the SD&D 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 newsletters, two journals, and sponsoring a Speech, Drama, and Debate conference. Future activities may be sponsoring and supporting local and regional speech, drama, and debate contests or festivals.

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The TBL SIG is aimed at teachers who currently use, or are interested in using, task-based approaches in the classroom. TBL 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.

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Vocabulary SIG (VOCAB)
The VOCAB SIG aims to provide a forum for focused research and discussion in specific regard to vocabulary acquisition. We aim to 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 will connect to classroom practice. The VOCAB 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.

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