Pan
SIG

Journal

2022

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

Edited by

Patrick Conaway and Duncan Iske

MESSAGE FROM THE EDITOR

The 21st Annual PanSIG conference was held face to face at The University of Nagano in Nagano July 8th-10th, 2022. Our first face to face conference in three years was a great success thanks to the tireless efforts of Conference Chair, Koki Tomita, Site Chair, Jean-Pierre Richard, and the rest of the PanSIG Conference team. PanSIG 2022 featured nearly 200 presentations and forums ranging across teaching contexts, pedagogies, and SIG topics, and including several presentations specifically focused upon teaching in an online context. The conference was a collaborative effort from the 30 Special Interest Groups (SIGs) with the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). The conference enabled participants to attend presentations on a variety of topics in a wide range of fields in language teaching and learning. In addition to stimulating and inspiring presentations, there were a variety of social events where attendees could network and get to know each other in a more relaxed environment. From hiking in the mountains, to sampling craft beers on in a specially reserved train car, there was something for everybody.

This journal represents the eight edition of the annual PanSIG Journal in its latest form – following 14 years of proceedings publications beginning with 2002 – which includes a selection of articles based on presentations from the 2022 conference. With a detailed and supportive blind peer review process, authors were able to produce high quality articles. The articles finally selected for publication in the 2022 PanSIG Journal effectively represent the diverse range of topics presented at the PanSIG conference. Although the reader can only observe the final product of the selected articles, the effort and care of the authors and reviewers to help the submissions reach their full potential clearly show that the PanSIG Journal is just as much a place to grow as a novice author as for the language teaching community to share new ideas. As editor, it has been a special priviledge to be a part of the review process and observe the development of the submissions develop as they went through the review process. Being able to read submissions from dozens of authors and feedback from even more reviews has truly been an educational experience for myself as a writer.

I would like to give my warmest thanks to the authors and reviewers of this publication. It was an opportunity for me to read and learn about topics that I may not have encountered if left to my own devices. Seeing the detailed and supportive reviews, as well as the authors' thoughtful and inventive responses was truly inspiring. In some cases, authors have submitted manuscripts several years in a row and I have had the chance to see them grow as writers first hand. I would also like to thank Duncan Iske, the associate editor of the 2022 PanSIG Journal for his help and advice. Special thanks all the members of the PanSIG Committee. Before being a part of the PanSIG Journal, I had no idea how much time, thought, and effort went into putting on such a conference. We hope that you will enjoy reading the articles, and that they may stimulate productive thinking. Congratulations to all the contributors to this edition of the PanSIG Journal.

May 07, 2023
Patrick Conaway
Editor-in-Chief, PanSIG Journal 2022

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

Website: http://pansig.org/

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

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

Artwork courtesy of James Dunn

PanSIG 2022 Journal

PDF Version

Conference info

PanSIG 2022 was held July 08-10 face to face with hybrid presntations at The University of Nagano. Thank you to everyone who helped make this conference a success!

Website: http://pansig.org/

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

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

Edited by Patrick Conaway and Duncan Iske

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

Thanks to our 2022 Journal reviewers

Zoe Barber

Konan University

Brian Cullen

Nagoya Institute of Technology

Merissa Braza Ocampo

Fukushima Gakuin College

Richard Sparrow

Kyoto Sangyo University

James D. Dunn

Meiji University

Martyn McGettigan

Hiroshima City University

Michael Griffiths

Konan University

Shzh-chen Nancy Lee

Osaka University

Stephen McNamara

Konan University

Anthony Brian Gallagher

Meijo Univeristy

Edward Escobar

Kyoto Gaidai NIshi High School

John McCarthy

Showa Women's University

Matthew Cotter

Hokusei Gakuen University Junior College

Kayoko Yamauchi

Toyo Gakuen University

Davey Young

Sophia University

Szabina Ádámku

Meisei University

Anthony Diaz

Miyazaki International College

Chie Kawashima

Tochigi Technical High School

David James Townsend

Shujitsu University

Mark Brierley

Shinshu University

Edo Forsythe

Hirosaki Gakuin University

Steven G. B. MacWhinnie

Hirosaki Gakuin University

Craig Armstrong

Kumamoto University, Kumamoto Health Science University

Joshua Antle

Tsuda University

POON Yin Ting, Louisa

Mita International School, British Council

Kevin Crowley

Ritsumeikan APU

James Owens

Kanda University of International Studies

(Re)conceptualizing Classroom Silence and Participation in the Japanese EFL Classroom

Zoe Barber
Konan University

Abstract

Silence in the English as a foreign language (EFL) context is a well-documented source of frustration for both language teachers and additional language (L2) learners. Despite decades of research on the purported problem of classroom silence, the reported frequency and quality of spontaneous L2 oral production and active participation by students in Japanese EFL classrooms has not significantly changed. Furthermore, the heavy emphasis placed on L2 oral production by communicative language teaching pedagogies has led to the conflation of L2 oral participation with active participation in EFL settings. This paper aims to develop the understanding of sociocultural and functional aspects of silence in the Japanese EFL context and explores diverse ways of being and learning to question what constitutes "valid" participation in the L2 classroom. Lastly, it suggests potentially beneficial pedagogical approaches for maximizing the benefits of silence and silent learning behaviors in Japanese EFL classrooms.

日本語概要

外国語としての英語教育（EFL）のコンテクストでの学習者の沈黙はよく研究されているが教育者と第二言語（L2）の学習者の双方にストレスの原因になっている。何十年の研究にも関わらず、授業での生徒からのL2発言回数、質に改善点は見られないと言える。さらにコミュニケーションを中心にしている語教授法でのL2発言が重要視されているため発言することが授業への参加と考えられている。本研究の目的は日本でのEFLコンテクストにおける沈黙の社会文化的および機能的側面の理解を探求することである。そしてL2授業の積極的な参加方法とは何か、各学習者の参加の仕方、各学習タスクの参加の仕方　について考察する。最後に日本のEFL授業でL2学習者の沈黙やサイレント学習行動をより効果的で有益と考えられる語教授法を提案する。

Classroom silence and the resulting frustration experienced by English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and English language (L2) learners alike have received significant attention by EFL and second language acquisition (SLA) researchers for almost 50 years (e.g., Bao, 2014; Bao & Nyugen, 2020; Hanh, 2020; Harumi, 2011; King 2013a; 2013b; Nakane, 2007; Shao & Gao, 2016; Tsou, 2005; Zhou, 2015). The Japanese EFL context in particular is notorious for classroom silence and perceived learner reticence, with a substantial amount of research being generated in this area (Ellwood & Nakane, 2009; Fadilah et al., 2019; Shao & Gao, 2016). Despite the considerable effort made by educators and researchers in the wider EFL and SLA communities to find the answer to unlocking the figurative communicative floodgates, there has been relatively little practical 'improvement' reported in the frequency and quality of students' spontaneous L2 oral production or levels of 'active classroom participation' seen in the vast majority of Japanese EFL classrooms during this time (e.g., Bao, 2014; Bao & Nguyen, 2020; Fushino, 2010; Hanh, 2020; Kim et al., 2016; King, 2013a; 2013b; Ollin, 2008; Shao & Gao, 2016; Takahashi, 2019; Zhou, 2015). Modern pedagogical approaches that have emerged amid the focus on stimulating and assessing L2 oral production strongly link L2 oral production to improved L2 learning outcomes. This has led to L2 oral production playing a central role in many L2 classroom learning tasks, and to its use as a primary method for quantifying and measuring 'active classroom participation' for the purposes of both research and grading (Delaney, 2012; Zhou, 2015). As result, the perceived 'failure to improve' on the part of Japanese L2 learners often provokes educators (and especially native English-speaker teachers) into an ever-stronger push toward communicative language activities and pressure for L2 oral production in the Japanese EFL classroom. While much of mainstream SLA and EFL literature makes reference to

the silent period in L2 acquisition, it rarely discusses the phenomenon of silence as a communicative aspect, or addresses the significance of silent learning behaviors and silent (or "mental") participation modes in the L2 classroom and L2 acquisition process (Bao, 2014; Bao & Nyugen, 2020; Bernales, 2016; Delaney, 2012; Kim et al., 2016; Nakane, 2007; Ollin, 2008).

This failure can be seen to be a consequence of Western academia and educators ignoring the sociocultural context and functional aspects of silence in which the L2 is being taught and learned (Bao, 2014; Bao & Nyugen, 2020; Hanh, 2020; Harumi, 2011; Kim et al., 2016; King, 2013a; 2013b; King & Aono, 2017; Zhou, 2015). The voluminous research problematizing the silence in East Asian classrooms as presented by Western researchers has resulted in the silent learning behaviors of Japanese EFL learners being overwhelmingly interpreted through a Eurocentric, deficit-based lens. Consequently, a range of negative cultural stereotypes have been strongly associated with Japanese L2 learners, such as reticence, obedience and deference to authority, passivity, and a lack of critical thinking skills; a portrayal that has recently been rebutted by a slowly increasing number of researchers outside the predominant Western perspective (e.g. Bao, 2014; Bao & Nyugen, 2020; Choi, 2015; Ellwood & Nakane, 2009; Fadilah et al., 2019; Ghavamnia & Ketabi, 2015; Hanh, 2020; Harumi, 2011; Kim et al., 2016; King, 2013a; 2013b; Nakane, 2007; Shao & Gao, 2016; Takahashi, 2019; Tsou, 2005; Zhou, 2015; Zhou et al., 2005).

Furthermore, although the phenomenon of silence has gained some academic attention (particularly in the realm of sociolinguistics), there continues to be little discourse in EFL teacher training programs and professional development acknowledging silence as a participation mode or discussing how to maximise its effectiveness as a teaching and learning strategy (Bao, 2014). This omission has led to a critical lack of awareness among language teachers, and especially native English-speaker teachers regarding the beneficial functions of silence in the L2 classroom (Bao, 2014). This further compounds the impact of cultural and social differences between native English-speaker EFL teachers' and Japanese L2 learners' constructions and uses of silence, as well as negatively influencing the selection of pedagogical strategies and interpretations of classroom behaviors. Consequently, many native English-speaker EFL teachers in Japan can be seen to interpret classroom silence one-dimensionally and push for L2 oral production as participation without considering possible cross-cultural differences in the function of silence or acknowledgment of silence and silent learning behaviors as a valid participation mode (e.g. Bao, 2014; Bernales, 2016; Delaney, 2012).

Against this backdrop, it is increasingly important for EFL educators in Japan to develop a more nuanced understanding of the functions and sources of silence in order to be able to react to, treat, and incorporate classroom silence in a culturally appropriate way (Bao, 2014; Kim et al., 2016; Nakane, 2007, 2020). This paper endeavours to explore and promote awareness of the differences in sociocultural constructions of silence between Japanese L2 learners and native English-speaker teachers and examine why Japanese learners choose silence in the classroom. Secondly, it aims to identify and discuss ways of being, participating, and learning in the L2 classroom to propose a broader conceptualization of active L2 classroom participation. Lastly, it provides suggestions for incorporating and maximizing the benefits of silence and silent learning behaviors in the Japanese EFL classroom.

Analysis

Sociocultural Context and Cultural Constructions of Silence

Silence is an important part of communicative behaviour that has received relatively little academic attention in general (Bao, 2014; Ghavamnia & Ketabi, 2015). Until recently, the field of linguistics viewed silence as a non-communicative element of speech; an inverse or absence of speech and meaning (Jahdhami, 2018). This conceptualisation wrongfully implies silence is devoid of meaning or practical function, a flawed concept that undermines the role of silence in communication and human interaction across all cultures and communicative contexts. As a result, many established linguistic and SLA theories give inadequate consideration to the possible meanings and crucial functions of silence as a distinct element of communication in itself (Jahdhami, 2018). Moreover, silence is understood and performed culturally (Nakane, 2007). Silent behaviors can be used and interpreted in a variety of ways, including as a display of deference, respect, obedience, atten-

tiveness, and modesty, as is typical in Japanese class-room dynamics (e.g. Nakane, 2007), as well as others more commonly discussed in 'traditional' approaches to classroom silence in SLA literature, such as perceived low motivation, lack of understanding, low L2 competence, unwillingness to participate, spite, disobedience, and disrespect as highlighted by Asia-focused researchers such as Bao (2014). As such, the situations and ways in which silent behaviors are performed, interpreted, and responded to can be understood to be significantly culturally dependent. Furthermore, silence tolerance has been found to be significantly longer (up to several minutes for some participants) for Japanese study participants than those from Western cultures, who typically showed a silence tolerance period of only a few seconds (King & Aono, 2017). As such, silence is a fundamental aspect of communication and talk across all cultures; it takes many forms and performs a wide variety of functions across all levels of human interaction (Ghavamnia & Ketabi, 2015). Accordingly, cultural differences in valuing, performing, and interpreting silence mean that classroom silence can take on vastly different meanings depending on the interlocuters and context.

It has been widely suggested in both the SLA and linguistics fields that a dichotomy between collectivist East Asian cultures and individualist 'Western' cultures exists, with East Asian learners categorised as 'reticent' and placing high value on silence and 'Western' learners as intolerant of silence and highly oriented towards talk (King & Aono, 2017; Nakane, 2007). Such ill-defined and uncritical comparisons between 'Western' and 'Eastern' cultures preferences for talk and silence are ubiquitous in EFL and applied linguistics literature. This has led to loose definitions of sociocultural groups in the literature that reinforce and further perpetuate the stereotyping of entire racial or ethnic groups without sufficient consideration for contextual factors, subcultures, or individuals' social identities and personalities (King & Aono, 2017; Nakane, 2007; Shani, 2019). However, there is value in developing a basic understanding of key sociocultural differences in communicative and classroom behaviors between the Western contexts experienced by native English-speaker teachers and the 'new' Japanese context.

There are several key differences in the expected com-municative and classroom behaviors in the Western and the Japanese context. Silence can be extremely difficult to interpret in the classroom; even more so when teachers and students from different cultural backgrounds come together (Harumi, 2011). In contexts with a high cultural tolerance for silence, classroom silence is prone to misinterpretation by cultural outsiders (Harumi, 2011; Kim et al., 2016). While silence may be recognised as a form of communication or participation by Japanese EFL learners, it is less likely to be tolerated or understood by teachers from Western backgrounds (Harumi, 2011; Kim et al., 2016). In the Japanese EFL classroom, students who are silent may be perceived by teachers from Western contexts as demonstrating undesirable traits such as passivity, disrespectfulness, or a lack of critical thinking skills and impaired ability for independent thinking (Bao, 2014; Nakane, 2007). Western sociocultural and sociolinguistic communicative norms and participation structures set the stage for students' "dynamic verbal debate" (Bao, 2014, p.2) and ample student questioning behaviors, in which students are expected to discuss individual opinions, demonstrate critical thinking skills, and manage their engagement by participating in the verbal mode (Wajnryb & Crichton, 1997). Conversely, silence is often interpreted as a positive indication of learner engagement and classroom participation in Japanese contexts. Japanese sociocultural and sociolinguistic norms dictate the "attentive, cultivated silence" of students in the classroom (Bao, 2014, p.2). In sociocultural contexts where silence is highly valued, silence in the classroom becomes a sign of respect, active listening, and reflection (Bao, 2014). The Japanese conceptualisation of face is also relevant, with verbal participation exceeding classroom norms likely to be regarded as lacking self-control or modesty, as research suggests that in cultures where there is a strong sociocultural emphasis on social harmony and group dynamics, learners' choices about classroom participation are heavily mediated by face-concerns during collaborative learning situations (Biria et al., 2017; Chen, 2017; Choi, 2015; Hanh, 2020; Haugh & Bargiela-Chiappini, 2010; Huang, 2014; Kim et al., 2016; King, 2013a; 2013b; King & Aono, 2017; Nakane, 2006; 2007; Wajnryb & Crichton, 1997; Zhao, 2010; Zhong, 2013).

In studies examining didactic turn-taking between

participants from Western sociocultural contexts, researchers have found little to no gap between interlocutor turns, with overlapping being a common feature of conversational turn-taking structures (King & Aono, 2017; Nakane, 2007). Conversely, it is generally reported that the Japanese attach strong value and functionality to silence, and significantly longer tolerance for silence has been observed by researchers (see King & Aono, 2017 and Nakane, 2007). There is typically a preference for the preservation of group harmony, and consensus is valued over individual opinions (Bao, 2014; Nakane, 2007; Wajnyrb & Crichton, 1997). As such, classroom silence can be seen as a manifestation of the conflict between expectation and reality; "a gap occur [ring] between a teacher's expectation of a response and the time that the respondent takes to respond" (Bista, 2012, p.77). In the Japanese EFL classroom, this occurs when students are perceived to be reticent in class; the amount of student talk does not match the expectations of the teacher (Bao, 2014). As a communicative strategy, silence can be used to convey a range of messages, including displays of power or submission, defiance, rejection, disagreement, consideration, attentiveness, acceptance, and respect, depending on the situation and the cultural context of use (Bao, 2014). Different cultural contexts have different functions and hierarchal values placed on silence and talk, with social norms and expectations strongly linked to individuals' use of silence and speech (Bao, 2014; King & Aono, 2017; Nakane, 2007). Accordingly, interpretations of silence must be contextualised by EFL educators within the historical, sociocultural, and educational domain in which it is being observed.

Silence as a Participation Mode and Teaching Mode

In order to gain a more nuanced understanding of the reasons for learner silence in the Japanese EFL context, it is important to understand how, why, and when Japanese EFL learners participate in L2 classroom activities. In contemporary Western-influenced, communication-oriented, learner-centred L2 teaching modes, expectations for participation are very different to the traditional teacher-centred methodologies still used widely in East Asian contexts in which silent learning behaviors are the norm. Multiple student surveys of East Asian EFL learners have shown that students often view their silence in the classroom positively, and that it was used as an active learning strategy (e.g. King & Aono, 2017; Nakane, 2006; 2007; Tatar, 2005). The assumption that L2 oral production is a necessary feature of both active classroom participation and the most important aspect of second language acquisition has been criticised by a growing number of researchers who stress the value of silence in the teaching and learning process (e.g. Bao, 2014; Bernales, 2014; 2016; Iasevoli, 2018; Obenland et al., 2012; Ollin, 2008; Schultz, 2012; Takahashi, 2019; Tatar, 2005; Tsou, 2005). Close examination of linguistics, general education, EFL, and SLA research suggests that silence is a crucial component of language and learning that can be employed as a productive strategy by both teachers and students. In fact, there are several silent behaviors and silent learning behaviors that are required within L2 cultural, communicative and L2 learning skill sets that need to be acquired by L2 learners (Bao, 2014; King & Aono, 2017; Ollin; 2008). In the L2 classroom, silence may indicate a range of essential non-verbal participation behaviours and mental engagement in classroom activities such as active listening, L2 cognitive processing, rehearsal, noticing, error repair, and self-monitoring. Studies in East Asian context have found that L2 learner silence is an important cognitive processing tool and L2 learning strategy for attentive listening, mental preparation, rehearsal, self-monitoring, and inner speech (Bao, 2014; King & Aono, 2017). Critically, the current focus on finding 'causes' and 'cures' for classroom silence dominating the body of literature in these fields overlooks the possibility that L2 learners may "consider silence… to be a valid form of participation" (Bernales, 2016, p.368). These studies support the claim that EFL teachers in Japan must adjust their expectations for classroom participation to better reflect the preferences and cultural norms for silent participation modes (e.g., Bao, 2014; Bao & Nyugen, 2020; Bernales 2014; 2016; Fadilah et al., 2019; Takahashi, 2019; Tatar, 2005). As such, it is clear that notions regarding classroom participation must be reconceptualized and broadened to not only acknowledge silent or 'mental' forms of participation as valid forms of participation in classroom activities, but also to consistently incorporate them as a learning strategy available to students.

Silence is also important as a teaching strategy for allowing space for thought and facilitating reflective

learning (Ingram & Elliot, 2014; Schultz, 2012). In particular, wait time is a pedagogical concept that is closely related to classroom silence (King & Aono, 2017). In the L2 classroom, extended silences are unusual due to the structure of classroom turn-taking; "obligation to take the next turn always lies with the teacher if there is a silence" (Ingram & Elliot, 2014). Furthermore, the face concerns discussed above have been found to exert significant influence on wait time and turn taking dynamics even within group-mode activities (e.g., Biria et al., 2017; Chen, 2017; Choi, 2015; Hanh, 2020; Haugh & Bargiela-Chiappini, 2010; Huang, 2014; Kim et al., 2016; King, 2013a; 2013b; King & Aono, 2017; Nakane, 2006; 2007; Wajnryb & Crichton, 1997; Zhao, 2010; Zhong, 2013). In studies examining these phenomena, native English-speaker teachers appear to have difficulty in making judgements about the function of students' long pauses, and often struggle to correctly determine whether the pause represents cognitive processing time, nervousness, refusal to answer the question, rejection of the turn, or refusal to participate in the learning task (Harumi, 2011; King & Aono, 2017; Nakane, 2007). Insights from current research indicate that adequate wait time, in conjunction with the provision of appropriate background knowledge activation and rehearsal, is a key factor influencing classroom discourse patterns, and that extending the tolerated silent wait time of teachers was effective for changing response patterns, increasing students' oral responsiveness, and improving the length, clarity, and quality of student oral participation (Ingram & Elliot; 2014; King & Aono, 2017). These studies also indicate a positive relationship between rehearsal time and L2 output. As such, it can be argued that developing an understanding of the ways silence and silent learning behaviors may be used in the L2 classroom by both educators and L2 learners is crucial to developing more effective L2 teaching and learning methods.

Implications

The studies discussed in this paper demonstrate that the established portrayal of "reticent" Japanese EFL learners and the "excessive" (Fadilah et al., 2019, p.184) focus on cultural stereotypes in the discussion of East Asian EFL classroom characteristics can be understood to be the result of a mismatch between teachers' expectations and learners' ways of being and partici-

pating in the L2 classroom. The insights gained from these studies can be applied to develop culturally sensitive, evidence-based, and pedagogically-sound strategies for facilitating diverse forms of participation in the Japanese EFL classroom. There are three key implications that can be drawn from this.

First, it is necessary for EFL researchers and educators to learn to distinguish between learners' strategic and cultural uses of silence and actual reticence or refusal to participate (Bao, 2014; Fadilah et al., 2019). As these two concepts overlap considerably in terms of visible indicators, it is advisable for L2 educators, especially native English-speaker teachers, to receive preservice and/or ongoing cultural education and culturally informed pedagogical training regarding in order to learn how to recognise and incorporate silent learning behaviors and mental participation modes in order to accommodate Japanese EFL learners' preference for and functional use of silence as an intentional learning or cultural strategy by students (Bao, 2014; Fadilah et al., 2019).

Second, it is appears that the relatively short tolerance for silence and wait time of Western sociocultural contexts may create problems when teaching Japanese EFL learners (Ingram & Elliot, 2014; King & Aono, 2017). As such, it would likely be beneficial for teachers from a Western background to practice increased tolerance for silence and extended wait time (in the classroom context, 'teacher silence'). As shown by King and Aono's (2017) study, teachers, especially native English-speaker teachers are likely to have a comparatively low silence tolerance, and consequently a short wait time. Feeling the need to keep the class moving and cover all the necessary material within a short period also adds to the pressure on wait time. The findings of the studies reviewed in this paper suggest that EFL teachers should consciously incorporate teacher silence through building in extended wait time, ideally of fifteen seconds or more, into their lesson planning. Such efforts will ensure that teachers do not feel time pressure and assist with the active practice of extending silence tolerance. Scheduled rehearsal time and increased wait time when eliciting class-mode L2 oral production may increase students' sense of responsibility towards L2 oral participation, as well as lead to improved quality of L2 competence by allowing time for L2 processing, rehearsal, expansion, noticing, and self-repair of errors

(Ghavamnia & Ketabi, 2015; Ingram & Elliot, 2014). Considering the potential benefits related to overall L2 acquisition and eventual L2 output, adequate wait time and extended silence tolerance can be understood to be powerful tools for increasing both frequency of learners' L2 oral production, L2 confidence, and L2 competence.

Third, empirical evidence shows that it is necessary to change current ways of thinking regarding classroom participation and engagement (Bao, 2014; Bernales, 2014; 2016; Ghavamnia & Ketabi, 2015; Harumi, 2011; Iasevoli, 2018; Kim et al., 2016; Obenland et al., 2012; Ollin, 2008; Schultz, 2012; Takahashi, 2019; Tatar, 2005; Tsou, 2005). Silence is an important part of natural communicative behavior and essential L2 learning strategy. Importantly, silent learning behaviors provide L2 learners with the opportunity to practice the L2 in a low-stakes way while providing additional opportunities for internalization. They also enable all learners to participate by finding a participation mode they are comfortable with regardless of L2 confidence, competence, or learning mode. As such, it is advisable for EFL teachers from Western backgrounds in Japan to make space for silence and silent learning behaviors in their pedagogical practice; to allow for other ways of interacting, thinking, and being 'present' in the L2 classroom. In particular, manipulation of certain environmental factors appears effective, such as ensuring adequate planning and preparation time before activities, fostering a safe and non-confrontational learning environment, and providing a variety of practice opportunities in different classroom modes, may be able to enhance learner initiative and responsibility, mediate face-concerns, and encourage L2 oral participation. This can be achieved through careful planning and utilization of learning tasks that provide multiple opportunities and modes for participation. For example, teachers may choose to scaffold class-mode L2 oral production in much the same way as written tasks may be presented, with brainstorming and L2 oral production-oriented sub-tasks building towards the productive goal. In this case, it is also important to consider teacher facilitation of turn-taking and floor-holding behaviors as it has been found that L2 learners often also struggle with this aspect of L2 oral production and class-mode participation (e.g., Hanh, 2020; Harumi, 2011; Kim et al., 2016; King, 2013; King & Aono, 2017).

Further reading regarding this topic is recommended for a more in depth understanding of how these dynamics interact with silence and silent behaviors in the classroom.

Teachers may also choose to utilize group-mode discussion, research, or writing activities with a degree of autonomy, such as assigned or self-assigned roles including 'researcher', 'writer', 'team leader', 'language assistant', 'question manager', and so on that play to the strengths or preferred participation modes of each student. A more technology-focused approach may utilize online sharable documents that can be accessed and edited by students to facilitate small-group work allows EFL teachers to monitor groups while providing real-time intervention, while also providing several roles and participation modes to group members that facilitate student empowerment, peer interaction, extended L2 oral and written production, and extended opportunity for self-repair and peer-facilitated error-repair during discussions.

Conclusion

Classroom silence is a common source of frustration and conflict between educators and L2 learners in the Japanese EFL context that has generated a substantial amount of research. The studies explored in this paper indicate that the tendency for native English-speaker educators and Western researchers to interpret classroom silence through a Eurocentric lens has significantly contributed to the ongoing difficulties with the frequency and quality of spontaneous L2 oral production and classroom participation in Japanese EFL classrooms.

Often conflated with reticence, classroom silence is a highly context-dependant phenomenon with significant cultural, cognitive, and linguistic relevance. Consequently, it is advisable that Japanese EFL researchers and educators develop a nuanced understanding of silence and silent learning behaviors, and the functional and cultural uses of silence in order to make culturally-appropriate, evidence-based pedagogical decisions regarding the treatment of learner silence and incorporation of teacher and learner silence and silent learning behaviors in the L2 classroom. Current research suggests that together with pedagogical changes targeting the environmental factors influencing Japanese learners' L2 oral production and increased opportuni-

ties to engage with diverse participation modes in the classroom, it would be beneficial for EFL educators to adapt their expectations regarding classroom participation and pedagogical style to better reflect the preferences and cultural norms for participation mode in the Japanese EFL teaching context.

References

Bao, D. (2014). *Understanding silence and reticence: Ways of participating in second language acquisition.* Bloomsbury Publishing.

Bernales, C. (2014). *Exploring 'willingness to communicate' in the FL classroom: A qualitative and quantitative study.* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Madison]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.

Bernales, C. (2016). Conflicting pathways to participation in the FL classroom: L2 speech production vs. L2 thought processes. *Foreign Language Annals*, *49*(2), 367-383. https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12200

Biria, R., Pozveh, S., & Rajabi, B. (2017). Improving oral fluency of EFL students with different proficiency levels through explicit instruction of face threatening strategies. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *7*(10), 933-944. https://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0710.16

Bista, K. (2012). Silence in teaching and learning: Perspectives of a Nepalese graduate student. *College Teaching*, *60*(2), 76-82. https://doi.org/10.1080/87567555.2011.633943

Chen, I. (2017). Face-threatening acts: Conflict between a teacher and students in EFL classroom. *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics*, *7*(2), 151-166. https://doi.org/10.4236/ojml.2017.72012

Choi, J. (2015). Reasons for silence: A case study of two Korean students at a U.S. graduate school. *TESOL Journal*, *6*(3), 579-596. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.209

Delaney, T. (2012). Quality and quantity of oral participation and English proficiency gains. *Language Teaching and Research*, *16*(4), 467-482. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168812455586

Ellwood, C., & Nakane, I. (2009). Privileging of speech in EAP and mainstream classrooms: A critical evaluation of participation. *TESOL Quarterly*, *43*(2), 203-230. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2009.tb00165.x

Fadilah, E., Widiati, U., & Latief, M. (2019). Reading dynamic patterns of silence as a communication strategy and impediment in the EFL classroom interaction. *International Journal of Instruction*, *12*(4), 183-200. https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2019.12412a

Fushino, K. (2010). Casual relationships between communication confidence, beliefs about group work, and willingness to communicate in foreign language groupwork. *TESOL Quarterly*, *44*(4), 700-724. https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2010.235993

Ghavamnia, M., & Ketabi, S. (2015). Voices from the voiceless: Iranian EFL students' attitudes towards English. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *9*(2), 102-114. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2013.849708

Hahn, N. (2020). Silence is Gold?: A study on students' silence in EFL classrooms. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *9*(4), 153-160. https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v9n4p153

Harumi, S. (2011). Classroom silence: Voices from Japanese learners. *ELT Journal*, *63*(3), 260-269. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccq046

Haugh, M., & Bargiela-Chiappini, F. (2010). Face in interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *42*, 2073-2077. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2009.12.013

Huang, Q. (2014). Facework strategies in EFL classroom. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *5*(1), 175-182. https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.5.1.175-182

Iasevoli, B. (2018). Teaching introverted students: How a 'quiet revolution' is changing classroom practice. *The Education Digest*, *83*(8), 4-8.

Ingram, J., & Elliot, V. (2014). Turn taking and 'wait time' in classroom interactions. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *62*, 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2013.12.002

Jahdhami, S. (2018). Revisiting the perception of silence in linguistics. *Journal of Advances in Linguistics*, *9*, 1471-1477. https://doi.org/10.24297/jal.v9i0.7899

Kim, S., Ates, B., Grigsby, Y., Kraker, S., & Micek, T. (2016). Ways to promote the classroom participation of international students by understanding the silence of Japanese university students. *Journal of International Students*, *6*(2), 431-450. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v6i2.365

King, J. (2013a). *Silence in the second language classroom* (1st ed.). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137301482

King, J. (2013b). Silence in the second language classrooms of Japanese universities. *Applied Linguistics*, *34*(3), 325-343. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ams043

King, J., & Aono, A. (2017). Talk, silence and anxiety during one-to-one tutorials: A cross-cultural comparative study of Japan and UK undergraduates' tolerance of silence. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *18*(4), 489-499. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-017-953-8

Nakane, I. (2006). Silence and politeness in intercultural communication in university seminars. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *38*(11), 1811-1835. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2006.01.005

Nakane, I. (2007). *Silence in intercultural communication: Perceptions and performance*. John Benjamins Publishing Company. https://ebookcentral.proquest.com

Obenland, C., Munson, A., & Hutchinson, J. (2012). Silent students' participation in a large active learning science classroom. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, *42*(2), 90-98. https://doi.org/10.2505/3/jcst12_042_02

Ollin, R. (2008). Silent pedagogy and rethinking classroom practice: Structuring teaching through silence rather than talk. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *38*(2), 265-280. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057640802063528

Schultz, K. (2012). The fullness of silence in the classroom. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *94*(2), 80. https://doi.org/10.1177/003172171209400223

Shani, G. (2019). Consuming the nihonjinron. *Nations and Nationalism*, *25*(4), 1119-1121. https://doi.org/10.1111/nana.12550

Shao, Q., & Gao, X. (2016). Reticence and willingness to communication (WTC) of East Asian language learners. *System*, *63*,115-120. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.10.001

Takahashi, J. (2019). East Asian and native-English speaking students' participation in the graduate-level American classroom. *Communication Education*, *68*(2), 215-234. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634523.2019.1566963

Tatar, S. (2005). Why Keep Silent? The classroom participation experiences of non-native-English-speaking students. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *5*(3-4), 284-293. https://doi.org/10.1080/14708470508668902

Tsou, W. (2005). Improving speaking skills through instruction in oral classroom participation. *Foreign Language Annals*, *38*(1), 46-55. https://doi.org/10,1111/j.1944-9720.2005.tb02452.x

Wajnryb, R. & Crichton, J. (1997). To ask or not to ask: Questions of face in the language learning classroom. *EA Journal*, *15*(1), 7-27. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-015-9322-6

Zhao, W. (2010). An investigation of students' face wants in Chinese English teachers' classroom feedback. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *1*(1), 29-24. https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.1.1.29-34

Zhong, Q. (2013). Understanding Chinese learners' willingness to communicate in a New Zealand ESL classroom: A multiple case study drawing on the theory of planned behaviour. *System*, *41*, 740-751. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.08.001

Zhou, N. (2015). Oral participation in EFL classroom: Perspectives from the administrator, teachers, and learners at a Chinese university. *System*, *53*, 35-6. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.06.007

Zhou, Y., Knoke, D., Sakamoto, I. (2005). Rethinking silence in the classroom: Chinese students' experiences of sharing indigenous knowledge. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, *9*(3), 287-311. https://doi.org/10.1080/13603110500075180

A Laughter Mindfulness Intervention (LMI) in the Language Classroom

Merissa Braza Ocampo
Fukushima Gakuin College

Abstract

The ongoing anxiety and stress caused by the COVID-19 pandemic continue to impact everyone, especially college freshmen students who are beginning a new phase in their lives. In Japan, such students have had to continuously adapt to uncertainty and risk-prevention measures, which negatively affects their motivation to learn (Tan, 2020). To address this, a Laughter Mindfulness Intervention (LMI) was administered to 75 first-year English students in Tohoku in 2021. The study assessed the effectiveness of LMI in reducing students' stress and anxiety, increasing motivation to learn, and overall well-being. Four core components of Laughter Yoga (LY) were employed: warm-up exercises, laughter exercises, breathing exercises, and an attitude of playfulness. After two LMI sessions, students' participation was generally positive, with 80% reporting that they enjoyed LMI activities. Moreover, students' perceived stress scale (PSS) slightly lessened after LMI. This suggests that LMI can contribute positively to students' learning, motivation, and well-being.

日本語概要

COVID–19によって引き起こされる継続的な不安とストレスは、すべての人、特に人生の新しい段階を迎えようとしている大学 １ 年生に影響を与え続けている。日本では、そのような学生は、不確実性とリスク防止策に継続的に適応する必要があり、学習意欲に悪影響を及ぼしている（Tan，2020)。これに対処するため、2021 年に東北の １ 年生の英語の生徒 75 人に笑いマインドフルネス介入 (LMI) が実施された。この研究では、LMI が生徒のストレスと不安を軽減し、学習意欲を高め、全体的な健康状態を改善する効果を評価した。笑いヨガ(LY) の 4 つのコア コンポーネントが採用された: 準備運動、笑いの練習、呼吸の練習、遊び心のある態度。 2 回の LMI セッションの後、学生の参加は概して肯定的であり、80% が LMI 活動を楽しんだと報告している。さらに、学生の知覚ストレス尺度 (PSS) は、LMI 後にわずかに減少した。これは、LMI が生徒の学習、モチベーション、幸福に積極的に貢献できることを示唆している。

Laughter is a social signal and form of communication that has been integral to human life and culture since ancient times. It was used by our cave-dwelling ancestors to relieve tension and fear, and to demonstrate to other groups that they were friendly (Hayworth, 1928; Polimeni & Reiss, 2006). With the "liberation of the voice" (Provine, 2001 p. 2) it evolved into what we now think of as human language. Because since laughter is unplanned and uncensored, it is a powerful probe into social relationships.

In a pre-scientific age, where many relied on the moral authority of the Christian church (Hein, 1977), the essential benefits of humor and laughter were cited in the Bible, Book of Proverbs 17:22 (New International Version), where it states: "A cheerful heart is a good medicine, but a broken spirit dries up the bones." And well into the 10th century, people understood that a joyful spirit was therapeutic and that the absence of joy could make one ill (Savage et al., 2017). Other historical examples relating to laughter therapy include ancient Greek physicians prescribing a visit to the hall of comedians as part of the patient's healing process, and early native American clowns working in cooperation with their own tribal healers (Savage et al.,2017). In the 14th century, surgeon Henri de Mondeville reportedly joked with his patients in his recovery room (Barrett & Mingo, 2002). In the 17th century, humor was used generally to release excess tension (Bardon, 2005), and in the 18th century, English physician William Beattie also used humor in treating the sick (Dickie, 2003).

In the 20th century, there was renewed interest in laughter therapy following the release of the movie 'Patch Adams' (Kalpakli, 2021). And in 1995, Mumbai-born M. Kataria founded Laughter Yoga (LY). He

modernized and simplified the work of earlier laughter pioneers, emphasizing that laughter is indeed the best medicine and emphasized that "the more you laugh for no reason, the more life will give reasons to laugh" (Kataria, 1995).

In a similar vein, laughter therapy has been discovered to be an avenue to reduce Anxiety, Burnout, Stress (ABS) by releasing neurotransmitters (Farifteh et al., 2014), which facilitate instantaneous changes in mood state. Related benefits include a reduction in heart disease, rejuvenated appearance, improved breathing, and acting as a natural painkiller (Dunbar et al., 2012; Lapierre et al., 2019). An increase in sleep quality has also been noted (Zhao et al., 2019; Ghodsbin et al., 2015). Laughter therapy encourages a greater flow of oxygen to the brain, improves feelings of connectedness, lowers blood pressure, boosts the immune system, and increases concentration and self-confidence (Subramoney, 2020).

From a biological perspective, laughter has been shown to exert stress-reducing effects by suppressing the bioactivities of epinephrine, cortisol, and 3,4-dihydro-phenylacetic acid (a major dopamine catabolite) (Berk et al., 1989; Yim, 2016). Reduced neurotransmitter activities, including norepinephrine, serotonin, and dopamine are linked to depression, and laughter is shown to enhance dopamine and serotonin activities (Yim, 2016). Additionally, the laughter-induced release of endorphins can help to reduce a depressed mood (Lebowitz et al., 2011). According to Yim (2016), laughter is the natural expression of positive emotion, and it can be broadly grouped into five different categories: spontaneous laughter (triggered by positive emotion; unrelated to free will), simulated laughter (triggered by oneself at will; self-induced), stimulated laughter (triggered by physical contact: ticklish), induced laughter (triggered by the drug: nitrous oxide, and pathological laughter (triggered by neuronal damage: pseudobulbar affect). Clearly, laughter has a wide range of benefits, including an increase in cognitive function, improved respiration, enhanced tolerance of pain, and a reduction of stress hormones. The cumulative effects of these are improved psychological well-being, an improvement in the overall quality of life (Yim, 2016), and happiness (Lyle, 2014). At the same time, unlike

emotions more broadly defined, laughter does not involve the motivation to do anything (Stanford, 2020). Thus, the movements of laughter, "have no object" (Spencer, 1911 p. 303): they are merely a release of nervous energy.

A Laughter-based Mindfulness Classroom Intervention

Laughter and humor in general have provided a multitude of educational benefits (Lei, et al., 2010). These mainly impact the affective dimension of learning, including improvement of classroom atmosphere and a reduction of anxiety (Neff & Dewaele, 2022). While these aspects can be thought of as relevant to any educational domain, the current paper provides an example of an intervention applied specifically to English language learners in Japan. It focuses more on how these techniques can be used with language learners than on particular language learning activities themselves. Nevertheless, the integration of these approaches into language lessons has been strongly endorsed, particularly for students who are worried about making mistakes, or nervous about their speaking abilities (Azizinezhad & Hashemi, 2011). Beyond this, the current study also provides an example of LMI in a language classroom, that can potentially be drawn upon by language instructors when applying various language learning techniques.

During COVID-19, the ongoing pandemic-related ABS, and fear affected the quality of life of many people globally. At the same time, the number of individuals affected by depression has also risen (Bueno, 2021). Observing this situation, I became concerned that the rise of pandemic-related ABS and fear of the unknown might even progress into mental problems related-illnesses if no interventions were carried out. This was the motivation behind the introduction of the current study, a Laughter-based Mindfulness Intervention (LMI), in my classroom.

More generally, the positive effects of non-pharmacologic interventions are recognized to help reduce pain, stress, and anxiety. Such interventions can take the form of superficial massage, breathing exercises, music therapy, yoga, and others (Lewis et al., 2018) (Figure 1). Unlike physical yoga, laughter exercises do not

require special yoga mats or exercise clothes, and even those without previous experience can join the exercises. These advantages make LMI possible anywhere and anytime, and readily implementable, not being dependent on the availability of classroom resources. All that is required to boost students' enjoyment, flush out their boredom, and control their anxiety are the use of the teacher's tongue and heart (Li, et al., 2022). These are also all that is needed for the creation of a family-like classroom environment where mistakes are accepted (Ocampo, 2015), which is similarly resource independent. Teachers know intuitively that the classroom environment affects students' emotions and willingness to communicate (WTC). Thus, one of the teacher's responsibilities is to make the learning process easier and more enjoyable, and motivate students' attention with the judicious use of heart and tongue.

Figure 1.

Major types of non-pharmacologic interventions

Method

In this study, LMI, a technique that involves mimicking the act of laughing, was trialed to explore its potential to improve positive psychological states. As pointed out earlier, the use of LMI in a language classroom focuses mainly on the affective dimension of education generally. But it is hoped that it can also be drawn upon by language instructors when applying various language learning techniques.

Laughter activities patterned on those of De Leo (2021)

and Kataria (2018) were employed. The LMI was administered to 75 freshmen English students at a university in Tohoku in 2021. These 75 participants included 23 males and 52 females, whose ages ranged from 19-20 years old. All were enrolled in a first-year English conversation class and had regular, direct contact with the researcher. The LMI was in the context of the aims stated in the researcher's university syllabus in FY 2021-2022, namely improving students' happiness and well-being through positive psychology and mindfulness.

During the first semester of spring 2021, three main research sessions were held. The pre-PSS took place during the tenth class of the semester, the laughter activities that comprise LMI took place during the twelfth class of the semester and the post-PPS was given the following week in the thirteenth class of the fifteen-class semester.

In the first research session (tenth class), participants answered a pre-Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) questionnaire (Cohen et al.,1983). The PPS consists of ten questions about perceptions of stress in everyday life. Also, at this session, the researcher discussed its objective to assess the impact of LMI on their learning motivation, well-being, and laughter benefits. During the lecture, the researcher gave several short demonstrations of simulated laughter and encouraged participants to try them out. Participants' confidentiality, the opportunity to ask questions, and emphasis of their autonomy regarding participation in the LMI were ensured.

Next, during the twelfth class of the spring semester of FY 2021, students participated in an LMI session, throughout which the researcher frequently repeated "The more you laugh for no reason, the more life will give reasons to laugh" and "the body makes no distinction regardless of whether the laughter is real or simulated" (Kataria, 2018). The LMI included the following four core components of Laughter Yoga (LY): (1) warm-up exercises, (2) laughter exercises, (3) deep breathing exercises, and (4) an attitude of childlike playfulness were implemented, described below in more detail.

(1) The warm-up exercises used were characteristic of most laughter yoga sessions, beginning with clapping and synchronizing movements. Warm-up exercises involved clapping with hands in parallel positions in order to stimulate the points on the palms and increase participants' energy levels. Participants tried their first chant, in rhythm with their hands, chanting "ho ho, ha-ha-ha", and breathing from the belly with deep inhalations and exhalations. Hand clapping was then combined with a vocal "ho ho ha ha ha" sequence, and participants continued to clap with a 1-2-3 rhythm, moving their hands up and down and swinging them from side to side as they clapped. Participants continued clapping, breathing, and chanting as they moved around the room in a circle or from side to side.

(2) Laughter exercises included 'gradient laughter', a 'brainwashing and flossing' exercise, and a 'COVID-19 crush' laugh. In 'gradient laughter', participants began with low vocal intensity and then raised it higher and higher, opening their mouths slowly as they inhaled. The researcher gave the following instructions to participants: "We are increasing the blood flow because our heart rhythm increases. And more blood is circulating in our bodies to oxygenate our bodies. How to do it? Smile! Gradually begin to laugh with a calm chuckle. Increase the intensity of the laugh until you've reached a hearty laugh. Gradually dial back the laugh."

(3) For deep breathing exercises, the researcher introduced an easy and short 3-4-5 breathing exercise (Chatterjee, 2021).

(4) An attitude of childlike playfulness was encouraged by asking students to think about their own stresses in life and to laugh at them after they had finished exercises 1-3.

In addition, during this LMI, for their personal guidance and reference at home, students were encouraged to watch video clips of De Leo (2021) and Kataria (2018), available on YouTube. After completing the LMI exercises in the second research session (twelfth class of the semester), in the last research session (thirteenth class of the semester), participants were asked to answer the post-PSS to help understand the impact of this intervention on participants' English learning, motivation, and wellbeing.

Table 1
Perceived stress scale

Perceived Stress Scale Items (1-10)	N	SD	
		Pre-PSS	Post-PSS
1. How often have been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?	75	2.0	1.7
2. How often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?	75	1.8	1.7
3. How often have you felt nervous and stressed?	75	2.5	2.4
4. How often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?	75	2.0	1.9
5. How often have you felt that things were going your way?	75	1.6	1.6
6. How often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?	75	2.2	1.8
7. How often have you been able to control irritations in your life?	75	1.6	1.6
8. How often have you felt that you were on top of things?	75	1.9	2.5
9. How often have you been angered because of things that happened that were outside of your control?	75	1.8	1.4
10. How often have you felt difficulties when piling up so high that you could not overcome them?	75	2.0	1.3

Results and Discussion

As shown in Table 1, in the pre-PSS, the Perceived Stress Scale Items participants reported experiencing the most were Item 3 (being nervous and stressed), followed closely by Item 6 (inability to cope with all the things one has to do). In third place, Items 1, 4, and 10 were given equal weight by participants during the pre-PSS.

In contrast, in the post-PSS, Item 8 (feeling on top of things) was the most strongly reported Item, followed by Item 3 (nervous and stressed) and Item 4 (confident about handling personal problems). While the appearance of Item 8 (feeling of being on top of things) in first place in the post-PSS is positive, there was a slight drop in Item 4 (confidence in the ability to handle personal problems). At the beginning of the intervention, participants perceived that they felt that they were on top of things. Afterward, however, they felt that they were no longer in control of the things they wanted to do, influenced by feelings of being upset, nervous, stressed,

and unable to cope with the things they had to do. The resultant anger and perceived difficulty in overcoming piled-up school-related responsibilities are shown in Table 1. Despite participants appearing to engage positively in LMI activities during the intervention from the perspective of the researcher, the PSS results revealed that they felt out of control of the things they wanted to do. Probing this result further, the researcher spoke to participants one-on-one, several of whom responded that the presentation was difficult for them because they felt ashamed to laugh in front of other students.

Specific Stress Symptoms

Specific stress symptoms reported by participants pre and post-LMI are shown in Figure 2. Interestingly, the most frequently reported symptom was tense muscles, experienced by 13% of participants. The next most prominent were headaches and eating too much or too little. Following these, boredom and depression were the next most prominent symptoms of participants.
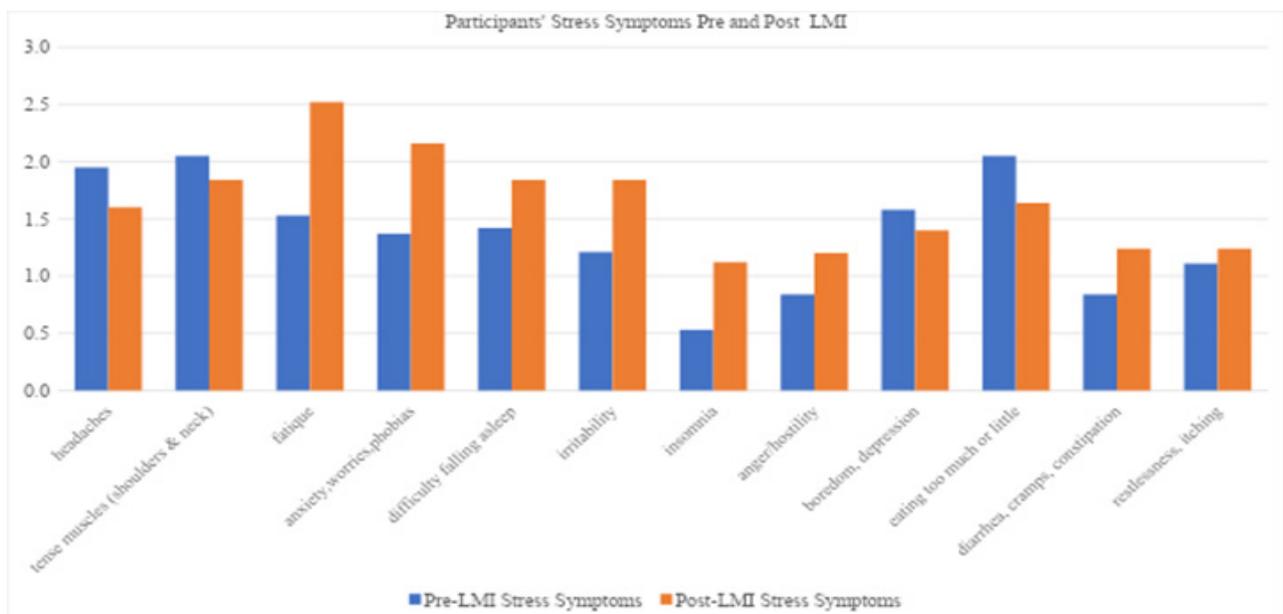

Figure 2

Participant's stress symptoms before LMI

During the initial guidance, participants were hesitant to try simulated laughter, but during the second and third research sessions, especially when childlike playfulness was emphasized, they began to laugh more freely. In the case of female participants particularly, this laughter was simulated, but male participants' laughter also appeared to include spontaneous, non-simulated laughter (Figure 3 & Figure 4).

Figure 3.

Participant's simulated laughter

Figure 4.

Participant's childlike playfulness

Conclusion and Recommendation

Laughter, with its deep historical roots and therapeutic application throughout the centuries, is clearly still relevant today and has an important role to play in helping to address Japanese students' psychological concerns in the classroom. During this study, particular laughter-based techniques were carried out in a specific context in Japan. In this process, participants became aware of the importance of LMI. However, despite the awareness gained, they were still hesitant to take part in simulated laughter by themselves. In the Japanese context, this might be related to cultural values that tend to suppress individual emotions to improve relationships with others (Bhana, 2001). It can be suggested that Japanese people tend to focus attention on the eyes rather than the mouth when expressing emotions or reading them to others. If laughter and smiling are partially related to shyness, then Japanese shyness is rather the result of contingent cultural factors, namely, that it is shameful to make mistakes or stand apart, and with a constant feeling of being monitored and watched by other people (Haffner, et al, 2009). Interestingly, when somebody laughs in front of another person, be it real or simulated, that person naturally laughs too in reaction. This was borne out in the current study where laughter released students' nervous energy prior to the activities which involved muscular movements during the early stage of laughing exercises, such as clapping hands, pointing at group members, and covering one's mouth.

To help overcome these limitations and help to spread and deepen LMI in Japan, this invaluable tool should be implemented with an open mind and heart in schools and the broader community. While the current study provided participants with non-time-dependent questions, which could be perceived by participants as being life-long questions, in future work, a more time-dependent research tool that focuses the inquiry on a particular period will be employed. Also, future studies will aim to present even more insights gained from one-to-one talks with participants, seeking a more nuanced understanding of these processes. Language teachers and researchers are also strongly encouraged to explore the approaches introduced in this paper for themselves, linking them to specific language learning outcomes.

For the sake of the health and happiness of all, it is highly recommended to share the idea widely that laughter for no reason at all can be beneficial for the mind, body, and soul. These exercises helped the participants in this study reap physiological, psychological, and emotional benefits. Perhaps they could for you too.

References

Azizinezhad, M., & Hashemi, M. (2011). Humor: A pedagogical tool for language learners. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *30*, 2093-2098.

Bardon, A. (2005). *The philosophy of humor. Comedy: A geographic and historical guide, 2*, Greenwood Press. 462-476.

Barrett, E., & Mingo, J. (2002). *Doctors Killed George Washington: Hundreds of Fascinating Facts from the World of Medicine*. Mango Media.

Berk, L.S., Tan, S.A., Fry, W.F., Napier, B.J., Lee, J.W., Hubbard, R.W., Lewis, J.E. & Eby, W.C. (1989). Neuroendocrine and stress hormone changes during mirthful laughter. *Am. J. Med. Sci. 298*, 390-396.

Bhana, Y. (2001). T*he Meaning of a Smile in Different Cultures*. Retrieved from https://toppandigital.com/translation-blog/the-meaning-of-a-smile-in-different-cultures/

Bueno-Notivol, J., Gracia-García, P., Olaya, B., Lasheras, I., López-Antón, R., & Santabarbara, J. (2021). Prevalence of depression during the COVID-19 outbreak: A meta-analysis of community-based studies. *International journal of clinical and health psychology: IJCHP*, *21(*1), 100196. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijchp.2020.07.007

Chatterjee, R. (2021). *Happy Mind, Happy Life. Control your Mind*. Retrieved from: https://drchatterjee.com/the-3-4-5-breath/

Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., and Mermelstein, R. (1983). A Global Measure of Perceived Stress. *J. Health Soc. Behav. 24*, 385–396. Doi: 10.2307/2136404

De Leo, L. (2021). *Laughter Yoga with Liliana*. Episode 7. Retrieved from: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=E551VUpEj3c

Dickie, S. (2003). Hilarity and pitilessness in the mid-eighteenth century: English jestbook humor. *Eighteenth-Century Studies*, 1-22.

Dunbar, R.I., Baron, R., Frangou, A., Pearce, F., Van Leeuwen, F. J., Stow, J., Partridge, G., Macdonald, I., Barra, V. & Van Vugt, M. (2012). Social laughter is correlated with an elevated pain threshold. *Proc. Biol. Sci. 279*, 1161-1167.

Farifteh, S., Mohammadi-Aria, A., Kiamanesh, A. & Mofid, B. (2014). The Impact of laughter yoga on the stress of cancer patients before chemotherapy. Iran. *J. Cancer Prev. 7*, 179-183.

Ghodsbin, F., Sharif Ahmadi, Z., Jahanbin, I. & Sharif, F. (2015). The effect of laughter therapy on the general health of elderly people referring to Jahandidegan community center in Shiraz, Iran, 2014: a randomized controlled trial. *Int. J. Commun. Based Nurs. Midwifery 3*, 31-38.

Haffner, J., Casas, K. & Lehmann, J.P. (2009). *Japan's Open Future: An Agenda for Global Citizenship.* Anthem Press, London SE1 8HA, UK, p 79

Hayworth, D. (1928). The social origin and function of laughter. *Psychological Review*, *35*(5), 367.

Hein, S. (1977). The Crisis in Biblical Authority: A Historical Analysis. *Concordia Theological Quarterly*, *41,* 61-77.

Kalpakli, F. (2021). Health and Healing in Patch Adams: Patch Adams, the Wounded Healer. *Kesit Akademi Dergisi*, *7*(27), 52-71.

Kataria, M. (2018). *My laughter story* (Blog). Retrieved from https://laughteryoga.org/prozone-blog/my- laughter-story/

Lapierre, S. S., Baker, B. D., & Tanaka, H. (2019). Effects of mirthful laughter on pain tolerance: A randomized controlled investigation. *Journal of bodywork and movement therapies*, *23*(4), 733–738. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbmt.2019.04.005

Lei, S. A., Cohen, J. L., & Russler, K. M. (2010). Humor on learning in the college classroom: Evaluating benefits and drawbacks from instructors' perspectives. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, *37*(4), 326-332.

Lewis, M.J.M., Kohtz, C., Emmerling, S., Fisher, M. & Mcgarvey, J. (2018). Pain control and nonpharmacologic intervention. *Nursing 48*, 65-68.

Li, C., Dewaele, J.-M., Pawlak, M., & Kruk, M. (2022). Classroom environment and willingness to communicate in English: The mediating role of emotions experienced by university students in China. *Language Teaching Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688221111623

Lyle, L. (2014). *Laugh your way to happiness: Use the science of laughter for total well-being*. Watkins Publishing Limited.

Neff, P., & Dewaele, J. M. (2022). Humor strategies in the foreign language class. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1-13.

Ocampo, M. (2019). Family Environment Mode Approach (FEMA): An "Anxiety Buster" to Motivate EFL Learners. *Third 21st CAF Conference* at Harvard, in Boston, USA. September 2015, Vol. 6, Nr. 1 ISSN: 2330-1236

Polimeni, J., & Reiss, J. P. (2006). The first joke: Exploring the evolutionary origins of humor. *Evolutionary psychology, 4*(1), 147470490600400129.

Provine, R. (2001). *Laughter: A Scientific Investigation*. Published by the Penguin Group, NY, 10014, U.S.A.

Savage, B. M., Lujan, H. L., Thipparthi, R. R., & DiCarlo, S. E. (2017). Humor, laughter, learning, and health! A brief review. *Advances in physiology education*, *41(*3), 341–347 https://doi.org/10.1152/advan.00030.2017

Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, (2020). Philosophy of Humor. Retrieved from: https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/humor/#toc. Aug 2022.

Yim, J. (2016). Therapeutic benefits of laughter in mental health: a theoretical review. *Tohoku J. Exp. Med. 239*, 243-249.

A Method for Evaluating EFL Textbook Units for

Supplemental Printout/Activity Creation

James D. Dunn
Meiji University

Abstract

English education teachers are most likely going to be using a textbook for our classrooms that may, or may not, address our needs and wants for our classes. This situation can lead to instances where a textbook may not cover a topic in enough detail, may be of too short a length for a class time, or may lack higher-order thinking skills development that you would like to include into your classroom. Educators need a reliable and repeatable way to gauge what a textbook asks the students to know and what it asks them to do during a unit. By using a lens that takes into consideration the knowledge dimension the textbook asks students to employ and the thinking skills it asks students to utilize, we can find where the textbook is lacking in skills development. The method discussed in this paper allows us to create supplemental activities and printouts that best include multiple facets of knowledge and thinking skills in the classroom. Ways to implement this method, as well as example printouts, are discussed.

日本語概要

英語教師は、ほとんどの場合、授業で教科書を使用することになるが、その教科書は、私たちの授業に対するニーズに応えてくれるかもしれないし、応えてくれないかもしれない。こういった状況は、教科書がトピックを十分にカバーしていなかったり、一つのユニットが授業時間に対して短すぎたり、授業に取り入れたい高次の思考スキルの育成が欠けていたりすることによって起こりえる。教師には、一つのユニットの中で、教科書が生徒に何を知らせようとし、何をするよう求めているかを判断する、信頼性があり、繰り返しが可能な方法を求めている。教科書が生徒に求める知識の次元と生徒に活用させる思考スキルを考慮した視点を取り入れることで、私たちはその教科書のスキルアップに欠けている部分を見つけることができる。本稿で取り上げた方法を用いると、知識・思考スキルの多面性を授業に取り入れるのに最適な補助活動やプリントを作成することができる。この方法を実施する方法とプリントの例について説明する。

Introduction

Teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) are often familiar with the situation where they are not one hundred percent in control of your textbook choice. Even if the situation arises where we are free to choose our own textbook, there remains the fact that many textbooks lack higher-order thinking and critical thinking skills development (Susanti & Lailiya, 2021). This absence of higher-order thinking skills can cost students opportunities to develop problem-solving, critical thinking, and logical thinking skills. To solve this, many educators turn to creating supplemental activities and printouts to better serve their students' abilities, interests, and needs. But the question must be asked, how do we identify what the textbook is asking of the students in order to best supplement for our classes?

Why are higher-order thinking and critical thinking skills beneficial

Currently, according to the revised guidelines of the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), EFL students are asked to accrue logical thinking and critical thinking skills during their English language education (MEXT, 2011). Towards this end, students are required to gain skills that lie firmly in the higher-order thinking skills area of the Revised Bloom's Taxonomy (Nodirovna & Temirovna, 2022), as well as be exposed to the concepts of critical thinking and have opportunities to engage in them. Higher-order thinking skills, either practiced in isolation or in combination, have been shown to positively impact learning outcomes (Pikhart & Klímová, 2019). Thus, if a textbook has a dearth of higher-order thinking skills or relies too heavily on one type of higher-order thinking skill in its productive activities,

we should give students the opportunity to utilize and be exposed to other thinking skills that the textbooks does not show them.

In addition to higher-order thinking skills, critical thinking skills are an important tool for students to gain, not only to improve their ability to learn and use English but, to develop problem-solving skills, ask good questions about information and opinions they encounter, and generate opinions that can withstand criticism. Critical thinking skills can influence many aspects of a student's life, from developing intercultural awareness, to fostering global viewpoints to help be a valuable human resource no matter where they are in the world (Tsuda, Kinshi, & Valvona, 2021).

A case for Identifying knowledge and higher-order thinking skills when supplementing

When supplementing higher-order thinking skills (HOTS), it might be best to first identify what HOTS are present in a particular unit. This, however, might not be the whole picture of a unit. We must also look toward the types of knowledge a unit is asking a student to know and use in conjunction with the HOTS being asked of the student to perform. Rex Heer of Iowa State University's Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching has created a useful graphic (Fig. 1) that helps us to visualize the types of activities students can do at the junctions of knowledge and thinking skills (Heer, 2015).

While this graphic seems to have been made with learners of science or engineering in mind, it is easily adapted to the EFL context. The overall structure, however, is useful in that educators can easily identify the types of knowledge a unit is asking the student to use/know and the thinking skills, as in the verbs associated with individual HOTS, students are asked to perform and use this knowledge to map out the unit.

The graphic created by Heer is useful as it separates out the types of knowledge a textbook asks the student to understand and know, The Knowledge Dimension, and gives us Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Krathwohl & Bloom, 2001), The Cognitive Process Dimension, as axis that has points where they meet on the graph. These areas of intersection allow us to map out different activities that would activate both the corresponding knowledge dimension and cognitive dimension at the same time. While this graph currently lists activities, they are easily removed to either fill in with new activities that are more focused on language learning or use,

Figure 1
Original Graphic from Iowa State University

as in the case of this paper, as a mapping tool for textbook units (See Appendix Figure 1)

When we know what is in a unit, using a mapping process that shows most aspects of what could be in a unit, we can see what is missing from a standpoint of the knowledge dimension and cognitive process dimension. This leads us to direct our attention to the missing dimensions and create a supplemental print that can introduce new aspects of knowledge and thinking skills that the students were not exposed to during the completion of the textbook unit. These supplemental prints can then expand on these areas while going deeper into a subject and expanding vocabulary items students are exposed to.

Creating an Original Supplemental Printout

A walk-through of evaluating a textbook unit for knowledge and cognitive skills

To best evaluate a unit, we should look at it from a standpoint of higher-order thinking skills, knowledge utilized, and the actions performed during the unit. Using Figure 1 from the appendix, we can mark off where we see different knowledge and actions utilized

throughout the text. For the sake of clarity, the textbook Unlock: Reading, Writing, and Critical Thinking 1, from Cambridge University Press will be used as an example. While this paper will focus on this textbook, this method could be applied to any textbook on the market. From the start of a textbook, there is usually a section that introduces the topic, either through an audio/visual activity or through a reading/readings. In the case of the textbook in question, it gives a photo of a crowd of people with a section entitled Learning Objectives and an overview of what will be covered through the unit. This section gives us the impression that the unit will be talking about "people". While we cannot be certain yet, what the unit asks of the student will become clearer as we continue through the unit.

Unit Introduction and Video Activity

The first section of the unit we can look at in this sample textbook is the unit's introductory video section. We are looking for keywords, grammar, and ideas from the activities as well as listening and watching the video for examples from the knowledge dimension and cognitive dimension. After watching and looking through the unit we can fill in where the dimensions meet as in the example in Figure 2.
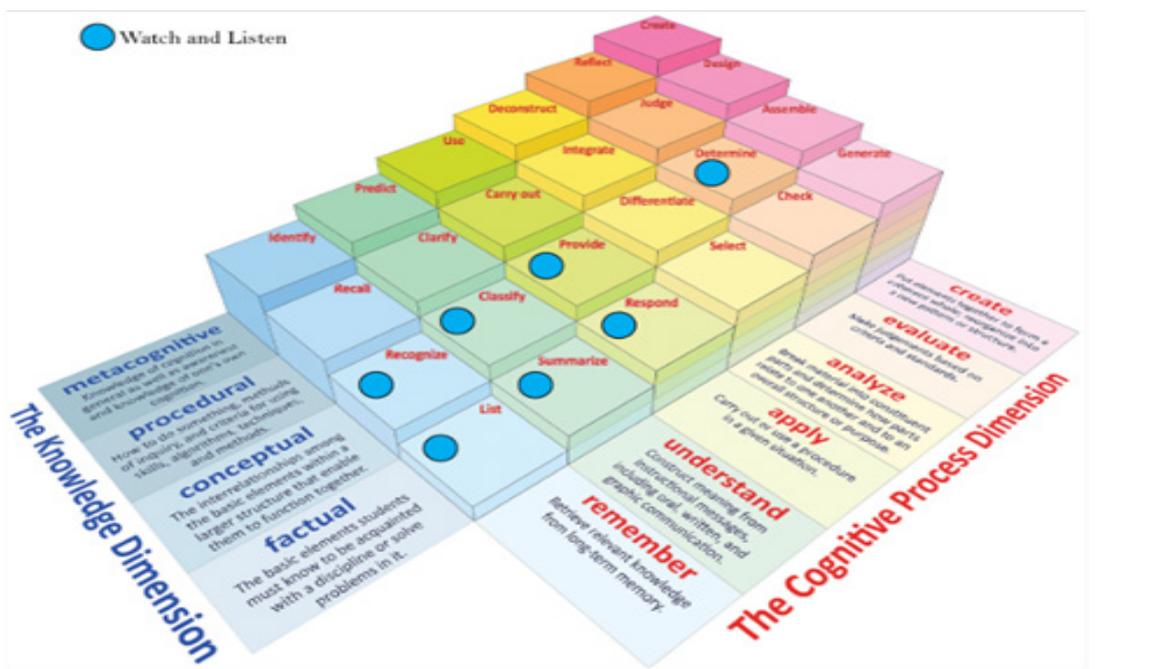
Figure 2

Unit Introduction and Video Knowledge and Skills Mapped out

From this example, we can see that the knowledge dimensions introduced are factual, from introducing concepts about people, their jobs, and describing them. We also see the conceptual aspect of knowledge in that the jobs are explained briefly which allows the students to understand what the people are doing. Since the textbook introduces vocabulary, asks the students to answer questions, match information to pictures, and recognize the information they hear, we can include the cognitive dimensions in the Factual dimension of; remember, understand, apply, and evaluate. The lower-order thinking skills are always involved in the learning of new information as we must remember it and understand it before we can use it to answer questions or manipulate it in various ways in the higher-order thinking skills areas. In the conceptual knowledge dimension, we can include remember, understand, apply, and add determine. Determine was added in that the students must use their understand of the information to match it to photos. This requires a higher-order thinking skill which requires the lower-order thinking skills below it.

Reading Sections for Knowledge Expected and Vocabulary

The next sections of the unit we can look at in this sample textbook are the unit's reading sections. We are looking for keywords, grammar, and what kind of knowledge is being asked of the student. This unit has two readings that are describing people which leads us to believe that the unit will mostly be about describing other people (as there was no reading that involved the concept of "self") and using nouns and adjectives to complete the tasks of describing others. From this we can start to fill in blanks of our knowledge and cognitive dimensions on the blank graph (see appendix Figure 1). An example of this can be seen below in Figure 3.
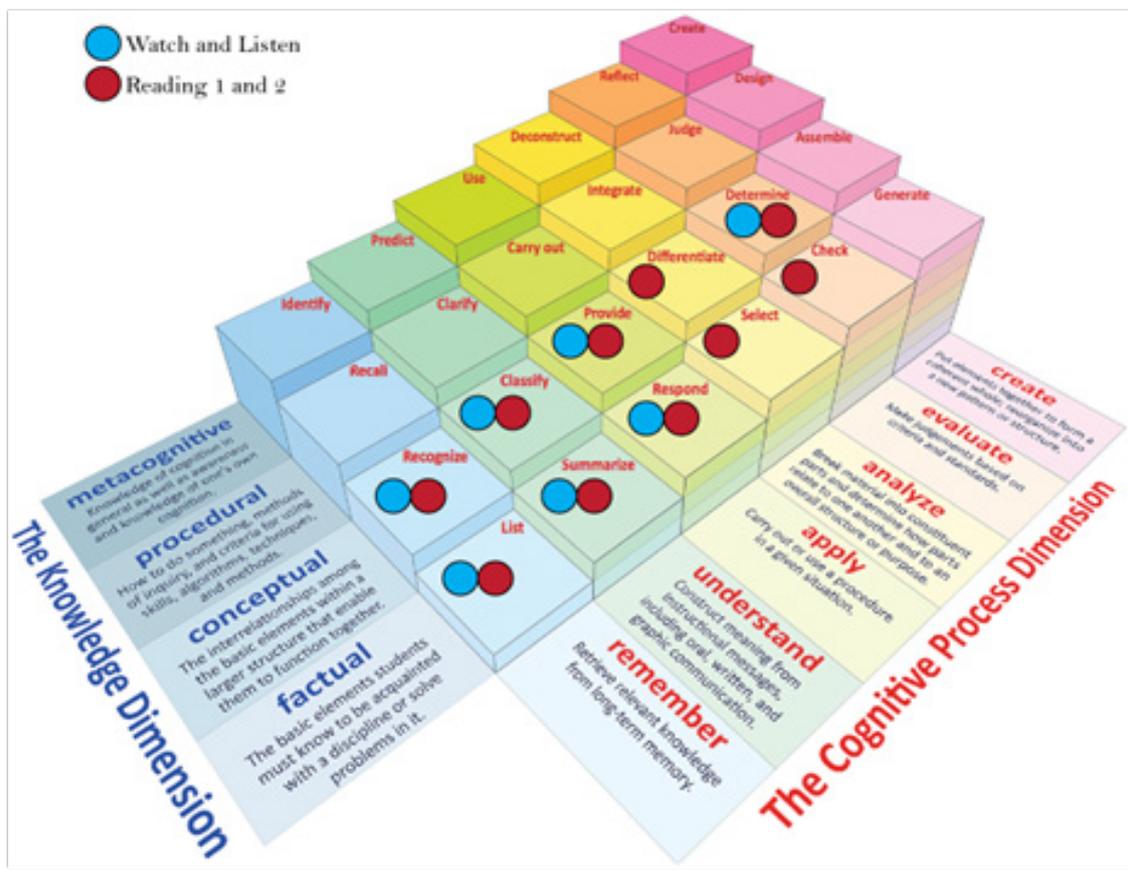
Figure 3

Unit Reading Section Knowledge and Skills Mapped out

The reading sections have added new areas cognitive processes as it involves new higher-order thinking skills from the reading sections and the questions it asks the students to answer. It starts to move more into more opinion giving in the final section of the second reading which asks students to express if they feel someone's life is difficult or interesting. As we continue through the unit, we can start to see exactly what the textbook is asking of the students. Since the textbook has introduced new actions for the student to complete (from HOTS verbs) we can reflect this as we map-out the unit. At this point in the textbook, we have the knowledge of describing people, using adjectives, talking about jobs, and talking about family members.

Grammar Sections for Writing and Academic Writing Skills

After finishing the Reading sections, we can look at the Grammar for Writing and Academic Writing Skills sections to see if they are introducing new knowledge or cognitive dimension to the textbook. From these sections we find that the textbook introduces the idea of home life and using adjectives for describing people's interests and jobs, as well as the interests and jobs of their family members. While this is useful in the sense that it adds to the ability of the student to complete the writing task at the end of the unit, it does not add much to the types of knowledge the students are asked to utilize and gain. For an example of this, you can refer to Figure 4, which integrates the Grammar for Writing and Academic Writing Skills section's, as well as the Writing Task section's, dimensions into the graph.
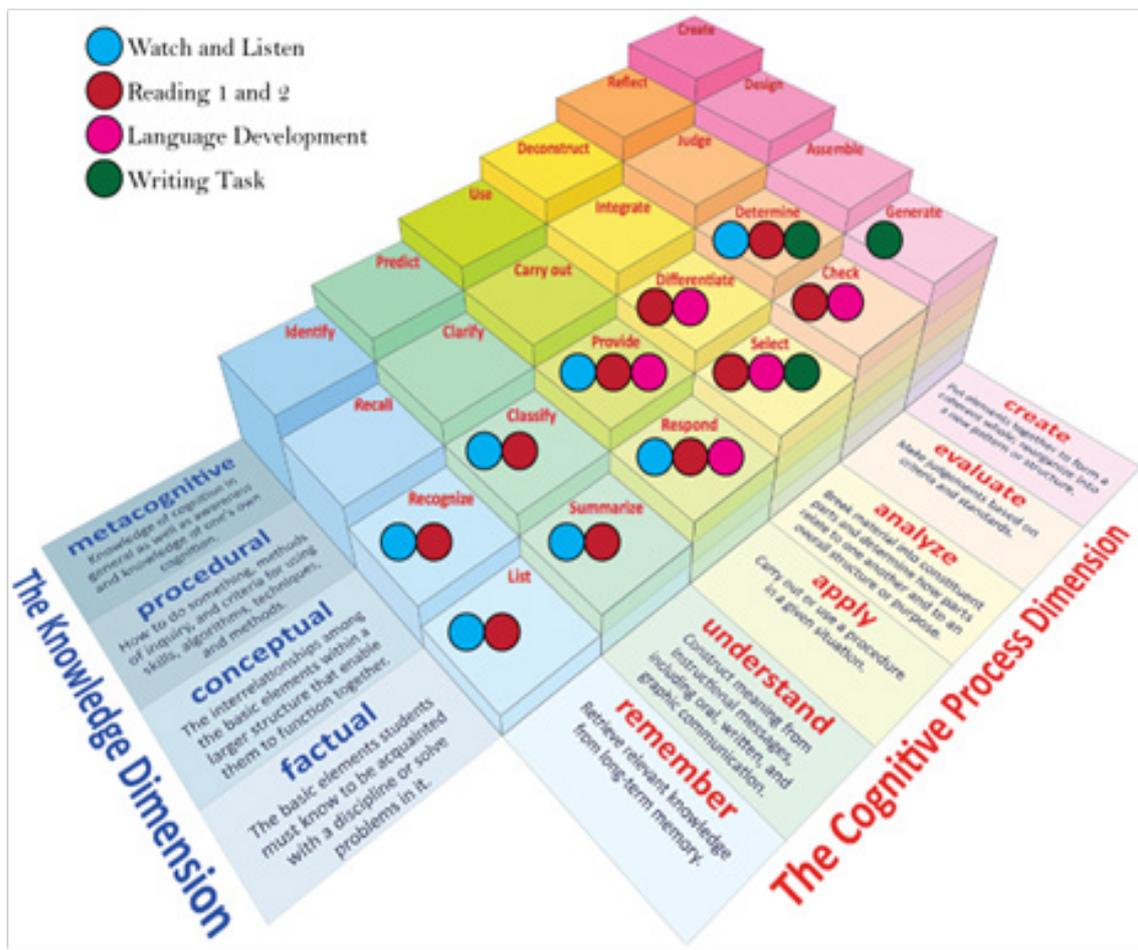
Figure 4

Unit Grammar Section Knowledge and Skills Mapped out

Critical Thinking Activities Help Complete the Picture of the Unit

Finally, we can look at the Critical Thinking section of the textbook to determine if; one, it does include critical thinking skills, and two, if it adds new knowledge or cognitive process dimensions to the textbook activities. The Critical Thinking section only asks students to recall previous information from earlier in the textbook, collect information from another person, and apply that person's answers to the questions in the textbook. You can see a representation of this in Figure 5.

This Critical Thinking section doesn't include any higher-order thinking skills, much less critical thinking skills. Thus underscores the importance of being able to look at a textbook in a way that can determine if what is said is being practiced, is being practiced. Since we know that the critical thinking section, and the unit as a whole, is missing half of the knowledge dimensions, we can now start to plan on a supplemental activity or printout that addresses the lack of diversity in knowledge present.

Figure 5

Unit Critical Thinking Section Knowledge and Skills Mapped out

Choosing areas for creating a supplemental activity or printout

Now that what the textbook asks the students to know and what it expects them to do, we can start to focus on what is not present in the unit. From the above figure, we can see that there is no procedural or metacognitive knowledge dimensions present in the unit. While there are instances of higher-order thinking skills, there are still many HOTS verbs left to choose from that can deepen a student's understanding and usage skill of

the topic and vocabulary present in the unit. We now must determine what would best allow students to both deepen their understanding of the topic, while giving them the opportunity to expand on the topic as well.

For this unit, with a focus on describing others such as family members and talking about their interests and jobs, we can switch the focus of the subject from "others" to "self", something that was very much lacking in the unit. To do this we could create a printout

that focuses on personality types to give the student new information that is both connected to the topic in the unit, as well as expands the topic with information about personalities that deepens their ability to evaluate themselves and others. A representation of this on our evaluation graph can be seen in Figure 6.

This adds a sense of critical thinking skills to the printout, which was absent in the unit, so students can then apply the information in the textbook in a new way. For an example of a printout created to supplement the unit evaluated in this paper, please refer to Appendix Figure 2.

Figure 6

Supplemental Knowledge and Skills Chosen

The example printout was created for a private university's unified English language curriculum where all first-year basic level students used the textbook evaluated in this paper. As one goes through the printout you can see how it changes the focus of the textbook from the very beginning by asking about their (the student's) likes and dislikes (Figure 7). This is to put the student in the mode of using metacognitive knowledge, again something that was not present in the textbook proper. As this is a printout that hopes to encourage critical thinking as well as higher-order thinking skills, all questions about the student are expected to be expounded upon with a rationale so the students get into the habit of justifying their opinions in the class.

The next section of the unit starts to introduce a new area of information with a move toward personality classifications. This was chosen to expand upon the textbook while giving the students a higher-order

thinking skill to further apply to the topic of "people" in the unit. Starting with them evaluating themselves and explaining what type of person they think they are while, of course, justifying their answer with an example. We then have them move into categories of personalities for them to learn about and apply to themselves. Since this was for a basic level class, a simplified version of personality types was used. This section introduces new vocabulary and ideas for the student to gain as well as, towards the end of the printout, gives them the opportunity to categorize themselves into a personality type and then justify their answer with a reason they think they fit into that personality category (Figure 8).

Figure 7

Printout Skills Warm-up Section

Figure 8

Printout Main Practice Section

Finally, as one part of thinking critically is being able to look at a problem from multiple sides, we encouraged students to think about the topic from another angle (Figure 9) by explaining what type of personality they would not like to be and why they felt this way about that personality type.

Interestingly, in using this printout, some students had the same answer for their personality type and the personality type they did not want to be. Many explanations from the students exhibited a desire to change themselves in some way or to better give themselves opportunities to do different things in the future. It was

the hope of the author that this print would allow students to deepen their understanding of the topic while expanding both the Knowledge Dimension and Cognitive Processes Dimension to expose students to further higher-order thinking skills, types of knowledge, and critical thinking skills.
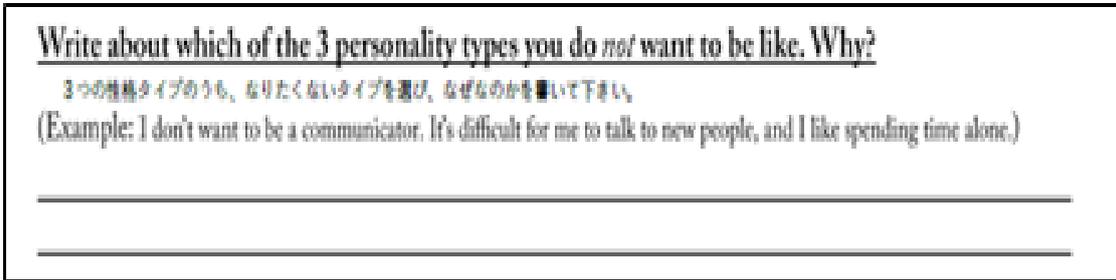
Figure 9
Printout Final Practice Section

Conclusion

It is important for an educator to be aware just what a textbook is asking of their students. By adopting a "lens" of evaluation and the deconstruction of knowledge and skills utilized in a textbook, we are better able to design supplemental prints or activities that expand the topic and thinking skills of students. By breaking down a unit's sections and identifying the knowledge dimensions and cognitive dimensions used, we can then see what is missing and design a supplement that best exposes students to deeper thinking and more knowledge types. It is the hope of the author that this way of approaching a unit will help educators better serve their students as well as serve as a foundation for creativeness in educational activities that give students the most exposure to the myriad of knowledge and skills in the world. No textbook can be perfect, but we can help to expand our students' horizons in tandem with the textbooks we are required to use.

References

Heer, R. (2015). *A Model of Learning Objectives. Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching*, Iowa State University. from https://www.celt.iastate.edu/

Krathwohl, and Benjamin Samuel Bloom. *A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching, and Assessing: A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. Complete ed. New York: Longman, 2001.

MEXT. (2011, February 24). *English Translation of the MEXT Guidelines*. AJET. http://ajet.net/announcement/english-translation-of-the-mext-guidelines/

Nodirovna, N. N., Temirovna, T. M., Principles of designing lesson plans for teaching ESL or EFL. *Eurasian Journal of Learning and Academic Teaching*, (*5*), pp.10-12. Retrieved on August 20, 2022 from https://geniusjournals.org/

Pikhart, M., & Klímová, B. (2019). Utilization of linguistic aspects of Bloom's taxonomy in blended learning. *Education Sciences*, *9*(3), 235-243. doi:10.3390/educsci9030235

Susanti, A. & Lailiyah, S. (2022). *Improving EFL Students' Higher Order Thinking Skills Using Reading Strategies*. doi:10.2991/assehr.k.211223.168.

Tsuda, A., Kinshi K., & Valvona, C., (2021). Collaborative Learning in Higher Education in Japan: Toward an Intercollegiate Program. *PanSIG 2021 Journal*, From: https://pansig. org/

Tsuda, A., Kinshi K., & Valvona, C., (2021). Collaborative Learning in Higher Education in Japan: Toward an Intercollegiate Program.

A Tale of Two Syllabi: Towards Theory Driven CLIL Courses

Stephen McNamara
Konan University

Michael Joshua Griffiths
Konan University

Abstract

The importance of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) theories is increasing in the Japanese tertiary sector as CLIL courses proliferate, often driven by teacher interest. Additionally, in undergraduate English language programmes, teachers may be tasked with developing content-focused courses that are not explicitly described as CLIL, but nonetheless require content to drive language learning. These courses often do not always express designs that are both theoretically driven and context-responsive. This article will focus on two syllabi taught in the same context and explain how their design has been guided by theories on three levels: educational and linguistic philosophies that underpin CLIL; the conditions of CLIL seen to be advantageous to language improvement explained via second language acquisition theory; and numerous CLIL-relevant conceptual frameworks. The authors examine theoretical similarities and differences between the two syllabi as a way of illustrating the diversity of CLIL implementation in the Japanese tertiary sector.

日本語概要

教師のCLILコースへの関心の高まりにより、日本の大学では、内容言語統合型学習（CLIL）理論の重要性が増してきています。また、大学レベルの英語プログラムでは、多くの教師がCLILではないカリキュラムでコースを教えています。しかし、これらのコースにおいても、コンテンツ学習と言語学習が同時に行われる必要があります。これらのコースでは、時に理論を用いてデザインされておらず、状況に応じて必要とされるものに対処するためのシステムを備えていないことがあります。本稿では、同じ大学で同じ要件で教えられている2つのシラバスを題材にし、2つのシラバスが3つのレベルの理論をどのように用いているかを説明します。3つのレベルとは、教育理論と言語理論、言語学習に焦点を当てたCLIL理論、そして様々なCLIL理論です。ここでは、この2つのコースの類似点と相違点を検証します。類似点と相違点から、日本の大学におけるCLILのあり方が多様であることがわかります。

Rising interest in and implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has been a noteworthy trend over recent decades. Described as significant and growing exponentially, this trend belies the complexity of CLIL and its various learning contexts. Inception and spread of CLIL began in Europe in the 1990s whereas experimentation in Japan likely occurred from the late 2000s onwards (Tsuchiya & Pérez Murillo, 2019). Thus, several differences are seemingly present in how CLIL has manifested in these two regions. Europe has mostly followed a top-down development tract, often government-led, although bottom-up development instances also occurred. In contrast, Japan has followed a distinctly bottom-up developmental tract (Ikeda, 2019); with tertiary-level implementation proliferated by institutions (Hashimoto & Glasgow, 2019;

Hemmi & Banegas, 2021) and individual practitioners (Griffiths, 2021). Hence, from the authors' perspective, tertiary-level CLIL implementation in Japan shows considerable variety.

The prevalent definition of CLIL is from Coyle et al. (2010) who describe it as: "a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both [emphasis added] content and language" (p. 1). This oft cited definition details the conceptual level but not syllabus level. The authors' believe Brown and Bradford (2017) provide useful details by stating CLIL is: "an approach to education that integrates language and content learning; planning for, fostering, and assessing both [emphasis added], though the focus may shift from one to the

other" (p. 331). Moreover, it notes the content and language focus of CLIL can vary dependent on contextual or learning needs. Thus, variant forms of learning and teaching within this approach are possible. These variants are often locatable on a continuum ranging from Hard CLIL, which is more content focused, to Soft CLIL, which is more language focused (Ball, 2015). The syllabi described in this paper are two such examples of the variation within CLIL yet are in the same context. Both syllabi are single-semester content-focused courses, and have been taught at a medium-sized, private university in western Japan within a language faculty. Students in these courses have completed a year of compulsory academic English and sit within a CEFR A2-B2 range. The intent of this article is to provide examples of how these courses have been conceptualized and implemented, related to the relevant theoretical and philosophical underpinnings.

Philosophical and Theoretical Under-pinnings in CLIL

Despite implementation variation, consideration to the philosophical and theoretical features of CLIL is required. Unfortunately, explicit statements on these connections are often absent from practitioner accounts of syllabus design. Gabillon (2020) says: "… [CLIL] literature has rarely reported a direct link to the theory and conceptualization of CLIL as an approach" (p. 100). What follows is a summary of considerations in this space when designing and implementing a CLIL syllabus.

Educational Philosophy and CLIL

CLIL is linked to the influential works of Dewey, Piaget, and Vygotsky. These teaching and learning approaches are generally referred to as constructivism and sociocultural theory (Coyle et al., 2010; Gabillon, 2020). The constructivist notions view that active construction of knowledge with peers is central to learning. The sociocultural notions view that social interaction between a novice learner and someone or something more expert is required. This is reflected in the interactive, mediated, and student-led activities seen essential to CLIL. The expert sources may be peers, teachers, or materials. Sociocultural theory also provides the con-

cept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) which is an optimal learning space spanning between where a learner is cognitively capable on their own and where cognitively capable with added support by others (Vygotsky, 1978). Operationalizing these underpinnings in CLIL implementation and practice is crucial. As Ioannou Georgiou (2012) states: CLIL has "a focus on the learners' development and construction of knowledge by means of a dialogic relationship with their peers, their teacher, and the materials" (p. 496).

Language Theory and CLIL: Functionalism

The basis of this theory is the understanding that the main purpose of language is to communicate meaning, and therefore the form of language can be understood by analyzing what necessitates its use (Butler, 2003 Thompson, 2013). Further, Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), a functional methodology, views language as the main semiotic medium of humans to address social needs, to transmit, receive, and construct meaning through interaction (Coffin, 2017). From a functional perspective, society and culture ultimately decides the necessities of language use, and this goes on to control how and what is said (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Context is ultimately a product of society, and passed to teachers through ministries and institutions. Tertiary teachers in Japan share these contextual influences, but they control the educational contexts in the classroom. In this way, educators shape immediate contexts to create the linguistic needs that students satisfy through language use, the form of their language allows meaning to be communicated. In this way in the functional model of language, meaning, form, and context intersect. This makes functionalism an essential understanding for CLIL syllabus development, where content meanings and language acquisition are interdependent. In CLIL, this manifests as teachers requiring content, often disciplinary specific content, to be learnt, which therefore requires authentically functional language use. Teachers can determine language needed to be literate in content domains, and therefore in syllabus design are able to predict which activities will allow these functions.

Conditions Advantageous to Language Improvement in CLIL

In line with Second Language Acquisition views on language improvement, CLIL can be described as meaning-focused, where learners make meaning (construct knowledge) from cognitively challenging input and interaction with other learners thus ouput reflects their meaning-making attempts. Aside from this meaning-focus, CLIL allows the possibility for a concurrent focus on form. Long (2015) described this as a possible third way when discussing how task-based learning provides the same conditions, in that a singular focus on either meaning or form is eschewed, thus moving beyond the shortcomings of each. Furthermore, negotiation of meaning amongst learners provides opportunities for repeating, restructuring, and rephrasing of language enabling improvement via learner-learner communication.

Course 1
Specific Frameworks

The 4Cs framework from Coyle et al. (2010) is an acknowledged conceptualization designed for wholistic understanding of CLIL (Gabillon, 2020; Meyer, 2010; Pinner, 2013). The framework describes the interconnection and integration of four main elements of CLIL: content (the subject for learning), communication (language in the learning process), cognition (thinking and learning processes), and culture (intercultural understanding). Within CLIL contexts these components are integrated to promote the teaching and learning of content and language (Coyle et al., 2010). For Course One, overall design was guided by this framework but others were also incorporated for further integration and depth of planning.

Language in CLIL is often understood by viewing development as moving towards more academic forms and conceptualized via the notions of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1979). The former describes conversational fluency whereas the latter describes language required to understand and express, in spoken or written form, concepts and ideas in educational settings. Cognitive development in CLIL is understood by a movement from lower- to higher-order thinking. This movement is reflected through content complexity and task difficulty. Understanding culture by experiencing CLIL is both an approach benefit and a Course One goal. Improvement and interaction amongst other Cs (content, communication, cognition) facilitates intercultural understanding (culture). That is, the construction of content knowledge and language, and associated communication around both lead to deeper thinking and learning thus enabling the possibility of better intercultural understanding. Reflection on learners' selves and own culture further enhance this understanding.

The language triptych is a way of understanding the linguistic demands in CLIL and combines three essential interrelated aspects (Coyle et al., 2010). Cataloguing the language demands of each unit via these three aspects allows for systematic expression in course design. The three aspects are as follows. Language of learning centers on language used for accessing a field, subject, theme or topic, and is generally considered to be content-related terminology and longer lexical units. Once identified decisions are made whether to pre-teach, teach in context, gloss or overlook each item. Language for learning focuses on language needed to operate in a learning environment where a range of speech acts are necessary. Planned, transparent support and scaffolding for this language allows a degree of guidance in terms of what language learners are encouraged to use and a degree of control over removing scaffolding. Language through learning highlights language needed when learners articulate understanding and thinking, especially at deeper levels. This aspect needs to be observed in classroom discourse then captured and recycled to facilitate learning.

Cummins' matrix (1984) is a cognitive framework often adapted for CLIL contexts (Coyle et al., 2010). The vertical axis focuses on the cognitive demands while the horizontal axis of the matrix focuses on the linguistic demands of CLIL. A lesson or unit will move from quadrant 1 to 3 thus encapsulating linguistic and cognitive development. However, Coyle et al. (2010) note this is not an immediately attained outcome as extended learning in quadrant 2 will "move the learner systematically over a period of time to quadrant 3" (p.44). Instead, quadrant 3 can be viewed as an idealized goal.

Progress across the quadrants can be described across lessons, units and entire courses.

Scope and Sequence

Course One is a 15-week course with institutional aims of improving language proficiency and intercultural understanding via study on Australia. Thus, the course focuses on understanding Australian culture through Australian English (AusE) and sits within the intercultural studies discipline. Published studies and a selection of reference books were consulted in order to determine what themes and content focus areas would suitable. Four themes, each with two content foci, were chosen based upon their frequency in literature and their perceived markedness in AusE, and thus cultural importance (Appendix A). Extracts from six corpora and three dictionaries were also utilized in the content selection process with extracts included in the scoping and sequencing stages, and subsequent materials design stages.

Each unit follows a three-lesson cycle modelled on the aforementioned Cummins' matrix. Units begin with vocabulary and lexis learning as homework. The first lesson of each unit includes simpler, shorter texts and tasks. The second lesson builds upon the language and concepts learnt in the first lesson and include longer more complex texts and tasks. The more challenging third lesson includes an analysis task where learners apply unit concepts to authentic texts and videos or corpus data and concludes with a series of expository writing tasks. This unit cycle is followed twice before any major assessment. Unit progression across Course One moves from more concrete or observable themes and content to more abstract or hidden ones. Thus, later course stages require more complex language and deeper thinking. The careful and considered staging and sequencing of CLIL course elements allows for progression through Cummins' matrix quadrants (Banegas, 2010). The matrix and sequencing was applied to all lessons, units, and Course One as a whole, and is also prominent in Course Two.

The nature of AusE content and unavailability of learner appropriate material meant a bottom-up approach to course development was required, but a strong link to the field was maintained by utilizing research and corpus data. Texts were written following Moore and Lorenzo's (2007) discursification approach so they matched the linguistic and cognitive abilities of the learners at particular points in the unit or course cycle. Support for language learning in Course One was provided in several ways: essential vocabulary and lexis was identified and incorporated into the unit preparation homework or taught within texts or tasks, non-essential vocabulary that impedes comprehension was glossed, language frames were provided alongside tasks allowing learner deployment as needed. Support for content learning was provided in two modes: planned (visual prompts and organizers to aid understanding, or additional texts or videos) and unplanned (teacher explanations and additional questions to guide content understanding via classroom discourse). In Course One, four assessment methods were utilized spanning all 4Cs (Coyle et al., 2010) assessing content and language in some manner: unit quizzes, research analysis reports, learner participation, Self-Access Learning Centre tasks. The quizzes assessed unit vocabulary and lexis, and recall of facts and concepts (content, communication). The reports required the learners to undertake analysis of authentic materials based on two prior unit themes and were graded on depth of analysis, understanding and use of unit content and language, and appropriateness and accuracy of writing (content, communication, cognition, culture) and were preceded by preparatory guided homework tasks on analysis and report writing. Learner participation was based on homework and classroom task completion, and contribution to meaning-making and negotiation during said tasks (content, communication, culture). The self-access tasks were designed to foster autonomous learning outside the classroom and provide broader cultural understanding of Australia via additional topic areas not in the course materials (cognition, culture).

Manifestation of Course and Materials

Course 2

Specific Frameworks

Course 2's content is modern Western art history, it is in its seventh iteration, and is taught at the same institution as Course 1. The design of Course 2 has three controlling influences: the institution's curriculum objectives; media-arts curriculum objectives provided by the Australian government; and Benjamin Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain (ACARA, 2020; Anderson et al., 2001). The main theoretical premise of Course 2 is that cognition is central to the integration of language and content. Therefore, this course begins with cognition as the ordinate aspect in the syllabus design and allows the 4Cs (content, communication, culture) to be illustrated. Thought is how students process content, these thoughts are constructed through language within the mind, and then transmitted through meaningful language (Dalton-Puffer, 2016; Thompson, 2013). To illustrate: a course on visual history would require students develop their abilities to describe works of art, and this is a learning that necessitates both thought and speech competencies in order to communicate meanings. Further, the dialogic expression of these meanings allows for co-construction of knowledge between learners. This mirrors the language triptych: functional language is needed to interact (language for learning); language in the mind is used to process content (language of learning); and, less represented in Course 2's design, the language learned through learner needs (Coyle et al., 2010).

The functional model of language indicates that certain subject disciplines will produce certain patterned ways of speaking, and by extension, patterned manners of thought (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Morton, 2020). In CLIL literature, scholars such as Morton (2020) define disciplinary literacy as specific ways of thinking contained by an academic field. While an SFL perspective may view these staged interactions of speech as genres, Coffin (2017) sees them as micro-genres, as they apply to the smaller speech-act level of language, rather than the entire interactive repertoire of a subject. Dalton-Puffer (2013, 2016) sees these speech acts as simple or episodic combinations of communicative intent, and offers a construct for categorising them and their cognitive analogues, allowing domain-specific patterns of cognition to be identified. This has been helpful in framing the theory for designing Course 2, but making epistemological claims on what should constitute the ideal literacy of any particular discipline is outside the bounds of her construct.

Therefore, it was necessary to identify the thought competencies specific to the discipline while concurrently satisfying the institution's linguistic and content-based objectives for the course. The subject-specific competencies were taken from the publicly available Australian secondary media-arts curriculum (ACARA, 2020), the institutional objectives came directly from the university. The Australian curricular objectives are written as competencies rather than items mirroring the cognitive theories above, but they do not designate linguistic outcomes, allowing a practitioner the flexibility to decide. These competencies can be understood as speech acts with inherent communicative intents.

There are multiple media-arts curricular objectives offered by the Australian government, and they become more sophisticated as they spiral up through student grades, implying a cognitive hierarchy. The university objectives are general, allowing the flexibility that promotes the ground-up approaches to CLIL mentioned previously in this paper. First, the course must contain an emphasis on micro-skills associated with EAP. This was taken to be a linguistic objective, and the items themselves were recycled from pre-requisite courses in the programme. Further, this was taken to imply CALP as an objective, as it frequently is in EAP courses, and this implies progressively more difficult cognitive operations for academic language. The second institutional objective is to examine issues related to globalism from various perspectives. This echoes the general MEXT intercultural goals for the language curriculum (MEXT, 2020), although unlike MEXT, it does not conflate language and intercultural content, it states a content focus, which in this model of syllabus design implies cognition is required to process ideas. The subject choice of Western art history influenced decisions on which Australian media-arts competencies would be most beneficial in promoting the institution's goals. These were then filtered through Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain (Bloom's). The exact objectives designated to be used were selected intuitively and iteratively due to the necessity of balancing them with

institution's objectives as well as attempting to locate them within Bloom's Taxonomy. Figure 1 gives an overview of this process.
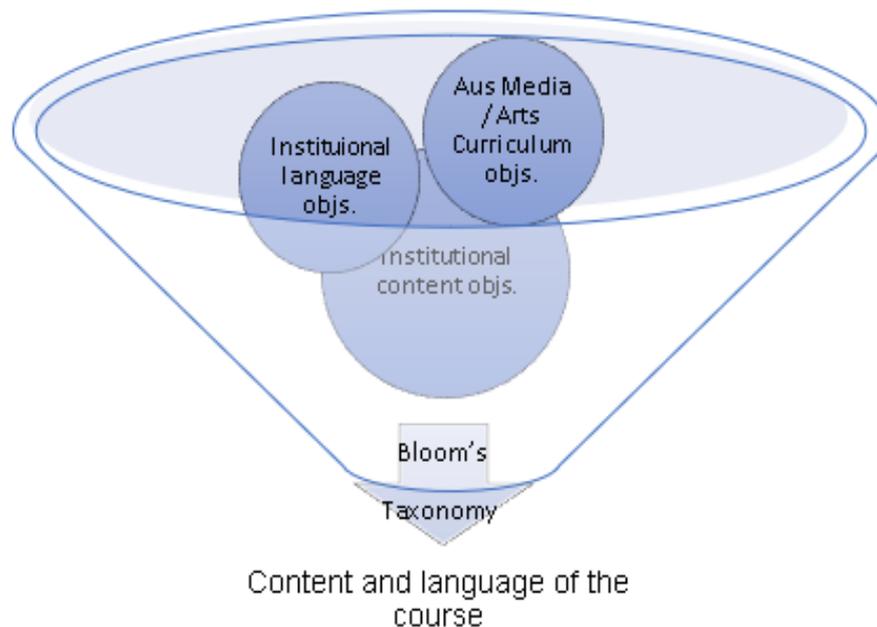
Figure 1
Objectives and Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain

Scope and Sequence

Course 2 progresses for 14 weeks, following a four-week activity cycle, with the remaining lesson reserved for administration and contingencies. The content moves chronologically through Western art periods of the modern era. Refer to Appendix B for the scope and sequence document. Bloom's Taxonomy was used as the controlling framework for sequencing cognition.

Bloom's Taxonomy is a ubiquitous, 6-strata hierarchical thinking skills scheme, which well reflects both the basal and meso-theoretical underpinnings of the curriculum and syllabus. A premise of Bloom's Taxonomy is that learners require competency in lower-order thinking skills in order to use the higher-orders, and, the language is controlled by the cognitive progression: it takes more complex thought to produce more complex speech (Anderson et al., 2001). Course 2 has a new Bloom's foci roughly every two weeks,

ensuring that students have progressively more challenging cognitive and linguistic requirements. Bloom's also allows cognitive demands to be closer to students' ZPD. This is done both reactively within lessons, and in reflective phases of the design process. A further advantage of applying Bloom's is that in combination with content choices, it allows for controlling the recommended progression within Cummins' matrix (Coyle et. al., 2010). This is well matched with the cognitive progression seen in the Australian Media-arts curriculum. There is some debate over whether educational cognition actually functions in this hierarchical manner, and for this reason the scheme was applied as a heuristic (Dalton-Puffer, 2013). A deliberately fuzzy application of Bloom's means that as an organising construct it can be more flexible, allowing attention to be paid to other objectives. The content itself, modern art, arguably moves from the representational towards abstract as it progresses chronologically, and this is fortunate coincidence in how it can be seen as mimicking

the increasing abstraction of the Bloom's taxonomical descriptors.

The actual items of art history content come from major art institutions' websites and major publisher's art history textbooks. This language is processed in a similar manner to Course One before it is put into materials, and it is subordinate to the other objectives and Bloom's. Students are assessed in presentations in weeks four, eight and 14. Although weekly student homework does contain some recall of subject-specific lexical items, the course leans towards assessing function over form. In presentations and most other submissions, answers are judged correct if they show evidence of applying the cognitive skill to content, and surface-level linguistic errors are often disregarded. See Appendix C for a demonstration of how objectives are operationalised into activities.

Discussion

In this paper, theoretical underpinnings of two syllabi have been examined in detail. The specific differences in theoretical orientation are that Course 1 begins with the 4Cs framework and adds further refinements, while Course 2's primary theoretical focus is discipline-specific cognition. In terms of the Hard-Soft CLIL continuity (Ball, 2015), Course 1 is softer. This can be seen with its clearer focus on language form, its utilization of Long's (2015) third way, and evidenced in its assessments. This may also be a product of its content choice being a highly linguistic theme. Course 2 operates on the harder side of the continuum, with content and cognition ordering language, and with linguistic form subordinate to function. However, this is tempered by being a course within a language curriculum. Although there are identifiable differences in the courses, they are both able to be located relative to each other, as well as to fundamental CLIL frameworks. Both courses occur in the same national and institutional situation, and with cohorts of very similar consistency, they exist in almost identical contexts. The main contextually differentiating feature of the courses is that they were developed by different teachers, therefore, the choices of teachers regarding CLIL can be divergent even when operating in very similar contextual bounds. The authors suggest that implementations of CLIL are not

only highly variable dependent on context but also dependent on practitioners, and the content choices they have made. The differences between how teachers develop a course seem likely to be related to their beliefs and attitudes, and these related to the previous educational and professional experiences. However, this discrepancy could also be accounted for by more mundane differences, such as time available to dedicate to course development.

Despite their differences, both courses have legitimate claims to being CLIL. Both have theoretically informed stances, and this allows coherence in curriculum, as well as more likelihood of integration. We refer you to further reading that could be influential in framing your approach to CLIL syllabus design (Coyle et al., 2010; Hemmi & Banegas, 2021; Ikeda et al., 2022; Llinares & Morton, 2017; Tsuchiya & Pérez Murillo, 2019).

References

Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA). *The Australian Curriculum*. Retrieved September 01, 2020: https://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/

Anderson, L. W., Krathwohl, D. R., & Bloom, B. S. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: a revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives*. New York, New York: Longman.

Ball, P. (2015). CLIL, English teachers and the three dimensions of content. *Modern English Teacher*, *24*(2), 15–20.

Banegas, D. L. (2010). Three frameworks for developing CLIL materials. *Folio*, *14*(2), 28–30.

Brown, H., & Bradford, A. (2017). EMI, CLIL, & CBI: Differing approaches and goals. *Transformation in Language Education*. Tokyo, Japan: JALT, August, 328–334.

Butler, C. S. (2003). *Structure and function. A guide to three major structural-functional theories. Part 1: The simplex clause*. John Benjamins Publishing Company

Coffin, C. (2017). Introduction to part ii: systemic functional linguistics: a theory for integrating content-language learning (CLL). In Llinares, A. & Morton (Eds.), *Applied Linguistics Perspectives on CLIL* (pp. 91–103). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning*. Cambridge, United Kingdom. Cambridge University Press.

Cummins, J. (1979). Cognitive/academic language proficiency, linguistic interdependence, the optimum age question and some other matters. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, *19*, 121–129.

Cummins, J. (1984). Wanted: A theoretical framework for relating language proficiency to academic achievement among bilingual students. In C. Rivera (Ed.), *Language proficiency and academic achievement* (pp. 2–19). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2013). A construct of cognitive discourse functions for conceptualising content-language integration in CLIL and multilingual education. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *1*(2), 216-253.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2016). Cognitive discourse functions: Specifying an integrative interdisciplinary construct. In T. Nikula, E. Dafouz-Milne, P.Moore, & U. Smit (Eds.), *Conceptualising Integration in CLIL and Multilingual Education* (pp. 29–54). Bristol, Blue Ridge Summit: Multilingual Matters.

Gabillon, Z. (2020). Revisiting CLIL: Background, pedagogy, and theoretical underpinnings. *Contextes et Didactiques*, *15*, 88-116.

Griffiths, M. (2021). Mapping the terrain of content and language integrated learning in Japanese universities. *The Journal of the Japan CLIL Pedagogy Association*, *3*, 110-133.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2014). *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (Fourth Ed.). London, United Kingdom. Routledge.

Hashimoto, K., & Glasgow, G. P. (2019). CLIL for who? Commodification of english-medium courses in Japan's higher education. In I. Liyanage & T. Walker (Eds.), *Multilingual Education Yearbook 2019: Media of Instruction & Multilingual Settings* (pp. 103–119). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

Hemmi, C., & Banegas, D. L. (2021). *International Perspectives on CLIL*. Cham, Switzerland. Palgrave Macmillan.

Ikeda, M. (2019). CLIL in comparison with PPP: A revolution in ELT by competency-based language education. In H. Reinders, S. Ryan, & S. Nakamura (Eds.), *Innovation in Language Teaching and Learning: The Case of Japan* (pp. 23–45). Cham, Switzerland: Palgrave Macmillan.

Ioannou Georgiou, S. (2012). Reviewing the puzzle of CLIL. ELT Journal, 66(4), 495–504.

Llinares, A. & Morton, T. (2017). *Applied Linguistics Perspectives on CLIL*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Long, M. (2015). *SLA and the fundamental LT divide. In Second Language Acquisition and Task-based Language Teaching* (pp. 16–29). Chichester, West Sussex: Wiley-Blackwell.

McNamara, S. (2016) A CLIL approach to syllabus development utilizing taxonomies from the cognitive domain. *Kwansei Gakuin University Journal of Policy Studies*, *52*, 25-30.

Meyer, O. (2010). Towards quality-CLIL: Successful planning and teaching strategies. *Pulso: Revista de Educación*, *33*, 11–29.

Moore, P., & Lorenzo, F. (2007). Adapting authentic materials for CLIL classrooms: An empirical study. *Vienna English Working Papers*, 16(3), 28–35.

Morton, T. (2020). A bridge between content, literacy and language for teaching and assessment in CLIL. *CLIL Journal of Innovation and Research in Plurilingual and Pluricultural Education*, *3*(1), 7–17.

Pinner, R. (2013). Authenticity of purpose: CLIL as a way to bring meaning and motivation into EFL contexts. *Asian EFL Journal*, *15*(4), 138–159.

Thompson, G. (2013). *Introducing Functional Grammar* (3rd ed.). London, United Kingdom: Routledge.

Tsuchiya, K. & Pérez Murillo, M.D. (2019). *Content and Language Integrated Learning in Spanish and Japanese Contexts: Policy, Practice and Pedagogy*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society*. In M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribener, & E. Souberman (Eds.). Cambridge, England: Harvard University Press

Appendices

Appendix A.

Scope and Sequence of Course One

Lesson	Unit	Content	Assessment
1	Introduction	The Story of Australian English - Geography, history, language, culture	
2			
3	1 Phonology	Characteristics of AusE vowels	
4		AusE Accents - Broad, general, cultivated	
5		AusE Accent Analysis	Unit 1 Quiz
6	2 Lexicon	Words connected to Australian culture - Mate, bloody, larrikin, bogan	
7		Hypocoristics - Mozzies, prezzie, veggies, Maccas	
8		Transcript analysis	Unit 2 Quiz
9	3 Grammar	Narrative Tenses - Historical present	Accent/Lexi-con Analysis
10		Differences to other English varieties - Quasi modals	
11		Transcript analysis	Unit 3 Quiz
12	4 Discourse	Similarities to American English - 'Like' as a discourse marker	
13		Uniqueness of AusE - Final particle 'but'	
14		Transcript analysis	Unit 4 Quiz
15	Final Lesson	Future Directions of Australian English	Grammar/ Discourse Analysis

Appendix B.
Scope and Sequence of Course Two, Adapted from McNamara (2016)

	Bloom's Descriptor	Art Period/ Content	Lesson Objectives	Language Objective.	Cycle
1	Evaluation	All	Intros; diagnostics	Conversation; visual vocabulary	1
2	Knowledge	Realism	Describing colour and line	Adjs., nouns of shape and size	1
3	Knowledge	Impressionism	Describing colour and line	Adj. lists; prepositions of location	1
4	Comprehension	Post-impressionism	Summarizing and rephrasing historical content	Sequencing language; prepositions of time	1
5	Comprehension	Fauvism	Biography genre; summarising biography	Sequencing language; biography specific language	2
6	Application	Futurism	Discussing principles of political history (Fascism)	Imperatives	2
7	Application	Cubism	Instructing on principles of differing visual perspective	Imperatives	2
8	All Prior	-	Presentation/ Assessment	All	2
9	Analysis	Expressionism	Comparing political perspectives	Comparatives: adjs.	3
10	Analysis	Dada	Comparing Social perspectives	Comparatives: adjs., and sentences.	3
11	Synthesis	Surrealism	Predicting impact; speculating on meaning	Conditionals; modals (future)	3
12	Synthesis	Abstract Expressionism	Speculating on meaning	Hedging language; modals (might)	3
13	Evaluation	Pop	Assessing success of works	Hedging; declaratives	None
14	Evaluation	All	Assessment; reflection	All	None

Appendix C.
Course Two: Content, Cognition, Objectives, and Activity Planner

Content	Realism (late 19c)	Fauvism	Italo-futurism, Fascism (1909-1944)
Media-Arts Descriptor	"Make observations on visual aspects of media"	"build on understandings on the role of artists.."	"consider context that creates process in art production"
Bloom's descriptor	Knowledge: report what you have learned	Comprehension: summarise and rephrase content	Application: discuss rules and principles
Language Objs.	Describing colour and line: colour adjs.; prepositions of locations; adj. lists	Sequencing language; biography specific language	Procedural language; giving instructions; imperatives
Prompt example	Describe the palette. Where is his left hand?	What happened in Matisse' life before and after this was painted	What are the principles of how this work was constructed? Tell me how to make this art.

Adapting a Model UN for High School EFL Students of Various Levels

Edward Escobar
Kyoto Gaidai Nishi High School

Abstract

Model United Nations has been growing in popularity within the last 32 years as an active-learning educational conference for high school students in Japan for the purpose of raising awareness in global issues as well as allowing participants to convey creative, logical, and critical output to formulate solutions to world problems in a L2 environment. Many schools are taking interest in either participating in or hosting a Model UN for their students; however, as a Model UN is mostly conducted in English, teachers may question whether their students can successfully participate due to either low EFL levels or a lack of understanding in global issues. This paper utilizes ongoing action research to answer questions pertaining to how a Model UN can be adapted for high school students of various EFL levels to participate, especially regarding what topics to choose for debate and discussion, as well as how to prepare students for successfully participating in a Model UN through simple scaffolding techniques and idea formation, despite their EFL levels.

日本語概要

模擬国連は、グローバルな問題に対する意識を高め、L2環境で世界の問題を解決するために創造的、論理的、批判的にアウトプットすることを目的とした、日本の高校生のためのアクティブラーニング型教育会議として、この32年間で成長を続けています。しかし、模擬国連はほとんど英語で行われるため、教師は生徒のEFLレベルが低い、あるいはグローバルな問題に対する理解が不足しているために、生徒がうまく参加できるかどうか疑問に思うかもしれない。この論文では、現在進行中のアクションリサーチを利用して、様々なEFLレベルの高校生が参加できるように模擬国連をどのように適応させることができるか、特にディベートやディスカッションのためにどんなトピックを選択するか、また、EFLレベルにもかかわらず、簡単な足場技術とアイデア形成を通して模擬国連にうまく参加できるように生徒をどう準備するか、に関する疑問に答えている。

Model United Nations, also referred to as Model UN or MUN, "…is an extracurricular activity in which students role play delegates to the United Nations (UN), simulate UN committees, and learn about diplomacy, international relations, current world issues, and the UN itself" (United Nations, 2020, p. 8). It is also described as an active, project-based learning experience that integrates both content and language to introduce real world scenarios for students to discuss while implementing creative, logical, and critical thinking skills to come up with solutions to problems (Adamson, 2013; Escobar & McGregor, 2021; Fast, 2012; Zenuk-Nishide, 2014). To ask secondary EFL learners to participate in an MUN conference can seem like a monumental task; for the students who may or may not have the proficiency level to engage meaningfully, for the teacher who may or may not have the experience in preparing students, or for the conference host who may or may not understand how to make sure every participant has a meaningful experience despite the various English levels represented.

This paper outlines several strategies that may be used to address the three concerns mentioned from two perspectives: 1) that of an MUN conference host and 2) that of a teacher preparing students to participate. The strategies are empirical and are being presented without test controls. Though subjective, this method of research, described as ongoing empirical action research, is argued to "…lead to the gradual development of generally valid principles…" (Marrow, 1969, as cited in Adleman, 1993). As such, these strategies have gradually developed (and continue to be developed) using 32 years of first-hand conference and classroom observations, discussions with both student participants and teachers, and feedback by the Kansai High

School Model United Nations Organizing Committee, whose task is to both organize the annual Kansai High School Model United Nations (KHSMUN) conference and prepare students to participate in the conference.

The MUN conference host

English is the Lingua Franca of most MUNs hosted around the world (Tatsuki & Zenuk-Nishide, 2018), meaning that regardless of the participants' L1, English is the dominant language for communication. As such, when hosting an MUN for secondary EFL learners, understanding the proficiency level of the participants can lead to a meaningful experience. In research regarding the implementation of the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) content into EFL education, Jodoin & Singer (2019, p. 56) note that engagement in such content "...work[s] best with students at an intermediate, or at least B1 level on the [CEFR]." However, based on a survey conducted in 2017 by the Japan Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), results revealed that an overwhelming majority of year 3 high school students carried a proficiency level under A2 (文部科学, 2018). Understanding the students' proficiency levels is crucial because when analyzing the CEFR rubric, A2 definitions include phrases such as "slow and clear", "simple English", and "basic everyday vocabulary and expressions" (CEFR-J). An MUN conference is none of these. All student participants will be engaging in discussions within various committees, some will be assigned leadership roles, and most of what takes place will include unscripted or impromptu dialog in English. Such an environment may seem overwhelming and complicated for EFL learners, but as Corpuz (2021, p. 12) argues, "[the] absence of an environment where L2 is required to be spoken is a significant concern... because, without its presence, the students fail to distinguish the importance of learning the language."

From this analysis of student proficiency levels, what decisions or strategies can institutions looking to host an MUN conference, whether as an in-house project or as a multi-school event, do that allows secondary EFL learners of various proficiency levels to participate meaningfully? This section will explore two aspects to be considered in hosting an MUN conference: 1) how to decide an agenda for the conference, and 2) how to balance the means of student participation.

Deciding an agenda

An agenda is a theme that is assigned to an MUN, allowing students to participate with similar knowledge gained from prior studies leading up to the conference. Most MUNs hosted around the world may simulate a variety of committees within the United Nations, with each committee focusing on specific topics related to an agenda that is adopted by the General Assembly at the opening of the meeting. The KHSMUN announces the agenda and its committee topics about 6 months prior to the conference to assure student participants, especially participants with lower proficiency levels, arrive with the knowledge and resources to participate meaningfully.

Regarding choosing an agenda, it is important to explore and choose an agenda that is not only relatable or has a meaningful connection to the conference participants (Hyland, 2002) but can also be researched in both the target language L2 and in their L1.

The first question to consider is whether an agenda is relatable to the conference participants. There are a large amount of world affairs and issues the UN discusses, including sustainable development. High school students, however, circulate their lives around their own personal interests, and many of these interests usually do not focus on these world affairs or sustainable development. So, what would be considered an agenda to which high school students can relate? One example is the KHSMUN's 2021 agenda, The Social Impact of COVID-19 on Children. This agenda can be considered relatable because every participant at that time was exposed to a disruption in learning (Iwabuchi et al., 2022), resulting in school shutdowns or transitions to remote learning. Including the phrase *on children* to an agenda title can increase the relatability of the chosen agenda (e.g., The Impact of Climate Change on Children) as it focuses student participants to discuss issues related to their age group.

The next question to consider is whether an agenda is researchable. According to version 1 of the CEFR-J

CAN-DO rubric, the ability to "...search the internet or reference book and obtain school-related information" represents CEFR-J level B1.2, which if we consider the MEXT survey results mentioned above, greatly under-represents most high school students in Japan. With that perspective in mind, it is important to choose an agenda that can also be self-researched in the participants' L1. Returning to the agenda *The Social Impact of COVID-19 on Children*, with the situation being a world pandemic, KHSMUN Organizing Committee members responsible for student preparation were able to assign the task of locating and reflecting on news articles regularly to students, with students able to locate news articles both in their English L2 and in their Japanese L1[1].

Aside from whether an agenda is both relatable to the MUN participants and researchable, the KHSMUN Organizing Committee surfs through various media outlets to identify probable agenda items. Firstly, the UN publishes plenty of reports through its agencies and committees that both identify current issues and world trends, as well as break down these issues into agenda topics. Secondly, paying attention to local L1 media will also give an idea as to what participants are tuning into at home. A final reference point would be the SDGs as published goals each can contribute to an agenda item.

Balancing the means of student participation

In the UN General Assembly (GA), resolutions are passed through consensus, meaning a resolution is agreed upon by the members of the GA before it is introduced to the floor, either through backdoor meetings or other means of communication. It is a process that is highly encouraged by the UN when hosting an MUN (United Nations, 2020). However, such a process would discourage a majority of secondary EFL learners from participating actively as the CEFR-J rubric does not mention the skill of discussing until B2.1. For this reason, the KHSMUN Organizing Committee has constructed a GA that promotes and balances both verbal participation and non-verbal or low-verbal participation.

Verbal participation is participation that requires an extended use of verbal output. Examples of such participation includes a 90-second speech all delegations give to support a position or idea in relation to the conference agenda, and the engagement of debate through moderation in which participants are encouraged to ask and answer questions pertaining to other delegations' speeches and solution ideas. Both opportunities can be prepared in advance, well before the start of the GA (KHSMUN participants receive a copy of a draft resolution at least 12 hours prior to the start of a GA) which can benefit lower-level EFL learners[2] who would struggle at impromptu opportunities.

Non-verbal or low-verbal participation allows participants to take part in the GA using minimal or no verbal cues. One example of such participation includes opportunities to call a motion, which are prewritten and are regularly invited to be called upon by the GA president (see Kyoto Gaidai Nishi High School, 2022, p. 79). Motions can give a lower-level EFL learner the opportunity to take control of the proceedings of the GA such as motioning for a suspension of the meeting or motioning to move into moderated caucusing. There are also opportunities to vote throughout the GA. These non-verbal or low-verbal means of participating still incorporates the use of the L2 to trigger cognitive responses, and even though data was not available for inclusion into this paper, informal feedback from participants have indicated that meaningful participation has been achieved through low-verbal or non-verbal participation.

The MUN participant preparer

Preparing secondary EFL learners to participate in an MUN conference takes time and requires a content and language integrated approach that both introduces students to topics and world affairs associated with the conference's agenda as well as allow them to provide solutions to problems associated with the provided content. This can be achieved with EFL learners at various levels using 1) identifiable patterns and 2) scaffolding techniques.

Identifiable patterns

Over the course of 32 years, teachers preparing students who also partake in organizing the KHSMUN conference have relied on the following pattern for the purpose of simplifying and categorizing content: 1) what is the problem, 2) what is the cause of the problem, 3) what is the solution to this problem, and 4) what is the effect of the solution to this problem. These categories provide a foundation for comprehending and producing meaningful output that showcases the comprehension of the provided content. It is also utilized as a framework for writing essays and speeches (e.g., the 90-second position speech mentioned in the previous section). If students are tasked with reading a case study, report, or article, they are assigned to locate and record information pertaining to the categories mentioned, or locate information for 1 and 2 before engaging in critical or logical thinking activities to come up with content for 3 and 4. A final realization is that this pattern also represents how a UN resolution is drafted, and so practicing the use of these attributes leads to tasking students with drafting their own resolution for an MUN conference. These categories do not cover all the information that pertains to a conference agenda, but they are not supposed to do so. It instead lays a foundation for students to communicate on topics related to the agenda through cause and effect. Higher level EFL learners will go beyond the foundation of these four categories, but it is the lower level EFL learners that will survive on them.

A second pattern is how to engage in case studies, reports, and articles. Teachers preparing students who also partake in organizing the KHSMUN conference have used the following pattern:

1. Have students read a paraphrased version of the article first. This version is written by the teacher within the parameters of the weakest student's i + 1 (Krashen, 1985, as cited in Gass & Selinker, p. 200), and should include the four attributes, or attributes 1 and 2 as mentioned above.
2. Verify or review unknown or low-frequency vocabulary that was both in the paraphrased version of the article and the original.
3. Identify the problem(s), cause of problem(s), solution(s), and effects of the solution(s) of the paraphrased version through discussion or other activities.
4. Introduce the original article with the goal of identifying additional information.

The information gathered from the reading is used to bridge content within the four attributes mentioned above into a flowchart that will be discussed below.

Scaffolding techniques

Scaffolding is "...the support provided to learners to enable them to perform tasks which are beyond their capacity" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 507). It represents a series of building blocks used to assist students to reach goals set by the teacher. There can be a lot of material, case studies and other articles that relate to the MUN conference agenda, but without scaffolding the content into material and activities that allow lower-level EFL learners to intake the content, most students will find the material meaningless, or worse yet, become amotivational. The list and explanations below demonstrate a framework for scaffolding a topic related to an MUN agenda as part of a 12-15 class hour[3] curriculum.

Prerequisites

Prior to introducing MUN agenda-related content, students should have experience in utilizing the patterns mentioned above, have some experience in persuasive communication (e.g., debate), and a basic understanding of the SDGs.

Vocabulary

Prior to introducing MUN agenda-related content, poaching possibly unknown or low-frequency vocabulary words and phrases from content to support pre-reading activities can provide some support to lower-level EFL learners whose knowledge of the vocabulary in reading materials provided is less than 95% (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p. 186). This vocabulary is expected to be reviewed frequently[4], especially while engaging in case studies, reports, and articles as mentioned above.

Develop a relation between the topic and the students

As was discussed earlier, it is important that an MUN agenda be relatable to the students participating, and activities should be used to demonstrate and

strengthen that relation. One example of activities used for the 2021 KHSMUN conference, *The Social Impact of COVID-19 on Children*, incorporated the Convention on the Rights of the Child, asking students to analyze their own rights as a child before comparing their relation to the information of the content material (see Appendix A).

Develop a review flowchart

Once students are introduced to content material, visualizing the information into a flowchart that demonstrates their knowledge and understanding of cause and effect (i.e., this problem is happening because…) gives them the opportunity to begin developing ideas of solutions to problems discussed. This flowchart is also used to make sure every student in the class has the same information through class collaboration, which is beneficial for lower-level EFL learners who may otherwise struggle with the content on their own (see Appendix B).

Case studies, reports, and articles

Case studies are used to solidify and expand the information students wrote in their flowcharts, following the pattern introduced above. As students gather more information from these readings, they should be encouraged to return to the flowchart and add any new information, sharing their new findings with the class.

Construct operative clauses and speeches for MUN procedural practice

At this point, students should have a treasure trove of information in their flowcharts that can be used to write clauses for a draft resolution, as well as write a speech that outlines their position on the topic being studied within the MUN conference agenda. These written outputs can then be used to practice MUN procedures.

Each procedure above works off the previously listed procedure, allowing students, especially lower-level EFL learners the tools to feed off previously learned material and patterns.

Conclusion

A Model United Nations, whether from the perspective of a host or a teacher preparing students, can seem like a monumental task to put together. Feedback from PanSIG 2022 supports this notion, with one participant stating, "I understand it's rather complicated to explain everything a model UN entails but as someone with zero experience on the subject, I felt like I still don't grasp how to run one" (Escobar, 2022). Even though this paper is not a MUN how-to explanation, there are a few strategies the KHSMUN Organizing Committee implements every year based on 32 years of ongoing empirical action research to ensure the KHSMUN conference is meaningful for its participants representing various L2 proficiency levels. The strategies should be viewed as subjective, but should not be overlooked (Shumsky, 1969) as they represent a gradual development and improvement of practice (Hammersley, 1993). And even if you decide that participating in or hosting an MUN is not the direction you would like to take, the strategies discussed can still be utilized for content and language integrated classes, or projects that engage in current issues or world affairs, despite the proficiency level of students being taught.

Notes

[1] Over the course of 15 weeks from January to June 2021, students were assigned 7 tasks of locating news articles related to the agenda's topic at the time and/or their assigned country and recording a video review that demonstrates their understanding of the article.

[2] EFL learners with a proficiency level of CEFR-J A2.1 and below would find it challenging to give a position speech based on the CEFR-J A2.2: Speaking: Spoken production description: "I can give an opinion or explain a plan of action concisely giving some reasons, using a series of simple words and phrases and sentences." Engaging in debate about a participant's speech content, EFL learners with a proficiency level of CEFR-J B1.1 and below would find it challenging based on the CEFR-J B1.2: Speaking: Spoken production description: "…I can take a series of questions from the audience, responding in a way that they can understand."

[3] One class hour in this explanation is 45-50 minutes.

[4] As an example, the author conducts vocabulary quizzes every class as a warmup.

References

Adelman, C. (1993). Kurt Lewin and the origins of action research. *Educational Action Research*, *1*(1), 7-24. DOI: 10.1080/0965079930010102

Adamson, C. (2013). Learning to make a difference at the Model United Nations. *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*, 558-568.

CEFR-J本体: 英語版 (Version 1.0) [CEFR-J Body: English Version] [PDF document]. http://www.cefr-j.org/download.html

Corpuz, A.D. (2021). Struggles and Successes of High School Students Studying Second language. *Osaka JALT Journal*, *8*, 10-26.

Escobar, E. & McGregor, A. (2021, February 13) A Model UN in A New Age of Social Distancing [Video]. *Kyoto JALT Community Spotlight*. https://kyotojalt.org/?p=947

Escobar, E. (2022). [Post-Presentation Survey] [Unpublished raw data], *PanSIG 2022: (Re) Imagining Language Education*.

Fast, T. (2012) Model United Nations in the ESOL Classroom. *The 2012 Pan-SIG Proceedings: Literacy: SIGnals of Emergence*, 79-85.

Gass, S.M. & Selinker, L. (2001). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course* (2nd Ed.). Pearson Education.

Grabe, W. & Stroller, F.L. (2002). *Teaching and Researching Reading* (C.N. Candlin & D.R. Hall Ed.). Pearson Education.

Hammersley, M. (1993). On the Teacher as Researcher. *Educational Action Research*. *1*(3), 425-445. DOI: 10.1080/0965079930010308

Hyland, K. (2002). *Teaching and Researching Writing* (C.N. Candlin & D.R. Hall Ed.). Pearson Education.

Iwabuchi, K., Hodama, K., Onishi, Y., Miyazaki, S., Nakae, S., Suzuki, K.H. (2022). Covid-19 and Education on the Front Lines in Japan: What Caused Learning Disparities and How Did the Government and Schools Take Initiative?. In: Reimers, F.M. (eds) *Primary and Secondary Education During Covid-19*. Springer, Cham. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-030-81500-4_5

Jodin, J.J. & Singer, J. (2019). A Framework for Integrating Education for Sustainable Development. *Osaka JALT Journal*, *6*, 51-66.

Kyoto Gaidai Nishi High School (2022). *The Kansai High School Model United Nations* (7th Ed.) [PDF document]. https://www.khsmun.com/2016/resources/KHSMUN_MANUAL_v7.02.pdf

Richards, J.C. & Schmidt, R. (2010). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (4th Ed.). Pearson Education.

Shumsky, A. (1962). The Subjective Experience of the Researcher. *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, *36*(3), 134–138. DOI: 10.2307/2264191

Tatsuki, D.H. & Zenuk-Nishide, L. (2018). MUN Perspectives on Teaching and Learning: A Focus on Negotiation. *Journal of Research Institute*, *58*, 1-5. http://id.nii.ac.jp/1085/00002255/

Theberge, C.L. (1994). Small-Group vs. Whole-Class Discussion: Gaining the Floor in Science Lessons [Paper presentation]. *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, New Orleans, LA, United States. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED373983.pdf

United Nations (2020). *United Nations Guide to Model UN*. United Nations Publications.

Zenuk-Nishide, L. (2014). Rationale and Theoretical Foundation for a Model United Nations Class. *Journal of Foreign Studies*, *64*(2), 33-52. http://id.nii.ac.jp/1085/00001642/

文部科学省 (2018). 平成29年度 英語力調査結果（中学３年生・高校３年生）の概要 [*Summary of 2017 English Proficiency Survey Results (third-year junior and senior high school students)*] [PDF document]. https://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/kokusai/gaikokugo/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2018/04/06/1403470_01_1.pdf

Appendix A
Activity worksheets to assist in fostering a relation between the agenda topic and the students

YOUR RIGHTS AS A CHILD

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child is an important agreement by countries who have promised to protect children's rights.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child explains who children are, all their rights, and the responsibilities of governments.

Vocabulary:	日本語
The United Nations	_____
Rights of the Child (children's rights)	_____
Agreement	_____

A child is any person under the age of _____.

15   18   21

A decision about a child (about anything) can be made based on which status?

	It's okay	It's NOT okay
Race		
Skin color		
Sex		
Language		
Religion		
Opinion		
National, ethnic, or social origin		
Disability		
Birth		

Every child has the *inherent* (_____日本語) right to life; to *survive* (_____日本語) and to *develop* (_____日本語).

Make a list. What do children need to live, to survive, and to develop?

YOUR RIGHTS TO AN EDUCATION

Read the list below. Are these true in Japan?

	Yes, very true!	Somewhat true	No, not true at all
Primary education should be free.			
Secondary and higher education should be available to every child.			
Children should be encouraged to go to school to the highest level possible.			
Discipline in schools should respect children's rights and never use violence.			
Children's education should help them fully develop their personalities, talents, and abilities.			
Children's education should teach them to understand their own rights, and to respect other people's rights, cultures and differences.			
Children's education should help them to live peacefully and protect the environment.			

How do you rate education rights in Japan?

Excellent   10—9—8—7—6—5—4—3—2—1   Terrible

Do you think all countries have the same education rights as Japan? Make a list below about why some countries might NOT have the same education rights as Japan.

4

Appendix B

Photo shows students sharing information recorded from a flowchart (figure below)

Ainu Language Learning Through Synchronous and Asynchronous Online Methods

Matthew James Cotter
Hokusei Gakuen University Junior College

Takayuki Okazaki
Kindai University

Jennifer Louise Teeter
Kyoto Seika University

Adam Jenkins
Shizuoka Institute of Science and Technology

Abstract
While UNESCO classified the Ainu language as critically endangered in 2009, stakeholders continue to engage in preservation and revival efforts in a variety of capacities. An Ainu language class developed in March 2021, amidst the COVID-19 pandemic, adopted a new hybrid style of language learning. An adapted form of Te Ataarangi, a community-based Māori language learning method originating in Aotearoa (New Zealand), is utilized for the 90-minute weekly sessions held live on Zoom and further supplemented with self-access Moodle activities. Class participants (n=30) include both Ainu and non-Ainu of varying nationalities, ages, vocations and levels of Ainu language ability. However, all participants are dedicated to Ainu language revitalization. The mixed hybrid delivery had unique sets of challenges for both the synchronous and asynchronous components.

日本語概要
UNESCOは2009年にアイヌ語を極めて深刻な消滅の危機にある言語と分類したが、アイヌ語関係者は様々な立場で保存や継承、復興の努力を続けている。本稿では、COVID-19が流行した2021年3月に開発された、新しいハイブリッド型の言語習得スタイルを採用したアイヌ語の授業に焦点を当てる。アオテアロア（ニュージーランド）のコミュニティ中心のマオリ語習得法であるテ・アタアランギを応用したこの授業では、毎週90分のセッションがZoomで開催され、さらに自身でアクセスするMoodleのアクティビティで補足される。アイヌと非アイヌの参加者は30人に及び、国籍、年齢、職業、アイヌ語能力レベルなど様々であるが、アイヌ語復興に尽力する人たちである。このハイブリッド型授業が、同期型・非同期型それぞれにおいて抱える課題について考察する。

"Kanto or wa yaku sak no a=ranke p sinep ka isam
カント オロワ ヤク サク ノ アランケプ シネプ カ イサム
天から役目なしに降ろされたものはひとつもない
Every single thing that comes from heaven, has a role on this earth."

– Ainu proverb

Any visitor to Nibutani will encounter this proverb on the window of the restaurant owned by the Sekine family in Nibutani, a town in Hokkaido with a disproportionately high population of Ainu people. Despite the 2009 UNESCO classification of the Ainu language as critically endangered, people like Sekine Kenji, an Ainu language teacher and his daughter Sekine Maya who has her own YouTube channel to spread knowledge of the Ainu language, have not given up hope in revitalizing their heritage tongue. Other stakeholders, those with an invested interest in the survival of the Ainu language, are also engaged in revitalization efforts ranging from government-funded and private Ainu lessons in person and classes in elementary schools in areas where the known Ainu population is proportionally high.

This paper describes an Ainu language class developed in March 2021, amidst the COVID-19 pandemic, that adopted a new hybrid style of language learning. In response to the need to adapt to the pandemic, the hybrid style made use of synchronous lessons using Zoom, as well as asynchronous learning activities on Moodle. These classes draw upon the Te Ataarangi language learning method founded in Aotearoa New Zealand in 1979, which is grounded in Māori cultural elements, and based on the understanding that languages are a "social resource of a secure personal identity" (Hond, 2013). Outlined first will be the background behind the development of the Te Ataarangi method in Aotearoa New Zealand, then a summary of how the Ainu language has reached its current situation.

Language Loss and Revival

Aotearoa New Zealand – Māori

When former New Zealand associate Minister of Health Tariana Turia (2011), who is Māori, the tangata whenua (indigenous people) of Aotearoa, expressed in her speech that it only took only one generation to lose a language, and at least three generations to restore it, she was speaking from experience. British colonization of New Zealand starting from the 1870s wrought immense harm on the indigenous Māori and continues to affect generation after generation (Pool, 2011). The survival of Māori language and culture were particularly impacted by the confiscation of Māori-owned land and government policies of assimilation and integration.

Seizure of land, largely for engaging in open rebellion against the crown, saw the majority of Māori land transfer to government or private settler ownership (Figure 1) over a mere 80 years (McAloon, 2008). Coupled with the loss of resources from the land, Māori faced a loss of income and way of life. Subsequent urbanization of Māori communities led to disconnection from tribal roots, language, customs and knowledge.

FIGURE 1

Loss of Māori land in the North Island of New Zealand (McAloon, 2008)

As urbanization progressed, the colonial government changed its assimilation policies to integration, due to increased blending of Māori and settler populations, largely through the imposition of European education on Māori children. Early anthropologists regarded the Māori language as 'a stone-age tongue' (Best, 1992) and from 1814, missionaries established "Native Schools" to 'save the Māori barbarians'. By enforcing an entirely English-language curriculum, heavy on European pedagogies that Māori children were unaccustomed to, the government and missionaries alike intended to eradicate the Māori language and culture. Māori children faced physical punishment for speaking Māori in school; this continued for decades contributing to massive declines in Māori language use (Al-Mahrooqui et al, 2012). Missionaries aimed to turn Māori into 'brown Europeans' so that Christian ideals could be upheld and a complete transfer of power would shift to the settler government.

From the mid 1800s and under these circumstances, Māori suffered a cataclysmic loss of land, power, political influence, economic stability, and cultural and spiritual strength. Self and group pride and identity were further damaged by the discrimination Māori faced

for looking physically different from European settlers. Being cut off from Māori knowledge, language and community, many Māori sat in a confusing limbo between two cultures, shying away from 'things' Māori. Hume (1993) refers to this phenomenon as the "Cultural Cringe" where Māori internalize oppression and dismiss their own culture as inferior to the dominant culture, accepting the colonizers view of the status quo. Consequently, Māori fared statistically worse in areas of higher education, employment, poverty, crime, and physical and mental health in comparison to non-Māori. This steadily worsened over the next 100 years (Marriott & Sim, 2014). With the government providing little to no support, Māori self-determination groups took matters into their own hands and embarked on a journey to reclaim their language, culture and pride. At the start of the 1970s, Māori elders petitioned the government to start Kōhanga Reo, early child care immersed in the Māori language, to engender a fluent generation of Māori children. After countless organized protests, permission was finally granted, minus funding, and the first Māori Kōhanga Reo was initialized in 1982. By 1991, there were 630 Kōhanga Reo across the country (Rei & Hamon, 1993). With the risk of the students defaulting to mainstream English-medium education after completing Kōhanga Reo, and losing their Māori fluency, the Kura Kaupapa Māori (Māori School of Philosophy) were started in 1987 when Māori was recognized as an official language.

While these initiatives saw success in Māori language fluency at the grassroots level and children were gaining exposure to Māori language, education pedagogies and culture daily, language use at home by parents was key to gaining native fluency. At this stage the Te Ataarangi method made its appearance.

Originally coined by Caleb Gattegno (1963) as the 'Silent Way,' Te Ataarangi was developed by Māori teachers Katerina Te Heikōkō Mataira and Ngoingo Pewharirangi in the 1970s as a technique to get learners speaking. The method utilizes Cuisenaire rods and a strict set of rules based around silence and gestures to elicit attention and active participation from the language learners. For decades, practitioners have been actively training people working in endangered language revitalization in this highly successful technique

(Okazaki, 2015). In Aotearoa it has supported more than 50,000 people to speak Māori and it has been adopted in Hawaii since 2004.

Japan – Ainu

Ainu are an indigenous people of Yaunmosir (Hokkaido), southern Sakhalin, the Kuril Islands, and the northern Tohoku region of Honshu. The Ainu language, descended from the Jomon language (Segawa, 2016), has been spoken for thousands of years. However, with oppression by Japanese encouraged to migrate from Honshu to the southwestern Yaunmosir region from the 15th century and Meiji period (1868-1912) seizure of land, Ainu witnessed a significant language decline. The government justified unilaterally annexation "Hokkaido '' into Japan by regarding the island as terra nullius or not legally occupied. Subsequently, Japanese-imposed land allocation systems and the prohibited Ainu cultural practices, including earrings, tattoos, salmon fishing and deer hunting, the latter two being Ainu diet staples. The government also promoted colonization from Samor mosir (Honshu) and other islands and attempted to assimilate Ainu.

Assimilatory education entirely in Japanese was formally institutionalized in 1899 under the former Aboriginie Protection Act and in 1901 under the Regulations for the Education of former Aboriginie Children (Ogawa, 1991)." Japanese language" continued for half of the classes in a week. Like Māori, Ainu faced a breakdown in intergenerational language transmission while being despised by the majority (Okazaki, 2018). Deprived of land and staple foods, and excluded from their own culture and native language in school, Ainu also suffered a "Cultural Cringe" leading them to speak Japanese rather than Ainu to their children and see their own practices and worldviews as inferior. The decline of the Ainu language is particularly evident among those born in the 1900s as Kaizawa (1931) reported in his book "The Cries of the Ainu":

When speaking in Ainu to young Ainu in their thirties or younger, few understand the language. Today, the only people who use the Ainu language are the elderly, and even they do not use the Ainu language when speak-

ing to the younger generation (Kaizawa, 1998:382).

Ainu language education began to be actively implemented in the 1980s. Shigeru Kayano of Nibutani began teaching the Ainu language to children at his own expense. Initially, Kayano attempted to establish a "language nest" nursery school, similar to Te Kōhanga Reo. However, the Ministry of Health and Welfare refused to approve such a nursery school for language education (Kayano, 2010). Nevertheless, Kayano's Ainu language classes for children expanded to include adults, and the Hokkaido Utari Association (present-day Hokkaido Ainu Association) modelled classes after those in Nibutani, and expanded to include up to 14 classes throughout Hokkaido (Teeter and Okazaki, 2011).

A variety of meaningful projects and classes have been offered by the Foundation for Research and Promotion of Ainu Culture (Okazaki, 2018). However, many are not directly contributing to Ainu language revitalization on their own, from a language acquisition point of view, as learners are not brought together in high enough frequency to ensure a significant level of language acquisition. One exception is the Ainu apprentice program, currently based in Nibutani, where apprentices learn Ainu language for more than 10 hours a week. So much is on the shoulders of each Ainu language learner to spend their own spare time to learn and improve their Ainu language proficiency as it is nearly impossible to find a space where Ainu language is predominantly used. Therefore, it is of particular importance to create an Ainu-only language space where even novice learners can participate.

Te Ataarangi and Ainu

With the opportunity to learn the Te Ataarangi method directly from Māori leaders through Aotearoa Ainumosir Exchange Program in 2013, practitioners began to adapt it to teach Ainu language to learners with no Ainu language knowledge. After experiencing an intensive week-long workshop in Parihaka, Te Ataarangi experts were invited to provide workshops to Ainu language educators to create a common understanding of the approach and developed lesson plans in 2013, 2014 and 2018. Ainu educators also visited Te Ataarangi classes in Aotearoa in 2015, and 2016. While

Ainu language educators have taken on some aspects of Te Ataarangi into their teaching pedagogies, classes based entirely on the method were only offered in Nibutani by Kenji Sekine, a leading Ainu language educator and the main teacher of the online class detailed in this paper. However, many learners, workshop participants, and those wanting to study Ainu live far from Nibutani, and are remote from each other. The need and desire expressed by those learners coupled with advances in online technology since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 provided the right circumstances for the advent of online Te Ataarangi Ainu Language classes.

Project Outline

Launched in March 2021, the online Te Ataarangi Ainu Language class involves one 90-minute class per week via the online video conferencing tool, Zoom. Live classes led by Sekine Kenji are broadcast from Nibutani, and self-access revision and materials provided through Moodle, an online open-access Learning Management System (LMS).

Participants

Participants in the class include Ainu and non-Ainu of various nationalities and mixed gender ranging from Ainu enrolled in a three-year apprentice program in Nibutani, where grassroot Ainu language revitalization efforts are made, shopkeepers, elementary school teachers, university professors, university students, museum staff at Upopoy: The Symbolic Space for Ethnic Harmony (Shiraoi, Hokkaido) and others dedicated to Ainu language revitalization. Participants join the class of their own volition and are free to be present or absent for any given class. In addition to the main teacher, who first teaches the class content in the main Zoom room, up to five more co-teachers guide the practice and revision of the same content in breakout rooms. The main tools used in the online classes are Cuisenaire rods and various props necessary in the Zoom context to signify who is talking to who during the scripted conversations.

Originating from the Māori Te Ataarangi example, six rules for participants are followed in class.

1. You can only speak Ainu.

2. Respect the customs and beliefs of others.

3. Don't rush people to speak.

4. Speak only when it's your turn.

5. Be humble with each other and sympathize with the various emotions each person experiences.

6. Make many mistakes and do not fear them.

Instruments

Zoom

Due to social distancing requirements of the COVID-19 pandemic and the inability to travel for face-to-face classes, Zoom was used as a platform to connect participants. The central teacher uses Cuisenaire rods and props to first teach main room class content on Zoom (Figure 2).

Co-teachers practice the main room content prior to the session and guide practice and revision of this content in Zoom breakout rooms. The class timetable follows a standardized format each week (Table 1).

Moodle

As needs for an asynchronous learning environment went beyond simply being able to display content on a website, a more complete LMS needed to be set up to allow learners to participate in a greater variety of learning activities. In the end Moodle was chosen as its vast array of functions and plugins, together with it being open-source and thus, fully customizable, provided the flexibility to adapt to the class needs. To get the students started, Moodle courses were created (Figure 3) and after registering both teachers and students, an explanation on how to access the content was provided during one of the Zoom sessions.

Figure 2
Central teacher uses Cuisenaire rods and props to teach class content via Zoom

Table 1
Format of a Standard Zoom Class

Time	Language	Content
09:00	Japanese	Central teacher sends ZOOM link via private LINE group
90:00 - 21:00		Absent or late participants notify the LINE group
21:00 - 21:05		Participants log into ZOOM - free discussion
21:05 - 21:10		Students join assigned breakout rooms and converse freely to know each other better.
21:10 - 21:15	Ainu	An Ainu prayer is recited and repeated by all participants; a pledge is made in Ainu to only speak in Ainu for the remainder of the class
21:15 - 21:30		First main content taught by central teacher in main Zoom room
21:30 - 21:40		First main content taught again by co-teachers in breakout rooms
21:40 - 21:50		Second main content taught by central teacher in main Zoom room.
21:50 - 22:00		Second main content taught again by co-teachers in breakout rooms.
22:00 - 22:05		First and second main content revised by central teacher in the main room.
22:05 - 22:10		Ainu prayer is recited in the main room and repeated by all participants; a pledge to continue speaking Ainu whenever possible is also made
22:10 - 22:20	Japanese	Summary, questions and discussion about content
22:20 - 22:25		Students join breakout rooms again to discuss content with co-teachers.
22:25 - 22:30		Notifications and information about Ainu-related initiatives shared by participants.
22:30		Class ends
22:30 ~		Informal interview of a participant or viewing of previous participant interview (voluntary)

Moodle was used to save videos from Zoom, thereby enabling students to access and review the online classes. These videos are set into the course for each week (Figure 4). Downloadable pdfs of class content, including new words and phrases learned during the classes were also added as supplementary learning materials. Online quizzes were used to test and assess learned content as well as provide a means of practice. Finally, to a lesser extent, the forum and video assessment modules were used for students to submit their learning product such as self-introductions in text or video form.
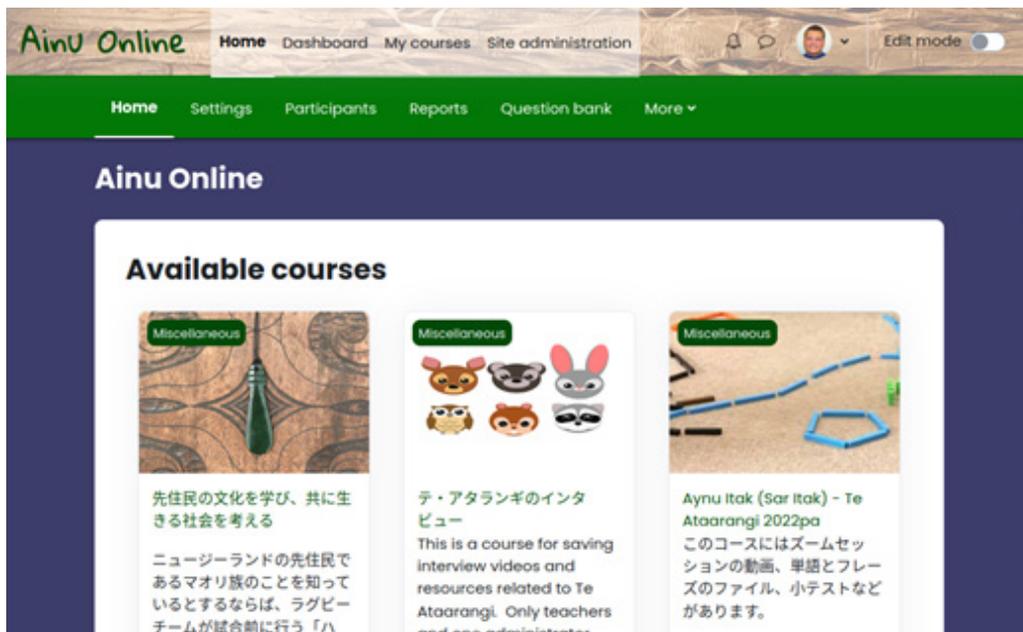

Figure 3
*Moodle LMS utilised for self-access revision and video storage*
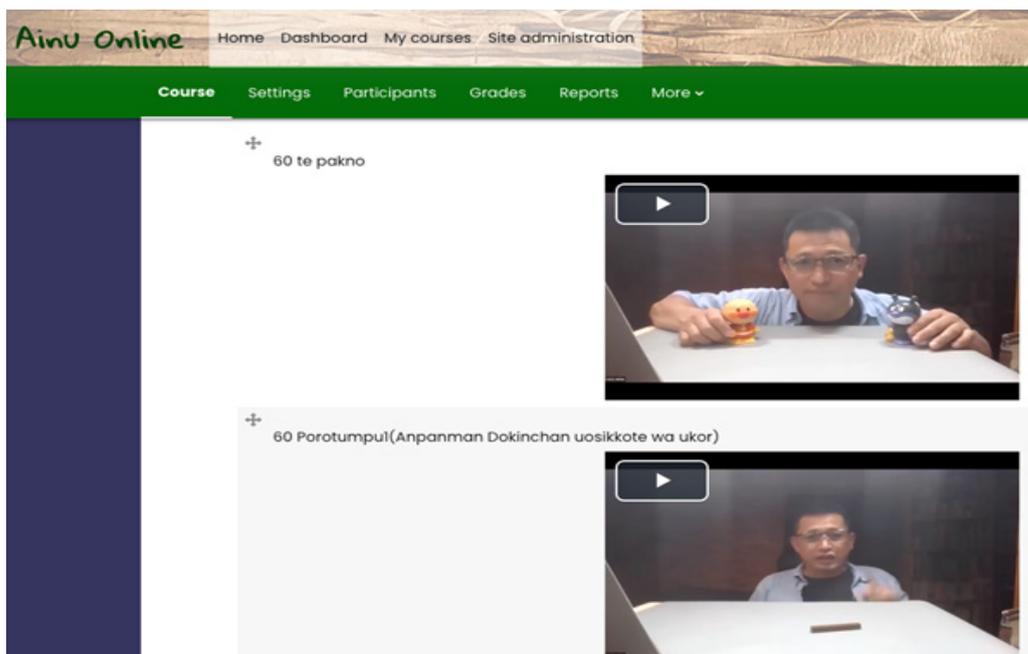
Figure 4
Videos uploaded into the Moodle course.

Discussion

Research ethics is important as historically indigenous peoples, including Ainu, have been mistreated, misrepresented and abused under the name of "research". According to Māori researcher Linda Tuhiwai Smith " 'research' is probably one of the dirtiest words in the indigenous world's vocabulary. It stirs up silence, it conjures up bad memories, it raises a smile that is knowing and distrustful " (1999, p.1). As a result, we were cautious to avoid having participants feel like subjects of a clinical research study, and instead, prioritized maintaining the class atmosphere and sense of community. There were several advantages, disadvantages and limitations observed during the 70 weeks of active participation in the classes and discovered via informal communication with participants.

Advantages

One advantage of holding classes online is that many people living in and outside of Yaunmosir have difficulties finding Ainu language classes. Many learners' resort to studying by themselves with limited resources. This opportunity was made possible by regularly meeting online with like-minded learners wanting to revitalize Ainu across the country and world was greatly appreciated by participants.

As many participants had little Ainu language knowledge, the immersion environment was particularly daunting at the beginning. Nevertheless, most participants continue to support each other as the Te Ataarangi philosophy is to be humble, respectful and wait for the slowest person to learn and utter the target expressions during each session. This supportive aspect of Te Ataarangi also helps create a 'learning community' which is completely different from traditional, more individual efforts of Ainu language learning, where distance alone has often limited learners to self-study involving grammar books, dictionaries and listening to 15-minute radio sessions. The strong sense of 'togetherness' and 'shared learning' has grown within the Zoom platform. Participants can receive social and psychological support in the main sessions and also in the breakout rooms when conversing in Japanese before and after class. When travel became possible, some participants had the opportunity to meet in person, often for the first time, and already had a shared connection via the zoom lessons.

Disadvantages and Limitations

Obvious disadvantages to the completely online setting are ultimately connected to the benefits of face-to-face classes. In-person classes may arguably help build better connections between teachers and students, and between students. Body language and facial expressions are easier to read and communication is not inhibited by the need to toggle the 'mute' function while using Zoom.

Furthermore, using rods is challenging as participants cannot physically pass them online. Kinesthetic learning and a sense of presence through receiving, speaking, and passing is an important part of Te Ataarangi. This shortcoming has been slightly mitigated by the use of illustrations via the 'share screen' function, props, dolls and toys. While participants pretend that they are giving and receiving, the experience is not the same. Additionally, some participants were not familiar or comfortable with the technology. While a minor hindrance, participants have forgotten to mute themselves on Zoom to prevent individual utterances from being heard. Accidental log outs have occurred, and participants did not know how to use functions including screenshare and record. Use of the Moodle course for self-access learning varied considerably. Weekly vocabulary quiz completion varied from 12 - 24 users completing the quizzes in March 2022, to only 1 - 3 users completing the weekly quizzes in July 2022. It is possible that participants were too busy or disinterested in committing to more self-study. Another possibility is that learners had a poor understanding of the role of the Moodle in this novel mix of educational tools. Finally, some participants have only now reported frustration with playback of the videos on Moodle, in particular being heavy on smartphones, thus discouraging them from accessing them again. The authors and Moodle administrators, now aware of this are devising ways to lighten the data load such as using YouTube to house the videos, with links put on Moodle to the videos. Difficulty hearing pronunciation such as 'ko,' sounding like 'ho' and 'fu' sounding like 'hu' were reported due to individual devices of either the speaker

or the listener.

Conclusion and Implications

The continuance of the class over a year and a half, with a low dropout rate, illustrates its value and importance. However, data from Moodle and informal conversations with participants suggests that greater support is required to enable participants engage in the self-access learning environment and its various activities. The onus is on the educators to make it appealing to use, easy to navigate, and more importantly convey the value of using it to participants. Proposed methods could be improved interface usability, gamification through the attainment of Moodle 'badges' on task completion, a digital dictionary of vocabulary and game-like activities for the participant and their family and friends.

Online education limitations can be combated with supplementary in-person classes. Hybrid adaptations post pandemic may allow for periodic face-to-face classes or learning camps to foster further language learning and motivation.

Finally, future participants of this class may become confident enough in the Ainu language content to teach classes of their own. Some participants have risen to the challenge by taking on co-teacher roles within the class itself, contributing to intergenerational transmission of the Ainu language and culture. In this way, the potential for the number of Ainu language learners to increase is evident. Overall, the online Ainu Te Ataarangi class has demonstrated potential as an intervention for revitalizing the Ainu language and culture by providing a space for stakeholders to meet and learn effectively while supporting a safer space for expression of identity.

Acknowledgements

References

Al-Mahrooqi, R., & Asante, C. (2012). Revitalizing the Māori language: A focus on educational reform. *Social Sciences & Humanities. 20*, 1035–1048.

Best, E. (1922). *The Astronomical Knowledge of the Māori*. Retrieved from https://ui.adsabs.harvard.edu/abs/1922akmg.book.....B

Gattegno, C. (1963). *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way*. (1st ed.). Educational Explorers.

Hond, R. (2013). *Matua te reo, matua te tangata: Speaker community: visions, approaches, outcomes*: a thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Public Health at Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand [PhD Thesis]. Massey University.

Hume, L. J. (1993). *Another look at the cultural cringe*. Centre for Independent Studies.

Ishihara, M. (2004). Ainu jishin niyoru chosaku nitsuite [On Publications by Ainu people themselves]. Heisei 16nen Ainu Bunka Fukyu Keihatsu Semina Hokokushu. *Reports of the 2004 Ainu Culture Awareness Raising Seminar*. 2004 Ainu Culture Awareness Raising Seminar.

Kaizawa, T. (1998). Ainu no sakebi [A Call by the Ainu]. In M. Ogawa & S. Yamada (Eds.), *Ainu minzoku no kindai no kiroku* (pp. 373–389). Sofukan. Retrieved from https://books.google.co.jp/books?id=cjIyAQAAIAAJ

McAloon, J. (2008). Land ownership - Māori and land ownership. *Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand*. Retrieved from http://www.TeAra.govt.nz/en/map/17888/Māori-land-in-the-north-island-1860-1939

Marriott, L., & Sim, D. (2015). Indicators of Inequality for Māori and Pacific People. *The Journal of New Zealand Studies*, 20. doi. org/10.26686/jnzs.v0i20.3876

Ogawa M. (1991). A historical study on "Ainu School"(an elementary school in Ainu Community) in Hokkaido(1):The Forming process of the educational system for Ainu children in the 1870's～1900 Japan. *The Annual Reports on Educational Science*, *55*, 257–325.

Okazaki, T. (2015). Te Ataarangi to Māorigofukko. Te Ataarangi and Māori language Revitalization. *Konton 12*, 48-65

Okazaki, T. (2018). Ainu language shift. In *Routledge Handbook of Japanese Sociolinguistics* (pp. 354–369). Routledge.

Rei, T., & Hammon, C. (1933). Te Kōhanga Reo 1982. Women Together: *A History of Women's Organizations in New Zealand*. Retrieved from https://nzhistory.govt.nz/ women-together/te-kohanga-reo

Segawa, T. (2016). *Ainu to Jomon: Mou hitotsu no nihon no rekishii. Chikumashobō*. Retrieved from https://books.google.co.jp/books?id=_ zu5jwEACAAJ

Teeter, J., & Okazaki, T. (2011). Ainu as a Heritage Language of Japan: History, Current State and Future of Ainu Language Policy and Education. *Heritage Language Journal*, *8*(2), 251–269. doi.org/10.46538/hlj.8.2.5

Tuhiwai, S. L. (1999). *Decolonizing methodologies: Research and indigenous peoples*. Zed Books Limited.

UNESCO - *Intangible Heritage Home*. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ ark:/48223/pf0000192416

Applying the UDL Design Cycle to Online English Medium Instruction: A Case Study

Davey Young
Sophia University

Abstract

Compared to their peers without disabilities, students with disabilities can experience unique, additional barriers to learning in online learning environments, and so the shift to online and distance learning as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic has presented novel barriers to such students (Rao et al., 2021; UNESCO, 2021). Students with specific learning difficulties (SLDs) such as dyslexia or ADHD are especially at risk of encountering barriers to their learning. Additionally, language learning presents unique barriers to students with SLDs compared to other areas of study (Kormos, 2017; Smith 2018). This article describes the practical application of Universal Design for Learning (UDL) using the UDL Design Cycle (Rao & Meo, 2016) to an online English Medium Instruction course at a private university in Tokyo in the 2020 academic year. The case study concludes with a discussion of potential shortcomings of this application, as well as additional considerations for future applications.

日本語概要

オンラインの学習環境において、障害のある学生は、そうでない同級生と比較して、さらなる独特の障壁を経験する可能性がある。そのため、COVID-19の流行によるオンライン学習や遠隔学習への移行は、そのような学生に新たな障害をもたらしている（Rao et al, 2021; UNESCO, 2021）。ディスレクシアやADHDのような特定の学習困難（SLD）を持つ学生は、特に学習に対する障壁に遭遇するリスクがある。さらに、言語学習は、他の学習分野と比較して、SLDを持つ学生に独特の障壁をもたらすことがある（Kormos, 2017; Smith 2018）。そこで本稿は、2020年度の東京の私立大学におけるオンライン上の英語による科目学修に、UDLデザインサイクル（Rao & Meo, 2016）を用いた学びのユニバーサルデザイン（Universal Design for Learning, 以下UDL）の実践について説明する。最後に、この実践における潜在的な欠点と、将来の実践のための追加的な留意点について触れたい。

The COVID-19 pandemic has disproportionately affected students with disabilities (UNESCO, 2020; 2021). Compared to their peers without disabilities, students with disabilities can experience unique, additional barriers to learning in online learning environments (Rao et al., 2021; UNESCO, 2021). Students with specific learning difficulties (SLDs) such as dyslexia or ADHD are especially at risk of encountering such barriers, as these difficulties are not immediately apparent to others and may even go unnoticed into adulthood (Smith, 2018). In addition, language learning presents unique barriers to students with SLDs compared to other areas of study (Kormos, 2017; Smith 2018). Such barriers may exist in both the cognitive and affective domains and reinforce each other to the point of lowering students' motivation to learn a foreign language and even threatening their sense of self-worth (Kormos, 2017). Importantly, external influences such as the instructional environment, including teachers' and peers' attitudes and behavior surrounding SLDs and relevant accommodations, can have a noticeable impact on motivation to learn a language for students with SLDs (Csizér et al., 2010).

Japanese policy regarding disability in higher education affords selective inclusion, meaning that students who do have an identified disability, including less visible ones like SLDs, may remain unidentified and anonymous, only receiving support from their institution if they choose to report their status and request accommodations, and an unknown number of students with disabilities opt out of receiving official support (Kondo et al., 2015; Young, 2021). The number of self-identified students with disabilities enrolled in Japanese higher education rose every year since the Japan Student Support Organization began tracking such data in 2006 through 2019. In 2020, however, the number fell for the first time, suggesting that fewer students with disabilities decided to enter higher education that year, or that fewer such students felt the need to report their status and request accommodations in the online learning environment, or some combination thereof (Young,

2021). Without knowing the barriers that students may face in online learning, teachers have an ethical responsibility to design and deliver inclusive online lessons, especially considering the likelihood that online instruction will become more commonplace in a post-pandemic world. Fortunately, the COVID era's heightened support needs for students with disabilities has also presented "an opportunity to create a flexible, equitable and inclusive system of learning" (UNESCO, 2021, p. 8).

Inclusive education as a human right was first enshrined at the international policy level by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in 2008, and further clarified in that Convention's General Comment No. 4 (GC4) in 2016 (Davis et al., 2020; Hunt, 2019). Since then, GC4 has become the "de facto global development policy on inclusive education because it outlines the critical policy considerations and implementation guidelines for Inclusive Education in all UNCRPD signatory and ratifying countries," of which Japan is one (Hunt, 2019, p. 116). With regard

for implementation guidelines, GC4 explicitly calls for the Universal Design for Learning (UDL) approach as a means of realizing inclusive education (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016).

UDL is "a framework to improve and optimize teaching and learning for all people based on scientific insights into how humans learn" by providing multiple means of engagement, representation, and action and expression to access, build, and internalize information and skills (CAST, 2018). This three-by-three organization of the framework creates a matrix of nine UDL Guidelines, which are further subdivided into 31 Checkpoints that scaffold an approach to inclusive instructional design and delivery, and each Checkpoint includes recommendations for how to achieve it. "Using a proactive design process that explicitly integrates UDL, teachers can be better prepared to support all learners online, including students with disabilities and English language learners, and other students who experience challenges while learning" (Rao, 2021, p. 3). See Figure 1 for a graphic depiction of the framework.

Figure 1
The Universal Design for Learning Guidelines (CAST, 2018)

The UDL Design Cycle was first proposed by Rao and Meo (2016) and further clarified for applications in language learning by Torres & Rao (2019). This cycle consists of six steps: 1) the identification of barriers, 2) the development of goals, 3) the development of assessments, 4) the development of flexible teaching methods and materials, 5) instructional implementation, and finally 6) reflection and revision (Rao & Meo, 2016; Torres & Rao, 2019). The final step is intended to inform a new iteration of step 1, and may also inform changes to goals, assessments, and methods and materials through the consideration of additional, previously unidentified barriers to student success. In this way, the UDL Design Cycle is both iterative and reflective, allowing teachers to refine lesson and course delivery to be more inclusive as time goes on (Torres & Rao, 2019). While the UDL Design Cycle was originally created to reflect on lesson rather than course delivery, the basic steps can be conceptually extended to help develop more inclusive courses. Finally, UDL can be integrated into any instructional format, including online and distance learning (Smith & Basham, 2014) and English Medium Instruction (EMI).

Teaching Context

The teaching context in the present paper is an English studies department at a private university in Tokyo, Japan. The course described here is an elective EMI course available to second year students and above with priority given to students from the English studies department. The number of enrolled students was 22 and 25 students for each respective semester captured in the current review of practice. Due to the generally high proficiency of students in the department, the form of EMI in this course heavily favored content over language in its instructional focus and assessment. In fact, there were no linguistics goals in this course, though some language support to ensure comprehension and demonstration of content mastery was still deemed necessary for student success.

The beginning of the COVID-19 global pandemic coincided with the start of a new Japanese school year in April, 2020. The Japanese government declared a state of emergency for Tokyo and the surrounding area on April 7, and three days later the university in question decided to move all instruction online for the spring term and postponed the start of the semester from April 12 to May 25 so that faculty and staff would have time to prepare for this transition. Initial attempts to make the course more inclusive for the spring semester of 2020 were therefore made rather hastily, but with an eye to apply the UDL Design Cycle to optimize lesson content and delivery.

Application of the UDL Design Cycle

Following step 1 of the UDL Design Cycle, identifying barriers, it was anticipated that students may feel unprepared to learn in an online-only environment, or isolated and lacking structure and support in an entirely asynchronous course. However, it was also anticipated that an entirely synchronous course could pose barriers to students who experienced problems with internet connectivity or distractions in their home learning environment. Following step 2, the only explicit goal of the course was for students to be able to demonstrate an understanding of the course content. Acknowledging the UDL Design Cycle's stipulation that this goal be both specific and flexible, this wording allowed a spectrum from basic understanding to mastery. For step 3, the course trialed a combination of three assessments: a weekly learning journal for formative assessment, a written midterm for summative and formative assessment, and a final project for summative and formative assessment. For step 4, developing flexible methods and materials, a number of initial inclusive design choices were made by consulting different sets of inclusive practices, namely those outlined by Grace and Gravestock (2009) and Evans et al. (2017), all of which also aligned with at least one UDL Checkpoint. These design choices, as well as some of the assessments listed above, are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
Inclusive design choices for spring 2020 and the UDL Checkpoints they satisfy

---

Inclusive Design Choice (UDL Checkpoint)

- Communicated clear expectations to students (8.3)

- Created PowerPoint presentations that were friendly to dyslexia and colorblindness (2.3)

- Showed students how to use text-to-speech for pdfs and Word (2.3)

- Showed students how to use voice-to-text for Word (5.2)

- Recorded lesson videos with closed captioning for students to review lecture material or take a lesson on-demand in the event of an absence from the Zoom lesson (1.1, 1.2, 7.1, 7.3)

- Posted pdf versions of the PowerPoint deck to Moodle after class (1.1)

- Organized resources and set flexible, suggested deadlines for all assignments with reversible controls on the course's Moodle page (6.1)

- Used a spiral curriculum design to revisit concepts with added complexity (3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4)

- Used a standard, five-stage lesson plan to chunk and progressively introduce and scaffold information and concepts in an accepting and supportive learning environment that relied heavily on small group discussions in breakout rooms (3.3, 3.4, 7.2, 7.3, 8.3)

- Included a weekly learning journal in which students wrote 300-500 words using a scaffolded prompt to connect their own experiences to the lesson content and demonstrate understanding of that content (3.4, 7.2, 8.4, 9.3)

- Provided individuated feedback on weekly learning journals (5.3, 6.4, 8.4)

- Included a final, self-directed research assignment with a clearly articulated rubric and discussions of individual progress throughout the semester (6.4, 7.1)

- Provided individual support for students who had difficulty managing the workload and meeting expectations (6.2, 8.1, 8.2, 9.2)

UDL's 31 Checkpoints are categorized under the nine guidelines and numbered accordingly. For example, Guideline 1 is "provide options for perception," and Checkpoint 1.3 is "offer alternatives for visual information." Inventorying inclusive design choices with the UDL Checkpoints made it possible to identify which guidelines were not yet being met in the course design and lesson delivery, which in turn helped inform further modifications. Table 1 reveals, for example, that there was a strong focus on Guideline 3, provide options for comprehension, but no attention paid to Guideline 2, provide options for language and symbols, in the initial course design. Some UDL Checkpoints, while included in the original design, were also difficult to fully implement largely owing to time constraints related to the increased workload created by the rapid shift to online teaching caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. In particular, it was very difficult to provide the desired degree of mastery-oriented feedback for the weekly learning journal entries because so much time was needed for other aspects of lesson planning, chief among them creating lesson videos for all classes.

In partial service of step 6, reflection and revision, specific areas for improvement were identified by collecting feedback from students about several aspects of the course between the spring and fall semesters. Twelve students took the survey, which was administered as a Google Form, and all respondents consented to their responses being used for research purposes. The first survey item asked students about their intentions to take the fall semester of the course. Half of the respondents indicated their intention to continue, while one said no and five reported that they were undecided. The next three items used a five-point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree) to ask students about different ways of engaging with the course. Ten of the 12 respondents strongly agreed that they felt comfortable contacting me with questions or concerns about the course while one agreed and one neither agreed nor disagreed; six respondents strongly agreed that the synchronous Zoom lessons were a good way to engage with course content, five agreed, and one neither agreed nor disagreed. These responses suggest that the spring semester's course design was successful in fostering collaboration and community (Checkpoint 8.3), and that the standard lesson plan on Zoom was likely effective at meeting at least some of the other Checkpoints considered in its design. This conclusion is further supported by the responses to an open-ended item at the end of the survey, discussed in more detail below.

Another survey item asked students about the potential usefulness of having asynchronous discussion forums on Moodle as a way to engage with course content, though there was no clear consensus regarding this prospect. Students were also asked whether or not the pre-recorded lesson videos were helpful and allowed respondents to select multiple answers. These videos were created using the video-editing software Camtasia and subsequently posted to an unlisted YouTube channel so that closed captioning could be generated automatically and the links could be shared on the course's Moodle page. Three of 12 respondents reported never watching a lesson video, while the remaining nine who did watch a video found it to be helpful, and watching a video to review a lesson that the student had already attended on Zoom was

selected more than four times as often as watching a video because a lesson had been missed. Another key inclusive feature of the lesson videos was that it allowed students who missed class to participate in the lesson in an "on demand" format by viewing the lesson video and then writing me an email with answers to group discussion questions and completed in-class tasks. This flexibility satisfied Checkpoints 7.1 (optimize individual choice and autonomy) and 7.3 (minimize threats and distractions).

Next, a short response item invited respondents to write freely about what aspects of the course were effective or not effective for helping them learn online. Ten students responded to this open-ended item, and their responses were descriptively coded (Saldaña, 2021) using TAMS Analyzer. Subsequent analysis revealed that students only commented on three aspects of the class (interacting with other students in breakout rooms, the weekly learning journal, and the video lesson), and there was just one request for additional support. The most common type of comment (n=5) was a positive response to interacting with other students in breakout rooms. One representative comment was "Talking in random breakout groups was effective to have a chance to talk to a variety of people." There were two mixed reactions to interactions with other students in breakout rooms: one respondent enjoyed these interactions but expressed disappointment that classmates often kept their cameras turned off, and the other noted that more often than not, "some students were not really participative" in group discussions in breakout rooms. Following the comments on interactions in breakout rooms, there were three positive comments about the weekly learning journal. One representative comment was "The reading journal helped me a lot, because I was able to reflect on my thoughts towards the readings." There was one also positive comment about the video lessons: "I had both of zoom sessions and lessons videos, so, I could understand the content by watching the videos. I thought it would be helpful even in face to face lectures." Finally, there was one request for multimodal support: "I think if there's short animation movie, it will help me understand the concepts what we learned easily."

The results of the survey supported a number of the initial inclusive design choices listed above, namely using a standard lesson plan that prioritized collabora- tive learning through small group discussions, pre-re- cording video lessons, and assigning a weekly learning journal. As such, these features were continued in the

Table 2
Inclusive design choices for fall 2020 and the UDL Checkpoints they satisfy

Inclusive Design Choice (UDL Checkpoint)

- Standardized warm-up discussion at the beginning of class (2.1, 3.2)

- Included a midterm quiz that could be retaken multiple times using Google Forms (3.4, 6.4, 8.4)

- Added an option for students to give a presentation rather than submit a written version of the final assignment (5.1, 7.1, 8.2)

- Offered an optional weekly discussion forum on Moodle for students to discuss course content (5.1, 7.1, 8.3, 8.4)

- Added more visual components to PowerPoint slides and handouts (2.5)

- Posted lesson slides and handouts on Moodle before each lesson (1.1, 7.1, 8.2)

fall semester. Additional inclusive design choices based on the survey responses were to offer an optional weekly discussion forum on Moodle for students to discuss course content, as well as add more visual com- ponents to PowerPoint slides and handouts to support multimodal learning.

My own reflection during step 6 also led to some sig- nificant revisions, mostly related to assessment, before starting the fall semester. First of all, I changed the for- mat of the written midterm from a document-based assignment submitted on Moodle to a quiz using Google Forms. This allowed me to provide immediate formative feedback for certain incorrect responses. Several questions were also rewritten to make more explicit links to previous course content and readings, and students were encouraged to access this content when completing the quiz. I also allowed students to take this quiz as many times as they liked in order to reduce anxiety and better meet my goal of having stu- dents demonstrate understanding of the course con- tent. I also added an option for students to fulfill their final assignment by giving a presentation rather than completing a written version of the task. These and other additional inclusive design choices made for the fall semester, as well as the UDL Checkpoints they sat- isfy, are summarized in Table 2.

Discussion

Despite its many benefits, UDL does not require feed- back from students and presupposes that teachers know how to implement it successfully (Evans et al., 2017). There is also not a consensus on how UDL princi- ples can be applied across instructional environments (Smith et al., 2019), though the UDL Design Cycle is in part intended to account for this counterintuitive lack of universality (Rao & Meo, 2016). To help address some of these potential shortcomings in the present case, I was careful to keep a flexible mindset during course delivery, gather feedback from students on the efficacy of the inclusive design choices, and reflect on my own choices and lesson delivery on an ongoing basis.

It is worth noting that some of the UDL Checkpoints were never captured in this case, for example 6.3 (facilitate managing information and resources), and so there is still room for improvement with regard to removing potential barriers to online learning in this course. Still, some Checkpoints are particularly difficult to satisfy in online learning. Ensuring Checkpoint 7.3 (minimize threats and distractions), for instance, is largely out of teachers' hands in virtual learning spaces. We may be able to minimize threats and distractions in our own surroundings, but we cannot control the physical environs from which students access the class virtually, nor can we monitor what peripheral distractions the device used to access the class present to the student. On this front, we can only try to create maximally engaging lessons and raise students' awareness of the threats to their learning that are posed by both physical and virtual distractions during the learning process. Other Checkpoints for Guidelines 7-9 (providing options for recruiting interest, sustaining effort and persistence, and self-regulation respectively) can help offset these concerns, as can creating a class routine in a supportive learning environment. Ultimately, however, teachers have far less control over how students engage with a virtual environment compared with a material one, and this may indicate a broader shortcoming of applying UDL to online learning exposed by the COVID-19 era. Practitioners and researchers alike may have to grapple with this unpleasant reality in the years ahead, as undoubtedly there will be a greater reliance on online learning and subsequent need to provide maximally inclusive online learning environments.

Additionally, some of the inclusive design choices made to this course would have been difficult or impossible in more proficiency-based English language courses. For instance, the choice between submitting a written assignment or giving a presentation for the final assignment was offered to accord with Checkpoints 5.1 (use multiple media for communication) and 7.1 (optimize individual choice and autonomy). However, in many proficiency-based classes, course aims are not for students to master a specific knowledge base, but rather master a specific skill base. Giving students the choice to present their work in an English composition course, for instance, would undercut the central aim of teaching students how to write in English. This

hints at a central tension that is unique to implementing inclusive practices in foreign language instruction: instructional aims themselves have a risk of excluding students who experience barriers to receiving input or generating output in a given modality. Pedagogical approaches like EMI and hard CLIL, in which content knowledge is emphasized and assessed more so than skill proficiency (Brinton & Snow, 2017) can circumvent this tension, but these approaches are not always appropriate, especially for learners in lower proficiency bands. In such cases, instructors have little recourse aside from emphasizing coping strategies or workarounds via assistive technologies to help minimize rather than remove barriers to learning. To again evoke the example of an English composition course, the instructor might provide more differentiated instruction and show students how to use voice-to-text features, apps, or software, among other strategies.

Finally, there was a conscious decision to limit the number of online learning platforms used in the course, largely due to concerns that students would be overwhelmed with learning how to navigate various systems required in their other coursework. All students were already required by the university to use both Zoom and Moodle. Nevertheless, other online learning platforms and tools can provide various other avenues to inclusion (Rao et al., 2021). There are clearly two sides to the coin of choosing a smaller or larger number of learning management systems in any given course, a predicament which calls to mind the paradox of inclusion: efforts to include a certain group or groups of students risks excluding others (Grace & Gravestock, 2009). In other words, while some students might benefit from reduced complexity in technology required for an online course, others might benefit from the additional features when complexity is increased.

Conclusion

Because of COVID-19, the need to secure safe and inclusive online learning has never been so pronounced. Fortunately, this increased need has also produced a number of opportunities. In accordance with GC4, the best and most current policy guidance on inclusive education available worldwide, all educators should provide quality inclusive education as a human

right. GC4 explicitly calls for the application of Universal Design for Learning, an inclusive instructional approach that can be applied to any learning context, including online learning, to create more inclusive environments and experiences for all students. Inclusive design choices that accord with UDL guidelines are especially important for students with invisible or unidentified specific learning difficulties, particularly in learning environments with a policy of selective inclusion. As the application of the UDL guidelines will necessarily vary depending on a variety of context-dependent factors, teachers are advised to closely examine these guidelines, which are freely available online (CAST, 2018), to help them consider new instructional choices, as well modifications to existing lesson plans and learning materials, that best suit their individual teaching contexts and aims. Furthermore, it is important to remember that the UDL Design Cycle is both iterative and reflective, and that inclusive practices can further be fine-tuned with the benefit of feedback from students and/or collaboration with colleagues. Inclusive teaching is a conscious choice. This choice is achieved not without effort, but it is a choice that best honors the human rights of all students.

References

Brinton, D. M., & Snow, A. M. (2017). The evolving architecture of content-based instruction. In A. M. Snow & D. M. Brinton (Eds.), *The Content-based Classroom: New Perspectives on Integrating Language and Content* (2nd Ed., pp. 2-20). Michigan Teacher Training.

CAST (2018). The UDL Guidelines. https://udlguidelines.cast.org/

Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. (2016). General comment No. 4. https://www.ohchr.org/en/hrbodies/crpd/pages/gc.aspx

Csizér, K., Kormos, J., & Sarkadi, Á. (2010). The dynamics of language learning attitudes and motivation: Lessons from an interview study with dyslexic language learners. *Modern Language Journal*, *97*, 470-487. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01054.x

Davis, J., Gillett-Swan, J., Graham, L. J., & Malaquias, C. (2020). Inclusive education as a human right. In L. J. Graham (Ed.), *Inclusive education for the 21st century: Theory, policy and practice* (pp. 79-99). Routledge.

Evans, N., Broido, E. M., Brown, K. R., & Wilke, A. K. (2017). *Disability in higher education: A social justice approach*. Jossey-Bass.

Grace, S., & Gravestock, P. (2009). *Inclusion & diversity: Meeting the needs of all students*. Routledge.

Hunt, P. F. (2019). Inclusive education as global development policy. In M. J. Schuelka, C. J. Johnstone, G. Thomas, & A. J. Artiles (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Inclusion and Diversity in Education*. (pp. 116-129). SAGE.

Kondo, T., Takahashi, T., & Shirasawa, M. (2015). Recent progress and future challenges in disability student services in Japan. *Journal of Postsecondary Education and Disability*, *28*(4), 421–431. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1093579

Kormos, J. (2017). *The second language learning processes of students with specific learning difficulties*. Routledge.

Rao, K. (2021). Inclusive instructional design: Applying UDL to online learning. *The Journal of Applied Instructional Design*, *10*(1), 1-10. DOI: 10.51869/jaid2021101

Rao, K., & Meo, G. J. (2016). Using universal design for learning to design standards-based lessons. *Sage Open*, *6*(4), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244016680688

Rao, K., Torres, C., & Smith, S. J. (2021). Digital tools and UDL-based instructional strategies to support students with disabilities online. *Journal of Special Education Technology, 36*(2), 105-112. DOI: 10.1177/0162643421998327

Saldaña, J. (2021). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (4th ed.). SAGE.

Smith, A. M. (2018). *Inclusive practices*. Oxford University Press.

Smith, S. J., & Basham, J. D. (2014). Designing online learning opportunities for students with disabilities. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, *46*(5), 127-137. https://doi.org/10.1177/0040059914530102

Smith, S. J., Rao, K., Lowrey, K. A., Garder J., Moore, E., Coy, K. Marino, M. T. & Wojcik, B. (2019). Recommendations for a national research agenda in Universal Design for Learning (UDL): Outcomes from the UDL-IRN preconference on research. *Journal of Disability Policy Studies*, *30*(3), 174-185. doi: 10.1177/1044207319826219

Torres, C., & Rao, K. (2019). *UDL for language learners*. CAST Professional Publishing.

UNESCO. (2020). *Global education monitoring report 2020: Inclusion and education: All means all*. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000373718

UNESCO. (2021). Understanding the impact of COVID-19 on the education of persons with disabilities: *Challenges and opportunities of distance education*. https://iite.unesco.org/publications/the-impact-of-covid-19-on-the-education-of-persons-with-disabilities/

Young, D. (2021). *Special education policy and EFL in Japan*. In P. Clements, R. Derrah, & R. Gentry (Eds.), Communities of teachers & learners. JALT. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTPCP2020-05

Considering Some of the Practical Issues of Materials Development

Brian Cullen
Nagoya Institute of Technology

Niall Walsh
Aichi Prefectural University

Abstract

Creating language learning materials for English as Second Language (ESL) students is always a balance between theory and practice. This article will draw on our experience in a combined 30 years of materials development to consider some of the practical issues involved in the process. Questions are included throughout the paper to help the reader consider these points within their teaching context. Topics covered include appropriate use of both new and tested methodology and language acquisition theory, utilizing skills and knowledge that you already have, creating materials in teams, understanding the perspective of the learner, creating materials from the perspective of both the big picture and the smaller details, the importance of piloting and evaluating materials, changing models of publishing, and recognition of changes in technology and student needs.

日本語概要

第二言語としての英語（ESL）の学生向けの語学学習教材の作成は、常に理論と実践のバランスをとって行われます。 この記事では、合わせて 30 年にわたる材料開発における私たちの経験を基に、材料開発に伴う実際的な問題のいくつかを考察します。 読者が教育の文脈の中でこれらの問題を検討するのを助けるために、論文全体に質問が含まれています。 取り上げるトピックには、新しい方法論とテスト済みの方法論と言語習得理論の両方の適切な使用、すでに持っているスキルと知識の活用、チームでの教材の作成、学習者の視点の理解、両方の大きな視点からの教材の作成が含まれます。 絵と細部、資料の実験と評価の重要性、出版モデルの変化、テクノロジーと学生のニーズの変化の認識。

Developing materials to support language learning is always a balance between theoretical and practical issues. However, McGrath (2013) notes that many classroom teachers have not read or demonstrated an awareness of much of the literature on materials development and use (p. 202). This is despite many experts outlining processes for teachers to follow for materials development. These theoretical frameworks, some of which are briefly discussed later in this paper, attempt to scaffold materials design while recognizing that creating materials is a practical process. Notwithstanding these theoretical insights, the nature of materials development is significantly embedded in and influenced by the effectiveness of these materials in the classroom. Consequently, this paper focuses heavily on the practical rather than the theoretical approach to materials development and draws upon our own experiences as well as referring to the supporting research.

Nine short sections highlight an issue that has arisen in our engagement with materials development, which is useful to consider during the process of developing materials. In addition, questions are provided after each section to allow teachers to reflect on their teaching context.

Some Older Methodologies are Still Relevant

The usefulness of learning new approaches might seem obvious to most teachers. In recent years, communicative language teaching (CLT), task-based learning (TBL) and autonomous learning have dominated language teaching pedagogies and steered a move away from traditional methodologies such as grammar translation or the audiolingual method. However, much like updating and refining materials, many

teachers should also consider updating or adapting methodologies that have featured in the past. Take, for example, the behaviorist theory that maintains that certain traits of living things, including humans, can be trained through a system of reinforcement and adequate feedback (Ellis, 2012). Behaviorism can manifest in the language classroom as pattern practice. A typical application of a simple pattern practice activity in second-language pedagogy might look like this:

A: Where is Ms Costello?
B: She is in the bathroom.
A. What is she doing?
B: She is washing her hair.

In the above situation, students are usually provided with a series of visuals and tasked with changing the underlined sections. Of course, there is little element of surprise and nothing authentic about the activity, and there is no genuine exchange of information. Hence, today, many teachers may consider this activity ineffective in developing authentic communication skills due to its mechanical and passive nature. However, there is always the possibility of creating an opportunity for cognitive engagement with even a simple task like this. Like many cases in materials development, the issue resides in how the materials are presented and taught and is only limited by the creator's or teacher's imagination. Pattern practice works effectively at one level by putting words in the learner's mouths and giving them accurate construction. Although, according to Lightbown (1985), 'practice does not make perfect' (p. 177), as he found that mechanical practice did not lead to long-term memory retention among his students. Therefore, repetition is not sufficient in achieving language success. Ellis (2012) endorses this view by positing that it is important for learners to produce the language in a communicative capacity. This recognition of the usefulness yet insufficiency of pattern practice is not new, and to reinforce language acquisition from pattern practice activities, Palmer (1971) recommended communication-practice drills that attempt to extend this kind of simple practice into a more natural, communicative and relevant exchange with the learner (p. 25). Here is an example;

A: Where is Ms. Costello?
B: She is in the bathroom.
A.   What is she doing?
B: She is washing her hair.

Ask the same questions about other people. Here are some ideas:
1. your mother   2. your sister   3. your father

A: Where is your mother?
B: She is
A.   What is she doing?
B: She is
A.   Where is your sister?
B: She is
A: What is she doing?
B: She is

Naturally, overuse of one particular methodology like this, while leading to a controlled classroom, can create passive and unmotivated students. Therefore, teachers or material designer must innovate to strengthen and modernize older methodologies that offer fresh perspectives. Subsequently, teachers can explore specific older methodologies and techniques and consider if, through careful pedagogical manipulation, they can exhibit effectiveness.

Question: What older methodologies could still be useful for your teaching or materials development?

Theory Can Be Useful for Materials Development

Many ESL teachers in Japan, especially those working in universities, have completed a TESOL or language teaching Masters program, typically including courses such as Methodology, Research Design, Testing and Assessment, and Materials Development. These courses are designed to provide educators with a solid foundation in language learning theory that applies to the classroom. For example, methodology teaches about different approaches to teaching listening, speaking, reading and writing, while testing outlines the processes that create a valid language assessment—all practical for a language teacher and often

immediately applicable in the classroom.

Materials development is one area of a Masters program that is of practical value to most teachers. Highlighting its benefits, McGrath (2013) advocates that materials development and evaluation should be core components of undergraduate and postgraduate courses. So while it is useful to review any area of a Masters program after a few years of teaching experience, below is theory specifically related to materials development. The research literature in this area covers several overlapping areas including accounts of materials development, needs analysis and syllabus design, and models of materials development.

Accounts of Materials Development

There are several effective books and collected papers on materials development (see McDonough & Shaw, 2012; McGrath 2013; Mishan & Timmis, 2015; Tomlinson, 2003). These resources bring in some theory and also offer insight and personal anecdotes showing how materials developers worldwide have tried to satisfy the learning needs of their learners in areas such

as general English, English for science and technology, English for medical professionals, and academic English.

Needs Analysis and Syllabus Design

Needs analysis and syllabus design is the study of what our learners need to know or to be able to do and how to fulfill those needs through a syllabus (e.g. Munby, 1981). The Can-Do movement (e.g. Dunlea, 2008) that has emerged in more recent years is similar to needs analysis in some ways. There are very useful aspects of having a list of things that we want our learners to be able to do. However, the materials developer also needs to take account of local contexts and current abilities and not just set idealized endpoints for learning.

Models of Materials Development

Some researchers in materials development have also tried to describe or create a model of the materials development process. For example, a diagram by Jolly & Bolitho (2011) is shown below.
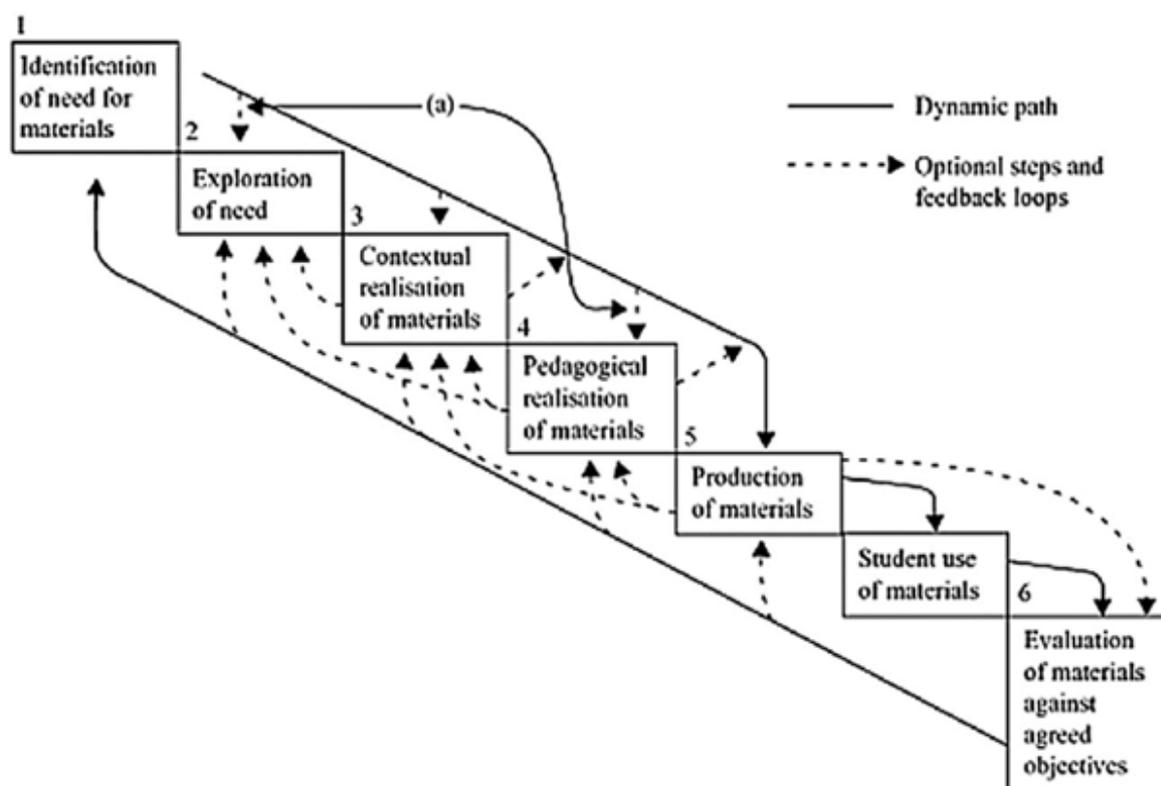

Figure 1
Materials development Ppocess

This six-step description of the materials development process attempts to scaffold content creation for educators. While this description is informative and beneficial to language teachers, creating materials does not always conform to a structured process, and this is indicated by the many arrows between different parts of the process. Other factors, such as making the content relevant to a specific learner and time to produce the material, force the developer to deviate from or omit some steps. Therefore, Tomlinson (2003) prefers that any kind of framework factors in flexibility.

Many other subjects in TESOL Masters programs are less obviously related to materials development, even if they are interesting. For example, Lexical Studies and Genre Studies help build an understanding of word patterns and how texts hold together. Even these more complex areas of theory can raise awareness and open doors of possibility for materials development.

Question: What theory or subjects did you learn at graduate school (or from another source) that is helpful for you in developing materials?

Teachers Already have Skills and Knowledge that Can be Useful

ESL teachers and materials developers have various skills whose relevance is not always apparent in a language-teaching context. For example, a talented musician can engage learners through music. People skilled in writing can develop students' creative side through activities that target their written production. Similarly, teachers may have academic knowledge that can form the basis of learning materials. For example, a teacher interested in psychology could transfer this interest to the classroom and find that it brings much into education and people's lives. So, when a teacher is developing or adapting materials, it is worthwhile considering what he or she can already do. These activities can personalize students' learning and help them connect with language learning more deeply. It can also introduce emotion and engagement into the classes, which can enhance learning (Frankel & Mountford, 2021). However, teachers should proceed cautiously if introducing a talent. While complementing learning with a

particular skill a teacher has can be engaging, it is also crucial not to be self-indulgent. At all times the teacher should have a clear focus on developing students' language abilities. In other words, even if an educator is passionate about something, it is misguided to assume their students would share their interest. Bringing readings into the classroom on favorite novels may appear motivating to the teacher but offer, in practice, no learning experience to the student. Therefore, it is vital that an analysis of the learner's needs, capabilities and desired outcomes is undertaken before introducing something new to the class.

Question: What is a skill that you have and how can it help in some way to developing language learning materials?

Creating Materials Alone or in a Team

When developing materials, educators may find that there are times when they are the sole creator or that they are part of a team. There are implications that must be considered in both scenarios. Creating materials individually allows the creator autonomy over the process. Additionally, the developer is not inhibited by a lack of consensus among other team members. However, a lone developer may lack any meaningful input from other sources and hence struggle to overcome creativity difficulties and ensure materials are relevant for the learners. In many situations, a group of two or three people may be ideal for a project. In this situation, it is possible to exchange ideas with each other and offer support. The intimacy also allows members to remain engaged in the creation process and be committed to its end goals. Unfortunately, group dynamics may interfere with materials development. There may be occasions when group members disagree on specific topics and activities to be included. Other members may feel aggrieved that not all contribute equally to the project. Therefore, people need to consider their own working style and preferences and assess which kind of materials development environment is suitable for their needs.

Question: What is your best working style?

The Elephant in the Room

The old Jain story about the six blind men and the elephant has often been referred to in ESL articles (e.g. Celce-Murcia, 1985), and it is a valuable perspective to keep in mind in materials development. Just like the elephant, learning materials or textbooks can be viewed from many different angles, and reconciling them all can be complex. There are the strands of grammar, vocabulary, texts, topics, functions, strategies, and so much more, and educators try to combine them to make a coherent final product. Many textbooks explicitly show these strands in the "Scope and Sequence" pages at the beginning of the book, but weaving them together is complex.

In the commonly used Myers-Briggs personality test (Bayne, 1997), there is a distinction made between Intuitors (people who like to see the whole picture, the whole elephant), and Sensors (people who more naturally focus on the details, the parts of the elephant). Both of these are necessary when designing materials for a textbook or for a whole course. A materials developer can also think of this in terms of Top-Down (getting the big picture and filling in the details) and Bottom-Up (building up the details so that they create a picture). Another elephant metaphor that is sometimes cited in ESL (e.g. Brookhart, 2017) in order to demonstrate the importance of building up learning through small parts is: "How do you eat an elephant? One bite at a time!" In the terms of the elephant metaphors, to create effective materials, it is necessary to both see the whole elephant and eat the elephant.

Imagine that you are developing a textbook or materials for a whole course.

Question 1: What are the different strands/parts (grammar, vocab, functions, strategies, topics etc.) that you will combine to create the elephant that is your materials/textbook?

Question 2: Can you describe the table of contents?

Question 3: How will the parts be woven together into the whole?

Understand the Learner

Time-constrained language teachers may occasionally choose to teach the same book or materials with different cohorts of students. For example, a language practitioner using the same textbook with students in a liberal arts school and an engineering school. While on the surface, the students' levels may appear similar, and it seems appropriate to use the same textbook, it is important to consider the different worlds people inhabit and the completely different perspectives people have towards language learning. As a result, the contents of materials or textbooks do not always translate to a productive or educational classroom. An additional concern is that time-restricted teachers and commercially motivated materials designers view all students as homogenous. In reality, what works well in one class may fail to inspire the next. Their success depends on many factors that may interfere with pedagogical goals. Dörnyei (2005) lists key variables such as:

- The learner's personality
- The learner's motivation
- The learner's attitude
- The learner's aptitude
- The learner's preferred learning style
- The learner's intelligence

These considerations have implications for the materials developer. Content must be varied and adjusted to target the individuals in the classroom. However, even if the teacher has meticulously planned the materials, there are occasions when they fail to produce the desired outcome.

Consider the example of two groups of students, liberal arts students and engineering students. Clearly, they will show some differences (Felder & Brent, 2005). One cohort may enjoy group work, discussion and sharing activities. However, the other may prefer working alone, and completing closed-answer activities. The language teacher must factor in these variables and recognize that students are likely different kinds of people living in different worlds and have a myriad of learning and cognitive styles.

To that end, both materials developers and teachers must keep in mind that a textbook or materials are just launching points into the learning process. Different students will respond to different activity types, and materials designers need to be flexible and familiar with a mix of learners to ensure that the materials can be effective for all. Where possible, differences should be factored into the learning process and reflected through choices of activities, optional activities, and flexibility in completing an activity.

Think of two groups of students you have taught (or two students within the same class).

Question 1: What were the differences between them?

Question 2: What kind of activities would have suited each student?

Evaluate the Materials

Whether creating their materials or choosing an existing textbook, an integral part of materials development that many educators fail to invest sufficient time into is evaluation. Mishan and Timmis (2015) worry that, in the main, teachers are guided primarily by intuition when examining and evaluating third-party content. They note that many teachers informally select a textbook based on the 'flick test', which involves them quickly scanning a textbook (p. 56). Tomlinson (2013) reports that publishers are aware of this and intentionally create attractive materials to induce teachers. In reality, a textbook can look great and be free of errors but still not achieve its purpose, which is to support learning.

As a materials developer creates materials, it is essential that they get feedback and evaluate them carefully. In a sense, textbooks are like airplanes – they need a pilot. Trying out activities with students before using them as the basis for large-scale materials is beneficial. When feasible, having other teachers use your materials before you publish is also informative. Feedback from both students and teachers is vital in creating quality materials because what makes sense in the materials designer's head or looks good on paper does not necessarily translate into valuable and enjoyable learning experiences.

To carry the metaphor further, like planes, textbooks also need maintenance. Materials often fail when first trialed. Even when the pilot is done, and there is a "finished product," there is almost always a need to improve, edit and revise. Step 6 of the Jolly and Bolitho model is to "Evaluate materials." Too often, teachers only evaluate the students performance and not the materials. Therefore, the teacher must observe whether the materials are achieving the course's goals and fulfilling the students' learning needs.

Think about some materials/textbooks that you are using (either your own or a commercial textbook).

Question: Are they fulfilling the learning needs of the learners?

Publishing Materials

There are many small publishing companies now, which only became possible over the last 30 years or so when high-quality layout software became widely accessible (Carney, 1990). The big ESL textbook companies like Oxford, Cengage, Pearson, and Longman are quite different from smaller niche ESL companies in that they have entire editorial teams, designers, marketing departments and sales teams with a large budget that allows them to travel globally showcasing their products.

However, small publishers and individual teachers can play a pivotal role in filling a smaller niche – satisfying local needs for materials development rather than trying to reach students in every country worldwide (e.g. Hawke & Davis, 1990). Moreover, they have low overheads to create a textbook suitable for a few hundred students or even a class with particular needs. Small publishers can also better account for local cultural needs and avoid the common issue of global publishers whose need to reach a wider audience can result in banal material (e.g. Nelson, 2019), or textbooks with strong ideological perspectives (Zhang et al., 2022).

Question: If you were to create materials or a textbook for a particular niche, what would it be? Con-

sider content, linguistic focus, the target language level and age, geographical market, etc.

Future Considerations

Given the investment of time and resources into quality materials development, many teachers might feel a degree of accomplishment once complete. While some materials can be recycled in different teaching contexts, for most, it is wrong to assume that they have extended longevity. Once complete, materials are not stagnant artifacts, but must evolve with new methodologies and approaches to teaching courses, such as content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and autonomous learning. In that sense, materials are never complete and are in constant need of revision and updating.

In the main, new language teaching developments evolve over time, allowing materials developers time to predict the need and adapt to them. However, other variables external to the educational industry are more unpredictable and can profoundly impact the approach to materials development. This was evidenced recently as the COVID-19 pandemic had educators scrambling to tailor materials with online and hybrid components in response to the effect on education. Many teachers were forced online for extended periods using technology unfamiliar to them before the pandemic. The advent of this move towards technology altered lesson delivery, and as a result, even technophiles had to comply with and quickly adapt to the use of conferencing software like Zoom or Microsoft Teams and the use of Content Management Systems like Moodle or Google Classroom.

Subsequently, materials developers had to accommodate this paradigm shift by producing materials that supplemented face-to-face practices with online student offerings. Similarly, most school administrations, especially in the university setting, embraced different aspects of online learning and continue to offer an online component, and some university courses are now being delivered completely online (The University of Tokyo, 2023).

This marks a significant shift in lesson delivery, especially in Japan, which was absent before the pandemic.

In addition, education is moving into a time in which hybrid learning is much more acceptable and, in some instances, expected from the learners. In response to this evolving nature of education, materials writers need to be versatile and innovative in their approach to materials creation in a way that targets both the conventional classroom learner and the online members.

Question: How can materials be best created, shared, and used in a hybrid system (face-to-face and online)?

Conclusion

The above sections have drawn on background literature and the authors' combined experiences to present considerations for both novice and experienced materials developers. Developing materials to support language learning is always a balance between theoretical and practical issues. It is also a balance between so many other things including: new versus older methodology; the skill-set of the teacher versus the learning needs of the learners; the dynamics of creating alone versus creating in a team; the big picture versus the little details; and the reconciliation of changing technologies with the traditional classroom. The questions after each section have been an attempt to invite the materials developer to consider these balances and hopefully to better understand their own materials, teaching contexts, competencies, and approaches.

References

Bayne, R. (1997). *The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator: A Critical Review and Practical Guide.* Nelson Thornes.

Brookhart, S. M. (2017). *How to Give Effective Feedback to Your Students.* ASCD.

Carney, T. F. (1990). Desktop Publishing: The Downside. *Canadian Journal of Communication,* 15(3–4), 87–104. https://doi.org/10.22230/cjc.1990v15n3a562

Celce-Murcia, M. (1985). Making Informed Decisions About the Role of Grammar in Language Teaching. *Foreign Language Annals*, 18(4), 297–301. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1985.tb01807.x

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). T*he Psychology of the Language Learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410613349

Dunlea, J. (2008). The EIKEN Can-do List: Improving feedback for an English proficiency test in Japan. *Language Testing Matters: Investigating the Wider Social and Educational Impact of Assessment–Proceedings of the ALTE Cambridge Conference*, 245–262.

Ellis, R. (2012). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. 2nd Edition-Oxford applied linguistics. Oxford University Press.

Felder, R. M., & Brent, R. (2005). Understanding Student Differences. *Journal of Engineering Education*, *94*(1), 57–72. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2168-9830.2005.tb00829.x

Frankel, S., & Mountford, M. (2021). In search of meaningful participation: Making connections between emotions and learning. *Emotion, Space and Society*, *39*, 100787. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emospa.2021.100787

Hawke, S. D., & Davis, J. E. (1990). Small Publishers: Filling Market Niches. *Teachers College Record*, *91*(5), 97–106. https://doi.org/10.1177/016146819009100509

Jolly, D., & Bolitho, R. (2011). A framework for materials writing. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials Development in Language Teaching* (pp. 107–134).

Lightbown, P. (1985). Great Expectations: Second-Language Acquisition Research and Classroom Teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, *6*. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/6.2.173

McDonough, J., & Shaw, C. (2012). *Materials and Methods in ELT*. John Wiley & Sons.

McGrath, I. (2013). *Teaching Materials and the Roles of EFL/ESL Teachers: Practice and Theory*. Bloomsbury Academic. https://doi.org/10.5040/9781472542076

Mishan, F., & Timmis, I. (2015). *Materials development for TESOL*. Edinburgh University Press.

Munby, J. (1981). *Communicative Syllabus Design: A Sociolinguistic Model for Designing the Content of Purpose-Specific Language Programmes* (Revised ed. edition). Cambridge University Press.

Nelson, J. (2019). *'I thought Canadians were white!': An intersectional gendered visual analysis of race, nation, gender, and LGBT+ representation in ESL/ELL textbooks* [University of British Columbia]. https://doi.org/10.14288/1.0378577

Palmer, A. (1971). Communication Practice vs. Pattern Practice or A Live Teacher Is Absolutely Necessary. *Reflections*, *9*(4).

The University of Tokyo. (2023). *The University of Tokyo to provide online courses through Coursera*. https://www.u-tokyo.ac.jp/content/400036465.pdf

Tomlinson, B. (2003). *Developing Materials for Language Teaching*. A&C Black.

Tomlinson, B. (2013). *Applied Linguistics and Materials Development*. A&C Black.

Zhang, Y., Ni, Z., Dong, J., & Li, J. (2022).
Constructing the Global Diversity or
Reproducing the Orientalist Gaze: Evaluating
Identity Options and Cultural Elements in
an English Intercultural Communication
Textbook. *English Language Teaching*, *15*(1),
130–143.

Corpus Linguistics: What is it and what can it do for you?

Richard Sparrow
Kyoto Sangyo University

Abstract

Corpus Linguistics (CL) is something that most language teachers have heard something about. It is a required subject in many master's degree curricula. The only problem is that many teachers still do not quite have a full grasp of what it is or what they can do with it. The reason is that CL is mainly used at the level by institutions, publishers, editors, materials writers, researchers, and other specialists. (Bolton, 2009). This leaves those who wish to learn more about it with a process and language that is very specialized and dense and has very little room for the language learner / average teacher. It takes a lot of investment to come to understand CL like any technical subject. This paper hopes to provide a streamlined version of CL and provide some practical examples of what can be done in terms of pedagogical application such as activities done with students or simply ways to make teaching better. In its current state, CL is still limited in these contexts and these limitations will be examined.

日本語概要

コーパス言語学　（CL）　は、ほとんどの語学教師が何かについて聞いたことがあるものです。多くの修士課程のカリキュラムで必須の科目です。唯一の問題は、多くの教師がまだそれが何であるか、またはそれで何ができるかを完全に把握していないことです.その理由は、CL　が主に機関、出版社、編集者、資料ライター、研究者、およびその他の専門家のレベルで使用されているためです。（Bolton、2009）。これにより、言語学習者/平均的な教師のための余地がほとんどなく、非常に専門的で密度の高いプロセスと言語でそれについてさらに学びたい人が残されます. CL を理解するには、他の技術的な科目と同じように多くの投資が必要です。このホワイト　ペーパーでは、CL　の合理化されたバージョンを提供し、生徒と一緒に行うアクティビティや単に授業を改善する方法など、教育的応用に関して何ができるかのいくつかの実用的な例を提供したいと考えています。現在の状態では、CL　はこれらのコンテキストでまだ制

CL is a subject that has been written about extensively and there have also been a couple of0 books that specifically entreat how to use it in the classroom (Boulton, 2009; Friginal, 2018; O'Keeffe & Mcarthy, 2022, Reppen, 2010) It is a subject of study and practice that goes back hundreds of years. We owe the beginning of corpus linguistics to the 13th century when studies of the Bible by monks and other experts manually indexed its words little by little and over time these techniques evolved to create dictionaries, library databases, and computer databases (O'Keeffe & Mcarthy, 2022). All this was done with one goal in mind to investigate phenomena in language and to order it in a way that makes it more available and more easily analyzable. The word corpus itself means very simply a collection of texts but in the modern sense, it means a collection of texts stored on a computer (Friginal, 2018). Friginal (2018) also gives us a more comprehensive definition:

"A systematic compiling of naturally occurring language serves as a primary **dataset** for linguists/ researchers interested in analyzing **language forms, functions, and variation.**"

It is important to understand that CL is a field with great width and depth that can be as simple as searching for how often students use a language form correctly or incorrectly in a collection of texts like a homework assignment or students searching for patterns in correct idiom usage to researchers putting together massive amounts of texts and data to look for trends in speech and opinions surrounding the 2016 referendum in the UK that saw that country leave the European Union leading to the creation of the Brexit Corpus. Friginal (2018) defines CL as:

"CL is a data-driven approach or methodology and various frequency-based results are important, critical sources of information for l**anguage teaching and learning**."

This paper will try and be as straightforward as possible

in its explanation and will specifically look at how CL is useful for everyday teacher, CL tools and their uses, sample exercises, and why teaching students how to use a corpus is beneficial.

How is CL Useful for Teachers

Languages are complex living things that form dynamic structures. Often textbooks and lessons portray them in a simplistic, flat, two-dimensional fashion, and this is not always a bad thing because explanations and information must build upon themselves for students to absorb the material, understand it, and then learn to use it. There are a few aspects of language learning that using corpora and CL tools can help add depth for learners and teachers: Polysemy, Practicality and Patterns, and Authenticity

Polysemy

According to Bloom's Taxonomy (Armstrong, 2010), one of the basic things to consider when trying to engage your students is whether can they remember and understand what they are learning. Assigning articles and vocabulary can only provide surface-level understanding because words often have multiple meanings (Polysemy) depending on the context in which they are

used. Teaching students how to use a corpus to find the correct meaning for the context it is found in can solve a lot of confusion when they run into a word they have learned before but because it is in a different context, or it is being used idiomatically the meaning is different. Most corpora have different functions and contain different texts (Please see the CL Tools section) which may function differently so please choose the tools to use in your classroom based on your students' needs. Most corpora have a LIST function which allows you to search for all forms of a word, word-matching patterns, and synonyms and create customized word lists.

Practicality and Patterns

Using the LIST function you can search through more than 1 billion words in 485,202 texts in various genres (TV/Movie, Spoken, Academic, etc) using the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) which can be found free online (https://www.english-corpora.org/) along with other corpora of various sizes and genres. Students can do mini reports to practice using the corpus for example what are the 12 most used verbs in American English (excluding be, do, have, and modal verbs) (see Figure 1) and some examples of each. Students can actively and independently examine and notice naturally occurring language, and their linguis-

Figure 1
12 most commonly used verbs in American English excluding be, do, have, and modal verbs

tic patterns and rules. (Boulton, 2009)

Authenticity

Materials used in classrooms should be authentic and impactful, but how can teachers be sure that the materials they are creating are authentic or instead the image of English that we have created based on our own experiences. The variation in patterns used in a language is different from place to place and can be called World Englishes. Corpora were created to collect texts created by people and are curated for different purposes. For example, COCA was created to be a balanced corpus (having an equal amount of texts from a wide variety of genres) that is an effective sample of

what is called American English. The British National Corpus (BNC) is an older balanced corpus that contains 100 million words in texts collected in the 1980s and 90s. The Global Web-based English (GloWbE) corpus which is comprised of 1.9 million words from 1.8 million web pages spanning 20 different English-speaking countries provides unparalleled insight into the variation in English that can be found in the world. Some corpora look at variation between dialects and some look at variation over time. The Corpus of Historical American English (COHA) is a collection of texts of American English from the years 1820-2019. An interesting little project would be to look at which is more commonly used, "Going to…" or "Will…" in modern versus older forms of English (see Figures 2 & 3) (english-corpora.

SECTION (CLICK FOR SUB-SECTIONS) (SEE ALL SECTIONS AT ONCE)	FREQ	SIZE (M)	PER MIL	CLICK FOR CONTEXT (SEE ALL)
1820	399	7.0	57.15	
1830	947	13.7	69.07	
1840	1,117	15.8	70.66	
1850	1,947	16.5	117.74	
1860	2,597	16.9	153.34	
1870	3,563	18.8	189.64	
1880	4,196	20.1	209.10	
1890	4,269	20.4	208.99	
1900	6,407	22.0	291.53	
1910	9,659	23.1	418.08	
1920	9,892	25.7	384.90	
1930	14,352	27.7	517.98	
1940	13,756	27.4	502.05	
1950	15,451	28.7	539.09	
1960	16,479	29.1	565.85	
1970	15,871	28.8	543.58	
1980	15,636	29.9	523.79	
1990	19,005	33.1	573.31	
2000	20,483	34.8	588.22	
2010	20,283	35.5	572.11	
TOTAL	196,109			SEE ALL TOKENS

Figure 2
The frequency of the usage of the phrase "going to…" from the years 1820-2010
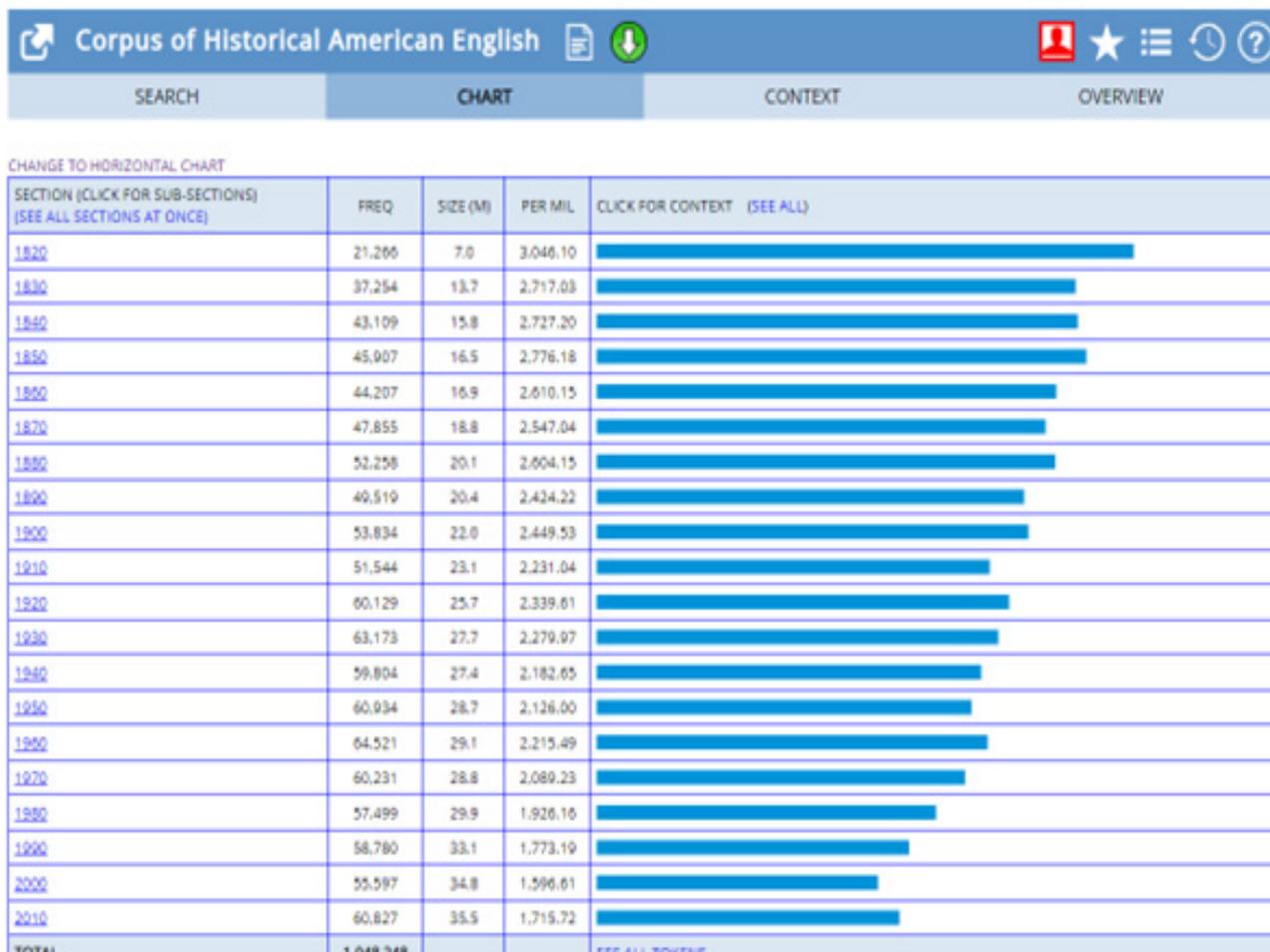
Figure 3
The frequency of the usage of the word "Will" from the years 1820-2010

org)

CL Tools and Their Uses

There are a wide variety of corpora and tools that are used for CL and Data-Driven Learning (DDL). This section will provide information on how to access them and what practical uses they might have for teachers and students. This section is broken up into two sections: Corpora and Multipurpose Tools.

Corpora

Most corpora you find on the internet all have their concordancer (search engine) built into the website which is useful, but they all have different functions with some more than others. In CL we use the term concordancer to refer to the program which searches, organizes, and retrieves results from a corpus. Google

is a concordancer that people use every day. Many of the free online corpora give free access to download the text files to use in a different concordance program.

www.english-corpora.org was originally a project that was started at Birmingham Young University in the United States by Mark Davies. It has grown exponentially in size and is available for free (with some small limitations). This website gives access to 19 different corpora spanning different dialects, genres, and time periods. The concordancer for each corpus is different depending on its purpose but the general user interface is the same. COCA in particular has a lot of useful functions, especially for beginners of CL other than the LIST function including an Academic Word List (AWL) (Gardner and Davies, 2013) search function built in, a WORD function that assembles a lot of corpus information on one page that is easy to read and analyze including, definitions, synonyms, collocations (words

that are found frequently together with the search item), clusters (words or groups of words that are often found together with the search item), and Key Words In Context (KWIC) which generates a list of examples of the search item in context with Parts Of Speech (POS) highlighted in different colors. This corpus will also analyze text for word frequency based on the AWL which is useful for students trying to improve their writing.

Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English & Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers (MICASE & MICUSP) (https://lsa.umich.edu/eli/language-resources/micase-micusp.html) is a collection of written and spoken language collected at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor Michigan. This corpus is relevant to teachers whose goal is to improve their students' academic writing and speech. This is a collection of transcripts and writing spanning multiple academic genres that can be used as a reference from which to compare the frequency of academic word use and other parts of speech. Teachers of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) will find it particularly useful.

VOICE (Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English) (https://voice.acdh.oeaw.ac.at/) is a corpus of spoken English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and includes transcripts of people who use English as their second language instead of English from countries that include English as one of their national languages. This corpus specifically comprises transcripts of natural language interactions that are divided into speech event types such as conversations, meetings, and interviews. This corpus should be useful for students who want to learn business English, are job hunting, or generally want to improve their conversational pragmatics in an authentic setting.

WebParaNews (WPN) (http://www.antlabsolutions.com/webparanews/) is a parallel corpus meaning it is a collection of texts from two different languages. WPN is a corpus based on the National Institute of Information and Communications Technology's (NICT) Japanese-English news articles database. The concordancer is relatively simple to use for beginners and highlights the searched term in both languages. This might be easier to facilitate comprehension in pre-intermediate Japanese EFL learners whose barrier to more compli-

cated texts lies in the advanced grammar structures and unfamiliar language patterns.

Multipurpose Tools

A variety of tools has been created for beginners and advanced users of CL tools by Tom Cobb (https://www.lextutor.ca/) (the University of Quebec in Montreal) and Laurence Anthony (http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software.html) (Waseda University). Both have tools for comparing texts, creating corpora, and tools for making materials for the classroom or use in the classroom. The Lextutor website has a variety of vocabulary size tests that could be useful for new students to figure out their level or for teachers trying to chart students' progress over time. Laurence Anthony has created a set of quick tools (AWL word family generator and AWL text profiler). Both websites have tools for advanced CL research as well as creating your own corpora.

Sample Exercises

These are exercises that have been found to be practical for use in the classroom. As with most CL exercises they require some introduction to the tools in general before the actual exercise, but both are relatively simple in their focus which is good because otherwise students get overwhelmed by unfamiliar terminology and technology. If you are going to use www.english-corpora.org you need to guide students through making an account. It is free and it does not require a lot of time to do.

Using a Concordancer for Vocabulary Learning

Created by Jonathan McNair (Friginal, 2018)

This exercise is broken down into a pre-task, task, and post-task and can be done over several classes. This allows students to get used to using the corpus in class and eventually at home by themselves which helps build student autonomy. Learning goals include word choice, recognizing idiomatic language, and peer review. When beginning the pre-task students should have at least one computer though if they do not the website is accessible by mobile devices.

Corpus of Contemporary American English

SEARCH · FREQUENCY · CONTEXT · ACCOUNT

FIND SAMPLE: 100 200 500 1000
PAGE: << < 1 / 1000 > >>

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT · HELP · SAVE · TRANSLATE · ANALYZE

1	2012	BLOG	crawfishboxes.com	hard like that in past starts. I was never really high on Houser to **begin** with, but it's hard to deny that the kid has got front of
2	2012	BLOG	dailykos.com	# The film, with a script penned by Stephen King, is scheduled to **begin** shooting in rural Urshittinme, Iowa July, 2013. Fox News Gretchen Carlson spilled
3	2012	BLOG	katemats.com	mentor ". This person can show you the ropes of engineering, so you **begin** to develop the vocabulary to talk with engineers in their language. Spending
4	2012	BLOG	geekosophical.net	extent of this precedent. Who defines what copyrighted material is link-to-able. Before I **begin** my hypothesising, I'm going to state, once and for all: IAN.
5	2012	BLOG	...ecatpublications.com	both men, although for far different reasons. It's here where you might **begin** to wonder about Joan's reliability as the storyteller – after all, isn't
6	2012	BLOG	wkvi.com	site, and as soon as the center receives their testing materials, they will **begin** conducting tests for those earn their General Education Diploma. # This er
7	2012	BLOG	...ws.theregistrysf.com	Willing to Go Spec All the Way # Office landlord Kilroy Realty Corp. would **begin** construction next year on a speculative basis at both of the San Francisc
8	2012	BLOG	...ennettandbennett.com	I've tried several different approaches for dealing with these calls. Generally I'll **begin** with " I'm sorry, I don't discuss fees over the telephone.
9	2012	BLOG	...urleafcloverblog.com	your face # It's been months and I don't even know where to **begin**. Thank you to all of those who stuck around and welcome to all newcomers
10	2012	BLOG	freethoughtblogs.com	. " # I'm not even sure where to start, so let's **begin** with the obvious: Being a child of same-sex parents is kind of a tiny
11	2012	BLOG	rt.com	Iran on ending its nuclear-fuel program. # Russia's Foreign Minister stressed negotiations should **begin** without any imposed timetable, and even if Iran
12	2012	BLOG	rt.com	going back to what they did last year. # RT: If Western states **begin** official arms supplies, wouldn't nations that back the Syrian government have the rig
13	2012	BLOG	...ansymbol.typepad.com	stick strikes down and recoils up with snap and zest. Done repeatedly, rhythms **begin** to emerge. When rhythm s form in patterns and tempos appealing
14	2012	BLOG	...mbreen.wordpress.com	your friends engage them, everything seems above board. But then, when you **begin** to investigate the character, it transpires that nobody knows who t
15	2012	BLOG	...ithchip.blogspot.com	spent on haircuts, we must limit the permissible type of hair styles; bureaucrats **begin** to split hairs about how many hairs a barber should be allowed to
16	2012	BLOG	...rds.straightdope.com	up the lift. AUDI dealerships never turn old rotors-the OEM rotors are thin to **begin** with (to save weight), and will warp if turned. That is
17	2012	BLOG	...elticmythpodshow.com	a challenge than those on more structured paths toward the Source. # Elves often **begin** their journey from little spiritual foundation. Their parents prov
18	2012	BLOG	...elticmythpodshow.com	critical intellect. Cut loose, they face a most challenging dilemma – whether to **begin** an alternate path put forward by the Elders or to forge a new path t
19	2012	BLOG	...ocetah.wordpress.com	is only the latest entry. It will be helpful to use the Index to **begin** finding the place name you are seeking. # The work is ongoing, and

Figure 4
COCA List Function search: START

Corpus of Contemporary American English

SEARCH · FREQUENCY · CONTEXT · ACCOUNT

FIND SAMPLE: 100 200 500 1000
PAGE: << < 1 / 1000 > >>

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT · HELP · SAVE · TRANSLATE · ANALYZE

1	2012	BLOG	crawfishboxes.com	hard like that in past starts. I was never really high on Houser to **begin** with, but it's hard to deny that the kid has got front of
2	2012	BLOG	dailykos.com	# The film, with a script penned by Stephen King, is scheduled to **begin** shooting in rural Urshittinme, Iowa July, 2013. Fox News Gretchen Carlson spilled
3	2012	BLOG	katemats.com	mentor ". This person can show you the ropes of engineering, so you **begin** to develop the vocabulary to talk with engineers in their language. Spending
4	2012	BLOG	geekosophical.net	extent of this precedent. Who defines what copyrighted material is link-to-able. Before I **begin** my hypothesising, I'm going to state, once and for all: IAN.
5	2012	BLOG	...ecatpublications.com	both men, although for far different reasons. It's here where you might **begin** to wonder about Joan's reliability as the storyteller – after all, isn't
6	2012	BLOG	wkvi.com	site, and as soon as the center receives their testing materials, they will **begin** conducting tests for those earn their General Education Diploma. # This er
7	2012	BLOG	...ws.theregistrysf.com	Willing to Go Spec All the Way # Office landlord Kilroy Realty Corp. would **begin** construction next year on a speculative basis at both of the San Francisc
8	2012	BLOG	...ennettandbennett.com	I've tried several different approaches for dealing with these calls. Generally I'll **begin** with " I'm sorry, I don't discuss fees over the telephone.
9	2012	BLOG	...urleafcloverblog.com	your face # It's been months and I don't even know where to **begin**. Thank you to all of those who stuck around and welcome to all newcomers
10	2012	BLOG	freethoughtblogs.com	. " # I'm not even sure where to start, so let's **begin** with the obvious: Being a child of same-sex parents is kind of a tiny
11	2012	BLOG	rt.com	Iran on ending its nuclear-fuel program. # Russia's Foreign Minister stressed negotiations should **begin** without any imposed timetable, and even if Iran
12	2012	BLOG	rt.com	going back to what they did last year. # RT: If Western states **begin** official arms supplies, wouldn't nations that back the Syrian government have the rig
13	2012	BLOG	...ansymbol.typepad.com	stick strikes down and recoils up with snap and zest. Done repeatedly, rhythms **begin** to emerge. When rhythm s form in patterns and tempos appealing
14	2012	BLOG	...mbreen.wordpress.com	your friends engage them, everything seems above board. But then, when you **begin** to investigate the character, it transpires that nobody knows who t
15	2012	BLOG	...ithchip.blogspot.com	spent on haircuts, we must limit the permissible type of hair styles; bureaucrats **begin** to split hairs about how many hairs a barber should be allowed to
16	2012	BLOG	...rds.straightdope.com	up the lift. AUDI dealerships never turn old rotors-the OEM rotors are thin to **begin** with (to save weight), and will warp if turned. That is
17	2012	BLOG	...elticmythpodshow.com	a challenge than those on more structured paths toward the Source. # Elves often **begin** their journey from little spiritual foundation. Their parents prov
18	2012	BLOG	...elticmythpodshow.com	critical intellect. Cut loose, they face a most challenging dilemma – whether to **begin** an alternate path put forward by the Elders or to forge a new path t
19	2012	BLOG	...ocetah.wordpress.com	is only the latest entry. It will be helpful to use the Index to **begin** finding the place name you are seeking. # The work is ongoing, and

Figure
COCA List Function search: BEGIN

- First, students should log in and go to the COCA search page.

- Using the LIST function, they will search for the Lemma form of START by entering it in all caps in the search bar. Next, they should open another tab and repeat step one but instead search for BEGIN (see Figure 4-5 above).

- As pair work let students examine the results and encourage them to write down some notes on the patterns they notice, what words are often found before and after the searched items, what common phrases they find, and any irregularities.

- Finally, give a handout to each student to fill out by themselves using forms of the word begin or start.

See Appendix A for an example, but please take note that what we want students to notice here is which words are used in which context and when is it considered idiomatic. After they are done filling it out have the students compare their answers.

- For the task part you can repeat all the steps in the pre-task but instead, search for WARM and HOT.

For this handout you want to make sure that you use a lot more idiomatic language (Appendix A) since for the most part, begin and start can be used interchangeably except for a few instances.

The post-task employs a writing prompt to create meaning-focused output. As feedback, the teacher can highlight the misused words (I recommend using a tool for looking at common multiword clusters which can be found for free in Laurence Anthony's AntConc program or Tom Cobb's Lextutor website). Students will use the WPN corpus and www.Thesaurus.com to find words that are more suitable and rewrite the sentences.

This exercise was developed for use by pre-intermediate learners and could be done by high school as well as college students. DDL and particularly this exercise focus on exposing the students to large amounts of input (see figures 4-5). From this input, students will be able to notice important features of vocabulary such as polysemy, affective meanings, associations, and collocations (Richards, 2008). Being exposed to so much input in context will allow students to absorb a word's meaning quicker than if they were to just naturally notice it while reading (Friginal, 2018).

Quantifiers in Spoken and Academic Registers

Created by Marsha Walker (Friginal, 2018)

This task is simple as well and has some extensions that can be used as a post-task review. The learning goals are straightforward, word choice (quantifiers), and analyzing register. In this case, register has the same meaning as genre which is situationally defined speech and writing (Friginal, 2018), and these terms are often used interchangeably in CL.

- First, let students log in to the english-corpora.com website and go to the COCA page. In the LIST function interface, have them click on the "Sections" icon, in box 1 click on "SPOKEN", and in box 2 click on "ACADEMIC". (See Figure 6 below) Next, have students search for "numerous" and ask them about the result, "In which genre is numerous used more?". Have the students mark down the result on the handout (Appendix A) and then proceed to fill out the rest by repeating the steps using other quantifiers.

- A possible post-task would be to have the students write a short dialogue using quantifiers used in a spoken context and then share it with the class. Other possible variations would be to use this for words of frequency, or other grammar points that vary between genres.

This lesson is appropriate for a pre-intermediate level class though it could be scaled up depending on the level of the students. The reason quantifiers were chosen is that using count and non-count nouns is grammatically challenging and also uses situationally appropriate language which is demonstrated well by using CL (Friginal, 2018).
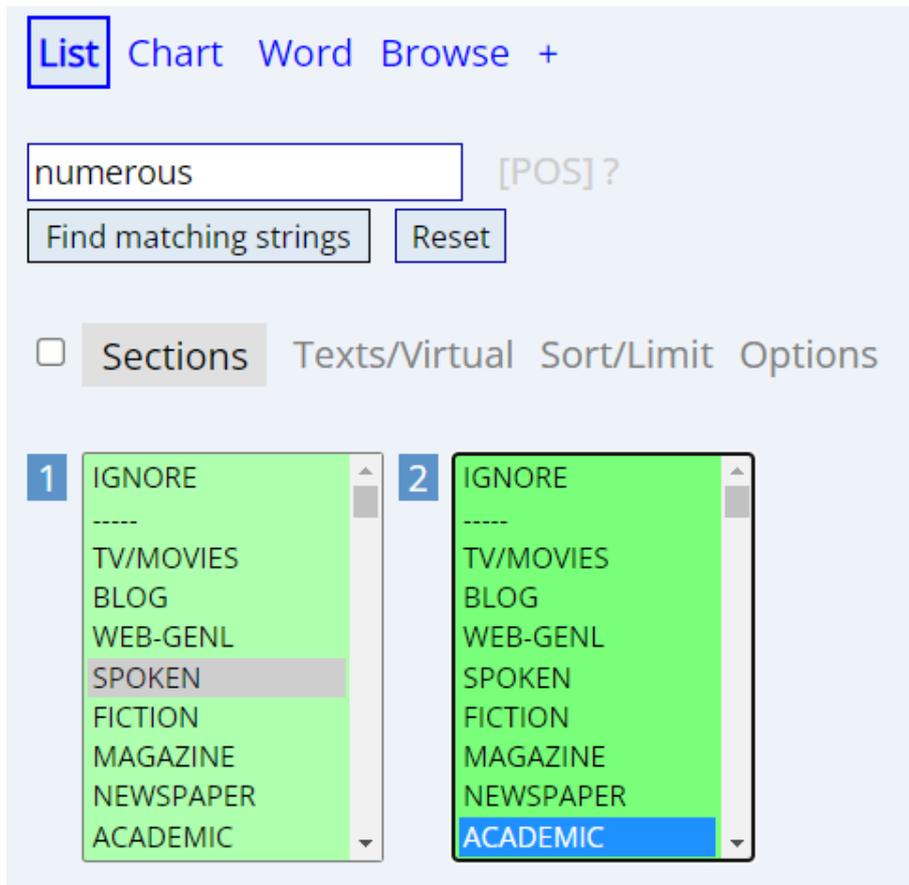
Figure 6
COCA List Function search: Refined search criteria for Numerous (comparing use in different registers)

Why CL is Useful for Students

Teaching students how to use a corpus is useful for them on several levels. The first sample activity introduced in this paper focuses on vocabulary learning in which the responsibility lies often with the student and teaching them how to use a corpus allows them to be autonomous in their learning. It teaches them to understand language and its associations, patterns, and contextual usage. You could say that reading does the same thing but for a student to learn a particular phrase or vocabulary they might have to read thousands of words and be able to notice every time it appears. CL provides an immense amount of input that is focused and if analyzed properly can be extremely helpful in students' self-study.

Conclusion

CL from the start has trouble fitting itself into classrooms due to several factors. It is such an expansive topic, and there are so many tools and terms that are erudite and strange, that teachers balk at trying to introduce something that they find hard to understand completely. The materials are hard to find, and often dense (written as research rather than practical articles), and there are no student textbooks that are written for the conversation classroom that use CL techniques. Often teachers have a lot of other material they must cover and simply adding another topic for them to introduce, feels burdensome and wastes precious class time. In many contexts, teachers are asked to focus on letting students have speaking time (or they have been taught to make that their priority) in class whereas CL is focused on language learning and meaning-focused input. Quality input is just as important as output, and as students learn to use CL techniques they can be efficiently implemented in the classroom as well as done at home if time is lacking. CL is readily implemented in

writing exercises, but with some creativity can be used to prepare students for speaking exercises as well by giving them opportunities to notice patterns in language that are correct and authentic. Many of the corpora and tools that have been mentioned in this paper provide tutorials and sample tasks that might be used with them if the opportunity to explore them is taken.

References

Anthony, L. (n.d.). *WebParaNews*. Retrieved August 31, 2022, from http://www. antlabsolutions.com/webparanews/

Anthony, L. (n.d.). Software. *Laurence Anthony's Software*. Retrieved August 31, 2022, from http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software.html

Armstrong, P. (2010). Bloom's Taxonomy. *Vanderbilt University Center for Teaching*. Retrieved August 31, 2022, from https://cft. vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/blooms-taxonomy/.

Boulton, A. (2009). Data-driven learning: on paper, in practice. *Corpus Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 17–52. Retrieved August 31, 2022, from https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-00393809v2.

Boulton, A. (2009). Testing the limits of data-driven learning: Language proficiency and training. *ReCALL*, *21*(1), 37–54. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0958344009000068

Cobb, T. *Compleat Lexical Tutor* [computer program]. Accessed September 31, 2022, from https://www.lextutor.ca/cgi-bin/range/texts/index.pl.

English-corpora.org. *English Corpora: most widely used online corpora*. Billions of words of data: free online access. (n.d.). Retrieved August 31, 2022, from https://www.english-corpora. org/

Friginal, E. (2018). *Corpus linguistics for English teachers: Tools, online resources, and classroom activities*. Routledge.

Gardner, D., & Davies, M. (2013). A new academic vocabulary list. *Applied Linguistics*, *35*(3), 305–327. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amt015

O'Keeffe, A., & McCarthy, M. (2022). In *The Routledge Handbook of Corpus Linguistics* (2nd ed., pp. 61–62). essay, Routledge.

Reppen, R. (2010). *Using corpora in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C. (2008). *Moving beyond the Plateau: From intermediate to advanced levels in language learning*. Cambridge University Press.

The Michigan Corpora: MICASE + MICUSP: U-M LSA English language institute. LSA. (n.d.). Retrieved August 31, 2022, from https://lsa. umich.edu/eli/language-resources/micase-micusp.html

Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English. VOICE. (n.d.). Retrieved August 31, 2022, from https://voice.acdh.oeaw.ac.at/

Appendix A

How often does start or begin occur with "to" and "with? Please look at the first 2 corpus pages and mark the result in the table.

	with	to
start		
begin		

How often is start in front of "to"? How often is it behind?

Is it the same for begin? Please mark the result in the table.

	In front	Behind
start		
begin		

How often is start in front of "with"? How often is it behind?

Is it the same for begin? Please mark the result in the table.

Please fill in the blanks with a form of "begin" or "start".

1. I could not _____ the car.
2. You _____ tomorrow.
3. It _____ to rain.
4. He _____ to sing.
5. You should _____ off your vacation with a good meal.
6. When you _____ learning English you should….
7. To _____ the computer press this button.
8. Please _____ as soon as possible.

Hot vs. Warm

1. The emperor thanked them for their _____ hospitality.
2. Inflation has become a _____ issue in the presidential election.
3. Everyone thought she looked _____ in her new dress.
4. The situation changed in a _____ second.
5. When I think about my family I always get _____ and fuzzy feelings.
6. Thank you so much for the _____ comments.
7. The movie star was _____ off her new movie set when she was mobbed by report-ers.
8. Environmental issues such as SDGs have become _____ topics these days.
9. Recently the cold war in Ukraine has become _____.
10. When I met my host family for the first time they greeted me very _____.

Quantifiers

Quantifiers	Tokens 1 in Spoken Corpora:	Tokens 2 in Written Corpora:	In which context should we use this word? (Spoken, Written, or Both)	Provide 2 examples of the word in context. Underline the noun the quantifier modifies
Numerous				He used numerous sources. Numerous people applied for the job.
A lot				
Lots				
Many				
Much				
Tons of				
Multiple				
Several				

Corrective Feedback: Investigating Japanese Learners' Perceptions

Martyn McGettigan
Hiroshima City University

Abstract

Previous studies looking at student attitudes to corrective feedback (CF) found that students tended to favour comprehensive and more explicit forms of CF, although there was evidence that Japanese students tended to prefer less comprehensive and more implicit CF. In this study on oral CF, quantitative data was gathered by means of a survey of Japanese adult learners and qualitative data in interviews with four survey participants. The interview participants took part in a short task and were given individual CF according to their stated preferences, then asked to reflect on their answers to the survey questions. In contrast with previous studies, participants in this study were found to exhibit views on CF in line with non-Japanese, adult EFL learners in previous studies. The method of giving students CF and then asking them to reconsider their preferences was found to be an effective means of reflection on approaches to CF.

日本語概要

修正フィードバック（CF）に対する学習者の態度に関する先行研究では、学習者は包括的でより明白なCFを好む傾向があることが明らかにされていますが、日本人学習者はより包括的でなくより黙示的なCFを好む傾向があるとの証拠もあります。本研究では、日本人学習者を対象としたアンケートによる量的データと、アンケート参加者4名とのインタビューによる質的データを収集した。インタビュー参加者は、短い課題に参加し、調査の問いに対して熟考された答えを尋ねられる前に、選考意識による修正フィードバックを与えられた。先行研究とは対照的に、本研究の参加者は、先行研究における外国人学習者と同じような CF に関する見解を示していることがわかった。学習者にCFを与えた後彼らにどのように修正するが好みか再考するよう尋ねるこのメソッドは、関連する全ての人にとって学習をより良くするために振り返る効果的な手段であることが分かった。

Corrective feedback (CF) has been defined by Ellis and Shintani (2014) as "responses to learner utterances that contain (or are perceived as containing) an error." (p. 249). These responses can be seen as a form of scaffolding, and may range from the teacher making it clear there is an error and correction is needed (explicit correction) to the teacher merely repeating what the learner said with the correction included (implicit correction). While many studies have looked at what forms of CF are most effective in aiding language acquisition, far fewer have examined student attitudes towards CF. This mixed-methods study sought to further explore the attitudes of Japanese learners towards CF in terms of what the literature has shown to be effective. The qualitative phase of the study also examined how actual experience of CF tailored to their expectations might lead to changes in the learners' attitudes to CF.

To identify which form of CF the literature has shown to be most effective, it is necessary first to define the different forms CF can take. Firstly, as stated above, CF can be more or less explicit. In addition, CF can either give the correct form as input, or seek to elicit the correct form from the student as output. Lyster and Ranta (1997) were among the first to try to categorise these different strategies, and they identified six forms (recasts, repetition, clarification requests, explicit correction, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation). Taking these six forms of CF, together with the two distinctions mentioned above, Ellis (2012) proposed a somewhat simpler, four-way division of CF strategies (see Table 1).

Explicit correction is simply the teacher telling the student they have made a mistake, and giving the correct form. A metalinguistic clue involves the teacher using grammatical terminology to prompt the student to self-correct, while elicitation involves the same prompting without the grammatical clue. Recasts involve the teacher repeating the student's output with the error corrected, without explicitly indicating that there was an error. Repetition refers to the teacher repeating the student's output with the error intact, possibly stressing the error and/or employing question intonation. Finally, a clarification request could be as simple as the teacher saying "Pardon?".

Table 1
Strategies for CF

Taxonomy of correction strategies (Lyster and Ranta, 1997)	Two types of correction strategies along two dimensions (Ellis, 2012)
Explicit correction	Explicit/input-providing (EIP)
Metalinguistic clues Elicitation	Explicit/output-prompting (EOP)
Recasts	Implicit/input-providing (IIP)
Repetition Clarification Requests	Implicit/output-prompting (IOP)

A number of studies have sought to compare the effectiveness of implicit and explicit CF in aiding language acquisition. In his meta-analysis of such studies, Li (2012) found explicit CF to be more effective than implicit. Ellis et al. (2006) analysed eleven previous studies, most of which compare recasts with some type of explicit CF, and, in general, reported that explicit feedback was more effective. However, Ellis et al. also pointed out that all of the studies used forms of testing that would be likely to test explicit more than implicit knowledge, and might thus be said to be biased in favour of explicit CF. Addressing this issue, in their own study Ellis et al. (2006) included an oral imitation test, administered before CF treatment and as both an immediate and delayed post-test, that was designed to test implicit knowledge. They found that the group that had received explicit CF did better than both the implicit CF and control groups, although this difference only became statistically significant in the delayed post-tests.

In summary, while the literature clearly does not support one form of CF to the exclusion of all others, there would seem to be sufficient evidence that explicit CF is generally more effective in aiding language acquisition.

Some studies have investigated student attitudes to CF. Cathcart and Olsen (1976), gathered data on student attitudes to CF by means of a questionnaire distributed to students from a wide range of backgrounds at a university and two community colleges.

The questions focused on how often students wanted their errors corrected and what types of errors they wanted corrected, as well as asking students to rate various correction strategies that included implicit and explicit, output-prompting, and input-providing strategies. A majority of students expressed a preference for having all of their errors corrected, with most of the remaining respondents preferring to have their errors corrected most of the time. In terms of which correction strategies students considered most useful, a clear preference was shown for more explicit strategies, with both input-providing and output-prompting strategies considered useful. Cathcart and Olsen only found small differences in these preferences between different nationalities, although they did find some evidence to suggest that Japanese students may be more averse to "negative-sounding" strategies (p. 47). More recent studies have continued to show similar results in terms of student attitudes (Roothooft and Breeze, 2016; Sakiroglu, 2020), with a meta-analysis by Li (2017) confirming these results across studies.

In a study focusing specifically on Japanese EFL students at universities, Katayama (2007) found somewhat different results. While still expressing a positive attitude towards CF in general, students were far less clear on whether they preferred all errors to be corrected. On average, they slightly disagreed with the proposition that teachers should do so. They also slightly agreed, on average, that only errors affecting communication should be corrected. Apart from ignoring the error, or simply repeating the question, which

were both strongly disliked, Katayama did not find that students had particularly strong preferences for one CF strategy over another. The CF strategy the students expressed the greatest preference for was described as "T gives a hint which might enable S to notice and self-correct." (p. 294). This is arguably the least explicit of the strategies the students rated. The most obvious way to account for the differences between this study and previous studies would be to conclude that they result from cultural differences between Japanese learners and those from other cultures. This conclusion seems to be somewhat supported by the findings of Cathcart and Olsen (1976) and McCargar (1993), where Japanese students (university and community college, in the case of Cathcart and Olsen; post-secondary intensive ESL course attendees, in the case of McCargar) were found to be less positive towards comprehensive correction and particularly direct and explicit CF strategies. Overall, it seems there is a great deal of evidence showing students favour error correction, and many want this correction applied to all errors. They tend to favour explicit correction strategies, both output-prompting and input-providing. However, evidence also shows that Japanese students may differ, with a greater preference for correction that is less comprehensive and more implicit.

Considering the above, this study investigated the following two research questions:

1) To what extent do the oral CF preferences of a sample of Japanese adults, of differing ages and backgrounds, align with the literature, both in terms of previous studies looking at student preferences, and what has been shown to be effective?

2) Can experience of individual, oral CF according to their stated preferences cause students to change those preferences, and, if so, in what ways?

Method

The Quantitative Phase: The Online Survey

The participants were 50 adult native-speakers of Japanese, found through an open, online survey. While the previous studies cited each looked at different age-groups and contexts, this study aimed to be broader-ranging, stipulating only that the participants must have had experience of formal English study. The quantitative data was collected by means of an online questionnaire (see Appendix A for the original questionnaire and Appendix B for its Japanese translation). The questionnaire was divided into two sections. The first was designed to elicit participants' preferences in terms of oral CF. The participants were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement, on a five-point scale, with five statements about oral CF. The second section asked the participants to rate four types of CF, covering the four combinations of input-providing/output-prompting and implicit/explicit, again using a five-point scale from least effective to most effective.

The Qualitative Phase: Interviews and Mini-lessons

Four interview participants were selected from among those that had completed the survey, agreed to participate in an interview, and were deemed by the researcher to be of a sufficient proficiency level (roughly CEFR B2 at least) to be able to do so in English. The interviews were conducted in English in three parts. In the first part, the participants were asked to give reasons for their responses to the statements and types of CF in the first and second sections of the questionnaire. Following this, participants were asked to take part in a short task (Appendix C). During this task, the interviewer administered CF in accordance with the preferences expressed by the interviewee in the questionnaire and the first part of the interview. The participants took an average of four minutes and 44 seconds to complete the task. After completing the task, the participants were asked for their reaction to the CF they had just received and whether there were any changes they would make to their initial answers on the questionnaire. Of the four interviewees, only two (C and D) were still studying English at the time of taking part in the study. The entire interview and mini-lesson sessions were recorded and transcribed as accurately as possible, with all errors included.

Results

Quantitative Results

In Table 2, the range, mean, and standard deviation are given for the participants' responses to the first part of the questionnaire.

As can be seen, responses were very mixed, with a full range of responses given for each statement. On average, the students felt most strongly about the second statement which, taking account of the reverse coding of this item, indicates strong support for teachers paying attention to affective factors when administering CF. This is closely followed by the fifth item, suggesting students on average thought grammatical explanation was important and should not be omitted. Students also favoured correcting all errors, though less strongly with a mean score of 3.6.

Table 3 shows the range, mean, and standard deviation for responses to the second part of the questionnaire, in which participants were asked to rate different methods of giving CF from 1-5 (where 5 was most effective). As can be seen, there was once again a wide range of responses, although the standard deviations indicate the majority of responses were clustered around the mean. The most strongly supported method was explicit and input-providing CF (EIP), closely followed by explicit and output-prompting CF (EOP). Both were on average rated as effective. Implicit CF, both output-prompting (IOP) and input-providing (IIP), was on average rated as less effective. Implicit and input-providing CF was rated as least effective overall, and this was the only method for which no respondent selected '5'.

Table 2

Results of Part 1 of the Online Survey

Statement	Range	Mean	Std. Dev.
A teacher should correct ALL errors students make, rather than ignoring some of them.	5-Jan	3.6	1.14
A teacher should NOT think about the student's feelings when correcting errors.	5-Jan	1.92	1.07
Errors should NOT be corrected immediately; they should be corrected at the end of the activity.	5-Jan	2.88	1.22
A teacher should correct the errors that impede communication, and ignore the others.	5-Jan	2.52	1.11
The teacher should NOT give a grammatical explanation of an error, only the correct form.	5-Jan	2.02	0.94

Table 3

Results of Part 2 of the Online Survey

Method of giving CF	Range	Mean	Std. Dev.
The teacher tells me I have made a mistake and then gives the correct form. (EIP)	1--5	3.9	1.05
The teacher tells me I have made a mistake, but waits for me to give the correct form. (EOP)	1--5	3.52	1.01
The teacher just gives the correct form, without making it clear I have made a mistake. (IIP)	1--4	1.94	0.93
The teacher asks me to repeat what I said, not making it clear I have made a mistake. (IOP)	1--5	2.14	0.99

Qualitative Results

Table 4 gives the responses to the survey questions given by the four interview participants.

As the table shows, the responses were rather varied. There was, however, general agreement on some points, such as rejection of the proposition that grammatical explanation should be omitted and agreement that explicit output-prompting CF is more effective than implicit CF, and that explicit input-providing CF is at least as effective as implicit. On the question of correcting all errors, responses ranged from disagreement (2) to strong agreement (5). Interviewee D, who indicated strong agreement, saw correction of all errors as important for improvement, but also conceded that this was only her opinion, and this may not be true for all learners. The reason she saw such comprehensive CF as important for improvement was that it can lead to certain small mistakes never being corrected and possibly becoming fossilised. As she put it:

> ...if that is the case [that some errors are not corrected], Japanese learners always use the same expressions and make the same mistakes. I think it doesn't lead to good improvement.

This response is similar to that given by interviewee A, who indicated agreement (4) with the statement. Interviewee B was ambivalent on the question, giving it a rating of 3. She stated that, while the teacher should certainly correct some errors, it is also important for students to think by themselves and not to have all their errors corrected. Interviewee C was the only one to disagree with the statement, giving it a rating of 2. When asked why she had given this response, she began by recounting her disappointment when attending English lessons and not receiving any correction at all:

> Sometimes, when I have attended some English conversation classes, sometimes I felt a little bit disappointed because the teacher didn't correct. So, I expected him or her to just replace my Japanese English into the better and more appropriate English. But, yeah, they didn't, so...

When prompted to give her reasons for disagreeing with comprehensive correction, however, she stated that she felt this would "discourage" her, and ultimately concluded that she believed it was important for the teacher to strike the right balance. While the participants who agreed with the statement gave similar reasons, then, those that disagreed seemed to have different concerns, one believing too much correction could be detrimental to autonomous learning, and the other highlighting affective factors.

The interviewees were also each asked to give their reasons for favouring whichever method of correction they had given the highest rating. In the case of interviewees A, B, and C, this was explicit, output-prompting CF, which they rated 5, 5, and 4, respectively. Interviewee D also gave this method a rating of 4, but favoured explicit, input-providing CF overall, with a rating of 5. Interviewee A explained her choice in terms of students constructing their own corrections being good practice, stating:

> Because making sentence is very good practice. So, teachers don't need to tell students correct answer immediately, so that students lose chance to make sentence by themselves.

Interviewee B responded very similarly to interviewee A. Interviewee C also talked about wanting to be given the chance to self-correct, and also referred to this as "good practice". Interviewee D focused more on the explicit nature of her chosen method, seeing CF that is both explicit and input-providing as necessary for ensuring that she can understand the nature of the error she has made. She said:

> Sometimes, if teachers kind of implies my mistakes, which... without telling me I have made a mistake... if just tiny mistakes and easy mistakes... I can probably feel I made a mistake by teacher's reaction... But, sometimes, some grammatical mistakes... even just teachers implies something, probably I can't understand what kind of mistakes I made. So, if teachers... gives me a clear point where I made a mistake, it's easier for me to realise.

Table 4

Survey Responses of the Four Interviewees

Survey Question	Interviewee:			
	A	B	C	D
The teacher should correct all errors	4	3	2	5
The teacher should not think about students' feelings	4	1	2	1
The teacher should use delayed correction	4	2	2	3
The teacher should only correct errors that could impede communication	2	4	2	1
The teacher should not give grammatical explanation	2	2	2	1
Explicit/Input-providing	4	2	2	5
Explicit/Output-prompting	5	5	4	4
Implicit/Input-providing	4	1	2	3
Implicit/Output-prompting	4	2	2	2

Following this, the interviewees completed a short task in which they had to describe three kinds of Japanese food. During and after this task, the researcher implemented the kind of error correction each interviewee had indicated she favoured to the best of his ability. This included giving either delayed or immediate correction to the interviewee (or, in the case of interviewee D, a mixture of the two). Table 5 shows the number of errors made by the student (approximate, since deciding what constitutes a discrete error can be difficult), the number of times the teacher offered CF, the number of times the student demonstrated uptake (repeating/using the corrected language) of a correction given by the teacher, and the number of times the student was able to self-correct without being given the correct form by the teacher.

Table 5

CF in the Mini-lessons

	Errors	Corrected	Uptake after teacher correction	Self-repair
Interviewee A	11	9	3	6
Interviewee B	33	7	2	4
Interviewee C	13	7	2	5
Interviewee D	7	4	2	5

After the task and the CF were finished, the interviewees were asked to comment on how they felt about the CF they had received. All four interviewees expressed satisfaction. They were then asked if, in light of the CF they had just been given, they would make any changes to the answers they gave in the survey. Interviewee A stated that she would make no changes. Interviewee C, who received immediate correction, also said she would not make any changes. Interviewee B, however, found the immediate correction to have made speaking difficult. Therefore, she opted to change her response to the third statement to a 4 (mild agreement that not all errors should be corrected). Interviewee D received a mixture of delayed and immediate correction, although the speed at which she spoke and the fact that she had indicated only wanting small and simple errors to be corrected immediately meant that the vast majority of the CF she received was delayed. Also, even though she had opted for input-providing CF, in almost every case she interrupted the correction in order to attempt to self-correct, as in the following example:

Interviewer: Okay, "in a various way", so, there's a bit of a problem there because, 'a various way' doesn't quite work...

Interviewee D: In various ways?

Interviewer: Okay, yes. You already got it.

This was pointed out to interviewee D at the end of the interview, which resulted in her deciding to change her answer to favour explicit, output-prompting CF over all the other methods.

Discussion

The results of the survey stage of this study were largely as reported by previous studies looking at students' attitudes to CF. As in previous studies, students taking part in this survey slightly favoured comprehensive correction on average. Furthermore, in line with previous studies, the respondents favoured explicit CF over implicit.

Whereas Japanese learners in Katayama's (2007a) study were found to disagree, on average, with the correction of all errors, in this study Japanese learners were found to support it. However, at 3.6 (with 3 being neutral), this was only the third strongest average opinion expressed. It is possible that putting the same question to non-Japanese learners could perhaps have produced stronger agreement. This would be in line with the findings of McCargar (1993), who found 'mild agreement' with comprehensive CF among Japanese learners while most groups expressed much stronger agreement. Cathcart and Olsen (1976) and Katayama (2007a, 2007b) also found Japanese students to regard explicit CF less favourably than learners from other language backgrounds, particularly when the CF is delivered in a direct manner which could be considered 'negative-sounding'. In this study, on the other hand, explicit CF was rated much higher than implicit CF overall. One explanation for this apparent discrepancy might be that in this study the methods of delivering CF were simply described without giving examples (such as 'don't say go, say went'). This might have avoided giving the participants the impression that certain methods sounded negative or confrontational. It is important to note that the previous studies mentioned were all based on groups, whereas this study involved administering CF in private lessons. As such, affective factors related to "saving face" in front of peers may have had an effect on the previous studies' results that was absent here.

Overall, in terms of the first research question, apart from a slight preference for input-providing over output-prompting CF, the forms of CF preferred on average by participants in this study were shown to be most effective in previous research. This would seem to be an encouraging outcome that suggests research-based methodologies can generally be implemented in a manner that should not come into conflict with student expectations. The students views were found to be slightly more favourable towards correcting all errors than those of Japanese students in previous studies, although, as mentioned above, the wording of the survey and the fact that there were no peers present for the mini-lessons may account for this.

The second research question deals with the extent to which experience of their stated preferences for CF can lead students to change their minds about those preferences. This question deals entirely with data obtained during the one-to-one interview stage of the study. Two of the four interviewees opted to change their survey answers after receiving CF. This shows that meaningful reflection resulting in changes that better meet student needs can result from this process.

Although small in scope, the results of this study suggest areas for further research. The effect of different settings (class, group or private) on student views could be further investigated, as well as the effect of the wording used to describe the oral CF strategies (descriptions or quoted examples). Finally, the study has shown that the process of giving CF according to students' preferences, and then asking them for feedback on that CF can add insight on quantitative results, as well as aiding the teacher's own reflections and providing a way in which teachers and learners can negotiate an approach to CF that better meets the learners' needs. In adapting this method to a group or classroom setting, CF could be administered based on the overall average preferences of the group or class, and group or class discussion could take the place of one-to-one interviews. This would allow for the exploration of

affective factors related to peer judgement, and could prove a very fruitful way of inviting learners to take a degree of ownership of how CF is applied in their learning context.

References

Cathcart, R. L., & Olsen, J. E. W. B. (1976). Teachers' and students' preferences for correction of classroom conversation errors. In J. F. Fanselow & R. H. Crymes (Eds.). *On TESOL*, 76, 41- 53.

Ellis, R. (2012). *Language teaching research and language pedagogy.* London: Wiley-Blackwell.

Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *28*(2), 339-368. doi. org/10.1017/s0272263106060141

Ellis, R., & Shintani, N. (2014). *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition research*. Oxford: Routledge.

Katayama, A. (2007). Learners' perceptions toward oral error correction. In K. Bradford-Watts (Ed.). *JALT 2006 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, *60*(2), 309-365. doi.org/10.1111/ j.1467-9922.2010.00561.x

Li, S. (2017). Student and teacher beliefs and attitudes about oral corrective feedback. In H. Nassaji & E. Cartchava (Eds.). *Corrective Feedback in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. New York: Routledge. 143-157.

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *19*(1), 37-66. doi. org/10.1017/s0272263197001034

McCargar, D. F. (1993). Teacher and student role expectations: Cross-cultural differences and implications. *The Modern Language Journal*, *77*(2), 192-207. doi. org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1993.tb01963.x

Roothooft, H. & Breeze, R. (2016). A comparison of EFL teachers' and students' attitudes to oral corrective feedback. *Language Awareness*, *25*(4), 318-335. doi.org/10.1080/0 9658416.2016.1235580

Sakiroglu, H. (2020). Oral corrective feedback preferences in university students in English communication classes. *International Journal of Research in Education and Science*, *6*(1), 172-178. doi.org/10.46328/ijres.v6i1.806

Appendix A
English Version of Questionnaire

Are you	_ male _ female?
Please indicate your age	__ under 18 __ 18-29 __ 30-39 __ 40-49 __ 50-59 __ 60-69 __ over 70
How long have you studied English in your life?	___ years and ___ months
What do you do?	Businessman/woman _ civil servant _ student/researcher _ housewife/husband _ other _
How many hours a week do you study English at the moment - in formal lessons? - in your free time?	___ hours ___ hours
What prefecture do you live in?	_____
Please select a number from 1-5, where 1 means strongly disagree and 5 means strongly agree:	

	Strongly disagree		Strongly agree
A teacher should correct ALL errors students make, rather than ignoring some of them	1 2 3 4 5		
A teacher should NOT think about the student's feelings when correcting errors	1 2 3 4 5		
Errors should NOT be corrected immediately; they should be corrected at the end of the activity.	1 2 3 4 5		

A teacher should correct the errors that impede communication, and ignore the others.	1 2 3 4 5
The teacher should NOT give a grammatical explanation of an error, only the correct form.	1 2 3 4 5
Please rate the following methods of correction, from 1 (least effective) to 5 (most effective).	
	Least effective Most effective
The teacher tells me I have made a mistake and then gives the correct form.	1 2 3 4 5
The teacher tells me I have made a mistake, but waits for me to give the correct form.	1 2 3 4 5
The teacher just gives the correct form, without making it clear I have made a mistake.	1 2 3 4 5
The teacher asks me to repeat what I said, not making it clear I have made a mistake.	1 2 3 4 5
Are you interested in taking part further in this research project?	Yes ___ No ___
If yes, please enter an e-mail address by which you can be contacted.	_____

Appendix B
Japanese Version of Questionnaire

あなたの性別を教えてください。	＿ 男性 ＿ 女性
あなたの年齢を教えてください。	＿ 18才未満 ＿ 18~29才 ＿ 30~39才 ＿ 40~49才 ＿ 50~59才 ＿ 60~69才 ＿ 70才以上
あなたはどのくらい英語を勉強していますか（していましたか）？	＿＿ 年 ＿＿ ヶ月
あなたの職業はなんですか？	＿ ビジネス ＿ 公務員 ＿ 学生/研究 ＿ 主婦/主夫 ＿ その他
現在、一週間に何時間英語を勉強していますか？ ーレッスンとして ー自由時間に	 ＿＿時間 ＿＿時間
あなたはどちらにお住まいですか？	県
次の質問に賛成するかを１〜５の５段階の中で選び回答ください。最も賛成する場合は５を，最も強く反対する場合には１を選んでください。	
	強く反対する　　　　　　　　　強く賛成する
先生は生徒の間違えを，一部でなく全て直すべきである。	1　2　3　4　5

間違えを直す際に，先生は生徒の感情を考慮すべきではない。	1	2	3	4	5
間違えをその場ですぐ直すべきではなく，終わりの段階で直すべきである。	1	2	3	4	5
先生はコミュニケーションの障害になる間違えのみを直すべきであり，他の間違えは無視すべきである。	1	2	3	4	5
先生は，間違えの文法的な説明をしないで，正答を示すすべきである。	1	2	3	4	5
次の質問について１～５の５段階の中で選び回答ください。間違えを直すことについて，最も効果的な手法と思われる場合には５を，最も効果的でない手法と思われる場合には１を選んでください。					

	最も効果的でない 最も効果的
先生が，私が間違えたことを指摘し，正答を教えてくれる。	1　　2　　3　　4　　5
先生が，私が間違えたことを指摘し，その上で，私が正答を述べるまで待つ。	1　　2　　3　　4　　5
先生が，私がミスしたことを明確に指摘しない，正答を教えてくれる。	1　　2　　3　　4　　5
先生が，私がミスしたことを明確に指摘しないで，私に発言をもう一度繰り返させる。	1　　2　　3　　4　　5
この研究プロジェクトへの更なる参加に関心を持っていただけますか。お聞きしています。	Yes ___　　　　No ___
もし関心を持っていただけるのなら，コンタクトさせていただくためのeメールアドレスを記入ください。	_____

Appendix C
Mini-lesson Task

Someone is visiting your city in Japan for one day. They want recommendations for food.

They will only have time to try three things.

Make three recommendations. You can recommend general Japanese food, or specialities from your home town.

Explain what is in the dishes and how they are made. Answer any questions the person asks.

Effects of Weekly Explicit Grammar Instruction on L2 speaking Development

Shzh-chen Nancy Lee
Osaka University

Abstract

Research in the task-based learning and teaching (TBLT) field has been looking at the effects of form-focused instruction on speaking development. Past studies have produced significant gains in oral fluency and syntactic complexity yet limited gains in syntactic accuracy. The present study therefore aimed to examine the effects of explicit form-focused instruction over time by looking at changes to learners' speaking output from receiving weekly explicit grammar instruction over seven weeks. Three target participants received 10 minutes of grammar instruction from the researcher on three past tense forms for seven weeks. Pretest and posttest were conducted before and after the intervention period. Changes in the participants speaking output were quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed. All participants improved in syntactic accuracy in terms of global accuracy and local accuracy. While the three participants developed differently in their speaking over time, the focused tasks successfully directed one participant's attention to the target forms through focus-on-forms and also raised his awareness toward grammatical accuracy.

日本語概要

タスク中心型指導方法 (TBLT) 分野の研究において、フォームがスピーキング力にあたえる影響は広く研究されてきた。しかし、流暢さと複雑さに良い影響をもたらしたが、文法の正確さの向上に対してほぼ影響がなかった。本研究は、明確なフォーム・フォーカスト・インストラクションの効果を縦断的に調べるため、7週間にわたって毎週文法指導を受けた学習者のスピーキング変化を調べた。対象となる参加者 の3 人は、毎週10 分間の過去形文法指導を受けた。介入期間の7週間の前後にプリテスト及びポストテストを行った。そして、参加者の発話の変化を量的および質的に分析した。その結果、参加者3人とも文法の正確さが向上した。 また、時間の経過とともに3 人の参加者はスピーキングの発達過程に違いがあったが、フォーカス・オン・フォームズのタスクによって1 人の参加者の注意力が過去形文法に向けることに成功し、文法の正確さに対する意識も高めた。

In order to develop learners' English speaking ability, many Japanese universities have implemented communication-based classrooms. In these classrooms, task-based language teaching (TBLT) has become a common approach where students complete different tasks in English that resemble real-life situations. While research found TBLT to be a good approach for developing speaking ability, the integration of form into meaningful tasks is desirable (Long, 2015). More recent TBLT research started to recognize the importance of form-focused instruction (FFI) for developing learners' speaking ability. A number of studies have shown FFI leads to significant gains in fluency (e.g., Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011) and some gains in syntactic complexity (e.g., Bygate, 2001). However, to date, not many studies have produced significant gains in syntactic accuracy (see Gass et al., 1999; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008;

Sangarun, 2005 for exceptions). It may be that limited syntactic accuracy gains have been observed because previous studies mainly looked at the effects of FFI by using task repetitions (e.g., Bygate, 2001; Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Lambert et al., 2017). In addition, the FFI intervention was often implemented during one single session. Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate the effects of form-focused instruction on EFL learners' speaking ability by looking at the effects of receiving weekly explicit grammar explanation over time. Data of this study was a part of the researcher' doctoral dissertation research.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT)

Task-based language teaching grew out from the communicative language teaching (CLT) paradigm to become one of the most commonly approaches in English communication classrooms. The original TBLT principle suggests that learners do not need to learn consciously but, rather, they can learn incidentally by completing tasks designed by teachers which focus their attention on meaning (Ellis, 2018). Task can be defined differently by different researchers (Ellis, 2003). According to Ellis (2003), tasks primarily focus on meaning, use real-world language through skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing, engage cognitive processes such as selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning, and evaluating information, as well as have clear communicative outcomes. In addition, tasks can be both focused, which focus on meaning and nonlinguistic purpose(s) only, and unfocused, which are designed to provide learners with opportunities to use specific grammatical features (Lyster, 2007).

Focus on form (FonF) and Focus on forms (FonFs)

Focus on form (FonF) was first introduced as a term to describe brief instructional focus of linguistic features during meaningful communication (Williams, 2005). According to its initial interpretation, focus on form is concerned with the communication of meaning and incidentally occurred linguistic features when they are triggered by learner-oriented problems during real communication. Therefore, teachers would wait reactively for learner problems to occur and only respond to those problems when needed. Therefore, target forms would only originate from problems experienced by the learners, as reactive responses to problems that emerge during tasks (Ellis et al., 2001). Compared to focus on form (FonF) which occurs incidentally, focus on forms (FonFs) was introduced as a term to describe decontextualized, planned, pre-selected teacher-centered instructions of linguistic features. However, the ambiguity and overlap of the distinction between FonF and FonFs is inevitable. Therefore Ellis (2001) suggested the umbrella term, form-focused instruction (FFI) to refer to all instructions, both incidental and planned that intend to direct learner attention to linguistic forms of the target language.

Form-focused instruction (FFI)

Form-focused instruction (FFI) can also be both implicit and explicit, ranging from implicitly structured interventions such as planning and repetition, to more explicitly teacher directed interventions such as modelling, feedback, and explanations of target linguistic forms (Norris & Ortega, 2000). Metacognitive process of target linguistic forms can be encouraged through FFI where form can assist learners' interlanguage development (Ellis et al., 2001). During FFI, learners are encouraged to attend to forms that they have not yet acquired (Williams, 2005) and compare their current interlanguage knowledge with the target language knowledge. Therefore, when given effectively, FFI could lead learners to compare forms stored in short-term memory in the input given to them, with knowledge stored in their long-term memory.

Grammar instruction

In the EFL context, form-focused instruction is considered effective because it reduces ambiguity and facilitates cognitive mapping between form, meaning, and the use of linguistic expressions for learners (DeKeyser, 1998). Through grammar instruction, teachers can guide learners' attention to specific syntactic forms, which can then enhance their ability to speak those forms accurately (Goh & Burns, 2012). This explicitness can encourage learners to notice error forms in their output. According to Noticing the gap hypothesis (Schmidt & Frota, 1986), learners need to make conscious comparisons between their own output and target language input. By doing so, learners could modify their spoken language and achieve greater accuracy. According to Swain (1985), awareness is a mechanism that triggers the cognitive processes needed so learners need to become aware of what they are producing in order to make accurate and precise output. Learner awareness is therefore important because simply speaking the target language without consciousness is inadequate (Goh & Burns, 2012).

Unlike the more implicit form-focused instructions such as planning (e.g., Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011) and

task repetition (e.g., Bygate, 2001), grammar explanation explicitly focuses on form and could potentially assist learners to acquire grammatical features more accurately and quickly (Han, 2004). However, the effects of grammar instruction on speaking development is difficult to measure, as changes in oral output are more difficult to be captured than changes in written output (Ellis, 2005). Ellis further suggests that it is effective to combine different grammar instructions such as explicit explanation, production practice, and negative feedback together.

Measuring speaking proficiency

From a linguistic perspective, speaking proficiency is often measured using three constructs: complexity, accuracy, and fluency (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Syntactic complexity is often measured by global complexity, complexity by subordination, and complexity via sub-clausal or phrasal elaboration (Norris & Ortega, 2009). Within which, global complexity is often measured by mean length of T-unit. Accuracy is often measured by identifying deviations from the native-speaker norm in terms of errors (Housen & Huiken, 2009). Syntactic accuracy can be measured by global accuracy in terms of the number and percentage of error-free T-units (Michel, 2017) and local accuracy of specific linguistic forms (Iwashita et al., 2008). Fluency is often measured by speed without unneeded pausing or dysfluency markers, such as hesitations, false-starts, or reformulations (Ellis, 2003).

Method

In order to examine the effects of receiving grammar instruction over time on English speaking ability, a classroom-based study was conducted on 41 first-year Japanese university students. Participants were given weekly grammar explanation by the researcher for seven weeks. Participants' weekly oral output immediately after receiving grammar instruction was recorded, transcribed, and analysed. The research period included one pretest week, seven weeks of interventions, and one posttest week. Pretest and posttest were used to measure the effects of intervention over time on participants.

Research population

Participants came from one national university in Western Japan. Students at this university are considered to have high academic ability and above intermediate level English writing and reading proficiency levels. Participants were non-English majors and had two 90-minute mandatory English courses per week for 15 weeks per semester, of which one of the courses was taught by the researcher. In the communication focused course taught by the researcher, 41 participants engaged in meaning-based tasks, including conducting pair work and small group discussion of current global news and topics.

Instrumentation

Four-picture cartoon narration (equivalent to Eiken Pre Level-1) was chosen for the present study because it could focus on speaking output while standardizing content and task difficulty. A total of eight cartoons were used. The same cartoon (see Appendix A) was used for pretest and posttest to ensure that any difference in participants' performance of the pretest and posttest would be due to the effects of research intervention and not differences in task difficulty. The remaining seven cartoons were used one per week for seven weeks during the intervention period. The cartoons were adapted from a commercial textbook (Akao, 2011).

Procedures

The research was conducted in a CALL classroom taught by the researcher. Participants recorded their narrations on individual desktop computers. In pretest, all participants narrated one four-picture cartoon for a maximum of two minutes. During the intervention period, participants received 10 minutes of FonFs (focus on forms) grammar intervention on three past tense forms: past simple, past continuous, and past perfect. Past perfect continuous form was excluded because it is not commonly used in speaking. The grammar intervention included three focused tasks (Lyster, 2007): receiving explicit blackboard grammar explanation by the teacher, completing fill-in blank grammar drills (Murphy, 2012), and oral pair work of

making sentences based on the three past tense forms. For the explicit blackboard grammar explanation, the teacher chose verbs from the four-picture cartoon each week and explained how the verb is changed between the three past tense forms. For the fill-in blank grammar drills, participants completed activities on three past tense forms adapted the above textbook. For the oral pair work, participants took term practicing formulating sentences orally to each other by using a list of verbs prepared by the researcher, taken from each week's four-picture cartoon. Each week immediately after intervention, participants narrated a different cartoon and recorded themselves on the computer. The weekly cartoons had different content but equivalent difficulty level. In posttest, all participants narrated the same cartoon used in the pretest.

Target participants

In order to examine the effects of focused grammar instruction, three average achieving participants (pseudonyms: Daiki, Daiichi, and Daisuke) were chosen from the 41 research participants for week-to-week analysis. Appointing average achievers as target participants excluded potential outliner issues as high and low achievers are likely to improve in speaking proficiency differently from average achievers. Daiki was the strongest speaker and Daiichi was the weakest.

Data analysis

All three participants' cartoon narrations were transcribed and analyzed. Quantitative analysis predominantly focused on syntactic accuracy. Global accuracy was measured by determining the total number and accurate number of T-units. Local accuracy was measured by determining the number of instances of past tense usage by counting the total number of past simple, past continuous, and past perfect forms and how many of them were accurately used. However, very few number of past continuous and past perfect forms were identified, so they were excluded from further quantitative analysis. For qualitative analysis, a holistic approach was used to examine syntactic accuracy elements.

Results

Table 1 indicates the total number and accurate number of T-units produced by three participants over time. Overall, participants produced more T-units as well as more accurate T-units towards the end compared to the beginning of the study. In Week 7, all three participants produced the same number of T-units. Daiichi and Daisuke almost doubled in the number of accurate T-units in the last week while Daiki did not change in the number of accurate T-units produced.

Table 1. *N umber of T-units produced over time*

Week	Daiki T	Daiki A	Daiichi T	Daiichi A	Daisuke T	Daisuke A
Pretest	15	10	13	3	9	4
1	10	6	14	5	8	4
2	11	6	15	8	12	9
3	12	9	13	4	8	6
4	13	9	17	7	9	6
5	14	7	12	6	14	13
6	14	10	11	6	10	7
7	14	9	14	6	14	12
Posttest	12	10	18	7	11	7

Note. T = total number; A = accurate number

Table 2 presents the total number and accurate number of past simple tense produced by three participants over time. Overall, participants produced a significantly greater number of accurate past simple tense constructions at the end of the study compared to the beginning. Daiichi and Daisuke used more past simple tense in posttest compared to pretest whereas Daiki scored seven out of seven in his usage of past tense usage. On the other hand, Daiichi started out to be the weakest speaker, and had only two accurate past tense usage in Week 7. In the post test, Daiichi had six accurate usages of past tense form.

Table 2. *Number of simple past tense used over time*

Week	Daiki T	Daiki A	Daiichi T	Daiichi A	Daisuke T	Daisuke A
Pretest	10	7	9	1	6	3
1	6	3	8	0	6	2
2	10	5	5	1	8	6
3	7	5	7	1	7	6
4	12	9	9	1	9	5
5	8	7	5	0	6	5
6	12	9	7	1	5	5
7	8	7	8	2	9	7
Posttest	7	7	12	6	12	10

Note. T = total number; A = accurate number

The section below presents one of Daiki's narration transcripts during the seven weeks (see Appendix B for more of his transcripts). Due to word limitation, only Daiki's transcripts were presented because he best illustrated the changes over time. Dysfluencies are bolded, dependent clauses placed into brackets (DC), and some self-repairs are coded with (SR).

Week 1 transcript:

One day, a mayor was meeting with other city hall officials. They found that (DC1) **eeee** they they use too much electricity] and and **mmm** they thought the [(DC2) the cost of electricity is too too high]. So so they **decrease** decrease expenditure. Yes, maybe maybe in summer they they must use air conditioner so **elect** electricity expenditure is likely to be high. A few weeks later a few weeks later, **eeeee** they they decide that [(DC3) they **turn** turn off all all lights during lunch hour]. **Eeee** the next day at lunch time, They said [(DC4) they **turn** turn off all lights at city hall]. A month later, **eeee** they they succeed to **cut** cut down electricity consumption by five percent. Maybe **eee** maybe if they cut down, no, maybe if they don't use **eee nandaro** air conditioner[(DC5) they can **eee** cut down more consumption].

Discussion

Results indicate that explicit grammar instruction was effective in the present study at improving EFL speaking proficiency because all three participants improved in some elements of speaking after seven weeks. In particular, they improved in syntactic accuracy in both global accuracy and local accuracy. This was an encouraging result because while few previous studies have found gains in syntactic accuracy, they have examined more specific local accuracy features, for example, Gass et al. (1999) found accuracy gains in two Spanish copula verbs: ser and estar. The present study looked at the effects of focus on forms (FonFs) on participants by using focused tasks, through planned and decontextualized grammar instruction (Ellis et al., 2001). Three past tense forms were pre-selected and were focused throughout the seven weeks using blackboard explanation, grammar drills and structured oral pair practice. For global accuracy, participants in this study produced a higher number of accurate T-units in the posttest compared to pretest. The increase in global accuracy was likely due to the explicitness of the teacher-centered instructions used, which emphasized on the importance of grammatical accuracy and raised participants' awareness towards producing more accurate forms. For local accuracy, participants used a larger number of accurate past simple tense in the posttest compared to pretest. Local accuracy possibly improved more than global accuracy because participants' attention was led specifically to focus on the target past tense forms. This supports Goh and Burns' (2012) argument that explicit form-focused instruction guides learner attention to specific syntactic forms which enhances their ability to produce these forms during speaking output. Another possible reason is because participants possibly paid more attention to form while had slightly lower awareness toward grammatical accuracy because while attention is necessary for language acquisition, awareness might not always be (Williams, 2013).

However, the three participants improved their past tense usage differently despite receiving the same amount of grammar instruction intervention for seven weeks. In the posttest, Daiki achieved 100% accuracy in his usage of past simple tense forms. It is possibly that the consecutive seven weeks of grammar interventions successfully led his attention to the usage of past tense forms (Goh & Burns, 2012). On the other hand, Daiichi made 50% errors with his past tense usage in the posttest. One of the reasons might be that his attention

has not been completely directed to past tense usage as he might have placed attention to other elements of speaking. Nevertheless, Diichi improved from two accurate usages in Week 7 to six accurate usages of past simple tense in the posttest. Therefore, if longer intervention period was in place, it is possible that Daiichi would continue to improve his local accuracy as he could continue to improve in the usage of past tense forms.

Qualitative week-to-week analysis indicates that participants improved in speaking over time from the effects of receiving explicit grammar instruction. While Daiki probably started with a better understanding of past tense usage compared to the other two participants, he still made many grammatical errors in the earlier weeks. For example (dysfluency markers omitted in the following), in Week 1, Daiki narrated, "they decrease expenditure," "A few weeks later, they decide that they turn off all lights during lunch hour," "A month later, they succeed to cut down electricity consumption by five percent," and "they can cut down more consumption." In Week 3, "he confess his manager that he have has no time to spend with his family." He made the largest number of global and past tense errors in Week 1 and 2 but from Week 3 onwards, he made little local errors and was able to continue without large fluctuations in the remaining weeks. Daiki's steady accuracy gains suggests that he was continuously led by the focused tasks to direct his attention to the target linguistic forms which speedily and successfully developed his interlanguage (Ellis et al., 2001). Daiki might have improved speedily and steadily in local accuracy because the combined three grammar interventions in the present study were explicit and effective enough for him to focus on the target past tense forms (Ellis, 2005). The explicit grammar explanation also assisted Daiki to acquire the past tense forms more accurately and quickly from as early as Week 3 (Han, 2004). While the focused tasks only targeted past tense forms, Daiki's global accuracy also improved because he improved in the usage of "could." For example (dysfluency markers omitted in the following), in Week 1, he narrated, "Maybe if they don't use air conditioner they can cut down more consumption." From Week 3 onwards, he narrated using "could" instead of "can." This indicates that while the focused tasks directed

his attention to the target forms, they also raised his awareness toward more accurate grammatical usage. This increased awareness possibly triggered Daiki's cognitive processes so he was able to to make accurate and precise global grammatical output (Swain, 1985).

Conclusion

The present study looked at the effects of explicit grammar instruction on L2 speaking developing by giving participants seven weeks of focus-on-forms instruction intervention. Overall, all three participants in the present study improved in English speaking ability especially syntactic accuracy from the effects of receiving explicit grammar instruction. While grammar instruction is often considered to be a more traditional method of teaching, it was effective in the present study at improving both global accuracy and local accuracy especially past tense usage. Participants' attention was directed to focus on the target past tense forms through focus-on-forms instruction by using focused tasks, including blackboard grammar explanation, grammar drills and structured pair oral practice. In addition, participants' awareness toward grammatical accuracy was likely raised after seven weeks of interventions. Nevertheless, while the same amount of form-focused instruction was given in the present study, learners developed their syntactic accuracy differently over time. While two participants improved in syntactic accuracy with fluctuations, one participant improved more speedily and steadily without fluctuations. His attention was possibly more effectively directed to the target linguistic forms which more speedily and successfully developed his interlanguage than the other two participants. Not only his attention was effectively led to the focused target forms, he was possibly able to produce more accurate grammatical output because his awareness towards accurate grammatical usage was also more effectively raised.

The present study suggests that form-focused instruction can be integrated into meaningful tasks as task itself is probably not enough. While this implication has already been suggested by many other researchers, the present study hope to add some weight to this position by looking at its effects over time. Traditional grammar instruction such as explicit blackboard expla-

nation and fill-in blank grammar exercises could be effective pedagogies for task-based classrooms.

References

Ahmadian, M. J., & Tavakoli, M. (2011). The effects of simultaneous use of careful online planning and task repetition on accuracy, complexity, and fluency in EFL learners' oral production. *Language Teaching Research, 15*(1), 35-59. doi:10.1177/1362168810383329

Akao, F. (2011). *Eiken junikyu nijishiken mensetsu kanzen yosou mondai*. [The Eiken pre-Level 1 study book for the secondary interview test]. Obunsha.

Bygate, M. (2001). Effects of task repetition on the structure and control of language. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan, & M. Swain (Eds.), *Researching pedagogic tasks, second language learning, teaching and testing* (pp. 23-48). Routledge.

Bygate, M., & Samuda, V. (2005). Integrative planning through the use of task repetition. In R. Ellis (Ed.), *Planning and task performance in a second language* (pp. 37-74). Benjamins.

DeKeyser, R. (1998). Beyond focus on form: Cognitive perspectives on learning and practicing second language grammar. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 42-63). Cambridge University Press.

Ellis R. (2001). Introduction: Investigating form-focused instruction. *Language Learning, 51*(s1), 1-46. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.2001. tb00013.x

Ellis, R. (2003). T*ask-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2005). Instructed language learning and task-based learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 713-727). Routledge.

Ellis, R. (2009). The differential effects of three types of task planning on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy in L2 oral production. *Applied Linguistics, 30*, 474-509. doi:10.1093/applin/amp042

Ellis, R. (2018). *Reflections on task-based language teaching*. Multilingual Matters.

Ellis, R., & Barkhuizen, G. (2005). *Analysing learner language*. Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., & Loewen, S. (2001). Preemptive focus on form in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 35*(3), 407-432. doi:10.2307/3588029

Gass, S., Mackey, A., Alvarez-Torres, M., & Fernández-García, M. (1999). The effects of task repetition on linguistic output. *Language Learning, 49*(4), 549-580. doi:10.1111/0023-8333.00102

Goh, C. C. M., & Burns, A. (2012). *Teaching speaking: A holistic approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Han, Z. H. (2004). *Fossilization in adult second language acquisition*. Multilingual Matters.

Housen, A., & Kuiken, F. (2009). Complexity, accuracy, and fluency in second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 30*(4), 461-473. doi:10.1093/applin/amp048.

Iwashita, N., Brown, A., McNamara, T., & O'Hagan, S. (2008). Assessed levels of second language speaking proficiency: How distinct? *Applied Linguistics, 29*(1), 24-49. doi:10.1093/applin/amm017

Lambert, C., Kormos, J., & Minn, D. (2017). Task repetition and second language speech processing. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *39*(1), 167-196. doi:10.1017/S0272263116000085

Levelt, W. J. M. (1989). *Speaking: From intention to articulation*. MIT Press.

Long, M. H. (2015). *Second language acquisition and task-based language teaching*. John Wiley & Sons.

Lyster, R. (2007). *Learning and teaching languages through Content: A counterbalanced approach*. John Benjamins.

Michel, M. (2017). Complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF). In S. Loewen & M. Sato (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of instructed second language acquisition* (pp. 66-94). Routledge.

Mochizuki, N., & Ortega, L. (2008). Balancing communication and grammar in beginning level foreign language classrooms: A study of guided planning and relativization. *Language Teaching Research*, *12*(1), 11-37. doi:10.1177/1362168807084492

Murphy, R. (2012). *English grammar in use: A self-study reference and practice book for intermediate learners of English* (4th ed.). Cambridge University Press.

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, *50*(3), 417-528. doi:10.1111/0023-8333.00136

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2009). Towards an organic approach to investigating CAF in instructed SLA: The case of complexity. *Applied Linguistics*, *30*(4), 555-578. doi.org/10.1093/applin/amp044

Sangarun, J. (2005). The effects of focusing on meaning and form in strategic planning. In R. Ellis (Ed.), *Planning and task performance in a second language* (pp. 111-141). Benjamins.

Schmidt, R., & Frota, S. N. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In R. R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 237-326). Newbury House.

Skehan, P. (2009). Modeling second language performance: Integrating complexity, accuracy, fluency and lexis. *Applied Linguistics*, *30*(4), 510-532. doi:10.1093/applin/amp047

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Newbury House.

Williams, J. (2005). Form-focused instruction. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 671-691). Routledge

Williams, J. N. (2013). Attention, awareness, and noticing in language processing and learning. In J. M. Bergsleithner, S. N. Frota & J. K. Yoshioka (Eds.), *Noticing and second language acquisition: Studies in honor of Richard Schmidt* (pp. 39-57). National Foreign Language Resource Centre.

Appendices

Appendix A

Four-picture cartoon for narration
This is a story about a woman who participated in an eco-tour.
Your story should begin with the following sentence:

<u>One day, a woman was watching a TV program.</u>
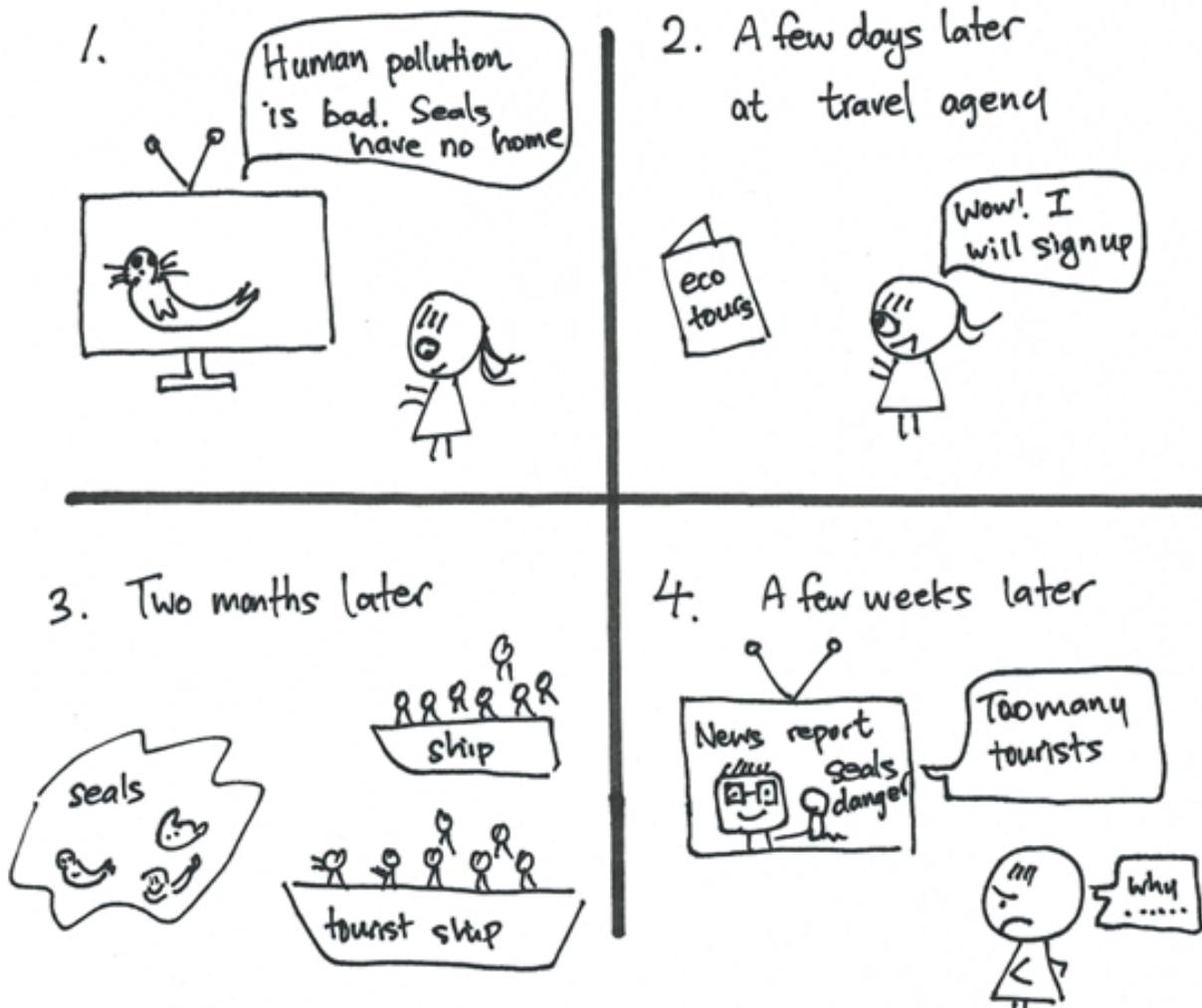
Appendix A

Week 3 transcript:

*One day a married couple was in their small old apartment. And the apartment **eee** was **eee** was that the woman was living in there living there. **Eee** so it was it was too small for **for** two **two** people to live in. **Eee** the **the** apartment was very **very** dirty and **and** even the roof was broken. So **so** they **eee** thought that they should move to a large **large** place. And one year later, **eee** they move **move** to a very **very** great **eee** very new building. The room was very new the room was new and beautiful. So they were very satisfied with it. (SR) So they thought they made the **they thought they had made** a great choice. But several months later, **eee** near their apartment, **mmm** as many as many three big **big** buildings was built was being built. So **eee** two years later two years later, their sunshine was deprived because **because** their building was taller than their apartment.*

Week 5 transcript:

*One day a company employee a company employee came home late. **Eee** the time was almost midnight twelve o'clock. He had wanted **eee** he had wanted with his son or and daughter. **Eee** he was very depressed. **Eee** yes his work was very tired. **Eee** was very busy and **and** there was a lot there was there were a lot of things to do. So he **he** should have **eee** over overtime working should have had overtime working. Then a few days later, he **he** confess he confess his manager that **eee** that he have has no time to spend with his family. And asked **asked** him to **eee** reduce the working time. A week a week later **eee** in the company in the company meeting, the **eee** employer decided that **eee** they **they** reduce **eee** overtime working. **Eee** The aim was **eee** improve working efficiency. And everyone was **agree mmm** agreed with it. So, a month later, he could **he could** go home by seven **oclock** and he could eat diner with his family and talk with **with** them and it was enjoyable.*

Week 7 transcript:

*One day a boy was playing video games with friends in this room. And they were very they were very enjoying. But it **it** was very sunny. So **eee** his mother recommended them to **eee** go out and play and play soccer or soccer because **eeee** she thought they should exercise **exercise**. Half an hour later**,** **eee** they went to a park and near his house but there was a sign. It say it was saying, no ball games. So **eee** they were not allowed to play soccer. But they started to they started to play soccer. And but a little later, it was **eee** it was very exciting to for them to play soccer. So they were were playing out of park. So **so** they bothered a driver in in the road kana on the road. So, **eee** the next day, they **they** stopped **eee** playing soccer in a park. **Uuuu** they added to play video games **eee** in the park.*

Horizontal and Vertical Alignment in Discussion Book Design and Direct Publication

Anthony Brian Gallagher
Meijo University

Abstract

In an ideal EFL discussion course, students should learn to express the four CORE components of discussion, which are: basic concepts, opinions, reasons for their opinion, and examples that illustrate those instances. Pedagogically sound and level-appropriate student books should harmonise these core components of what good discussions should resemble with accessible language, and engaging content. Level-sequential courses benefit from well-designed student books that facilitate competent progression from lower to higher levels. In the absence of differentiation within courses (i.e. standardised, one-level courses) students need books that promote open exploration of concepts with questions and content that allow extension, amelioration, and elaboration. Well-articulated course expectations can, with standardisation training, create this environment and align discussion courses both horizontally and vertically..

日本語概要

理想的な EFL のディスカッションコースでは、学生はディスカッションの 4 つの核となる要素、すなわち、基本概念、自分の意見、自分の意見の理由、そしてそれらの例を説明する例を表現することを学ぶ必要があります。教育学的に健全で、レベルに合ったスチューデントブックは、良いディスカッションの核となる要素を、わかりやすい言語、魅力的で興味深い内容で調和させる必要があります。レベル別のコースでは、低レベルから高レベルへの適切な移行を促進するために、優れたデザインのスチューデントブックが必要です。差別化されたコース（標準的な1レベルのコース）がない場合、生徒は、拡張、改善、推敲を可能にする質問と内容で、概念のオープンな探求を促進する本を必要とします。コースに期待されることが明確にされていれば、標準化のトレーニングによって、このような環境を作り出し、ディスカッションコースを水平方向と垂直方向の両方で調整することができます。

In an ideal EFL discussion course, students should learn to express four core components of discussion, which are: basic concepts, opinions, reasons for their opinion, and examples that illustrate (Concepts Opinions Reasons Examples). The preparation for this can be done with a well designed quality student book that has considered layout and content that both accommodates the students additions, and includes quality content and instruction.

Pedagogically sound and level-appropriate student books should harmonise the core components of what good discussions should resemble with accessible language, and engaging and interesting content. Level-sequential courses need to have well-designed student books to facilitate competent progression from lower to higher levels as students develop and learn. In the absence of differentiation within courses (standardised, one-level courses), students need books that promote discovery and open exploration of concepts, with questions and content that allow extension, amelioration, and elaboration. While this seems a simple and logical construct, in practice it can often be poorly executed to the detriment of students' learning and development. Well-articulated course expectations can, with standardisation training, create this environment and align discussion courses both horizontally and vertically. By providing students with a sensible rationale as to why this course of study is of value to them, and allowing them to see the logical progression of skills and learning laid out in the course materials, students are more likely to engage with the content and the discussions. Effectively, quality-assuring course design and offering a progressively challenging experience. This article proposes that the best solution to these issues is the development of tailored, course-specific booklets which are vertically aligned and suitable for a specific and agreed level of student.

Horizontal and Vertical Alignment in Education

In regular schools all around the world, students begin at a certain age and progress through their education

at a standard pace in line with the language and culture of their surroundings. Starting with the fundamentals, students familiarise themselves with basic information to establish a hopefully solid base from where they can progress to a medium, then higher level. This logical advancement is usually dependent on continued success at each step along the way with occasional assessment to confirm that the minimum amount of learning is happening. Understanding that there is some retention of that provisional knowledge, it can then be developed and ameliorated to reach the highest possible standards expected before going further to reach levels that are beyond the highest expectation for that stage in their learning. It is generally agreed (Polikoff, Zhou and Campbell, 2015), (Machalow, 2020), (Mahroof and Saeed, 2021) (Case and Zucker, 2005) (Amiri and Rezvani, 2021) that student books (textbooks, workbooks, ebooks, booklets, etc.) should align vertically (basic > low > medium > high) within each course of study as it matures and increases in complexity. It should also be obvious that across any curriculum that there is horizontal alignment between courses that assures learners that they are learning at the correct level gives confidence that the course is of good quality and has been professionally planned. This avoids any single course which may be too low or high for students at whichever corresponding stage of their learning. In the world of second language learning, the Common European Framework for Reference (CEFR) is accepted as the modern established standard that most books conform to (see appendix A). Martineau et al. (2007) considered both horizontal and vertical alignment as integral parts of the development of content standards, test blueprints, items, item pools, instruments, performance level descriptors, and performance standards. They went on to explain that "comprehensively integrating alignment into development processes results in procedural efficiencies and gains in validity evidence for the measurement of student progress" which is what all good professional educators should aspire to do (Martineau et al., 2007, p28).

Alignment is defined as "the degree to which expectations and assessments are in agreement and serve in conjunction with one another to guide an education system toward students learning what they are expected to know and do. Alignment describes the match between expectations and assessment that can be legitimately improved by changing either student expectations or the assessments" (Wise & Alt, 2005, p vii).

Institutions are sometimes measured on the quality of their alumni which Sukandi (2019, p142) describes as "a measure of the quality of a college, but the quality of the alumni depends on the quality of the college" which clearly means that the standard expectation of an institution is based on the quality of the product of that institution, i.e. the graduating students (alumni). The inference here is that the quality of the courses created should reflect well the quality of the institution and the educators within it. Of course this is a very reasonable assumption, that is to say the better the vertical alignment of courses offered by the institution, the better the quality of the final product, the alumni. It should be obvious that vertical alignment should be the easier of the two alignments because the courses would run sequentially, whereas horizontal alignment requires the collaboration of colleagues running other courses that are expected to be at the same approximate level.

When attempting to horizontally align expectations and outcomes of any course shared between a group of teachers, there is a definite need to use a quality student booklet (Amiri & Rezvani, 2021). For clarification, the definition proposed here is that a student booklet should be considered as a combination of textbook and workbook. It contains everything necessary for the course to be completed successfully. A booklet that affords space for the students to add in their own research, as well as including terminology and other content, facilitates suitable understanding of the topics included. This type of instructional material brings in cognitive psychology and behavioural neuroscience, as students have been shown to learn more when they write information down which affects their retrieval processes (Umejima et al., 2021), (Mueller & Oppenheimer, 2014), & (Bohay et al, 2011). This in turn can be considered progress in learning, and this style of printed material affords students a complete booklet for that specific purpose.

Instructional materials as a basic component of cur-

riculae, and a central constituent of standards-based programs play a provisional role in both setting the aims and leading the way (Ibid). In general, textbook series are intended and expected to sustain balance and priority in content and objectives coverage. For such series, alignment within and across the textbooks ought to be examined together with common quality criteria (Cunningsworth, 1995; Nation & Macalister, 2010; Sheldon, 1988; Ur, 1996)

Case & Zucker explain that "horizontal alignment is essentially the side by side agreement of the facets of education aiming to achieve educational objectives. For example, "it might be the degree to which an assessment matches the corresponding content standards for a subject area at a particular grade level" (Case & Zucker, 2005, p. 3).

Within university ESL/EFL courses that are planned to be coordinated and are not level differentiated across the cohort of students, it is more critical to have a book that allows students and teachers to customise the learning expectations and the extension of activities beyond the basic expectations. One would expect all good quality courses to have well-articulated, specific and measurable skills and goals. Learning outcomes should be clearly explained to students at the beginning of the course and throughout the course. Avoiding extremes of variation in the individual teaching context as much as possible can mitigate any discrepancies while ensuring standard agreed outcomes.

In doing so, teachers as well as students can be confident that the quality of the course basics are aligned at that level. Once this is secured, then coordinated courses can move to the vertical alignment of follow-on levels in a progressive manner that shows growth. This can then be cross-referenced with the outcomes that are perhaps expected at that level of ability and skill. Baseline establishment also allows exceptional students to go beyond the highest expected standard while understanding that they report with confidence that the goals for the course were met.

In many schools in the United States of America, of course dependent on the state, school boards and teachers are confident in what is being taught in their institution because of well-articulated standards and benchmarks at each stage of the learning (Pollock, 2007).

These benchmarks are best when they are well articulated and consistent across all cohorts. They can be described using various strategies including but not limited to: classifying, categorising, alphabetizing, sequencing, explaining, summarising, describing, determining, predicting, confirming, identifying, inferring, reading, re-reading, differentiating fact from fiction, understanding, drawing conclusions, visualising, drawing, self-correcting, chunking, blending, reviewing, problem-solving, justifying, estimating, and interpreting. This was before the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) law which was enacted in 2001, and required American states to show steady improvement in student performance in reading and mathematics, with the goal of having all students "proficient" by 2014. Each state was responsible for setting their standards to measure and define the term "proficiency." A law that later proved to be controversial and yielded many unexpected results with the gap between states with the highest and lowest standards amounting to as much as three to four grade levels (Tofig, 2014) . While this specific example pertains to the United States of America, it does bear relevance to the concept of policy, standards, and benchmarks used in assessment and seems to promote the idea of vertical alignment.

Exemplar

A problem-solving example of the benchmarks needed to meet a standard could be as follows:

Students will monitor and reflect on the process of mathematical problem solving'

(1) determine what information is needed to solve the problem,

(2) explain the methods and reasoning behind the problem-solving strategies used, and

(3) verify results of a problem.

From this example we can clearly see that certain actions -strategy verbs- must be demonstrated by the

students in order to meet the requirement of the standard. The actions to be taken by students are well articulated and varied. The task that is set for them includes monitoring, reflecting, determining, solving, explaining, reasoning, employing strategies, and verifying.

Standardised Book Content

As most regular classes in most schools around the world are differentiated and tasks are completed with differing competencies, it is best to create a student booklet (a combination of textbook and workbook) that accommodates all students. A design that is flexible enough to cover all the core elements of the intended learning, while still being challenging and worthwhile enough that students will engage with the booklet. Depending on the level, the students will have different expectations, but the standard should still be applicable across the course and syllabus. This can be agreed and standardised in order to authenticate and quality-assure the course (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p149). The common hurdle in some institutions is that books are chosen to match the course goals, but these generic fit books often do not encapsulate the course, but they can be simply described as a 'close enough' fit to cover most of what the course is intending to do with the intention of the teacher supplementing the material with additionals.

Generic textbooks with additional tasks (commonly referred to by many as 'four skills' books) can be considered disruptive to discussions, confusing for students, and one might suggest, be best avoided. Primarily, this is because whatever is articulated in the books as the outcomes or goals of the learning experience is not aligned with each individual course. Clearly-articulated goals mean that instruction has all unnecessary and additional information redacted before the course and lessons begin. From a pragmatic point of view it is better to avoid any confusion or unnecessary language that goes beyond the scope of the intended content. This also reclaims time that can be lost to re-explanation or reclarification caused by excessive, extensive, or unnecessary lexis both in the text and in the instruction given relating to the assigned task. Although many institutions in Japan are closely linked with their local bookstores and publishers, where they facilitate a cor-

dial and congenial rapport, they are often thought of by educators as being slow to respond to change. In some cases, causing disruption to timely adjustments to materials, as well as being capable of causing interruption in the implementation of new materials because of the inherent nature of the time required to make changes, and the number of parties involved in the printing and publication process. It seems most appropriate then, that teachers, course managers and designers, should be most closely involved with booklet creation, because they are directly involved in developing the courses and curriculae.

It could be argued that the key players in this fantastic orchestra of pedagogical movement are actually the teachers and their students who need to reach agreement over how their effort, learning and performance will be assessed and rewarded. Expected outcomes from each level of study need to be clearly explained and conveyed in order for both parties to be satisfied that this contract of understanding has taken place. Teachers need to explain to students how they will be assessed and the teachers need to implement the correct methods of assessing in order to reach a valid and accurate grade. Teachers and assessors who are involved in both formative and summative assessments, need to undergo some training and collaboration with others in order to align with each other and ensure that interpretation of descriptors is fully understood. This establishes the essence of the descriptions and for them to be comfortable enough in their interpretation of them that any differences between assessors is minimal. Therefore, the more clearly articulated are the learning outcomes and goals for the courses, the more consistently the scores will be assigned and the more reliable the quality of the course can be assured.

Pedagogical Concepts in Discussions

Practically any discussion should include at least one core concept that all participants can contribute to exploring, and for that concept to be open enough for students to divulge their opinion on the matter, and explain their reasoning. One would expect this exchange to normally include an explanation, reasoning and some example(s) that demonstrate their point

to varying degrees. The strengths and validity of claims made would be central to any ensuing discussion and useful for informatively assessing students' performance and progression. Consistent use of terminology and descriptions of tasks leads to mutual understanding of expectations and the standards that should be attained in order to justify a summative assessment result in whichever class the student may be enrolled. Designing curriculae with this consistency in mind also improves the quality of the teaching because the shared understanding of the goals is well understood and therefore applicable to the situations that may be put in place to reach the assessed work. Additionally, by having excellent teaching and understanding of the assessed work teachers can better articulate both the formative and summative assessments to students, which one would expect to transfer over to the students if done in a consistent and effective manner. This amelioration of courses can then support teachers in their own decision-making process for other courses and lead to improvement in understanding the expectations of assessment and quality assuring each course to which they are connected. Meliorism is the doctrine that the world tends to become better or may be made better by human effort, and effective design is a sterling example of how this can be done. However, the world does not so easily fall into place like this, and we must be wary of the pitfalls that hinder this progress.

Effective Discussion Content

Producing a discussion coursebook (booklet) with content that will facilitate the goal of developing successful discussion students has already been explored and can be strengthened by effective unpacking of the content used in each book. Combined with well-articulated instructional material as well as accurate output measurement, discussion skills can be assigned that focus on targeted formative goals at stages of the learning. These short goals can be combined, extrapolated, compounded and refined as students improve and prepare for the summative tasks which will test their ability and learning. Returning to the idea of the "CORE" being exploration and explanation of a concept, each concept involved in each course should be accessible to all learners to some reasonable level. Concepts may be best explored in context and in scenarios

that simulated the intended use of the language skills and reasoning

Opinionating being a key element to any discussion should be scaffolded in order to allow students to grow from the initial statement of initial ideas up to and beyond rhetoric and idealism. Reasoning should be explored and reconsidered as students develop their ideas and formulate new versions of original ideas once they consider the input from others in the discussions that they have. Examples, in their plural form, are integral to any reasoning process and opinion formulating because they are the foundational ideas upon which opinions are generated. A need to grow the number of examples must be encouraged and explored as students build up their portfolio of evidence to support ideas. Judging the depth and quality of each example is also improved over time as we develop our understanding of strong and weak ideas and what is exactly required or expected by others in a discussion in order to sway favour with other participants.

A strong knowledge of content must be partnered with a palatable layout in design that has flow and feature. We all know that students often respond well to the rhythm and pattern (Givvin et al, 2005) in lessons as they have some expectation of what is to come ahead, reducing their anxiety, and allowing them to be confident of the challenges that may lie ahead. Lewis and Tsuchida (1999, p15) suggested that each "lesson is like a swiftly flowing river" even going so far as to romanticise that "Like Rings of Water in a Pond: the Impact of Research Lessons Research lessons are centred in the practice of ordinary teachers in ordinary classrooms. But their impact does not stop there because, at the same time, a mechanism exists that allows these examples of good practice to be disseminated all over the country and thus contribute to the improvement of Japanese education". Harnessing these two ideas of some information being structured and the other being more free is effective for many people, and is very well suited to discussion. The concept that students research in order to prepare for the discussions is also a critical element in improving engagement in the topics of discussions. It should seem reasonable to anyone following the logic here that we derive a similar idea of how discussion courses could very effectively

Design and Layout

How can a well-designed standard layout be effective? Students respond and react best when there is a lesson rhythm that builds, as comfort replaces discomfort and insecurity, and students appreciate the flow of the lesson style as well as the general expectations placed upon them. Relying on ourselves and others to gain insight into ideas and ways of exploring ideas is part of the discussion process. All discussions must reveal information to participants in order for it to be of value to those involved and interesting and challenging to explain. Discovery can be developed in a variety of manners including brainstorming, ordering, filtering and removing tidbits of information that only serve to repeat ideas and fail to bring disclosure or exposure of novel thoughts and ideas. Building on academic vocabulary is a great start to share the new knowledge and descriptive terminology of any topic and should always be encouraged by the discussion leaders. Further to this, is the creation of provocative or leading questions that are open and inviting, with a means to encourage participation in the discovery and exposure of previous knowledge on topics. These questions can be developed week on week from basic questions that allow general responses, up to complex and multifaceted questions where parties have the opportunity to consider and reconsider judgements and biases that they may have or come across. Add to this chances to delve deeper into meaning and motivations, in order to find the truth in each topic, or as close to the truth as they can manage at this time in their education.

Having a standard formula for the starting of any group discussion is comfortable and reliable for students furnishing them with the opportunity to look more closely on the content of the day as opposed to the design of the book or distracting pretty pictures that may influence thinking because they are western-centric or biased in some alternative form. One such standard formula in a discussion setting can be for students to lead a short discussion by explaining the 'CORE' elements and driving the discussion forward with prepared questions that are both logical and open to participants involved. By taking notes during the discussion, points that are

discovered can be reported on and not forgotten. In this way the discovery revealed during the process can be reviewed and used as evidence as content learned. This can also be added to a portfolio of work to show mastery of skills if such a portfolio were to exist across curriculum, which also supports the idea of horizontal alignment and is another form of evidence to educators and administrators that courses do align and learning is specific. Since this mid-discussion element is not planned but organically elicited, true discovery can then be claimed, and added to the learning that was initially planned.

Not necessarily based on evidence, but more based on practical experience, it can be suggested that short discussions at the CEFR A1 and A2 levels in groups are best carried out in groups of no more than four participants, for a period of no more than 10 minutes. The ideal length of time is perhaps needed to be analyzed in another study, but this pragmatic approach is a comfortable time length that gives each participant an opportunity to get their opinion, reasons and examples into the discussion. Any discussion that is shorter in length will not accommodate all the speakers to express themselves and get to the elements of discovery at any quality of depth. As competence and confidence grows, discussions will become more fruitful and complex, leading to hopefully more discovery and improved fluency in usage of discussion skills and experience. As skills expand the discussions may grow in length as students ameliorate. So, what are the barriers to change? Evolution of materials and improvement of curriculae means considering new approaches to creating them. Exploration of the newest publication possibilities should be considered by educators in order to bring about change and to open doorways to new opporchancities* .

  *https://www.collinsdictionary.com/submission/628/Opporchancity

Standard Publishing Pitfalls and Direct Publishing Solutions

Direct publishing is a timely way to get effective and tailored materials into the hands of students without the need to go through editors and traditional publishing

houses. For a multitude of reasons, this new possibility cannot be stressed enough. The ability to: customize to institution and level specific needs; reduce update times and costs, ease edition edits, and accommodate personalisations including graphics, logos, tables and figures, affirm this notion.

Unfortunately, institutional agreements with local book shops and publishers may interfere with the rollout of such self-publications because of the inability to adjust at course levels, or even at faculty level. Evidence of this is difficult to provide because of the sensitive nature of the relationships but it is basically explained away by many as common knowledge. It is only fair to note that sometimes both parties are culpable here, but clearly we can acknowledge that the more players involved in any scene the longer things take to bear fruit and the more opportunity exists for things to go wrong along the way. When it comes to purchasing, bookshops and cooperatives often bundle book lists together for students in order to streamline the fulfilment side of any order, and to maintain a good working relationship between each partner. This is very understandable but also comes with its own pitfalls and risks including: shortages, delays, new editions, price changes and payment systems, order errors, and the independent nature of each individual publishing house. Conversely, the benefits of direct publishing can negate many of these pitfalls in that direct publications can be turned around and updated in a fraction of the time. Only three parties are involved in the process which are the author(s), direct publisher and the despatch companies that will do the deliveries.

Using the Kindle Direct Publishing (KDP) route allows authors to create their own individual materials in a fraction of the time, to decide costs independently, to manage edits and additions, and to publish in each region worldwide and in each marketplace meaning that the author can share their with the world beyond the confines of their own institution. A key benefit to this route is that anyone who can create content, can access this free service and have high quality printed copies of books in a very short time frame with a well-established delivery network that retracts the need for storage, distribution and financial investment in expensive print runs. With the print-to-order

model upon which they operate, the smallest to the largest needs can be met, and the barriers to successful fruition are almost negligible. The global impact on the world of education of this advent of service is a ground-breaking step in the possibilities for teaching and learning, or meliora for which university education and research is responsible. A seismic transformation in the velocity of positive change and differentiated tailoring of materials that meet the needs of students is indeed a contribution to humanity and education as a whole.

The Specific Example of the KDP Process

The steps taken in order to get the book content, ISBN, and author information into the Kindle Direct Publishing (KDP) system, and available in the Amazon marketplace is available online at Kindle Direct Publishing for any author wishing to seek information on the process (see Appendix B).

However, direct publishing with any independent printer could have similar results and a wheen of results of which the outcomes could be different, but the main advantage of the aforementioned service is that they already have a global network set up and considerable customer care access points and delivery, taxation, printing standards, procurement and other logistics involved in the process that make the process seamless for the person or persons wishing to explore these options. With a large number of global consumers already linked with this publisher, the ease of use, turnaround, customer care, sales, financing, sourcing and shipping are almost second to none at this point in time.

Understanding how to prepare the materials for upload and avoiding the few avoidable pitfalls is a process which becomes more familiar with each successive effort. One should consider (1) why included elements are critical to developing student skills in fruitful discussions, (2) assessment of students' performance and discovery, and (3) reflection and meaningful learning. The style of an excellent discussion booklet is student-centred, and student-led, with guidance from the teacher facilitating increased depth of learning while

building confidence in students' individual and collective discussion skills.

Summary

In creating a successful EFL discussion course, it is essential to focus on the four core components of discussion: concepts, opinions, reasons, and examples. Where concepts refer to the fundamental ideas that students need to understand in order to participate in a discussion.

There is a clear need for student booklets to provide clear explanations of these concepts using accessible language. These booklets should be designed with students input at their core, affording them space to document their learning as they discover new things through discussions, and as they develop their discussion skills. These booklets should be level-appropriate for each course and vertically aligned in increasing complexity as courses develop in levels of proficiency. Ensuring that students are able to progress in a logical fashion without feeling disjointed or frustrated is a quality assurance responsibility of each institution, and one which is best and most closely controlled by the courses' designers of that institution.

As opinions are an integral part of any discussion, courses should allow students to express their thoughts and perspectives through these discussions, and their learning. Student booklets should engage and encourage them to do so through questions and activities that stimulate critical thinking and discovery which they can document as they progress.

Well-designed student books can facilitate competent vertical progression from lower to higher levels because they provide a clear and structured framework that helps students to build on their previous learning, and to develop the skills they need to participate in more advanced discussions. It can be suggested that the way to bring this about is by course designers creating these booklets and directly publishing them in this curriculum-tailored manner, and by focusing on the four core components to develop their discussion skills.

References

Amiri, A. & Rezvani, R. (2021) A tale of three official English textbooks: An evaluation of their horizontal and vertical alignments. *Language Related Research 12* (3) :51-79 http://lrr.modares.ac.ir/article-14-46437-fa.html

Bohay, M>, Blakely, D.P., Tamplin, A.K. & Radvansky, G.A. (2011, Jan 1) Note Taking, Review, Memory, and Comprehension. *The American Journal of Psychology*; *124* (1): 63–73. doi: https://doi.org/10.5406/amerjpsyc.124.1.0063

Case, B., & Zucker, S. (2005). *Horizontal and vertical alignment.* Pearson Education.

Cunningsworth, A. (1995). *Choosing your coursebook.* MacMillan.

Givvin, K.B., Hiebert, J., Jacobs, J.K., Hollingsworth, H., & Gallimore, R. (2005 Aug) Are There National Patterns of Teaching? Evidence from the TIMSS 1999 Video Study. *Comparative Education Review 49*(3). https://doi.org/10.1086/430260

Lewis, C. C. & Tsuchida, I. (1999) A lesson is like a swiftly flowing river: how research lessons improve Japanese education. *Improving Schools 2*(1):12-56 DOI:10.1177/136548029900200117

Machalow, R. (2020) Rethinking standards - textbook alignment: How elementary math textbooks are interpreting and enacting the common core state standards. *University of Pennsylvania ProQuest Dissertations* Publishing, 2020. 28031191. https://repository.upenn.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=5711&context=edissertations

Mahroof, A. &Saeed, M. (2021) Alignment between Curriculum, Textbook and Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education Question Papers of English at Secondary Level. *Open Access Library Journal,* 8: e7282. https://doi.org/10.4236/oalib.1107282

Martineau, J., Paek, P., Keene, J. and Hirsch, T. (2007), Integrated, Comprehensive Alignment as a Foundation for Measuring Student Progress. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice*, *26*: pp28-35. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-3992.2007.00086.x

Mueller, P. A., & Oppenheimer, D. M. (2014). The Pen Is Mightier Than the Keyboard: Advantages of Longhand Over Laptop Note Taking. *Psychological Science*, *25*(6), 1159–1168. https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797614524581

Nation, I.S.P., & Macalister, J. (2010). Negotiated Syllabuses. *Language curriculum design*, p149. Routledge.

Pollock, J. E. (2007) *Improving student learning one teacher at a time*. The association for supervision and curriculum development (ASCD), USA.

Polikoff, M.S., Zhou, N. and Campbell, S.E. (2015), Methodological Choices in the Content Analysis of Textbooks for Measuring Alignment With Standards. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice*, *34*: 10-17. https://doi.org/10.1111/emip.12065

Sheldon, L. E. (1988). Evaluating ELT textbooks and materials. *ELT Journal, 42*(2), 237-246.

Sukandi, P. (2019) Horizontal and Vertical Alignment Analysis Graduate of Widyatama University. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity and Change. 6*(7). https://ijicc.net/images/Vol6Iss7/6712_Sukandi_2019_E_R.pdf

Tofig, D. (Sep 18, 2014) *Education Performance Standards Vary Widely Among States, In Some Cases by Several Grade Levels.* American Institute for Research. https://www.air.org/news/press-release/education-performance-standards-vary-widely-among-states-some-cases-several

Umejima, K., Ibaraki, T., Yamazaki, T., & Sakai, K.L. (2021) Paper Notebooks vs. Mobile Devices: Brain Activation Differences During Memory Retrieval. *Frontiers in Behavioral Neuroscience*, *15*. http:DOI: 10.3389/fnbeh.2021.634158

Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge University Press.

Wise, L.L. & Alt. M. (2005, Sep) *Assessing Vertical Alignment in Aligning assessment to guide the learning of all students*. State collaborative on assessment and student standards, technical issues in large scale assessment. The council of chief state school officers. https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/

Appendices

Appendix A

Common European Framework for Reference
The CEFR is a professionally constructed and extensively researched example of vertical alignment that clearly articulates different standards of language and communication ability.
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Common_European_Framework_of_Reference_for_Languages

Common reference levels
The Common European Framework divides learners into three broad divisions that can each be further divided into two levels; for each level, it describes what a learner is supposed to be able to do in reading, listening, speaking and writing. The following table indicates these levels.

Level A Basic user A1 Breakthrough + A2 Waystage

Level B Independent user B1 Threshold +B2 Vantage

Level C Proficient user C1 Advanced + C2 Mastery

https://cefrlevels.com/overview/index.html

CEFR stands for Common European Framework of Reference. The CEFR levels provide a way of describing a person's language proficiency.

There are six levels: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2. A1 is the lowest level in terms of ability and C2 is the highest. The CEFR levels were developed for European languages (not only English) and despite the word 'European' in the description, they are rapidly gaining popularity around the world.

The general descriptions of each level are as follows:

C2
Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read.
Can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation.
Can express themselves spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in the most complex situations.

C1
Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer clauses, and recognize implicit meaning.
Can express ideas fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions.
Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes.
Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.

B2
Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in their field of specialization.
Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party.
Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

B1
Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.
Can deal with most situations likely to arise while travelling in an area where the language is spoken.
Can produce simple connected text on topics that are familiar or of personal interest.
Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.

A2
Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment).
Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters.
Can describe in simple terms aspects of their background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.

A1
Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type.
Can introduce themselves and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people they know and things they have.
Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Appendix B

The Direct Printing Amazon KDP Process in Simple Form

In short form the process involves initial content creation by the writer in a word processed format that is uploaded to the system before a layout is chosen. The size of the book has a range of choices including size, paper and cover quality, kindle version, paperback or hardcover, title and editions, free ISBN option (initial 3 month exclusivity rights with Amazon), authors and contributors, book description, keywords, categories for online listing, marketplace and pricing options, and pre-order ability. The process can be completed in as little as a few hours, and once approved by Amazon staff (normally within 72 hours) the book will appear in the bookstore, where it is then available to order by the wider online community.

https://kdp.amazon.com/en_US/

Each book will feature a front and back cover page with author details and some design, as well as the optional ISBN barcode. Templates are freely available to use for the covers and creators can upload other images to replace standard template images.

The progress status of each book created is as follows:

Draft: You've started your book, but haven't submitted it to be published. Draft will appear next to your title on the Bookshelf.

In Review: During review, Amazon checks the book to make sure it meets their content guidelines. The review process can't be expedited or cancelled once it's started. You also cannot make any additional edits at this time. It can take up to 72 hours for titles to be reviewed and published, and up to 10 business days for low-content books to be reviewed and published.

Publishing: Your title is being published and will be available on the Amazon store shortly. Your book is not available for any additional edits until this process is complete.

Live: Your title now available for purchase. You can now search for your book on the Amazon store. You can also make any changes to your book, if necessary. Only certain attributes can be changed after a book is published.

Live with unpublished changes: Changes were made to your "Live" book and you haven't published the updates. You may have also just viewed some details in your title setup. To publish any changes, you'll need to submit your title for review again.

Blocked: Your title has been made unavailable for further editing due to your request or due to a problem related to the book's content. Blocked titles also can't be deleted from your Bookshelf. If you have concerns about your blocked title, please contact us for more information.

Pre-order: See our pre-order status page for a complete list of pre-order statuses.

Improving Argumentative Essays with the Toulmin Model and Fallacy Repair

John E. McCarthy
Showa Women's University

Abstract

The argumentative essay can be a challenging assignment for Japanese university students of English due to both the language proficiency and the critical thinking skills required. In comparison to native English speakers and non-native speakers of various other cultural backgrounds, Japanese students are likely to have had less practice with written argumentation and may find it difficult to choose appropriate support, explain the relevance of that support, and refute counterarguments. This paper discusses ways in which teachers can address these challenges by incorporating instruction and activities based on the Toulmin Model of Argument, which research has shown to be useful in improving students' written argumentation (Qin & Karabacak, 2010; Simon, 2008; Stapleton & Wu, 2015; Varghese & Abraham, 1998; Yeh, 1998). In addition, the paper provides examples of some common logical fallacies that can weaken students' arguments and introduces activities designed to help students recognize and repair such fallacies.

日本語概要

論証型論文は、言語能力と批判的思考能力の両方が要求されるため、日本の大学の英語学習者にとって難しい課題である可能性があります。英語を母国語とする学生や他の様々な文化的背景を持つ非母語話者と比較すると、日本の学生は論述に関する練習をあまりしていない可能性が高く、適切なサポートを選択し、そのサポートの妥当性を説明し、反論に反論することが困難であると感じるかもしれません。本論文では、学生の論述力向上に有用であることが研究により示されている「トゥールミン・モデル・オブ・アキュメント」に基づく指導や活動を取り入れることで、教員がこれらの課題に取り組む方法について述べる（Qin & Karabacak, 2010; Simon, 2008; Stapleton & Wu, 2015; Varghese & Abraham, 1998; Yeh, 1998）。さらに、学生の議論を弱める可能性のある一般的な論理的誤謬の例を示し、学生がそのような誤謬を認識し修復するために設計された活動を紹介する。

The argumentative essay is a staple of university academic writing classes and is covered in widely used ESL texts, including Great Writing 4 (Folse et al., 2014), Longman Academic Series 5 (Meyers, 2014), NorthStar: Reading and Writing 5 (Cohen & Miller, 2015), and Refining Composition Skills (Smalley et al., 2012). However, it poses particular challenges for Japanese students, who may have limited practice with essay writing (Mulvey, 2016) and critical thinking skills (Okada 2015, 2017; Tanaka, 2014) that would be useful for argumentative writing assignments. In addition, due to differences in cultural traditions, students from East Asian countries, including Japan, may be less used to arguing opinions and questioning the opinions of others than their Western counterparts (Pratt et al., 1999; Tweed & Lehman, 2002; see also McCarthy, 2021). As a result, in learning to write effective argumentative essays, Japanese students may benefit from instruction focused on the structure of arguments as well as the type of reasoning that makes arguments persuasive. In this paper, these issues will be discussed in relation to the Toulmin Model of Argument and the identification and repair of logical fallacies. First, the paper will describe the elements that comprise an argument according to the Toulmin Model. Next, the influence of these elements on the effectiveness of writing will be addressed. The paper will then discuss common logical fallacies that can reduce the strength of arguments, even when those arguments appear well constructed. Finally, the paper will offer ideas on the incorporation of the Toulmin Model and the repair of the fallacies into lessons, specifically, in Japanese university English classes.

The Toulmin Model

The Toulmin Model, or Toulmin Argument Pattern (TAP), described by philosopher Stephen Toulmin in The Uses of Argument (1958/2003), identifies the following components of argumentation: claim, data, warrant, backing, rebuttal, and qualifier (see Appendix

A). According to Toulmin's model, a claim is used to make an assertion, and data provides support for the claim. A warrant acts as a link between the claim and the data, and backing adds support for the warrant. A rebuttal includes both an opposing argument and its refutation. A qualifier, such as "may" or "in most cases," limits the scope of the claim. These elements may not always be explicitly stated, and warrants and backing in particular may be implicit.

It should be noted that ESL writing texts typically distinguish between an opposing argument, or counterargument, and the rebuttal, or refutation, of that argument (Cohen & Miller, 2015; Folse et al., 2014; Meyers, 2014; Smalley et al., 2012). Various studies related to the Toulmin Model (Du, 2017; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007; Qin & Karabacak, 2010; Stapleton & Wu, 2015; Zhang, 2018) make a similar distinction. Therefore, when discussing those studies, this paper also distinguishes between "counterargument" and "rebuttal."

The significance of the Toulmin Model in argumentative writing has been shown in studies involving both native English speakers and ESL students. Although the number of studies involving Japanese participants is limited, findings from research in various settings may provide useful insight into the potential benefits of integrating the Toulmin Model into classes of Japanese students. In particular, studies indicate a connection between the presence of specific Toulmin elements and the overall quality of writing. For example, in comparing the essays of American sixth-, eighth-, and tenth-grade students, and professional writers, Crammond (1998) found that students in the higher grades used warrants and countered rebuttals more frequently, with the most frequent use among the professional writers. The impact of Toulmin elements on the effectiveness of writing was also shown in Connor's (1990) research examining argumentative essays written by 16-year-olds from the United States, England, and New Zealand, which indicated that the presence and effectiveness of claims, data, and warrants accounted for 48 percent of the variation in holistic scores. Nussbaum and Schraw (2007), in their examination of American undergraduates' writing, likewise noted a correlation between greater use of certain argumentative elements (counterarguments

and rebuttals) and higher overall scores. Additionally, Du (2017), Qin and Karabacak (2010), and Zhang (2018) had similar findings regarding counterarguments and rebuttals in the English writing of Chinese university students.

Applying the Toulmin Model

Given that certain Toulmin elements are associated with better argumentative writing, how can teachers develop their students' use of these elements? Following is an explanation of factors that can lead to more frequent and more effective use of the components of argumentation.

Familiar Topics

Familiar essay topics have been shown to result in the increased use of certain elements of argumentation (Stapleton, 2001). In the study, Japanese undergraduates in an English writing class were asked to respond to two readings, each of which took a strong position on a separate issue. One of the topics (rice importation to Japan) was presumed to be more familiar to the students, while the other (gun control in the United States) was presumed to be less familiar. Results indicated that essays written on the familiar topic included more arguments, more data, and more rebuttals. In addition, the familiar topic resulted in a greater variety of data and a deeper level of abstraction. Considering the issue of familiarity, the author has found the following topics to be successful in writing activities with Japanese university students: university requirements, English-only policies in the workplace, online vs. face-to-face classes, and childcare subsidies, among others.

Interactive Argumentation

In an argumentative essay, the writer typically must supply the argument as well as the counterargument, which the writer then refutes. In interactive argumentation, however, counterarguments are naturally brought up by the other side, prompting rebuttals (Ferretti et al., 2000; Macagno, 2016; Nussbaum, 2005; Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005). Applying this concept to academic writing classes, teachers may use pre-writing activities

such as group discussions, debates, and synchronous and asynchronous online messaging to help students generate ideas for counterarguments and rebuttals.

Specific Goal Instructions

The goals that students are given in their writing assignments can also have a significant impact on the components of argumentation included, as shown by Ferretti et al. (2000) and Nussbaum and Kardash (2005). In the study by Ferretti et al., fourth- and sixth-graders in the United States were given writing prompts that included either a general goal to persuade the reader, or a more specific goal to state an opinion, reasons supporting that opinion, reasons why someone might disagree, and an explanation of why those reasons were wrong. Results showed that the more specific goal instruction produced greater use of counterarguments and rebuttals and greater overall persuasiveness in the writing of the sixth-graders but not in that of the fourth-graders, possibly because the younger students did not fully understand the specific goal instruction.

Nussbaum and Kardash (2005), basing their research on the work of Ferretti et al. (2000), analyzed the writing of American undergraduates. Participants were given a writing prompt that included one of two different goal instructions or no goal instruction. Participants in the "reason condition" were asked to provide as many reasons as they could to support their opinion. Those in the "counterargue/rebut condition" were asked to include reasons for their opinion, opposing reasons, and an explanation of why those reasons were wrong. A control group received the prompt with no goal instruction. Findings indicated that the more specific goal resulted in significantly more counterarguments and rebuttals as well as higher holistic scores.

In a second experiment in the same study, participants in one group received a prompt with no goal instruction, while those in the other group were instructed that their goal was to persuade the reader. Consistent with the findings of Ferretti et al. (2000), Nussbaum and Kardash (2005) found that the persuade goal reduced the use of counterarguments, possibly because participants believed that including counterarguments would weaken their case.

Considering this point, teachers may find it useful to give goal instructions specifying the elements of argumentation to include, while avoiding persuade goals that could actually be counterproductive.

Graphic Organizers

Another way to increase students' use of argumentative elements is by having them plan with graphic organizers based on those elements (Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007; Yeh, 1998). Yeh's study involving seventh-grade students in the United States compared the effectiveness of planning with two different types of graphic organizers. One group of participants used a concept map that focused on the writing process and included spaces for the writer's opinion, an introduction, three reasons, and a conclusion. The other group used two organizers based on elements in the Toulmin Model. Participants received six weeks of writing instruction that differed only in the type of planner used. The participants' writing was then analyzed for development, including organization, focus, and clarity; voice; and conventions, including grammar, spelling, and punctuation. The study found that students who used the Toulmin-based planners had significantly higher gains in development and voice. In addition, participant interviews at the end of the experiment indicated differences in the participants' understanding of argumentative writing. For example, when asked what made written arguments strong, 78% of the students who had used the processed-based planner gave answers that focused on writing conventions, gave vague answers, or said they did not know. Only 22% focused on how well claims were supported or the connection between claims and support. In contrast, when answering the same question, 61% of the students who had used the Toulmin-based planners focused on strength of support or the connection between claims and support, while 39% focused on conventions, answered vaguely, or said they did not know (Yeh, 1998, p. 75).

Nussbaum and Schraw's (2007) study of American undergraduates also examined the effectiveness of planning with a graphic organizer based on argumentative elements, although the organizer, unlike Yeh's, did not incorporate secondary Toulmin elements, such

as warrants. Nussbaum and Schraw found that participants who used the graphic organizer included more counterclaims and rebuttals and had higher holistic scores than those in a control group. However, the researchers surmised that planning with the graphic organizer may have encouraged my-side bias in some participants. With this in mind, when using graphic organizers, teachers may find it necessary to clarify the importance of considering multiple viewpoints in order to form a cohesive argument, as opposed to raising counterarguments merely so that they can be defeated.

Strengthening Toulmin Elements by Reducing Fallacies

Although the Toulmin Model can be a valuable tool in teaching students how to best structure an argumentative essay, the model does not provide guidelines on the content of effective arguments. As a result, essays which fit the model in terms of their elements may still employ faulty reasoning. This point is illustrated by Stapleton and Wu's (2015) study analyzing both the structure and quality of reasoning in the English argumentative essays of Hong Kong high school students. The study found that even essays that seemed well structured contained ineffective reasoning, including inadequate support for claims, unrefuted counterarguments, and counterarguments that were overly weak (straw person fallacy). The study points to the importance of both surface structure and reasoning in the effectiveness of writing. Consequently, it seems that students would benefit from instruction in the content as well as the components of effective argumentation. One way that teachers might address the issue of argument strength is by making students aware of common logical fallacies and how to avoid them.

Background

Many of the fallacies we know today can be traced back to Aristotle's Sophistical Refutations (ca. 350 B. C. E./1984) and John Locke's An Essay Concerning Human Understanding (1690/1993), with more being added from various sources over the years (Athanassopoulos & Voskoglou, 2020; Hahn & Oaksford, 2007; Hansen,

2020; Walton, 1989). Examples of fallacies that may appear in students' argumentative essays (e.g., begging the question, straw person, and slippery slope) are listed in Appendix B.

Categorizing Fallacies

Although it can be helpful to know the categories used to identify fallacies (see Appendix B), it should be noted that it is not always clear when an argument is fallacious since fallaciousness can depend on context (Corner et al., 2011; Felton, 2005; Hahn & Oaksford, 2007; Hundleby, 2010; Mercier & Sperber, 2011; Ricco, 2007; Walton, 1989). Therefore, in teaching students how to make effective arguments, focusing on the identification and categorization of fallacies can be problematic. A more effective strategy is to focus on helping students recognize flaws in reasoning and how to repair those flaws. (Blair, 1995, as cited in Hansen, 2020; Felton, 2005; Hitchcock, 1995, as cited in Hansen, 2020; Hundleby, 2010).

Incorporating These Concepts into Classes

In my own classes for Japanese university students majoring in English, I have found activities focused on the Toulmin Argument Pattern and logical fallacies helpful in improving students' written argumentation. In particular, I apply many of the concepts discussed in this paper to a second-year course emphasizing critical thinking and academic writing. Following, is an explanation of how and when during the 15-week semester I cover these concepts.

Introduction of Toulmin Terms

(Week 2) From their previous English study, students will have some familiarity with the format of an argumentative essay. However, they may be unaccustomed to focusing on the way that individual elements work together to form persuasive arguments. In addition, in order to discuss essays in terms of these components, students will need to grasp the concepts behind them, as well as a vocabulary that describes them. Therefore, to facilitate students' understanding, I introduce the Toulmin elements in steps, in the context of familiar

topics (e.g., university requirements, English-only policies, and online vs. face-to-face classes).

I begin by explaining what is meant by "claim," illustrating with examples (see Appendix A). I then ask students to work in pairs or small groups to come up with their own claims related to a familiar topic. As groups report back, we discuss their claims, and I clarify the meaning of the term if necessary. Following the discussion on claims, I repeat the activity for "data." Because students may have a tendency to focus on finding statistics, without adequately considering how well those statistics support claims, I ask the students to think of the "type of data" that would strengthen their arguments, regardless of whether that data is actually accessible.

After students have reported back on their ideas regarding data, I repeat the activity for the secondary elements of the Toulmin Model: "warrant," "backing," and "qualifier."

Introduction of Graphic Organizer

(Week 3) The class reviews the Toulmin elements covered in the previous week and discusses them in the context of a previously assigned reading. I then introduce the terms "counterargument" and "rebuttal," connecting them with examples from the reading. Following this discussion, I introduce a graphic organizer based on the Toulmin Model and ask the students to work in pairs or small groups to complete it using information from the assigned reading.

I then have the students work in pairs or small groups to complete an organizer on a new topic with which they have personal experience (e.g., online class vs. face-to-face class). Once again, students report back on their answers, and I provide clarification as needed.

Fallacies

(Weeks 4-6) Because students may be unfamiliar with the concept of fallacies and may have limited practice focusing on logic in their writing, I spread the introduction of fallacies over multiple classes, covering a few fallacies each lesson. I introduce the fallacies with an

example of each (see Appendix B). I then give students a handout with additional examples from assigned readings or examples that I have created, and ask them to work in pairs or small groups to identify the fallacies and make suggestions on how to repair them. After covering the various fallacies, I have students practice identifying and repairing them using a more comprehensive handout (see Appendix C).

Debate

(Weeks 7-9) By this point in the semester, students should be used to looking at written arguments in terms of their effectiveness. However, they may need additional practice in developing strong arguments, which in-class debates can provide. I begin the debate activity by assigning students to four teams: one pro and one con team for two different topics. The teams spend one week planning with a Toulmin-based organizer, and in each of the following two weeks, there is a debate on one of the topics. This activity seems particularly useful in helping students think from different perspectives, as they must attempt to predict their opponents' arguments in order to prepare successful rebuttals. The debate activity also provides an opportunity for students to assess the arguments of their classmates according to the criteria discussed in the course. As a follow-up assignment, students report on the debate they did not participate in, evaluating each team's effectiveness in supporting its claims with data, refuting opposing arguments, and avoiding fallacies.

Editing Sample Essays

(Weeks 10-11) For these lessons, I create essays containing examples of both strong and weak arguments based on issues I have notice in students' written work. I then ask students to work in pairs or small groups to find the flaws in argumentation and make suggestions on how to repair those flaws.

Consolidation

In the final weeks of the course, students continue writing and editing their own work, putting into practice the various concepts studied throughout the semester. Because the students are likely to have had lim-

ited experience with argumentation before taking the course, applying the concepts to their writing can be challenging. A formal data analysis on the development of students' argumentation has not been conducted. However, it is my impression that by the end of the course, they are generally able to make better connections between claims and data and are more aware of the need to address opposing points of view.

Conclusion

As this paper has discussed, convincing argumentative writing requires both an effective pattern of argumentation and strong reasoning within that pattern. By incorporating the Toulmin Model and the identification and repair of fallacies into their lessons, teachers can address both these issues. It is the author's hope that the teaching suggestions offered in this paper will help facilitate that process.

References

Aristotle (1984). Sophistical refutations (W. A. Pickard-Cambridge, Trans.). In *The complete works of Aristotle, volume 1* (J. Barnes, Ed.), pp. 278-314. Princeton University Press. (Original work published ca. 350 B. C. E.)

Athanassopoulos, E., & Voskoglou, M. G. (2020). Quantifying Aristotle's fallacies. *Mathematics*, *8*(9), 1399. https://doi.org/10.3390/math8091399

Carter, M. (2019, December 23). *When do boys stop growing?* Parents. Retrieved March 18, 2022, from https://www.parents.com/kids/development/physical/when-do-boys-stop-growing/

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (n.d). *Adult obesity facts*. Retrieved March 18, 2022, from https://www.cdc.gov/obesity/data/adult.html

Cohen, R. F., & Miller, J. L. (2015). *NorthStar: Reading and writing level 5* (4th ed.). Pearson.

Connor, U. (1990). Linguistic/rhetorical measures for international persuasive student writing. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *24*(1), 67-87. https://www.jstor.org/stable/40171446

Corner, A., Hahn, U., & Oaksford, M. (2011). The psychological mechanism of the slippery slope argument. *Journal of Memory and Language*, *64*(2), 133-152. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jml.2010.10.002

Crammond, J. G. (1998). The uses and complexity of argument structures in expert and student persuasive writing. *Written Communication*, *15*(2), 230-268. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088398015002004

Cutler, D. M., Glaeser, E. L., & Shapiro, J. M. (2003). Why have Americans become more obese? *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, *17*(3), 93-118. https://www.brown.edu/Research/Shapiro/pdfs/obesity.pdf

DiFranza, J. R. (1999). Are the federal and state governments complying with the Synar Amendment? *Archives of Pediatric Adolescent Medicine*, *153*(10), 1089-1097. https://doi.org/10.1001/archpedi.153.10.1089

Du, F. (2017). The analysis of argument-counterargument structure in Chinese EFL learners' argumentative writing. *Journal of Studies in Education*, *7*(3), 121-129. https://doi.org/10.5296/jse.v7i3.11275

EF. (2021). *EF English Proficiency Index: A ranking of 112 countries and regions by English skill.* Retrieved March 24, 2022, from https://www.ef.com/wwen/epi/

Felton, M. (2005). Approaches to argument in critical thinking instruction. *Thinking Classroom*. *6*(4), 6-13.

Ferretti, R. P., MacArthur, C. A., & Dowdy, N. S. (2000). The effects of an elaborated goal on the persuasive writing of students with learning disabilities and their normal achieving peers. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 92*(4), 694-702. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.92.4.694

Folse, K. S., Muchmore-Vokoun, A. & Vestri Solomon, E. (2014). *Great writing 4: Great essays* (4th ed.). National Geographic Learning.

Hahn, U. & Oaksford, M. (2007). The rationality of informal argumentation: A Bayesian approach to reasoning fallacies. *Psychological Review, 114*(3), 704-732. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.114.3.704

Hansen, H. (2020). Fallacies. In E. N. Zalta (Ed.), *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*, Summer 2020 Edition. Retrieved September 22, 2021, from https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/sum2020/entries/fallacies/

Howard, J. (2019, December 27). *The US officially raises the tobacco buying age to 21*. CNN, retrieved March 18, 2022, from https://edition.cnn.com/2019/12/27/health/us-tobacco-age-21-trnd/index.html

Hundleby, C. E. (2010). The authorities of the fallacies approach to argument evaluation. *Informal Logic, 30*(3), 279-308. https://doi.org/10.22329/il.v30i3.3035

Locke, J. (1993). *An essay concerning human understanding* (J. W. Yolton, Ed.). Everyman. (Original work published 1690.)

Macagno, F. (2016). Argument relevance and structure. Assessing and developing students' uses of evidence. *International Journal of Educational Research, 79*, 180-194. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2016.07.002

McCarthy, J. E. (2021). Critical thinking in academic writing: Challenges for Japanese students at English-medium universities. *Gakuen, 965*, 13-27.

Mercier H., & Sperber, D. (2011). Why do humans reason? Arguments for an argumentative theory. *Behavioral Brain Sciences, 34*(2), 57-111. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X10000968

Meyers, A. (2014). *Longman academic writing series 5: Essays to research papers*. Pearson.

Mulvey, B. (2016). Writing instruction: What is being taught in Japanese high schools, why, and why it matters. *The Language Teacher, 40*(3), 3-8.

Nussbaum, E. M. (2005). The effect of goal instructions and need for cognition on interactive argumentation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 30*(3), 286-313. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2004.11.002

Nussbaum, E. M., & Kardash, C. M. (2005). The effects of goal instructions and text on the generation of counterarguments during writing. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 97*(2), 157-169. https://doi.apa.org/doiLanding/doi=10.1037%2F0022-0663.97.2.157

Nussbaum, E. M., & Schraw, G. (2007). Promoting argument-counterargument integration in students' writing. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 76*(1), 59-92. https://doi.org/10.3200/JEXE.76.1.59-92

Okada, R. (2015). Thinking in the Japanese classroom. *Journal of Modern Education Review, 5*(11), 1054-1060. https://doi.org/10.15341/jmer(2155-7993)/11.05.2015/004

Okada, R. (2017). Conflict between critical thinking and cultural values: Difficulty asking questions and expressing opinions in Japan. *Asian Education Studies*, *3*(1), 91-98. https://doi.org/10.20849/aes.v2i1.122

Pratt, D. D., Kelly, M., & Wong, W. S. S. (1999). Chinese concept of "effective teaching" in Hong Kong: Towards culturally sensitive evaluation of teaching. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 18(4), 241-258.

Qin, J., & Karabacak, E. (2010). The analysis of Toulmin elements in Chinese EFL university argumentative writing. *System*, *38*(3), 444-456. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2010.06.012

Ricco, R. B., (2007). Individual differences in the analysis of informal reasoning fallacies. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *32*, 459-484.

Simon, S. (2008). Using Toulmin's Argument Pattern in the evaluation of argumentation in school science. International *Journal of Research & Method in Education*, *31*(3), 277-289. https://doi.org/10.1080/17437270802417176

Smalley, R. L., Ruetten, M. K., & Rishel Kozyrev. (2012). *Refining composition skills: Academic writing and grammar* (6th ed.). National Geographic Learning.

Stapleton, P. (2001). Assessing critical thinking in the writing of Japanese university students: Insights about assumptions and content familiarity. *Written Communication*, *18*(4), 506–548.

Stapleton, P., & Wu, Y. A. (2015). Assessing the quality of arguments in students' persuasive writing: A case study analyzing the relationship between surface structure and substance. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *17*, 12-23. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2014.11.006

Tanaka, J. (2014). A dialectical approach to critical thinking in EAP writing. *Second Language Studies*, *33*(1), 53–84.

Toulmin, S. (2003). *The uses of argument*. Cambridge University Press. (Original work published 1958.)

Tweed, R. G., & Lehman, D. R. (2002). Learning considered within a cultural context: Confucian and Socratic approaches. *American Psychologist*, *57*(2), 89-99. https://doi.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0003-066X.57.2.89

Varghese, S. A., & Abraham, S. A. (1998). Undergraduates arguing a case. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *7*(3), 287-306. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(98)90018-2

Walton, D. N. (1989). *Informal logic: A handbook for critical argumentation*. Cambridge University Press.

Yeh, S. S. (1998). Empowering education: Teaching argumentative writing to cultural minority middle-school students. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *33*(1), 49-83. https://www.jstor.org/stable/40171572

Zhang, Y. (2018). An investigation into the development of structure and evidence use in argumentative writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *8*(11), 1441-1448. http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0811.08

Appendix A

Elements in the Toulmin Model

Toulmin Element (aka)	Example
Claim (argument, opinion, assertion)	TOEIC should not be used as a placement tool in the Academic English Program.
Data (grounds, support, evidence, reason)	The content of TOEIC does not match the program's curriculum.
Warrant (link, connection)	Tests that match a program's content are better placement tools.
Backing (grounds, support, or evidence for warrant)	This has been shown by validity studies.
Rebuttal (counterargument and rebuttal or refutation)	Some say that TOEIC should be used because the university should focus on skills that will help students find jobs. However, the Academic English Program is not meant to be a career preparation program.
Qualifier (hedge)	Expressions such as in many cases, often, most likely, according to, etc.

Appendix B

Common Fallacies

Fallacy	Description	Example
Begging the question (petitio principii)	Assuming that an open question has been settled (e.g., using support that is basically a restatement of the claim)	According to the department's policy, expulsion is an appropriate punishment for plagiarism. Therefore, it is unnecessary to consider making the policy less severe.
False cause (post hoc ergo propter)	Attributing causation to correlation	The harmful effects of a Western diet on fertility are obvious in the case of Japan. The country's birth rate has dropped dramatically as the Japanese diet has become increasingly Western.
Irrelevant conclusion (ignoratio elenchi)	Providing data that supports a claim different from one being made	Plagiarism is wrong for many reasons, which are explained clearly in the Student Handbook. Every student, including Amanda, should understand why the university does not allow plagiarism. Therefore, we conclude that Amanda's paper was plagiarized.
Straw person	Misrepresenting the opposing argument in order to weaken it	Admitting students randomly instead of by academic ability would have terrible consequences for the university. That is why I oppose making the entrance exam optional.
Composition	Implying that if some members of a group have a characteristic, all members of the group have that characteristic	A recent survey of potential home buyers indicates that real estate prices in Tokyo have become increasingly unaffordable. Therefore, the government should provide financial help to all Japanese citizens who are planning to buy homes.
Division	Implying that if a group has a certain characteristic, each member of the group has that characteristic	Data on English proficiency in Europe shows that English proficiency is higher in Denmark than it is in Finland. Consequently, I support hiring the Danish applicant over the Finnish applicant.
Appeal to authority (ad verecundiam)	Assuming that an "expert's" opinion is adequate support, regardless of its actual merit	According to the principal of West Salem High School, if teachers' and principals' salaries were increased by 10%, students' test scores would rise by the same amount or even more.

Emotional appeal *(ad misericordiam)*	Appealing to emotions without adequate support for the claim	How would you feel if you failed the class? Wouldn't you be heartbroken? This shows the unfairness of the current grading system.
Ad hominem	Criticizing the person giving the opposing argument instead of criticizing the argument itself	Grant's dating history shows that he has no skill in maintaining relationships. Do you think someone that socially inept could run a sales division?
Slippery slope	Implying that a certain action will lead to other actions, eventually resulting in negative consequences.	If school uniforms were no longer required, students would not develop a group identity, which would prevent them from successfully working in teams once they enter the workforce.

Appendix C

Fallacies Exercises

Look at the examples below. What fallacies do they contain, and how could you repair those fallacies? If different data would be more effective, what kind of data would you use?

<u>English Education Should Be Mandatory</u>

ARGUMENT

If students are free to take only the classes they want to, they may avoid classes that are difficult but are important for their future. Such classes, including not only English but also math and science, help students prepare for university entrance exams. These classes also help students start preparing for their future careers. Today's students are tomorrow's workforce, so it is essential that they develop the knowledge and skills demanded by the Japanese job market, including English proficiency. For this reason, English should remain a required subject.

<u>English Education Should Be Mandatory</u>

COUNTERARGUMENT

Supporters of the current requirement for English classes claim that English is the most useful foreign language for Japanese. However, when one examines the employement data for this university, one finds that the foreign company that hired the highest number of recent graduates is based in Korea. According to this data, Korean is, in fact, more useful than English for Japanese students.

<u>English Education Should Not Be Mandatory</u>

ARGUMENT

English should not be a required subject because mandatory English classes are not effective in producing high English proficiency. According to Lincoln Springfield, a successful IT entrepreneur, when language classes are required, students view them as a duty instead of as a learning opportunity. As a result, their motivation as well as the amount they learn is low. Springfield is a leading figure in today's business world, and his opinion is convincing evidence for making English classes optional.

<u>English Education Should Not Be Mandatory</u>

COUNTERARGUMENT

Those who support Japan's English education requirement claim that it is necessary in order to keep Japan's workforce competitive with Europe's, for example. Some people who hold this viewpoint say that English skill in Japan has decreased in recent years.However, according to EF's English Proficiency Index (2021), English proficiency in most Asian countries has been increasing for the last decade.

<u>The Smoking Age Should Be Lowered</u>

ARGUMENT

In many ways, there is no difference between an older teenager and a legal adult. For example, although a person becomes a legal adult at 20 years of age, one reaches one's full height years earlier. Typically, girls reach their full height by 14 or 15, and boys by 18 (Carter, 2019). In this regard, a teenager will not grow more mature between the ages of 18 and 20, or even 18 and 30. Therefore, creating artificial differences between 18-year-olds and 20-year-olds, such as the current smoking age limit, is meaningless.

The Smoking Age Should Be Lowered

COUNTERARGUMENT

Supporters of a higher legal smoking age claim that it would result in better health among the population. However, health data shows that raising the smoking age does not improve health nationwide. In the United States, in 1992, the government established an age limit of 18 for smokers in all states (DiFranza, 1999). The age limit was raised again, to 21, in 2019 (Howard, 2019). However, during that period, obesity in the United States actually increased, rising from 30 percent of adults in 1988-1994 (Cutler et al., 2003) to 42.4 percent in 2017-2018 (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, n.d.).

The Smoking Age Should Not Be Lowered

ARGUMENT

Currenlty, Japanese under the age of 20 are not permitted to smoke. Although people under 20 may prefer a lower age limit, the limit should not be lowered because it is illegal for those under 20 to smoke. Therefore, no change should be made to the current law regarding the purchase of tobacco products by teenagers and young adults.

The Smoking Age Should Not Be Lowered

COUNTERARGUMENT

Some people who support an age limit of 18 for the purchase of tobacco products claim that it is possible to make responsible decisions before reaching the age of 20. These people, however, have not considered the dangerous consequences that such a change in the age limit would have. If the age limit were lowered to 18, some would claim that 16-year-olds were mature enough to smoke. Then, if the age limit were reduced to 16, some would propose reducing it to 14. In this way, a change in the current limit of 20 could easily lead to elementary school students smoking legally.

(Fallacies in examples above: 1, straw person; 2, composition; 3, appeal to authority; 4, division; 5, irrelevant conclusion; 6, false cause; 7, begging the question; 8, slippery slope)

Interdisciplinary Teacher Collaboration for an ESP Course: A Case Study

Kayoko Yamauchi

Toyo Gakuen University

Abstract

In the growing context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English Medium Instruction (EMI) all around the world, Interdisciplinary teacher collaboration (ITC) has been promoted so that students can learn academic disciplines in English while developing useful English skills (Chaovanapricha & Chaturongakul, 2020; Kampen et al., 2020). Landscape of Practice (LoP) where teachers learn through boundary crossing and participation in communities of practice (CoPs) has become important in such collective learning (Wenger-Trayner, et al., 2014). Interdisciplinary teacher collaboration (ITC) where an English teacher works with a content teacher towards a shared goal is one way to actualize this LoP. Nevertheless, its actual implementation process is not well documented (Lu, 2020). Therefore, this case study explores ITC's impact on teachers' decision making in designing, implementing, and evaluating an elective business-content ESP course at a private university in Japan. A variety of data related to ITC has been collected and examined. The findings show how and when ITC influences teacher's decision making in designing an ESP course to enhance students' learning.

日本語概要

世界的に ESP（English for Specific Purposes）や EMI（English Medium Instruction）が盛んになる中、学生が英語で学問を学びながら、有用な英語力を身につけるために、教師間の連携（Interdisciplinary teacher collaboration：ITC）が推進されている (Chaovanapricha & Chaturongakul, 2020; Kampen et al., 2020)。特に、教師が境界を越えて実践共同体（CoPs）に参加し学ぶという実践の風景（LoP）が、そうした共同体の学びにおいては重要になっている（Wenger-Trayner, et al., 2014）。英語教員が専門科目の担当教員と、共通の目標に向かって協働する学際的な教員のコラボレーション（ITC）は、この LoP を実現する 1 つの方法である。しかし、その実際の実施プロセスについては十分な報告がなされていない（Lu, 2020）。そこで、本ケーススタディでは、日本の私立大学における選択科目「ビジネス・コンテンツ ESP コース」の設計、実施、評価において、ITC が教員の意思決定に与える影響について検討した。ITC に関連する様々なデータを収集、検討した結果、学生の学習効果を高める ESP コースの設計において、ITC がいつ、どのように教師の意思決定に影響を及ぼすかを明らかにした。

In the growing context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English Medium Instruction (EMI) all around the world, Interdisciplinary teacher collaboration (ITC) has been promoted so that students can learn academic disciplines in English while developing useful English skills (Chaovanapricha & Chaturongakul, 2020; Kampen et al., 2020).

When describing collaboration, communities of practice (CoPs) are often used to describe how a group of people who share a concern or a passion in such collaboration work, learn and innovate in a particular social context (Pyrko et al., 2019). When language teachers collaborate beyond their field in designing an ESP course, however, recognizing and working through broader landscapes of practice (LoP) are crucial (Wenger-Trayner et al., 2014; Yamauchi et al., 2022).

Previous studies indicate the crucial role of ITC for EMI and ESP faculty in designing an EMI/ESP course (Brown, 2015; Lu, 2020). For instance, in comparing the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and the language teachers' perceptions of ideal CLIL pedagogies in the Netherlands, Kampen et al. (2020)'s findings point out that experts tend to manifest idealistic views about CLIL, while language teachers tend to have more practical views. This implies the importance of understanding how such views reflect their actual roles in ITC in the process of curriculum design.

Chaovanapricha and Chaturongakul (2020) investigated the roles of English teachers and subject teachers engaged in the collaborative process of interdisciplinary teaching in ESP subjects at a Thai university and explored the benefits and drawbacks of implementing such collaborations. Their findings revealed the exten-

sive roles taken on by both teachers involved in the ITC. Roles for the English teacher involved being a lesson planner, teacher, learning organizer, and class activities designer. The subject teacher's role was identified as a consultant or informant, supporter, monitor, and facilitator. The benefits were that an English teacher gained confidence, reduced worry in teaching ESP subjects, and received instant feedback from the subject teacher. The drawbacks were that it was challenging to balance the different schedules of both teachers and that lesson planning was time consuming.

Similarly, in a study of finding trends in EMI, Wilkinson (2018) mentioned that ITC between subject experts and language specialists can be seen challenging, as teacher identity is linked to one's disciplinary principles. However, facilitating their commitment to "the collaborative venture" for innovative teaching beyond one's disciplines could lead to success of EMI programs (Wilkinson, 2018, p.610). Considering the challenges in ITC, Miyama (2009) proposed an interdisciplinary and complementary approach for such communication where both language teachers and content teachers have mutual understanding of respecting areas of their expertise.

Although ITC related studies on language teaching above show the importance of clarifying the roles among teachers and the pros and cons of its implications both in Japan and abroad (Chaovanapricha & Chaturongakul, 2020; Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010; Kampen et al., 2020; Miyama, 2009), few studies have

documented such collaboration systematically in terms of the course design (Brown, 2015; Lu, 2020; Miyama, 2009).

Therefore, this case study attempts to capture a teacher's decision-making process in ITC between an English teacher and a content teacher from a perspective of LoP. Specifically, it aims to explore ITC's impact on teachers' decision making in designing, implementing, and evaluating an elective business-content ESP course for the spring 2022 semester at a private university in Japan.

In an attempt to systematically document ITC for language teachers and researchers, this case study adapted Nation and Macalister's (2010) language curriculum design model. It consists of three outside circles and a subdivided inner circle (Figure 1 replicated by the author). It is said that "the outer circles (principles, environment, needs) involve practical theoretical considerations that will have a major effect in guiding the actual process of course production" (Nation & Macalister, 2010, pp.1-3). The following two research questions were created to systematically document ITC in designing an EMI/ESP course while exploring the impact of ITC in its process for the present case study:

1.   When and why do teachers tend to cross interdisciplinary boundaries in reference to LoP?
2.   How does the impact of ITC affect teachers' decision making in designing, implementing, and evaluating an ESP course?
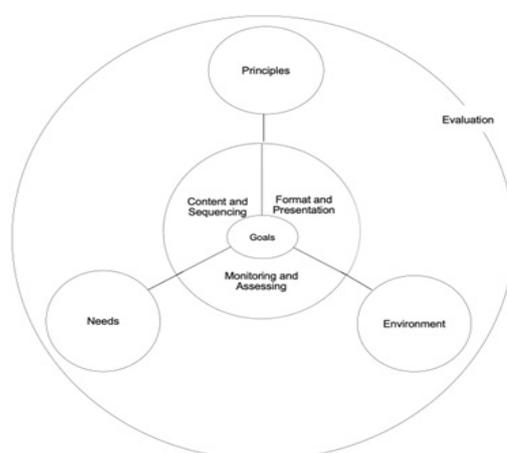

Figure 1

Nation and Macalister's (2010) language curriculum design model (p. 3)

Methods

In order to see the impact of ITC, this study has combined self- or auto-ethnography approach and Nation and Macalister's (2010) Language Curriculum Design Model in analyzing the data mentioned above. Ethnography usually studies social interactions, practices, and events, but self- or auto-ethnography involves "the study of the researcher's own group; a group in which the researcher is an established participant" (Eriksson, 2010, p.91). To complement the radical subjectivity of self-ethnography between a content teacher and the researcher, a curriculum design model created by Nation and Macalister (2010) has been combined for more objective data analysis. After the labeling the recurring themes and categorizing them into the model, the data has been analyzed to determine its relevance to ITC and the curriculum design model.

Setting

This case study is of designing and implementing an elective business-content ESP course for the third- and fourth-year students during the spring 2022 semester at a private university in Japan with the assistance of a content teacher specializing in entrepreneurship education and venture business. The business content teacher agreed to repurpose her Venture Business Management course in an ESP context.

Data

The data used in this study is of two participants: a content teacher and this researcher, who is also the language teacher. Different forms of the data (email, chats on Microsoft Teams, casual oral chats, and an end-of-semester survey) collected or transcribed during December 2021 to July 2022 are used for the analysis. The end-of-semester survey about ITC was created by this researcher to get more specific insights from the content teacher. It was given to both participants in Japanese as an opportunity for reflection. It includes the following seven points in a form of open-ended questions: how the curriculum syllabus/course design was re-examined for this collaboration, the impact of ITC on the class, opinions about sharing materials and information, something that you noticed

through collaboration, what should be done together for better ITC, opinions about EMI and CLIL, and other comments (see Appendix for the questions). In total, there are 185 entries from the language teacher and 37 from the content teacher. Although the number of the entries has been counted to depict a general picture of this study, the content quality of the entries, not the quantity, has been analyzed extensively. As this case study focuses on the systematic documentation of the collaboration process, the data has been grouped into five phases in a semester shown below:

1. **Pre-semester** (during the syllabus writing and course designing phase)
2. **Early-semester** (during Week 1-3, as the order of courses between the content teacher and the researcher reversed after lesson 3)
3. **Mid-semester** (during Week 4-7)
4. **Late-semester** (during Week 8-12, this study could not cover the whole 15 weeks due to the participants' schedules)
5. **Survey at the end of the semester** (Week 12)

Afterwards, each entry was translated and categorized into the Nation and Macalister's (2010) curriculum design model by the researcher who is a non-native English speaker. Two examples (by the content teacher, CT, and by the language teacher, LT, respectively, except for "Goals") are shown below:

- **Environment analysis (Outer Circle)**: CT, "As a co-teacher on LMS, can you see the materials that I uploaded before the scheduled time?"; LT, "I could not find much information about case study video competition."

- **Needs analysis (Outer Circle)**: CT, "When I use Mandal-Art, our students tend to run out of ideas and get tired of the repetition. So, it is almost impossible to fill every cell."; LT, "Our students seemed to be interested in comparison between Japanese and foreign companies in the previous survey."

- **Application of principles (Outer Circle)**: CT, "I would like our students to keep their eyes open."; LT, "I would like to revisit case studies as it is the

main approach that our faculty put an emphasis on."

- **Goals (Inner Circle)**: LT, "By the end of the semester, I would like the students to be able to describe their final proposal using the technical terms for their favorite thinking method."

- **Content and sequencing (Inner Circle)**: CT, "Thank you for nicely adapting my materials. Even English-Shiritori Game (A Japanese word-chain game)"; LT, "After comparing our materials, I decided to recycle the materials more closely and focus on application of your contents."

- **Format and presentation (Inner Circle)**: CT, "When the 2020 pandemic forced us to shift online, I modified the course design. I decided to start with individual tasks and end with group tasks, instead of making it all interactive. … So, I would like to continue this format."; LT, "My class won't need a textbook. I will center my course around the case study video."

- **Monitoring and assessment (Inner Circle)**: CT, "I used to manage assignments through C-learning, but I plan to use LMS this semester."; LT, "All students finished giving presentations within a lesson."

- **Evaluation**: CT, "I gained a new perspective through seeing you nicely adapt my materials."; LT, "I was able to verbalize what we want through this ITC."

Results

In order to see the results systematically from a macro to a micro perspective for this exploratory case study, the results are organized into three types by this researcher: 1) Comparison of ITC between a Language Teacher and a Content Teacher, 2) ITC's impact on and possible roles of a content teacher, and 3) ITC's impact on and possible roles of a language teacher.

Comparison of ITC between a Language Teacher and a Content Teacher

In order to see when and why teachers from different disciplines tend to cross interdisciplinary boundaries in the collaborative curriculum design process, Table 1 was created. The left column shows types of entries in terms of the Nation and Macalister's (2010) curriculum design model. This shows what types of ITC tend to take place between teachers. The top row shows a type of teacher followed by a designated phase in parenthesis. This helps us show when and what types of ITC tends to occur in a process of curriculum design by whom.

Regarding the timing indicated in the top row, both teachers (32% by LT, 59% by CT) communicated actively in the pre-semester when writing the syllabus and designing the course. Towards the end of the semester, the ITC slightly increased (28% by LT, 5% by CT). However, the two-way collaboration's pause was observed in the middle of the semester (15% by LT, 0% by CT).

In terms of types of ITC, there are three obvious trends. First, both the content and the language teacher tended to share ideas about the outer circles in the curriculum designing process (Environment such as scheduling and resources and Content and Sequencing such as institutional requirement and advice based on students' reactions) during the syllabus writing and course designing phase. And once the semester starts, it was mostly the language teacher communicating mainly about the outer circles (Environment Analysis such as materials and lesson plans, Needs analysis such as students' reactions and confirmation of the content teacher's advice, and Application of Principles such as benefit of ITC) in addition to some inner circles (Content and Sequencing such as how contents were adapted or added and Format and Presentation such as effective approaches and activities). Interestingly, once the semester started until the end-of-semester survey, neither participant mentioned Goals and Evaluation compared to other types.

Table 1

Comparison of entries per teacher

The Curriculum Design Process	LT (pre)	LT (early)	LT (mid)	LT (late)	LT (survey)	Total
Environment Analysis	11	7	3	8	3	32
Needs Analysis	13	6	12	19	4	54
Application of Principles	10	4	8	2	1	25
Goals	6	0	0	0	0	6
Content and Sequencing	14	6	2	15	4	41
Format and Presentation	4	2	1	6	1	14
Monitoring and Assessment	0	1	1	1	0	3
Evaluation	1	0	0	0	9	10
Total	59	26	27	51	22	185

The Curriculum Design Process	CT (pre)	CT (early)	CT (mid)	CT (late)	CT (survey)	Total
Environment Analysis	6	3	0	1	1	11
Needs Analysis	2	0	0	0	2	4
Application of Principles	1	0	0	0	0	1
Goals	0	0	0	0	0	0
Content and Sequencing	10	3	0	1	1	15
Format and Presentation	1	0	0	0	0	1
Monitoring and Assessment	1	0	0	0	1	2
Evaluation	1	0	0	0	2	3
Total	22	6	0	2	7	37

ITC's Impact on and Possible Roles of a Content Teacher

After examining the general trends in ITC, Table 2 was created to see more detail regarding ITC's impact on and possible roles of the content teacher in this curriculum design process. The first column shows types of entries in terms of the Nation and Macalister's (2010) curriculum design model, indicating types of ITC communicated by a content teacher. The second column shows a summary of types of ITC related themes regarding the model. The rest of the columns are organized in order of the five phases to show when and what ITC related themes occurred.

The findings indicate the content teacher's both frequent and infrequent ITC related themes at different phases. For instance, at the pre- and an early- semester stages, the content teacher tends to share practical and theoretical aspects of the course design through scheduling, planning, materials, needs, concerns, and ideals regarding Nation and Macalister's (2010) outer circles. In addition, the content teacher shared expertise in the course design through advice, input, and assessment tools in inner circles, key factors in writing the syllabus.

Throughout the whole process, confirmation through the teacher's expertise on "Content and Sequencing" was observed. In contrast, "Principles", "Goals", and "Format" were not as frequently mentioned as others. It is also interesting to note that in the survey, the ITC's potential impact on the content teacher's future course development or professional development was noted, such as "gaining a new perspective" and "looking forward to creating something new" through ITC.

ITC's Impact on and Possible Roles of a Language Teacher.

Table 3 was created to better detail ITC's impact on and possible roles of the language teacher in this curriculum design process.

The findings show that aside from the obvious difference in the volume of contents, both similar and different trends compared to the content teacher were observed. Like the content teacher, the language teacher tended to collaborate beyond one's CoP in terms of both practical and theoretical aspects of the course design. This includes sharing scheduling, plan-

ning, materials, needs, and concerns regarding Nation and Macalister's (2010) outer circles which involve practical theoretical considerations. In contrast, "Goals" were not frequently mentioned by the language teacher as much as others compared to the content teacher. This might have been stemmed from the nature of ESP/EMI course design. As the goals are at the core of the course design (Nation & Macalister, 2010), the language teachers need to develop a learning objective of the course along with the content teacher's expertise as Miyama pointed out (2009). Also, this implies sharing information about "how to" execute the course within the outer circles rather than the inner circles' "what to" was fundamental in the early stage of ITC for the language teacher.

When focusing on the differences between the content and the language teacher, however, interesting trends emerge. The first difference was when ITC was deployed. While the content teacher tended to collaborate in a decrescendo mode (active at an early stage of curriculum design and passive as the semester unfolded), the language teacher tends to collaborate steadily throughout the whole process.

Frequent ITC related themes that were not observed in the content teacher's communications illustrate changing roles of the language teacher. For instance, at an early stage, themes from an apprentice's perspective are often mentioned. These include tools, asking for advice, feelings, purposes, goal setting process, syllabus design process, and reframing the understanding through ITC. This implies the important open-minded role of the language teacher towards new content/knowledge. Gradually, however, based on observations from the lesson, more ITC-related themes about appropriate contents and approaches for the students tended to be generated by the language teacher. This implies language teachers' strengths in the process of course design and what language teachers could elaborate their expertise on when designing a ESP/EMI course.

Table 2

A content teacher's ITC related themes per phase

The Curriculum Design Process	CT's ITC Related Themes	Pre	Early	Mid	Final	Survey
Environment analysis	sharing scheduling, planning, materials, communication/information tools	scheduling and planning	sharing planning and materials, communication tools	not dealt with	changes in schedule	information sharing tools
Needs analysis	sharing needs of students and university and concerns in CLIL	sharing mutual understandings about the needs	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	concerns in CLIL
Application of principles	sharing ideals	ideals	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with
Goals	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with
Content and sequencing	sharing institutional requirement, advice, confirmation, or input (expertise) from an expert's perspective	institutional requirement, advice, confirmation, input	confirmation and expertise	not dealt with (confirming through "liking")	confirmation	expertise
Format and presentation	designing process	designing process	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with
Monitoring and assessment	assessment tool, impact on class	assessment tool	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	impact
Evaluation	agreement, impact on future course development	agreement	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	impact

Table 3

A language teacher's ITC related themes per phase

The Curriculum Design Process	LT's ITC Related Themes	pre	early	mid	final	survey
Environment analysis	sharing schedule, plans, tools, materials/resources, and research	resources, scheduling/planning	sharing changes/plans, tools and materials	materials	scheduling for changes and research, materials	information sharing tools, scheduling/planning
Needs analysis	understanding needs, clarifying purposes, sharing concerns to ask for advice, observation on students, reframing the course through ICT, designing process	understanding needs, clarifying purposes, sharing concerns to ask for advice	excitement and concerns, students' reactions, reframing through ICT	students' learning process, students' reactions (mainly positive ones), adjustment, LT's self-affirmation, LT's confirmation	students' observations (out of 19 entries, 4 were neutral, 3 were negative, and 12 were positive.)	understanding the contents and course, designing process
Application of principles	understanding, confirming, and reframing the course through ICT, benefit of ICT, expert knowledge	understanding, confirming, and reframing through ICT	reframing principles through ICT	not dealt with	Benefit of ICT	expert knowledge
Goals	clarifying a goal setting process	goal setting process: ① looking at ideas and ideals, ② examine the goals, ③ refining them	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	Not dealt with
Content and sequencing	clarifying a syllabus design process, content sharing (resources, materials), explaining changes (addition, adaptability), approach (individual learning style)	syllabus design process: ① idea gathering, ② testing, ③ refining, ④ adjusting for/through ICT, research	content sharing, explaining changes	addition, adaptability	contents adaptability, addition, resources, approach, materials, content presentations, individual learning styles to activities	impact, designing process, refining process
Format and presentation	content gathering and sharing, structure, approach, activities, impact on decision making	Idea gathering and sharing	content sharing	flow	finding a structure, an approach, activity types	impact
Monitoring and assessment	refining a course, explaining changes, reporting progress or unique reactions	refining the design	explaining changes	progress	unique reactions	not dealt with
Evaluation	scheduling, impact on decision making, implications on ICT	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	not dealt with	scheduling, impact, implications on ITC

Discussion

Three types of the data (comparative data between two teachers, data from the content teacher, and data from the language teacher respectively) above imply ITC's potential impact on teachers' decision making in a systematic manner. This study's first research question was to explore when and why teachers tend to cross interdisciplinary boundaries in reference to LoP.

The first overall findings hint at how and to what extent teachers' valuable time should be spent on ITC in selective phases of the curriculum design process. Considering the content teacher's concentrated ITC at the pre- and the final- semester, ITC should be encouraged at a pre- and post-semester, focusing on clarifying outer circles in the curriculum design process. For example, identifying what is possible in one's teaching environment such as how to make use of LMS or online platforms for collaboration. Also, as in Miyama's (2009) previous study, the overlapping recurring themes between the participants imply that developing mutual understanding of boundaries of LoP regarding teaching environment (e.g. shared understanding of institutional requirement), teaching capability (e.g. having flexibility in dealing with new contents and approaches), time constraint (e.g. scheduling), course planning (e.g. sharing course/lesson design process), and expertise in the contents from one's CoP is key to efficient ITC.

The second findings from analyzing the content teacher's communications demonstrate how ITC is powerful in gaining help from a content teacher's expertise in the outer circles, especially at a preparation stage of the curriculum design, which is the main theme in the second research question. Once a course is set, during the semester it is recommended to shift the ITC's focus on gaining the content teacher's confirmation on a language teacher's decision making with reports from a course. As the increased time constraint and never-ending commitment on ITC being often the common obstacle, this kind of shift in attention could help us facilitate a sustainable ITC (Chaovanapricha & Chaturongakul, 2020; Lu, 2020).

Similarly, the final findings from examining the language teacher's communications illustrate how teachers' roles in ITC could shift throughout the process of course design and delivery. In terms of the language teachers' extensive roles in ITC, the finding is similar to the Chaovanapricha and Chaturongakul's study (2020). However, the roles were more expansive as the language teacher in this study actually taught the class, unlike their study. While the content teacher in this case tended to exhibit expertise throughout and shifted their role from an information giver to a mentor (shown in an active ITC in the pre-semester) , the language teacher tended to exhibit her expertise gradually as she increased the understanding of the contents (shown in an increased ITC in the inner circle towards the end of semester). In other words, throughout the curriculum design process, the language teacher's role tended to shift from a learner, implementer, and observer to an evaluator. Thus, understanding such roles as well as possible trends in role shifts in ITC could benefit in future collaborative curriculum development (Chaovanapricha & Chaturongakul, 2020; Kampen et al., 2020). In addition, such a complementary and inclusive relationship where each teacher's strength is utilized efficiently should be explained up front when implementing ITC in designing an ESP curriculum (Gearait et al., 2021).

Furthermore, considering the fact that most of the data used in this study is obtained from online communication tools such as Microsoft Teams and email, finding ways to make technology or digitalization our ally could also help us facilitate ITC in the post-pandemic world. For example, teachers seem to exchange expertise at their convenience through institutional digital platforms, which allows them to collaborate efficiently without much time and labor constrains often mentioned in previous studies (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012, as cited in Gearait, et al., 2021). In other words, in post-pandemic ITC, ensuring teacher's autonomy in making decisions on when, where, how to collaborate is key to creating an ESP course through ITC.

Conclusion

This small-scale case study has attempted to explore ITC's potential impact on teachers' decision making in designing, implementing, and evaluating an ESP course at a university in Japan. The findings are examined in order for a practice-oriented researcher to document the impact of ITC systematically in the hope that this will help others contemplate when and why teachers tend to cross interdisciplinary boundaries in LoP for future ITC.

Based on the findings, for efficient ITC, developing mutual understanding and expectation of one's CoP and focusing on the outer circles early in the curriculum design process are recommended. In addition, throughout the curriculum design process, expecting developmental shifts in target and teacher roles will help us facilitate sustainable ITC in designing an ESP curriculum. As ITC becomes more and more important in enhancing education in this unpredictable world, this small-size case study has attempted to illustrate potentially effective patterns and trends in ITC. It is hoped that further research with a larger sample set of data or reversed study for content teachers getting more inputs from language teachers will provide more insightful evidence and results.

References

Brown, H. (2015). English-medium instruction in Japan: Discussing implications for language teaching. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & H. Brown (Eds.), *Focus on the learner*, (pp. 419-425). Tokyo: JALT.

Chaovanapricha, K., & Chaturongakul, P. (2020). Interdisciplinary teacher collaboration in English for specific purpose subjects in a Thai university. *English Language Teaching*, *13*(5), 139-148.

Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge University Press. http://oxico.sk/lg/aj/assets/ukazky/clil.pdf

Eriksson, T. (2010). *Being native – distance, closeness, and doing auto/self-ethnography.* [Gothenburg University Publications Electronic Archive (pp. 91-100)] https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/16329047.pdf

Gearait, B. M, Ruairc, G. M., & Murray, C. (2021). Actualising Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in Irish-medium education; Why, how and why now? *Irish Educational Studies.* https://doi.org/10.1080/03323315.2021.1910971

International Commission on the Futures of Education (2020). *Education in a post-COVID world: Nine ideas for public action.* Paris, UNESCO. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000373717/PDF/373717eng.pdf.multi

Kampen, E.V., Meirink, J., Admiraal, W., & Berry, A. (2020). Do we all share the same goals for content and language integrated learning (CLIL)? Specialist and practitioner perceptions of 'ideal` CLIL pedagogies in the Netherlands, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *23*(8), 855-871. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2017.1411332

Lu, Y. (2020). A case study of EMI teachers' professional development: The impact of interdisciplinary teacher collaboration. *RELC Journal*, 1-15.

Miyama, A. (2009). Senmonkyouin tono renkei process no nouhau [Know-how in the process of working with specialized faculty]. In K. Fukui, J. Noguchi, & K. Watanabe (Eds.), *ESP-teki bilingual wo mezashite: Daigakueigokyouiku no saiteigi* [Towards ESP Bilingualism: Redefining university English education in Japan] (pp. 60-73), Osaka University Press.

Nation, I.S.P., & Macalister, J. (2010). *Language Curriculum Design*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Pyrko, I., Dörfler, V., & Eden, C. (2019). Communities of practice in landscapes of practice. *Management Learning*, *50*(4), 482-299.

Appendix

The End-of-semester Survey Questions Followed by the Researcher's Translation

1. この度、コラボの話があってから、ご自身のカリキュラムのシラバス・コースデザインについてどのように再検討されましたか。（専門分野外の教員にその内容や意図等を伝えるべく、考慮された点はありますか？）How have you reconsidered the syllabus/course design of your own curriculum since the collaboration started? (Are there any considerations you have taken into account in order to communicate its content, intent, etc. to faculty outside of your area of expertise?)

2. コラボをしていく中で、授業自体に何か影響はありましたか。その理由をお聞かせください。(In the course of this collaboration, did it have any impact on the class itself? Please explain why.)

3. コラボをしていく中で、教材やクラスの共有方法やその状況についてどのようにお考えですか。(As you collaborate, what are your thoughts on how to share teaching materials and classes and the status of such sharing?)

4. コラボをしていく中で、授業に関するコミュニケーションを通して気づいた点などはありますか。(As you collaborate, what are some of the things you have noticed through communication regarding the classes?)

5. 言語教育の教員と専門の教員のコラボにおいて、（今回できたこと・できなかったことを含め）、どんなことを一緒にすべきとお考えですか。（例：シラバスや授業案の作成、授業案の作成、授業参観、等）(What do you think should be done together (including what was/was not done this time) in the collaboration between language education teachers and specialized teachers? (e.g., preparing syllabi and lesson plans, lesson plans, class observations, etc.))

6. EMI (English-Medium Instruction) や CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) に対し、どのような印象を持たれていますか。今回のコラボを踏まえ、今後他の言語教育の教員と専門の教員がコラボする際に、考慮すべきことはどのようなことだとお考えですか。(What are your thoughts on EMI (English-Medium Instruction) and CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning)? Based on this collaboration, what do you think should be taken into consideration when collaborating with other language education teachers and specialists in the future?)

7. 他に共有したいことがあればご自由にお書きください。(If you have anything else you would like to share, please feel free to do so.)

Japanese Students' Views of Self-regulated EFL Learning: An Interview Study

Szabina Ádámku

Meisei University

Abstract

Outside-class learning and self-regulation have gained ever-increasing attention, especially due to recent technological inno-vations and the emergency remote teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic. Through qualitative semi-structured interviews with relatively proficient Japanese university students of EFL (N = 17), this study aimed to gain insights into the learners' per-spectives, experiences and approaches regarding their self-regulated learning (SRL). Inquiries focused on the participants' (1) views on the pedagogical facilitation of their SRL, (2) means and approaches in their outside-class SRL processes, and (3) their commitment, metacognitive, satiation, emotion and environment controls (Tseng et al., 2006). This research asked a small sample of high achievers; however, it uncovers their recalls of little pedagogical facilitation in their SRL, desires and initiations for contextual and communicative practices, limited preference of digital means, and applicable solutions to learning barriers across the five controls. Although non-representative, this study is hoped to initiate further research discussions and inquiries.

日本語概要

本稿は、自己調整学習（self-regulated learning）に関する学習者の視点、経験、およびアプローチへの洞察を提供するもので、特に近年のコロナ禍における授業外での言語学習に焦点を当てた研究である。質的研究技法を用いて17名の日本人大学生に半構造化インタビューを行い、大学生の自己調整学習を分析した。本研究は以下に焦点を当てて分析を行った。(1) 教育的な自己調整学習の促進、(2) 授業外での学習に対するアプローチと意義、(3) 自己調整学習への関わり、メタ認知、満足度、感情や環境の調整、の3つである。本研究の参加者は、高い学習成果を収めた大学生を中心に行ったが、本研究の分析として、大学生の実践的なコミュニケーションに対する欲求や積極性とICTツールを使いこなす技術との関連性が観察され、5つの因子における学習障壁への適用可能な解決策を提示する。

In recent years, the demands and challenges of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning have increased not only within classroom settings but also on out-side-class learning platforms such as learners' self-formed practice groups or the rapidly proliferating digital and online realm of EFL development. As an economically, technologically or culturally influen-tial entity on the global scene, Japan has not been exempted from such challenges; whilst combating the shift from grammar-translation to communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches (Mitchell, 2017), all stakeholders have been opening to novel means of EFL acquisition. Focusing on an increasingly important aspect of learning, this paper reveals the outcomes of an interview study conducted among Japanese univer-sity students about their views, means and practices they applied in their outside-class, self-regulated EFL learning.

Sharing numerous characteristics, self-regulated learn-ing (SRL) is commonly associated with learner auton-omy (Dörnyei, 1998) as both notions are driven by the learner's agency; that is, learners act as agents of their learning processes with capacity and will (Oxford, 2017). However, the two concepts differ from crucial aspects. On the one hand, an autonomous learner is able to "take charge of [their] own learning" (Holec, 1981, p. 4) with a "capacity for thinking and acting independently" (Littlewood, 1996, p. 428); while on the other hand, SRL entails "proactive processes that students use to acquire academic skill such as setting goals, selecting and deploying strategies, and self-monitoring one's effectiveness, rather than a reactive event that hap-pens due to impersonal forces" (Zimmerman, 2008, pp. 166-167) with cognitive and affective control over each learning process (Lewis & Vialleton, 2011; Murray, 2014; Zimmerman, 2005). These processes are cyclical, consisting of three phases: in the forethought phase

learners form their strategies, which is followed by a performance phase of active learning and continuous self-monitoring, completed by a self-reflection phase with a retrospective look at the learning outcomes that affects future learning processes (Zimmerman, 2005). Beyond goal-setting and planning in the first phase, "learning strategies fall under the umbrella of self-regulated learning" (Mizumoto, 2013, p. 255); therefore, SRL performance activities require effective strategy use (Oxford, 2017).

As a learner-directed activity, SRL requires certain levels of motivation and self-efficacy. Beyond the evidently important initial motivation in or before the first phase of SRL (Tseng & Schmitt, 2008), Dörnyei's (1998, p. 118) view of motivation as a process, whereby "a certain amount of instigation force arises, initiates action, and persists as long as no other force comes into play to weaken it and thereby terminate action, or until the planned outcome has been reached", can be seen on a par with and, therefore, crucial in SRL activities. Furthermore, Bandura (1982) emphasized that one of the basic features of human motivation is our perception of our self-efficacy; in other words, one's evaluation of their own abilities in managing activities they aim to accomplish. This is in alignment with Zimmerman's (2008) mention of self-beliefs as additional criteria for successful SRL, and Mizumoto's (2013) findings in a questionnaire study on self-regulated vocabulary learning, in which self-efficacy showed correlation with all other scrutinized variables, namely goal-setting, volitional control, strategy use, satisfaction with strategy use and vocabulary knowledge.

Yabukoshi and Takeuchi's (2006) conducted qualitative research among Japanese junior high school students and teachers of EFL. Beyond finding that learners preferred so-called "simple" strategies in their SRL, such as repetitive writing and reading out loud or creating vocabulary lists, as opposed to "demanding" strategies which would involve keywords, associations or analyzing, the responding learners' (N = 347) most preferred strategies were those of vocabulary learning, which resonates with the importance of vocabulary expansion in language learning (Folse, 2011; Ghazal, 2007; Webb & Nation, 2017) and strategy use in vocabulary learning (Nation, 2008).

In the quantitative paradigm, Tseng and colleagues' (2006) study aimed to validate their 'Self-Regulating Capacity in Vocabulary Learning' (SRCvoc) questionnaire introducing five scales on self-regulatory vocabulary learning processes: commitment control relating to the learners' willpower to continue learning until the desirable goal is reached, metacognitive control, whereby they manage their concentration and procrastination, satiation control in which they overcome boredom, emotion control that tackles unwanted or discouraging emotions, and environment control setting their surroundings as beneficial to their study session. Besides successful validation of the research tool, the outcomes indicated that learning strategies are more dependent on learners' "creative effort on trying to improve their own learning" than actual use of certain methods (p. 95). The authors emphasized that instruction plays an undoubtedly decisive role in learning processes while highlighting the importance of sufficient capacity for self-regulation.

The SRCvoc has received further research interest; however, it has not been investigated to a great extent. In a critical literature review, Rose (2012) highlighted its efficiency in providing insights into "the underlying self-regulatory capacity of a learner, rather than strategy use itself" (p. 95); in other words, claiming that self-regulation is related to "initial driving forces", whereas strategies are about "the outcome of these forces". Furthermore, he emphasized the rather complex connections between the scales; in his doctoral study, he found instances of environment control affecting boredom control, stress, or procrastination. In the Japanese context, Mizumoto and Takeuchi (2012) embarked on a large-scale investigation replicating Tseng and colleagues' (2006) SRCvoc-scale study, encountering similar results to those of Rose's (2012) regarding interconnections between some of the scales, in this case emotion, environment and metacognitive controls having direct effects on procrastination. Moreover, for further research they suggest the addition of volitional control as another construct, which refers to the "teachability of self-regulation" (p. 90). Another SRCvoc study (Bilican & Yesilbursa, 2015) of experimental nature, conducted in Turkey, further questions the workability of the survey. Applying training sessions on the control scales, the researchers found no significant change in

SRCvoc between pre- and post-questionnaire results; nevertheless, they found improvement in scores with pre-test and post-test measures. They admit, however, that such changes also occurred in the control group, leaving doubts about the benefits of the training.

Outside-class learning has attracted academic and pedagogical attention for decades and the emergency remote teaching (ERT) during the COVID-19 pandemic put SRL in the spotlight (Carter et al., 2020). In its essence, ERT differs from pre-planned and specifically organized online courses (Hodges et al., 2020) and the sudden change of educational platforms challenged institutions, instructors and learners alike. Learners experienced increased workload, changes in their everyday habits, social, emotional and personal conditions, roles and conducts of institutions and the need for a higher level of ICT skills (Aristovnik et al., 2020). The switch to ERT was also demanding for teachers as their diverse ICT skills determined the success of their adjustment to the new learning environment (Fekete, 2022). However, the fundamental role of educators in SRL (Cotterall, 2000; Lewis & Vialleton, 2011; Murray, 2014; Tseng et al., 2006) gained ever more recognition (Carter et al., 2020). In another part of the hereby described interview study (Adamku, 2022), most students admitted their disfavor towards ERT and were relieved about their EFL practice opportunities when face-to-face learning resumed. However, experiences and positive aspects of ERT are likely to be carried on and blended into future pedagogical approaches with possibilities to facilitate and develop outside-class SRL.

In view of the above and with a note of calls for qualitative inquiries into SRL and the SRCvoc scale (Rose, 2012; Tseng et al., 2006), this interview study aimed to investigate into Japanese university students' outside-class, self-regulated vocabulary-learning processes. While parts of the findings on the participants' previous learning experiences, self-regulated vocabulary-learning strategy use, and perceived importance of SRL, have been discussed in a previous publication (Adamku, 2022), this paper focuses on (1) how Japanese university students viewed the facilitation of their self-regulated EFL learning practices in organized educational settings, (2) how Japanese university students conducted outside-class self-regulated EFL learning

practices, and (3) how Japanese university students controlled their outside-class self-regulated learning processes. The last-mentioned research interest was inspired by Tseng and colleagues' (2006) control constructs validated in the quantitative paradigm; therefore, this qualitative inquiry was an attempt to find out about how learners perceive their abilities to control their self-regulated vocabulary learning. However, in the semi-structured interviews, the participants often diverted from vocabulary-learning SRL practices and shared their experiences in a general EFL learning sense; therefore, this paper reports broader on SRL with references to vocabulary learning.

Methods

Context and Participants

The research was carried out among 17 participants (Table 1) from a private university in Tokyo. Their EFL proficiency level can be described as relatively proficient, as the interviews were conducted in English by the researcher herself, a foreign guest lecturer at the Department of International Studies. Although their exact levels were not scrutinized in this study, most of them ranged between intermediate upper-intermediate level, with the exception of Masayoshi, Ken, Kaito, Kou, Shin and Wai, who gained advanced-level proficiency in their study-abroad experiences. Due to convenience sampling from the researcher's teaching practice and colleagues' recommendations, most of the participants (n = 14) were students of the aforementioned department and three additional respondents belonged to the departments of Education (two) and Business (one). The sample consisted of 12 male and five female participants with one first-year, eight second-year, three third-year and five fourth-year students. Although the sample is non-representative, the collected data can provide useful insights into the proposed research problem area.

Table 1
The Sample

Participant (pseudonym)	Gender	Year	Major
Makkei	male	1st	Int. comm.
Suama	female	2nd	Int. comm.
Yuki	male	2nd	Int. comm.
Shinzo	male	2nd	Int. comm.
Natchan	female	2nd	Int. comm.
Sariana	female	2nd	Int. comm.
Umi	female	2nd	Int. comm.
Nachan	male	2nd	Int. comm.
Masayoshi	male	3rd	Int. comm.
Takashi	male	3rd	Int. comm.
Wai	male	4th	Int. comm.
Kaito	male	4th	Int. comm.
Esu	male	4th	Int. comm.
Kou	male	4th	Int. comm.
Shiba	female	2nd	Education
Ken	male	3rd	Education
Shin	male	4th	Business
Total:	12 x male	1 x 1st	14 x Int. comm.
N = 17	5 x female	8 x 2nd	2 x Education
		3 x 3rd	1 x Business
		5 x 4th	

Data Collection and Procedures

Data collection took place in the second half of July, 2021, through 17 one-to-one semi-structured interviews. An initial pilot interview was carried out with a fourth-year student and it proved all aspects such as the schedule, tools, venue, or timing workable; therefore, the results of this interview were included in the data. The students were first approached via email which described the research aims and ethical considerations such as confidentiality, anonymity, voluntary participation, and the option to withdraw at any time during the research. Before the interviews started, the participants also signed an informed consent form. The average 42-minute interviews were recorded, later transcribed and underwent thematic content analy-

sis (Creswell, 2009). The part of the data presented in this paper was collected through 14 main interview questions (Appendix A) and formed into 8 themes and 38 codes (Appendix B). Intra-coder consistency was ensured by re-coding performed by the researcher herself, while inter-coder consistency was checked by debriefing (Davis, 1995), involving a researcher outside the research context but informed about the context and pre-coding scheme and provided with parts of the transcript with added themes and codes. The debriefing resulted in the confirmation of the coding method and, regarding the codes processed for this paper, no main alteration was necessary.

Findings

Pedagogical Facilitation of SRL

The first research question inquired about how Japanese university students viewed the facilitation of their self-regulated EFL learning experiences in organized educational settings. The data provided insights not only into their current university studies but the respondents often shared previous experiences from their K-12 educational periods. Six of them specifically stated that they had received no particular guidance from their teachers regarding their outside-class SRL, while altogether seven responses referred to some sort of facilitation. Two of them related to translation practices, two emphasized learning from textbooks or workbooks, two suggested reading, and in one instance the teacher recommended practice through conversation. "Actually, I learnt some strategy from teachers, mainly to take notes or do textbooks, these […] are still strategy, I think. But for conversation […], we didn't learn any strategy from teachers" recalled Kou, a fourth-year student. Another fourth-year student, Esu, simply described facilitation as "my teacher said 'just remember'", which may be interpreted as rote-learning vocabulary or even grammar structures. In general, the responses do not indicate high-level pedagogical facilitation. Kaito, for instance, measured his own efforts in comparison to the teachers' by saying

> I just made up the method myself. What they suggested made me bored. English is fun, like talking […], listening […], writing […], but just studying

made me bored […] so I just wanted to find out more fun stuff [like] watching a movie and write it down and I just say it, like pretending [I'm] the actor.

Unfortunately, university teachers' SRL-facilitation efforts were mentioned in even fewer responses, only one in each category of conversational practice, attending the university's Language Lounge free-practice sessions, the vocabulary-learning application Quizlet, and generally expanding vocabulary knowledge.

Students' SRL Practices

The second research question was directed to what students actually do in their SRL; that is, how Japanese university students conduct outside-class self-regulated EFL learning practices. It can be generally concluded that many participants of this research were committed to finding means of SRL in order to reach their EFL learning goals. "Studying alone is a nice way for me but in class, just sitting and just writing and just studying some grammar and words is not interesting", said Shinzo. The numerous responses arranged into the themes of receptive (reading and listening) and productive (speaking and writing) skills. Three students (Natchan, Wai and Esu) mentioned reading articles for their research projects and one (Sariana) set her smartphone in English. Not surprisingly, self-regulated listening comprehension practice mainly manifested in listening to music (five responses) and watching videos and movies (six responses). Writing was found in two categories: three learners regularly wrote diaries and four responses revealed having regular correspondence with foreign penfriends. Speaking was generally the most preferred way of EFL practice; in most cases the students sought conversational opportunities for their skills development and they attributed their dislikes towards ERT mainly to the lack or shortage of speaking practice. As Shiba stated, "I'm good at memorizing so it was the best way for me but I can't use […] the words when I speak in English". The learners' resolutions to finding speaking options were manifold: nine responses affirmed efforts to speak with English teachers as much as possible; seven students were active participants of Language Lounge, a free-conversational practice opportunity provided at the university; seven responses related to self-created student groups

organizing English speaking sessions face to face or on online video platforms; and three students admitted to talking alone, out of which one added singing English songs and another, Shiba, spoke to her dog.

Being conducted after the ERT applied in the COVID-19 restrictions of personal contacts, the research interest extended to uses of digital options in SRL practices, especially because of the vast availability of devices at hand that can be used for more than basic communicational functions, for instance problem-solving or learning (Fekete, 2020). Although some participants mentioned a few EFL practice applications or websites such as Quizlet (two), Duolingo (two), vocabulary.com (one), Hamaru (one), Listening Trainer (one), Taboo (one), or conversational apps (two) and online video teachers (one), the use of digital or online dictionaries was yet the most widely used option with six occurrences. These findings further strengthen the overall assumption weaving through this research that learners prefer face-to-face speaking opportunities to learning alone and, however fun and SRL-supportive some digital approaches may be, the participating students did not prove to be well-acquainted with a wide range of digital means that could assist their language practice.

SRL Controls

The third research question related to Tseng and colleagues' (2006) five self-regulatory controls: those of commitment, metacognitive, satiation, emotion and environment. Commitment control relates to the learner's willpower to reach their set goals. While two students specifically stated their lack of success, several of them could relate to some successful commitment control. Some (Shinzo, Wai) simply found it easy to keep to their goals, some could control their commitment by a positive mindset (Shiba) or out of habit as, for instance, Kaito and Makkei explained: "because I'm a student, I have to do this. Okay, I finish, and the next day I have to do this, okay, I finish. Like it's a habit, so I don't think, I just keep going" (Kaito), "I don't know because I'm used to it, [it's] just a habit" (Makkei). Some apply certain strategies; for instance, feeling their willpower weakening, Suama and Umi break down their goals and create smaller, easily achievable ones. Sariana listens to motivational songs or sets up videocall

sessions with friends to motivate herself and, therefore, continue progressing in her studies and Esu spends most of his time on campus where he finds the atmosphere contributory to his determination.

Metacognitive control concerns the maintenance of concentration and restraint over procrastination. This theme arranged into three categories: no problem in controlling procrastination (five respondents), no metacognitive control (three respondents), and procrastination-control strategies, the latter dividing into the three codes of physical aids, taking a break or (re) scheduling. Suama, for instance, used physical aids such as a comfortable pencil, fragrance, lemon water and sweets; and Shin took a walk while reading his textbook. Scheduling techniques also proved to be beneficial to some respondents; while some rescheduled their goals or tasks, Masayoshi reported deliberate procrastination by planning the task shortly before the deadline reasoning it with being more productive and Shin maintained his concentration by switching strands of learning, for example, from grammar practice to vocabulary learning. Yuki pointed out his specific viewpoint about procrastination saying that

> yes, I sometimes do [procrastinate], but it doesn't mean I'm lazily procrastinating it. My concentration span really dictates what I can do at a particular time, so 'procrastinating' is, I think, not the right word […], but I just put them aside for a while until I recover from tiredness.

Eight responses referred to successful satiation control, that is, control over boredom. Masayoshi said "I overcome [boredom] because after starting to study, I will try to find something interesting in that". Other participants declared exercising, walking, drinking something, changing the place or their mental state and listening to motivational music as means of overcoming boredom. Surprisingly, three students stated that they merely continue to study even when they were bored, denoting it as a successful solution for achieving their goals set for that study session.

The greatest challenge of the interviews was inquiring about the learners' emotion control; learners mostly indicated boredom as an emerging emotion in their

outside-class learning; therefore, excluding boredom, this theme received the fewest relevant responses. Three students, however, revealed no emotion during studying, while three admitted their resentment of the learning material and solving it by resetting their learning goals or changing their mindset to stay positive. Shin confessed to getting irritated at times but he found practicing concentration skills a successful way of handling the situation. Kou also mentioned resentment along with exhaustion and laziness; nevertheless, he confessed his incompetence in overcoming these emotions.

Although two respondents attributed no importance to controlling their environment, this theme produced the most diverse and largest number of responses in two categories: in the learners' own rooms and public places. Regarding their rooms, several codes emerged; they enlisted numerous different solutions related to comfort, silence or undisturbed atmosphere, readily available equipment or even 'English atmosphere' whereby they are surrounded by English posters, printouts, textbooks, post-its and the like. Per contra, some learners preferred studying in public places that were either noisy or silent, both types viewed as motivating in learning. Sariana described her experience as "I get motivation from the people who study hard at the library […], a lot of students concentrate on their work, then 'oh […], I have to do it like them'".

Discussions and Conclusion

This interview study aimed to investigate three aspects of Japanese university students' outside-class self-regulated learning (SRL) processes in their EFL development, focusing on (1) their views about the pedagogical facilitation of their SRL, (2) how they conduct SRL, and (3) how they control their SRL learning processes. They reported little pedagogical help, advice or development of their outside-class SRL and were often dissatisfied with their teachers' facilitation, which would be essential to the support of SRL development (Cotterall, 2000; Lewis & Vialleton, 2011; Murray, 2014; Tseng et al., 2006). Nonetheless, responses to the second research question revealed several SRL approaches they used in order to improve their EFL skills outside organized classroom settings, often with gratifying

results. An interesting finding is the learners' intentions to find conversational opportunities in their outside-class practices with teachers, fellow students, penfriends and, if they lack such options, alone or with their dog. All of these initiatives indicate certain levels of SRL motivation in both the initial stage (Tseng & Schmitt, 2008) and throughout the SRL cycle (Zimmerman, 2005; Dörnyei, 1998); as well as self-beliefs (Zimmerman, 2008) or self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982; Mizumoto, 2013) which, however, may also be justified by the homogeneity of the sample; that is, the participants' relatively fluent levels of EFL that the interviews required, being conducted in English.

The respondents' SRL control across Tseng and colleagues' (2006) five control scales, namely commitment, metacognitive, satiation, emotion, and environment controls, was diverse. While some responses revealed no control over some of the factors, other responses provided meaningful insights into what learners find important and how they tackle difficulties in their outside-class practices along the three cycles of SRL (Zimmerman, 2005). In the forethought phase, they set their learning goals and suitable environment that best fit their learning process; while some respondents reported silent, well-equipped settings, others prefer more stimulating or often noisy places that stimulate their concentration. Most controls scrutinized in this study, however, manifest in the performance phase, in which learners attempt to control their concentration or emerging procrastination, boredom and emotions. In cases when learners recalled difficulties in their SRL, their solutions were manifold; from physical aids such as suitable tools, drinks or snacks, through exercise or walk, to psychological approaches such as changing their mindset or resetting their original goals, they disclosed multiple useful remedies. Finally, the respondents proved conscious about their controls to the degree that they regularly apply useful techniques, indicating efficacious reflection phases, the results of which affect their consequent SRL processes (Zimmerman, 2005).

The results of this research reflect previous findings in SRCvoc studies, especially regarding the interconnecting nature of the controls. For instance, satiation control often overlapped with emotion control and envi-

ronment control cannot be clearly distinguished from satiation, commitment or metacognitive controls; that is, it is unsure whether learners set their environment merely for a most beneficial learning arrangement or to overcome other barriers which may be categorized and coded in other themes.

Limitations and Further Research Directions

Although this qualitative interview study reached an adequate number of respondents, its greatest limitation lies within the sample. Firstly, the fact that the interviews were carried out by the researcher herself through convenience sampling in English required relatively proficient English learners of a private university, resulting in findings describing only a small segment of Japanese EFL learners. Secondly, as most of the sample (n = 14) belonged to the department of International Studies which provides more-than-average opportunities for English language practice, their needs for SRL may differ greatly from those learners of English at institutions or departments where EFL practices are less highlighted. Noting that more diversity would provide greater insights in both limitations of the above, the current sample's SRL learning conducts can be directive to less successful learners or across lower levels and applicable among different educational, social or socio-economic settings. Thirdly, the conveniently selected sample lacks heterogeneity in age and gender with only one first-year student and five female participants but these two factors were not scrutinized in the study. Nevertheless, investigations into such differences would be worth approaching in future research inquiries. Finally, as mentioned before, the SRL controls may have an intertwining nature; consequently, the interview protocol must be designed with a great flexibility in order to gain a clearer picture of the underlying reasons behind SRL controls.

References

Adamku, S. (2022). Proficient Japanese International Communications majors' perceptions of successful EFL learning strategies: Self-reported comparisons of learning experiences in K-12 education and Meisei University's International Communications program. *Meisei International Communication Studies*, *14*, 19-37. Retrieved 31 August 2022, from https://meisei.repo.nii.ac.jp/?action=pages_view_main&active_action=repository_view_main_item_detail&item_id=2845&item_no=1&page_id=13&block_id=114

Aristovnik, A., Keržič, D., Ravšelj, D., Tomaževič, N., & Umek, L. (2020). Impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on life of higher education students: A global perspective. *Sustainability*, *12*(20), 8438. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12208438

Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*, *37*(2), 122-147. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.37.2.122

Bilican, R., & Yesilbursa, A. A. (2015). Self-regulated capacity for vocabulary learning in Turkish high school students: An experimental study. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *197*, 83-87. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.393

Carter, R. A., Rice, M., Yang, S. Y., & Jackson, A. (2020). Self-regulated learning in online learning environments: Strategies for remote learning. *Information and Learning Sciences*, *121*(5/6), 321-329. https://doi.org/10.1108/ILS-04-2020-0114

Cotterall, S. (2000). Promoting learner autonomy through the curriculum: Principles for designing language courses. *ELT Journal*, *54*, 109-117. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/54.2.109

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Davis, K. A. (1995). Qualitative theory and methods in applied linguistics research. *TESOL Quarterly*, *29*(3), 427-453. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588070

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, *31*(3), 117-135. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S026144480001315X

Fekete, I. (2020). Information and Communications Technology (ICT) literacy of Hungarian English majors: A validation study. *Journal of Adult Learning, Knowledge and Innovation*, *4*(1), 31-39. https://doi.org/10.1556/2059.2020.00002

Fekete, I. (2022). Profiling Hungarian K-12 teachers based on their techno-pedagogical skills: State of affairs and developmental possibilities amid COVID-19. *Journal of Adult Learning, Knowledge and Innovation*, *5*(2), 111-124. https://doi.org/10.1556/2059.2022.00056

Fekete, T., & Porkoláb, Á. (2020). Karanténpedagógia a magyar közoktatásban: A digitális oktatásra történő átállás eddigi tapasztalatairól. [Quarantine pedagogy in the Hungarian public education: About the experiences of switching to digital education.] *Iskolakultúra*, *30*(9), 96-112. https://doi.org/10.14232/ISKKULT.2020.9.96

Folse, K. (2011). Applying L2 lexical research findings in ESL teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, *45*(2), 362-369. https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2010.254529

Ghazal, L. (2007). Learning vocabulary in EFL contexts through vocabulary learning strategies. *Novitas-ROYAL*, *1*(2), 84-91.

Hodges, C., Moore, S., Lockee, B., Trust, T., Bond, A. (2020). The difference between emergency remote teaching and online learning. *EDUCAUSE Review*, *3*. Retrieved 29 August 2022, from https://er.educause.edu/articles/2020/3/the-difference-between-emergency-remote-teaching-and-online-learning

Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Oxford, England: Pergamon Press.

Lewis, T., & Vialleton, E. (2011). The notions of control and consciousness in learner autonomy and self-regulated learning: A comparison and critique. Innovation in *Language Learning and Teaching*, *5*(2), 205-219. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2011.577535

Littlewood, W. (1996). "Autonomy": An anatomy and a framework. *System*, *24*(4), 427-435. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(96)00039-5

Mitchell, C. (2017). Language education pressures in Japanese high schools. *JALT Shiken*, *21*(1), 1-11. Retrieved 31 August 2022, from https://hosted.jalt.org/teval/node/70

Mizumoto, A. (2013). Effects of self-regulated vocabulary learning process on self-efficacy- *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *7*(3), 253-265. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2013.836206

Mizumoto, A., & Takeuchi, O. (2012). Adaptation and validation of self-regulating capacity in vocabulary learning scale. *Applied Linguistics*, *33*(1), 83-91. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amr044

Murray, G. (2014). The social dimensions of learner autonomy and self-regulated learning. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, *5*(4), 320-341. https://doi.org/10.37237/050402

Nation, I. S. P. (2008). *Teaching vocabulary: Strategies and techniques*. Heinle, Cengage Learning.

Oxford, R. L. (2017). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies: Self-regulation in context*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Rose, H. (2012). Reconceptualizing Strategic Learning in the Face of Self-Regulation: Throwing Language Learning Strategies out with the Bathwater. *Applied Linguistics*, *33*(1), 92–98. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amr045

Tseng, W-T., Dörnyei, Z., & Schmitt, N. (2006). A new approach to assessing strategic learning: The case of self-regulation in vocabulary acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, *27*(1), 78-102. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ami046

Tseng, W-T., & Schmitt, N. (2008). Toward a model of motivated vocabulary learning: A structural equation modelling approach. *Language Learning*, *58*(2), 357-400. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2008.00444.x

Yabukoshi. T., & Takeuchi, O. (2006). Exploring language learning strategies used by Japanese junior high school students of EFL: A qualitative approach. 外国語教育メディア学会機関誌, *43*, 39-56. 10.24539/let.43.0_39

Zimmerman, B. J. (2005). Attaining self-regulation: A social cognitive perspective. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, & Moshe Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (2nd Ed.), (pp. 13-41). San Diego, CA: Elsevier Academic Press.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2008). Investigating self-regulation and motivation: Historical background, methodological developments, and future prospects. *American Educational Research Journal*, *45*(1), 166-183. https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831207312909

Appendices

Appendix A

The interview questions relating to the hereby scrutinized research questions

GENERAL SRL

1. Do you learn English outside your English classes?
   a. If yes, is it for your classes or for other purposes?
   b. Can you tell me more about that?
2. How often do you learn English outside your classes?
3. Do you have a schedule for learning English outside your classes?
4. What learning practices do you use in your outside-class English learning?
5. How important is it for you to learn English outside classes?
   a. (Why?)
6. How important is it for you to build strategies for outside-class English learning?
   a. (Why?)
7. How efficient do you find your outside-class learning?

SRVL and its facilitation

8. Have any of your teachers taught you strategies for learning new words outside the classroom?
   a. If yes, what were they?
9. How do you feel about choosing appropriate vocabulary-learning strategies for your targeted words?

CONTROLS

1. How do you feel about your willpower to achieve your vocabulary learning goals?
   a. How you are able to control it?
   b. Do you have any methods to control it?
2. Do you feel any certain emotions when you learn words? (e.g.: nervous/impatient/afraid/bored)
   a. Do you feel you can overcome them?
      i. If yes, how?
3. Do you sometimes procrastinate vocabulary learning?
   a. Do you get distracted easily during vocabulary learning?
      i. How do you overcome this?
4. Do you easily get bored during vocabulary learning?
   a. Can you overcome it? (How?)
5. Do you choose specific settings for your vocabulary learning?
   a. (If yes, how? - context, place…)

Appendix B
The related codes and themes

Themes	Codes
SRL	SRL: Homework, LMS tasks
	Conversation with teachers
	Self- initiated conversation with JP friends
	Penfriend/online foreign friend
	Speaking alone
	Listening to music
	Singing songs
	Preparation for test
	Revising previous textbook
	Self-selected textbook
	Research articles
	Language Lounge
	Setting smartphone in English
Teacher's advice (K-12)	No facilitation
	EN-JP dictionaries
	Good explanations
	Note-taking: words and translations
	Workbook, textbook
	Conversation
	Reading
	Reading aloud
Teachers' advice (university)	Speaking
	Language Lounge
	Lifelike content (movies)
	Smartphone application
	Learning vocabulary

Commitment control	Successful
	Unsuccessful
Metacognitive control	Physical aids
	Break
	Rescheduling
Satiation control	Successfully overcoming boredom
Emotion control	No emotion
	Resentment
	Irritated
	Mentally exhausted
Environment control	Room
	Public place

Phonological Clustering: A different approach to L2 vocabulary instruction

Anthony M. Diaz
Miyazaki International College

Abstract

L2 vocabulary has traditionally been presented to learners in thematically or semantically based approachs. While this is likely the most practical way of teaching new words to L2 learners, several studies have found that *semantically grouped* words had the lowest impact on word retention when compared with other methods of vocabulary presentation (Tinkham, 1993; 1997, Waring, 1997, Wilcox & Medina 2013). In contrast with these traditional approaches, *phonological clustering* presents phonologically similar words to learners with the aim of raising learners' awareness of the shared phonological patterns between words and replicating the conditions in which the mental lexicon integrates new words into existing phonological schema. To build a case for phonological clustering as a valid approach to vocabulary instruction, recent developments in phonological theory and their implications for the Japanese EFL context are cited and an explanation of how this approach could be applied to vocabulary instruction is given.

日本語概要

L2 語彙は従来、テーマ別または意味別に学習者に提示されてきました。これは L2 学習者に新しい単語を教える最も実用的な方法だと思われますが、いくつかの研究では、他の単語提示方法と比較して、意味的にグループ化された単語は単語の定着に最も影響が少ないことが分かっています（Tinkham, 1993; 1997, Waring, 1997, Wilcox & Medina 2013）。これらの従来のアプローチとは対照的に、音韻クラスタリングは、学習者に音韻的に類似した単語を提示し、単語間で共有される音韻パターンに対する学習者の意識を高め、メンタルレキシコンが既存の音韻スキーマに新しい単語を統合する条件を再現することを目的としています。音韻論的クラスタリングが語彙指導の有効なアプローチであることを立証するために、音韻論の最近の発展と日本の EFL 文脈への示唆を引用し、このアプローチが語彙指導にどのように適用できるかを説明する。

Semantic Clustering

The traditional organizational approach to the presentation of L2 vocabulary has been what the L2 vocabulary literature refers to as *semantic clustering* (Tinkham 1993; 1997, Waring, 1997). This method of structuring vocabulary content presents students with words selected from a single word class that share an individual semantic field, such as family words like "mother", "father", "brother", and "sister." This way of presenting vocabulary seems to be the most common way textbooks organize their vocabulary content and is likely the approach instructors are most familiar with. Figure 1 shows an example of *semantic clustering* for words used to describe food sourced from an English listening and speaking textbook.

Thematic Clustering

A second common method of presenting vocabulary is referred to by the literature as *thematic clustering*. *Thematic clustering* refers to the presentation of vocabulary according to shared psychological associations among words and a shared thematic concept (Tinkham, 1997, pp. 141-142). Unlike *semantic clustering*, this approach to presenting vocabulary is cognitively based rather than lexically based and often consists of vocabulary selected from different word classes. To illustrate this kind of clustering, Tinkham gives the example of words thematically associated with the word "frog" such as, "pond", "swim", "hop", "green", and "slippery". Figure 2 shows an example of the thematic clustering of words related to the unit theme of "taking risks" from an Academic English textbook.

Phonological Clustering

In contrast with these traditional approaches to presenting L2 vocabulary, *phonological clustering* is an approach in which groups of words that contain the

same phonological patterns are presented to L2 learners, such as the set of words "fringe", "hinge", "cringe", "binge", "singe", and "tinge". The underlying motivation for presenting L2 vocabulary in this way is the belief that lexical entries in the L1 and L2 are mostly phonological in nature rather than semantic (Wilcox & Medina, 2013). Support for this approach is the aim to present L2 vocabulary in a way that mimics the conditions that underlie the natural process of pattern recognition and phonological schema construction that are believed to occur in a speaker's L1.

Figure 1

An example of semantic clustering from the textbook "Real Listening and Speaking 3" (Craven, 2008, p. 15)

Figure 2

An example of thematic clustering from the textbook "Pathways Foundations: Listening, speaking, and critical thinking" (Fettig & Najafi, 2014, p, 24)
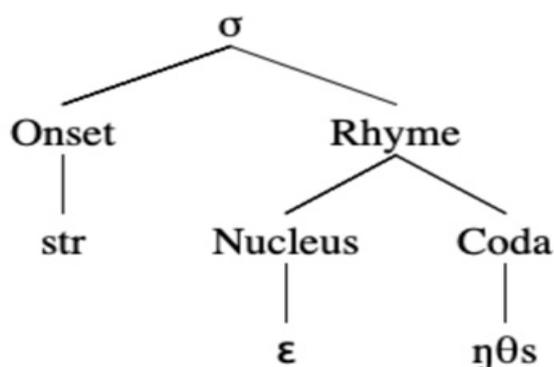

Figure 3

syllable structure of the single-syllable English word 'strengths'

Phonological Clustering Methods

Regarding phonological clustering, there are a number of ways that words can be grouped according to their shared phonological patterns. Words could be grouped according to their shared *onsets*, *nuclei*, *codas*, *rhymes* (nucleus and coda) or a combination of features. See figure 3 for a syllable structure diagram for the word "strengths", which is a word that exemplifies the most complex possible syllable structure in the English language. This approach is based on the idea that the more words are phonologically similar, the more they will reenforce shared phonological patterns and facilitate storage due to their proximity in the mental lexicon. The most salient method of phonologically grouping words would likely be words grouped according to the same first three phonemes. This is because the first three phonemes have been found to have a strong effect on word perception (Pisoni et al., 1985). This effect is due to the concept of *phonological priming*, whereby there is a coactivation of phonologically similar words in the mental lexicon that facilitates the perception of words. Depending on their length, this type of grouping might consist of the onset and nucleus. One such example of this type of grouping is words like "cream", "creed", "creep", and "creek", which share the same *onset* [kɹ] and *nucleus* [i] .

Empirical Support for Phonological Clustering

In their experiment to investigate the effect on word retention that different approaches of vocabulary presentation elicited, Wilcox and Medina (2013) presented participants with four different groupings of words: words that shared phonological and semantic features, words semantically grouped, words phonologically grouped, and words that were neither semantically nor phonologically related to each other. The presentation of these words was combined with an immediate and delayed post-test. Interestingly, what the authors found was that out of all of the groupings, participants had the worst performance recalling the *semantically grouped* words. These results agree with previous findings by Tinkham (1993; 1997) and Waring (1997) regarding the negative effect that the presentation of semantically similar words has on word retention for L2 learners. Furthermore, Wilcox and Medina (2013) found

that the words with the highest effect on word retention were those that were neither phonologically nor semantically related, and words that were semantically and phonologically related had the second greatest effect on word retention, and words that were only phonologically related had the third most positive effect on word retention. While these findings might contradict the belief that phonological clustering is a valid approach to vocabulary instruction, Wilcox and Medina's findings still indicate that phonologically clustered words have a stronger effect on word retention than the traditional approach of *semantic clustering*.

As part of their experiment, Wilcox and Medina reviewed 10 elementary Spanish textbooks from a variety of publishers and found that all of the textbooks presented vocabulary in *semantic clusters* rather than *phonological clusters* (p. 1067). As Wilcox and Medina point out, a major issue related to grouping words based on their shared semantic fields is that instructors and curriculum designers often assume that semantically related words consist of the same sets of words cross-linguistically, but this is sometimes not the case, due to cultural differences. They offer the example of how the semantic field "locally available fruits" is dependent on one's environment (Wilcox & Medina, 2013, p. 1067). For example, a person living in the Midwestern United States would likely be unable to buy an exotic fruit like guanábana (soursop) at their local fruit vendor, and vice versa, a shopper in rural Mexico is unlikely to think of cranberries when asked about locally available fruit. Tinkham (1993) identifies that rather than theoretical concerns, the main reason for presenting vocabulary in a semantically clustered way is related to teachers' perceptions of the communicative needs of students (p. 371). Wilcox & Medina (2013) note that while previous studies have shown that there is evidence that phonological repetition aids in the retention of non-words, research that explores the potential efficacy that phonologically clustered words may have on learning is lacking, and currently, their study represents the only investigation of this topic at the intersection of L2 phonology and vocabulary acquisition.

Literature Review

Considering developments in phonological theory and speech perception (Bybee, 2003; Goldstein & Vitevitch, 2014; Port, 2007; Pisoni et al., 1985), the following sections will briefly discuss recent theoretical developments regarding how phonological representations are organized and stored in the mental lexicon in order to support a phonologically clustered approach to vocabulary instruction.

Developments in Phonological Theory:

Exemplar-based models of phonological representation

Within the last few decades, the field of phonology has been moving away from the earlier *generative framework* as popularized by Chomsky and Halle in their work "The Sound Pattern of English" (1968) to a framework that incorporates concepts from the broader field of *cognitive psychology*. In the generative framework of phonology, phonological representations are conceptualized as abstract, with words being stored in the lexicon as serially ordered discrete phonemes (Port, 2007). Critics of this framework point out that extra linguistic information, such as the *voice quality* of speakers, *sociolinguistic variation*, and *diachronic language change* are largely ignored in favor of the idealized form (Port, 2007). In contrast, *exemplar-based models* of *phonological representation* conceptualize *phonological representations* more like a collection of aural templates called exemplars that consists of all instances of a word and its variant pronunciations that a listener experiences over their lifetime. Since recent work in phonology has approached the topic of phonological representation from an exemplar-based framework, it is only natural to ask what implications these theoretical models could hold for the fields of *Second Language Acquisition* (SLA) and *Foreign Language Acquisition* (FLA) respectively.

Use-based model of phonological representation

In her book "Phonology and Language Use" (2003), Joan Bybee discusses several exemplar-based theories that attempt to explain how phonological representations are organized in the mental lexicons of speakers. According to her *use-based model*, phonological representations are stored in highly organized schemata with lexically similar words being stored in proximity to each other within the minds of speakers. In chapter 2, Bybee uses the term *lexical connections* to refer to this phenomenon (p. 22). She also proposes that these connections can be either phonological or semantic. Bybee views the construction of these schemata as *use-based* in nature, that is, phonological schema emerges from use. Therefore, it would make sense to hypothesize that L2 vocabulary learning might occur according to a similar process, i.e., that learners construct phonological schemata in their mental lexicons resulting from their individual use of the target language. However, the question remains that if learners are not adequately exposed to the phonological patterns of the target language, will their phonological representations be organized according to the phonological systems of their L1? Considering these theoretical developments and their relation to L2 vocabulary acquisition, there may be motivation for the teaching of phonologically similar patterns in order to elicit the conditions that facilitate the construction of L2 phonological schemata and word acquisition. In particular, this approach seems to offer the most benefit to EFL learners whose L1 phonology is very different from the L2, because they may be insufficiently exposed to the phonological patterns of the target language and as a result may struggle to incorporate unknown phonological patterns into existing phonological schemata.

L2 Phonology

L2 research has found that adult learners' L1 and L2 phonological systems are not completely separate (Best & Tyler, 2007, p. 18). In their *Phonological Assimilation Model* (PAM), Best and Tyler (2007) draw a distinction between SLA and FLA and point out that FLA is an "impoverished context" for language acquisition due to a variety of factors which include: instruction taking place in an L1 environment, relying on formal and grammatical instruction rather than communicative contexts, and featuring instruction that is often delivered by L1 accented teachers (p. 19). These are all major issues regarding the EFL context of English edu-

cation in Japan, since it is likely that Best and Tyler's definition of the "impoverished context" of FLA would apply to most Japanese English learners.

Another popular model of L2 phonology is Flege's *speech learning model* (SLM). According to this model, language-specific aspects of speech are transferred to long-term representations called "phonetic categories" (Flege, 1995, p. 293). The model also postulates that the processes learners use to acquire the phonology of their L1 can be applied to L2 learning and the resulting "phonetic categories" evolve throughout the learners' lifespans as a result of increased experience and exposure to the phonology of the L2 (Flege, 1995, p. 293).

Other studies indicate that a learner's L1 exhibits influence on how they perceive sounds in an L2. For example, Flege (1995) cites two instances where speakers from different language backgrounds will substitute different sounds when pronouncing segments that are not part of their native phonological systems (p. 237). This mismatch indicates that a learner's L1 influences the way that they perceive sounds, because if it did not, all learners would be expected to use the same approximations for non-native phonemes regardless of their L1 backgrounds.

Japanese Phonology

The implications of the PAM and SLM models of L2 phonology are especially relevant when considering teaching students from language backgrounds that have markedly different phonemic inventories, i.e. Japanese students of English. Furthermore, If the theory of phonological schema creation posited by Bybee (2003) is valid, then it may imply that a student learning a language with a different phonemic inventory will construct phonological schemata predicated on their native phonological system. Table 1 expands on Bybee's model for lexical connections and illustrates how a Japanese English learner might construct phonological schema in their mental lexicon from the English word "bus".

Table 1
Expanding Bybee's lexical connection model to L2 phonology

Because Japanese utilizes a cross-linguistically common five-vowel inventory, Flege's SLM theory would postulate that the English vowel phonemes that are not part of Japanese phonology would be perceived as whatever their closest value in Japanese would be (Flege, 1995, p. 239). As Table 1 indicates, the English vowel /ʌ/ would become /a/ or /aː/ in the Japanese phonological schema. It is also important to note that while the vowels in these English words in most North American accents are /ʌ/ in "bus", /æ/ in "bath" and "math", and /ɜ/ in "earth", in Japanese they are all rendered as /a/ or /aː/. This is related to Japanese distinguishing vowel quantity rather than quality with certain English vowels being perceived as being longer than others. We can verify this by observing how English words are transcribed in the katakana syllabary.

In this way, it is possible to theorize how a native Japanese speaker might perceive vowels that are not part of their native language. It is also worth noting that where the English phonological schema has two phonological connections, the Japanese has three due to the necessary empenthetic (added) unrounded vowel /ɯ/ that results when these words are transcribed into the Japanese syllabary.

In addition to having fewer vowels, Japanese has fewer consonants than English, and as we can see in Table 1, its phonological system is unable to contrast between commonly contrasted English phonemes such as /s/ and /θ/. As a result, words like "sick" and "thick", which utilize /s/ and /θ/ as contrastive features, are both transcribed the same way in the Japanese syllabary シック [ʃiʔku] and are are likely to be perceived as the same word.

Empirical Support for a Phonologically Organized Lexicon

Now that the theoretical concepts underlying a phonologically clustered approach to vocabulary teaching have been explained, several experiments that support the idea that entries in the mental lexicon are organized according to shared phonological patterns will be outlined.

Pisoni, Nusbaum, Luce, and Slowiaczek (1985)

In perception experiments conducted by Pisoni et al. (1985), subjects were presented with a prime word followed by a test word. Some trials included words that were unrelated or the same, and some trials presented words that had the same: initial phoneme, first two phonemes, or first three phonemes (p. 6). Their findings indicated that listeners were able to perceive words presented in noise after hearing a prime word that had the same initial phoneme, the first two phonemes, or the first three phonemes. The prime words appeared to have the strongest effect when the first three phonemes were the same indicating:

1. The first part of a word plays an important role in the phonological processing of words.
2. The priming words affected participants' word

perception, which suggests a perceptual proximity of phonological representations.

Goldstein and Vitevitch (2014)

Building on Chan and Vitevitch's (2009) previous work regarding the effect of the clustering *coefficient* (C) on word perception, Goldstein and Vitevitch (2014) discovered that groups of similar sounding words when presented together could facilitate word acquisition. The concept of C, which is a theoretical development from the field of network science, relates to the theorized structure of phonological schemata in the mental lexicon. In this structure, a word and its phonologically similar neighbors are all nodes in a network of phonological representations. A word with a high C value has many neighbors that are also neighbors of each other, and a word with a low C value has neighbors that are less likely to be neighbors of each other. A low C value minimizes the number of connections between nodes in the phonological network, thereby decreasing the spread of activation through the network. See figure 4 for a visual representation of these concepts. The effect of a low C value on perception is that when words have fewer connections between nodes in their phonological networks, they are recognized more quickly than words that have a high C (Chan & Vitevitch, 2009). Applying this concept to word learning Goldstein and Vitevitch experimented with teaching groups of nonwords that had a high and low C and found that the words with a high C were retained by participants better, thus suggesting that words with similar phonological patterns are more easily retained by learners when they are presented together.
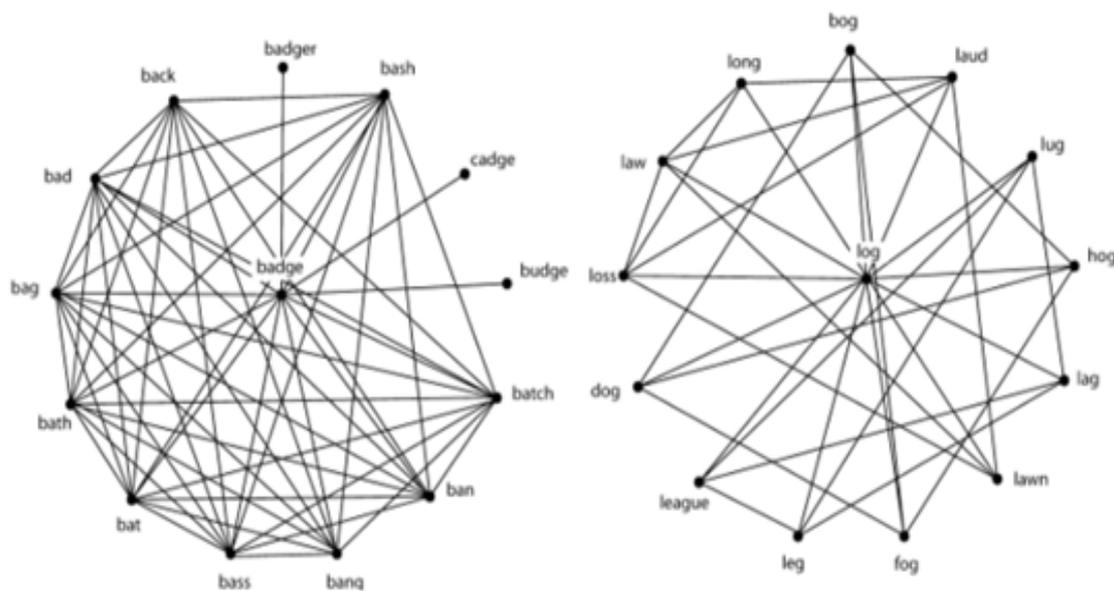
Figure 4
An example of words with high (badge) and low (log) clustering coefficients from Goldstein and Vitevitch (2014)

Development of an Application to Automatically Group Vocabulary

Yet, the question remains; how does one practically apply the concept of phonologically clustered vocabulary to an orthographically opaque language such as English? Due to English's lack of sound to symbol correspondence, at first glance, it is not always clear even to native speakers which words have the same phonological patterns, and it often requires some training in the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) for learners and instructors alike to recognize the shared patterns.

The representation of vowels in English is also an often-cited example of the difficulty associated with pronunciation teaching, since English has a larger number of vowels than graphemes (letters) that are used to represent them, sorting words from a text according to their shared vowel sounds can be a very impractical task. These issues are especially relevant for *Non-native English-Speaking Teachers* (NNESTs), since they may lack the phonological awareness to effectively perform this task. In consideration of these issues, a simple program might serve useful to convert English words to their equivalent phonetic transcriptions in order to more easily sort them according to their shared phonological patterns. Regarding this task, there is a python script called *English to IPA* that can convert English words into IPA transcriptions (Mphilli, 2020). This script uses the Carnegie-Mellon University Pronouncing Dictionary (The CMU Pronouncing Dictionary, n.d.), a pronunciation resource based on the North American pronunciation of words, to convert any text that a user inputs into IPA. Once words are converted to IPA by the Python script, a simple alphabetizing program can be used in order to sort the words and in this way, words that share the same *onsets* or *onsets and nuclei* can be identified from any text. Using a similar method, it is also possible to arrange words in alphabetic order from right to left (backwards). In this way, words that share the same *codas* or *rhymes* (nucleus and coda) can be grouped together from any text. At the time of the publishing of this paper, the author is currently working on adding a number of features to an application for phonologically grouping words. When the application is finished it will be a tool that teachers and learners can use in order to raise their awareness of the shared phonological patterns that exist between words.

Table 2 demonstrates how the program could be applied to a word list such as the "The New General Service List "(NGSL) (Browne, Culligan, & Phillips, 2013). The words in Table 2 were selected from the 2nd most frequent 1000 words in the NGSL and are based on the first two phonemes of each word that emerged from patterns in the data. The first two phonemes were chosen based on ease of selection and in consideration of Pisoni et al.'s (1985) findings regarding the initial pho-

Table 2

A selection of phonologically clustered words from the 2nd 1000 words of the NGSL

/fl/	/kr/	/kə/	/sp/	/st/
[flaɪt] (flight)	[kraɪ]	[kəˈlɛkt]	[spid] (speed)	[streɪt] (straight)
[floʊ] (flow)	(cry)	(collect)	[sprɛd] (spread)	[strɛs] (stress)
[flæt]	[kraɪm] (crime)	[kəˈlɛkʃən]	[spɑt] (spot)	[strɛŋθ] (strength)
(flat)	[kraʊd] (crowd)	(collection)		[stɪk] (stick)
		[kəˈmərʃəl]		
		(commercial)		
		[kəˈmɪti]		
		(committee)		

nological sequences of words.

Limitations

Since there is little research related to this topic, the claims made in this paper are likely to be disproven. Furthermore, since a phonologically based organization of the mental lexicon is a theoretical concept, it will likely be difficult to discover solid empirical evidence that supports how L2 learners construct these L2 phonological schemata. Nevertheless, replicating Pisoni et al.'s (1985) perceptual experiments or Wilcox and Medina's (2013) vocabulary learning experiments to confirm if they produce similar results with different populations of students and languages may yield interesting findings. Even with the development of an application that automatically groups words according to their shared phonological patterns, work still remains to be done regarding how to implement this kind of approach practically in a language course. At the very least, the application might serve as a tool to raise the phonological awareness of teachers and students and to aid in pattern recognition. Despite these limitations, this is an under-researched area which could contribute to the understanding of how the L2 mental lexicon is organized.

Conclusion

By presenting vocabulary with a pronunciation focus in a *phonologically clustered* approach, it might be possible to not only raise learners' awareness of the phonological patterns of the target language but also to facilitate the construction of phonological schemata, which may lead to better word retention due to the words sharing similar phonological patterns (Goldstein & Vitevitch, 2014). Exemplar and use-based models of phonology hold some compelling implications for L2 vocabulary acquisition; if these theoretical claims prove to be true, phonological representations emerge from a speaker's experience and use of language, therefore, unless learners are adequately exposed to the phonological patterns and phonetic qualities of a target language, they may have trouble constructing phonological schemata and integrating new words into existing schemata in the mental lexicon. Since the number of studies that investigate the efficacy of a phonologically clustered approach to L2 vocabulary instruction are very limited, it might be worthwhile to explore this avenue of research to investigate if Wilcox and Medina's (2013) findings could be replicated with

Japanese learners of English to further strengthen the pedagogical motivation for this approach to the presentation of vocabulary.

References

Best, C. T., & Tyler, M. D. (2007). Nonnative and second-language speech perception. *Language Experience in Second Language Speech Learning*, 13-34. doi:10.1075/lllt.17.07bes

Browne, C., Culligan, B. & Phillips, J. (2013). *The New General Service List*. Retrieved from http://www.newgeneralservicelist.org

Chan, K. Y., & Vitevitch, M. S. (2009). The influence of the phonological neighborhood clustering coefficient on spoken word recognition. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance*, *35*(6), 1934–1949. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016902

The CMU pronouncing dictionary. (n.d.). Retrieved August 25, 2022, from http://www.speech.cs.cmu.edu/cgi-bin/cmudict

Craven, M. (2008). *Real listening and speaking 3: With answers*. Cambridge University Press.

Bybee, J. L. (2003). *Phonology and language use. Cambridge*: Cambridge Univ. Press.

Chomsky, N., & Halle, M. (1968). *The sound pattern of English*. New York: Harper & Row.

Fettig, C., & Najafi, K. (2014). *Pathways foundations: Listening, speaking, and critical thinking*. National Geographic Learning.

Mphilli, (2020). *Eng-to-IPA (Version 0.0.2)* [Source code] https://github.com/mphilli/English-to-IPA

Flege, J. (1995). Second language speech learning: Theory, findings and problems. In W. Strange (Ed.), *Speech perception and linguistic experience: Issues in cross-language research* (pp. 233-277). Baltimore, MD: York Press.

Goldstein, R., & Vitevitch, M. S. (2014). The influence of clustering coefficient on word-learning: How groups of similar sounding words facilitate acquisition. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *5*. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2014.01307

Pisoni, D. B., Nusbaum, H. C., Luce, P. A., & Slowiaczek, L. M. (1985). Speech perception, word recognition and the structure of the lexicon. *Speech Communication*, *4*(1-3), 75-95. doi:10.1016/0167-6393(85)90037-8

Port, R. (2007). How are words stored in memory? Beyond phones and phonemes. *New Ideas in Psychology*, *25*(2), 143-170. doi:10.1016/j.newideapsych.2007.02.001

Tinkham, T. (1993). The effect of semantic clustering on the learning of second language vocabulary. *System*, *21*(3), 371-380. doi:10.1016/0346-251x(93)90027-e

Tinkham, T. (1997). The effects of semantic and thematic clustering on the learning of second language vocabulary. *Second Language Research*, *13*(2), 138-163. doi:10.1191/026765897672376469

Waring, R. (1997). The negative effects of learning words in semantic sets: A replication. *System*, **25**(2), 261-274. doi:10.1016/s0346-251x(97)00013-4

Wilcox, A., & Medina, A. (2013). Effects of semantic and phonological clustering on L2 vocabulary acquisition among novice learners. *System*, *41*(4), 1056-1069. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.10.012

Pragmatic Markers Used in Textbook Dialogues

Chie Kawashima

Tochigi Technical High School

Abstract

This study investigates the representativeness of pragmatic markers used in textbook dialogues. The textbooks selected for the study were five beginner-level international ELT textbooks and six Japanese high school EFL textbooks. The pragmatic marker types identified in these textbooks were classified into interpersonal function and textual function with subdivision into more discrete functions based on Brinton's (1996) classification system. The study revealed uneven appearance of pragmatic marker types in relation to their frequency and functions across the textbooks. Lack of pedagogical attention was also pointed out alongside the absence of tasks to practise the use of pragmatic markers. The findings of the study suggest the necessity to supplement the dearth of pedagogical treatment of pragmatic markers used in textbook dialogues with teachers' efforts using a variety of techniques.

日本語概要

本研究は、語学教材の対話文における語用標識の扱いについての調査を行ったものである。本研究で使用した教材は、初級レベルの洋書教材5種類、ならびに日本国内の高等学校で使用されている英語教科書6種類である。それぞれの教材の中の対話文で使用されている語用標識をBrinton(1996)による語用標識分類体系を基に、全体的に対人関係的機能およびテキスト機能の2つに分け、それぞれの機能の中で更に詳細化された機能へと分類を進めた。本研究で明らかになった点は、語用標識の種類や機能の分布が教材間で均等ではないことである。同様に語用標識の使用が練習できるタスクの欠如など学習配慮がなされていないことも判明した。本研究の結果から、語学教材における語用標識に関する学習配慮については、語学教師の多様な工夫により補足される必要性が示唆される。

Pragmatic markers frequently appear in language textbooks in dialogue. Although they play an important role in terms of speech coherence and maintaining interlocutor relationships in conversation (Archer et al., 2012), they have not received much pedagogical attention in EFL contexts. Therefore, learners may have limited opportunities to learn how to use them in authentic interactions in their target language. In order to address the representativeness of pragmatic markers used in textbook dialogues, this study investigates their types and functions along with instruction presented in the beginner level pedagogical materials. Pragmatic markers are words and phrases such as well and you know which serve as pragmatic functions within the linguistic system. Although arbitrary use of these semantically empty markers can be grammatically acceptable, they are pragmatically essential and function as an important pragmatic element in a discourse (Brinton, 1996).

According to Carter and McCarthy (2006), the most common pragmatic markers in informal conversation are single words such as *anyway, cos, fine, good, great, like, now, oh, okay, right, so, well,* and phrasal/clausal elements such as *you know, I mean, as I say, for a start* and *mind you* indicating the speaker's intentions and interpersonal meanings (p. 208). In addition, markers such as *actually, really, indeed,* etc. serve as a sign of the speaker's attitude; hedges like *kind of, like, just,* etc. allow the speaker to sound less assertive; and interjections such as *wow, gosh, ouch,* etc. display the speaker's exclamative utterances (Carter & McCarthy, 2006). Therefore, pragmatic markers serve a variety of functions and may be indispensable in everyday authentic spoken discourse.

Pragmatic markers have been classified differently by a number of scholars. For example, Brinton (1996) classified pragmatic markers into two macro functions: interpersonal functions and textual functions. Interpersonal

functions are associated with speakers' voice to be involved with the interlocutor and express their emotions, reactions, attitudes, evaluations, judgements, expectations, and demands, as well as shared knowledge or solidarity, and hedge the utterances to display tentativeness or politeness (O'Keeffe et al., 2020; Tajeddin & Alemi, 2021). Textual functions, on the other hand, indicate a structural boundary in the discourse, and cohesive passages of discourse such as opening, guiding, and closing a presentation are created by the speaker with the use of textual markers (Tajeddin & Alemi, 2021). Furthermore, they divided each macro function into more discrete micro functions as shown in Table 1. Later, this inventory was applied by Chapeton Castro (2009) to examine the impact of pragmatic markers used in the classroom discourse.

As several researchers have shown, the use of pragmatic markers is not taught in language classes and inappropriate use of them is often not corrected (Hellermann & Vergun 2007; Thonus, 2007). Alcon and Tricker's (2000) study pointed out that the frequently used marker of *well* was not practiced in communicative activities in EFL materials. Hellermann and Vegun (2007) stated that textbooks put an emphasis on formulaic phrases rather than pragmatic markers, which were not treated as the objects for instruction. Likewise, Buysse (2017) found much less frequent use of *you know* by non-native speakers of English due to neglected instruction of them in textbooks. Furko and Mono (2013) noted that only a limited number of textbooks provided learners with the opportunities to practise the use of *well* suggesting the necessity of teachers' supplement of the incidental learning with explicit instructions. In addition, Murahata (2018) pointed out that the use of the adversative interjection *oh* was often overgeneralised in the EFL textbooks. They noticed *oh* was often used in a resultative situation inappropriately.

Textbooks play an important role in a foreign language education. In EFL contexts, textbooks are not only the sources of input for learners providing opportunities to practice the target language but also function as a framework and de facto syllabus to regulate the classroom instruction (Nguyen, 2011; Soleimani & Dabbghi, 2012). Additionally, classroom instruction is also vital for learners in terms of appropriate use of pragmatic markers. Vickov and Jakapcevic (2017) noticed teachers' appropriate use of pragmatic markers in the classroom instruction had a positive impact on students' listening comprehension. Erten (2016) observed the effect of instruction on the elementary-level Turkish L1 learners' awareness-raising of using fillers, which they found attractive or useful.

This study explores two types of beginner-level pedagogical materials of international ELT textbooks and Japanese high school EFL textbooks as to the use of pragmatic markers. In order to investigate the treatment of pragmatic markers used in dialogues comparing the difference between these two types of textbooks in treatment of pragmatic markers, the following research questions were established:

RQ1. How many types of pragmatic markers of each macro function are used in textbook dialogues?

RQ2. What types of pragmatic markers are present in textbook dialogues? How frequently does each type of marker occur?

RQ3. What are the micro functions of identified pragmatic markers? How frequently does each micro function of pragmatic marker type occur?

RQ4. Are these identified pragmatic markers adequately instructed?

Methods

Textbook Selection

The data analysed in this study were collected from the written transcription of oral dialogues introduced in textbooks. The selection of textbooks was made based on the results of an informal survey of major publishers as conducted in Kawashima's (2021) study of pragmatic roles of visuals in ELT textbooks. I selected their top-selling language textbooks which focus on the 4 skills: five beginner-level international ELT textbooks and six EFL textbooks used in Japanese high schools as displayed in Appendix A.

Data Analysis

First of all, I identified types of pragmatic markers such as *oh*, *okay*, *well*, etc. in the dialogues in each of the selected textbooks eliminating those with non-pragmatic use. Second, the identified pragmatic markers were classified into two macro functions: a) interpersonal functions and b) textual functions, according to Brinton's (1996) classification system (Table 1). Then the number of pragmatic marker types in each macro function was counted textbook by textbook.

Next, each pragmatic marker type was counted in each textbook. This was performed to determine which markers were frequently used and which markers were underused/absent in the materials. Further classification was then performed whereby the individual markers were subdivided into each micro function based on the inventory of Brinton's (1996) classification system in Table 1. The aim of this classification was to compare the frequency of each type of markers in relation to their functions across the textbooks. Finally, in order to determine how pedagogical attention was paid to the use of pragmatic markers, additional investigation was made as to whether or not explicit treatment of pragmatic markers regarding macro and micro functions and practice tasks were provided.

Table 1
Brinton's (1996, pp. 37-38) classification system for pragmatic markers

Macro Functions	Micro Functions	Examples of Pragmatic Marker Types
Interpersonal functions	**Response/Reaction markers (Rea)**	**-to express a response/a reaction to the preceding discourse**	***yeah, oh, but, oh yeah, well, eh, oh really?***
		-to signal understanding and continued attention	
	Backchannels (B/C)		***mhm, uh huh, yeah***
	Cooperation, Agreement markers (Coo)	-to express cooperation or intimacy	*okay, yes, yeah, mhm*
		-to express deference	
		-to save face (politeness)	
		-to express disagreement	*but, no*
	Disagreement markers (Dis)		
	Checking Understanding (Ch)	-to check/express/confirm understanding	*right?, okay?* *yeah, mhm, yes*
	Confirmation markers (Con)	-to request confirmation	*ah, I know,* *yeah, mhm, yes*

Table 1 (Continued)

Textual functions	Opening/Closing Frame markers (Op/Cl)	-to initiate discourse, (e.g., claiming hearers' attention)	*So, okay, now, right, well*
		-to close discourse	
	Turn Takers/Givers (T/T)	-to acquire the floor	*okay, yeah, and, e, well*
		-to relinquish the floor	
	Fillers / Turn Keepers (F)	-to sustain discourse	*um, e, and then, because*
		-to hold the floor	
	Topic Switchers (T/S)	-to indicate a new topic	*okay, well, now*
	New/Old information indicators (In)	-to denote new information	*and, because, so*
		-to denote old information	
	Sequence/Relevance markers (S/R)	-to constrain the relevance of one clause to the preceding clause	*so, and, and then, because*
	Repair markers (Rep)	-to repair one's or other's discourse	*well, I mean, you know, like*

Results

Range of Pragmatic Marker Types

As Table 2 displays, a wider range of pragmatic marker types were identified across the international ELT textbooks compared to the Japanese high school EFL textbooks. A wider range of interpersonal marker types were present in both types of textbooks compared to that of textual markers except for *Cutting*. The range of textual marker types used in *Vivid* and *Select* was especially narrow and only three different types were identified.

Table 2
Range of Pragmatic Marker Types

	(International ELT Textbooks)				(Japanese H.S. EFL Textbooks)		
	Interpersonal	Textual	Total		Interpersonal	Textual	Total
(Textbooks)	Function	Function		(Textbooks)	Function	Function	
Interchange	23	13	36	*Progress*	18	8	26
Headway	27	13	40	*Crown*	9	7	16
Cutting	15	20	35	*Vista*	11	4	15
Global	15	12	27	*Vivid*	12	3	15
Time	13	6	19	*Select*	7	3	10
				Quest	14	5	19
Average	18.6	12.8	31.4	Average	10.1	4.3	14.4

Types of Pragmatic Markers and Frequency

Table 4 and Table 3 show pragmatic marker types and the number of occurrences. Across the international ELT textbooks, the interpersonal markers of *oh* and *okay* were predominantly used. *Yeah* and *really*, which did not evenly appeared across these textbooks, were also on the list of frequently recurring interpersonal markers.

As for textual markers, and occurred 79 times across the international ELT textbooks. On the whole, the textual use of *well* was more common compared to interpersonal use. *Er* and *mmm* predominantly occurred in *Cutting*, where far more textual markers were identified.

Across the Japanese high school EFL textbooks, the total number of pragmatic marker types used in the dialogues was far smaller than that of the international ELT textbooks. Most of the pragmatic marker types were not evenly represented across the textbooks. Although the interpersonal marker of *oh* predominantly appeared across these textbooks along with *okay*, these two markers were not present in *Crown*. *Really*, which occurred predominantly in *Vista* and *Quest*, was absent in *Progress*.

The frequency of textual markers in the Japanese high school EFL textbooks was even lower. Nevertheless, *well* and and as a textual marker occurred more than ten times respectively in *Progress*, and textual markers were more frequently used than interpersonal markers in *Crown*. In addition, *by the way*, which was absent in the international ELT textbooks, was used a number of times across these textbooks.

Table 3
Types of Pragmatic Markers and Frequency in International ELT Textbooks

	Interchange	Headway	Cutting	Global	Time	Total
Interpersonal						
oh	41	35	14	16	1	107
okay	15	18	26	17	4	80
yeah	2	19	8	4	2	35
really	14	6	0	6	4	30
well	11	9	4	10	2	36
wow	5	6	1	6	7	25
but	3	10	0	4	0	17
others	32	48	15	18	10	124
(Total)	123	151	68	81	30	454
Textual						
and	13	21	33	11	1	79
well	19	16	8	3	3	49
so	12	5	16	16	1	50
er	0	0	17	3	0	20
mmm	0	5	9	2	0	16
now	2	10	1	1	0	14
uh	4	4	0	0	5	13
okay	1	1	4	7	0	13
um	0	7	1	3	0	11
hmm	3	1	1	0	2	7
others	6	4	19	6	1	36
(Total)	60	74	109	52	13	308

Table 4
Types of Pragmatic Markers and Frequency in Japanese EFL Textbooks

	Progress	Crown	Vista	Vivid	Select	Quest	Total
Interpersonal							
oh	18	0	2	4	2	3	27
really	0	1	8	2	0	6	17
okay	4	0	3	4	1	3	15
sure	1	2	3	4	1	3	14
well	1	0	2	0	1	1	5
wow	5	0	1	0	0	3	9
yeah	6	0	0	0	0	3	9
others	17	8	5	13	3	10	56
(Total)	52	11	24	25	8	32	152
Textual							
well	17	1	1	0	2	3	24
and	12	5	1	1	1	1	21
so	3	3	0	2	0	0	8
by the way	3	0	0	1	0	1	5
others	5	5	2	0	1	3	16
(Total)	40	14	4	4	4	8	74

Micro Functions of Pragmatic Markers

The micro functions of the identified pragmatic markers are summarised in Table 5 and 6. The function of Response/Reaction (Rea.) was predominantly present in the international ELT textbooks, and the interpersonal markers of oh was typically used for this function. In *Interchange*, *Global*, and *Time*, *really* also functioned as Rea. a number of times. Cooperation, Agreement function (Coo.) markers as *okay* and *yeah* also frequently appeared across the textbooks. In *Headway* and *Cutting*, the use of *yeah* as Coo. was more frequent than *okay. Well* functioned as Disagreement (Dis.) several times in addition to but.

As for the textual functions, the function of Filler (F.) was most dominantly present across these textbooks. *Cutting* stood out for the frequency of F. with the use of a number of different pragmatic marker types as *er, mmm, hmmm*, etc. *Well* also functioned as a F. a number of times in this textbook. And and so as a New/Old Information Indicator (In.) or a Sequence/Relevance (S/R.) marker commonly appeared across the

textbooks. The functions of Topic Switching (T/S.) and Repairing (Rep.) identified in these textbooks mainly used *well*. The markers with the remaining functions were underused or absent.

Across the Japanese high school EFL textbooks, the marker with Rea. occurred in higher frequency. *Oh* and *really* were preferably used for this function. However, *Crown* stood out for underuse of this function. The markers with remaining functions occurred far less frequently. Con. was present across these textbooks, and *okay* was mainly used for this function. Unlike the international ELT textbooks, the function of Con. was more commonly used than Coo. *Sure* was outstandingly used as Coo. alongside *okay* and *yeah*.

The majority of identified textual markers functioned as S/R. or Rep. and were clustered in *Progress* or *Crown*. And and so were mainly used as S/R., and Rep. used mostly well. By the way as T/S occurred several times exclusively in Progress. Fs., which occurred frequently across the international ELT textbooks, were underused across these textbooks.

Table 5
Micro Functions of Pragmatic Markers in International ELT Textbooks

	Rea	B/C	Coo	Dis	Ch	Con	Op	Cl	T/T	F	T/S	In	S/R	Rep
				(Interpersonal Functions)			(Textual Functions)							
Interchange	78	1	16	13	2	13	7	3	0	9	7	2	20	12
Headway	91	0	27	18	1	14	3	0	0	21	14	16	10	10
Cutting	25	2	31	2	3	5	4	0	0	50	10	27	14	4
Global	50	2	10	5	1	13	6	3	0	13	3	9	14	4
Time	18	2	8	1	0	1	0	0	0	8	0	1	1	3
(Total)	259	7	92	39	7	46	20	6	0	101	34	55	59	33

Table 6
Micro Functions of Pragmatic Markers in Japanese EFL Textbooks

	Rea	B/C	Coo	Dis	Ch	Con	Op	Cl	T/T	F	T/S	In	S/R	Rep
Progress	31	0	5	5	1	10	6	0	0	0	6	0	13	15
Crown	2	0	2	3	0	4	0	0	1	1	1	1	7	3
Vista	16	0	2	1	0	5	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
Vivid	16	0	2	0	0	9	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	0
Select	6	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
Quest	16	0	12	1	0	3	0	0	0	3	2	0	2	1
(Total)	87	0	24	10	1	32	7	0	2	5	10	5	23	22

Note: Each micro function is displayed with a shortened form or an abbreviation in the parentheses as in Table 1.

Instruction of Pragmatic Markers

Not a single explicit mention of the pragmatic markers in the textbooks investigated in this study was identified. At the same time, output practice tasks were absent all across these textbooks. However, the directions of reading aloud or listening carefully were provided in some of the dialogues with pragmatic markers in the international ELT textbooks. Even though a number of pragmatic markers were used in textbook dialogues, they were neither explicitly introduced nor practised. Learners were solely able to be exposed to the pragmatic markers used in the dialogues.

Discussion

Overall, this study identified the range of pragmatic marker types and their frequency in each textbook and the function of each identified marker. Then, pedagogical treatment of these markers was also examined. These findings of the study imply particularity of beginner level textbooks and pedagogical issues in presenting pragmatic markers.

First of all, a wider range of interpersonal marker types were identified across the textbooks. Interpersonal markers involve response forms to questions (*yes*, *no*, and *yeah*), to directives (*okay*), and assertions (backchannels) as well as interjection (*oh*, *ah*, and *well*) (Biber et al., 1999). Therefore, the textbooks examined in this study were all beginner-level where informal everyday conversations were presented, and less textual markers might be used to make the discourse structures simple. Additionally, the substantial difference between these two types of textbooks was the range of pragmatic marker types used in the dialogues. Although both types of textbooks focus across 4 skills, Japanese high school EFL textbooks might place more emphasis on linguistic information rather than everyday language use.

Second, the identified recurring pragmatic markers as *oh*, *okay*, *well*, *so*, and *yeah* were almost identical with those commonly used in everyday authentic interaction as listed on the inventory of Biber et al. (1999)

and Carter and McCarthy (2006). However, some of the commonly used markers as *anyway*, *now*, *right*, *you know*, *like*, etc. were underrepresented or absent across the textbooks. They were among the most commonly used pragmatic markers in the data set of spoken text of beginning ESL learners in the United States (Hellermann and Vegun, 2007). The acquisition of these markers can be made in real life in the early stage of L2 acquisition. Moreover, uneven representation of these commonly used markers across the textbooks was noted. *Oh* and *okay* were completely absent in *Crown* while *by the way*, which was absent in the international ELT textbooks, was among the frequently used textual markers in the Japanese high school ELT textbooks. The forms of pragmatic markers tend to be more explicit using the words with propositional meaning in EFL materials whereas lexically empty markers as *oh*, *okay*, and *well*, etc. with versatile functions are predominantly used in authentic interactions (Cheng & Warren, 2007). The pragmatic marker types learners are exposed to may be limited if they rely solely on a single textbook.

Third, a large number of identified markers functioned as Rea., where oh was predominantly used. The use of the remaining marker types for this function was very limited. As in Murahata's (2018) findings, *oh* as Rea. may be overgeneralised in both types of textbooks. A frequent use of *okay* alongside *yeah* as a Coo. was found in the international ELT textbooks while *sure* was more commonly used in the Japanese high school ELT textbooks. According to Biber et al. (1999), *yeah* functions as a response to directives similar to *okay*, but it is treated as a weakened or indirect negative response in contrast to stronger responses of *sure* and *certainly*. The preference of the Japanese EFL textbooks in presenting markers with propositional meaning may have an impact on learners' language use in authentic situations. Additionally, less frequent appearance of Coo. markers than Con. in Japanese high school EFL textbooks might be attributed to lack of directive speech acts presented in the dialogues.

Furthermore, several different micro functions were involved in the versatile marker of *well*, which functioned predominantly as a filler in the international ELT textbooks. However, this marker typically functions as

response against the speaker's anticipation (Carter & McCarthy, 2006). Buysse (2015) observed EFL learners' overuse of well in the speech management due to their lack of confidence rather than as an attitudinal function like disagreement. They stated that well as a speech management function was commonly present in pedagogical materials and included in learners' restricted inventory of pragmatic devices. This unbalanced representation of pragmatic marker types in relation to their functions across the textbooks may be a cause of learners' inappropriate use of them in authentic interaction.

Finally, although this study identified a number of pragmatic marker types and functions, not a single of them was highlighted or explicitly practised in the textbooks. Learners are unlikely to learn the macro and micro functions of pragmatic markers through simple exposure (Alcon & Tricker, 2000). The lack of explicit instruction found by this study suggests that this is the case for learners.

Conclusion

Pragmatic markers may be grammatically optional but they are essential for appropriate language use in everyday communication This study identified a wide range of pragmatic markers with different functions in textbook dialogues. Some of them occurred in higher frequency. Although many of those identified in this study are commonly used in everyday interaction, the use of them was not adequately represented to learners in textbooks, and enough pedagogical attention was not paid in EFL contexts. Perhaps, language teachers could use a variety of techniques such as incidental learning, explicit instruction, etc. to supplement where textbooks are lacking.

References

Alcon, E., & Tricker, D. (2000). Teaching discourse competence in the classroom: An example based on the discourse marker well in EFL materials. *Paper presented at the The 22nd International Conference of Aedean, Lleida*.

Archer, D., Aijmer, K., & Wichmann, A. (2012). *Pragmatics: An advanced resource book for students*. New York: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.1558/eap.27075

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken English*. London: Longman. https://doi.org/10.1017/s136067430221028x

Brinton, L. (1996). *Pragmatic markers in English. Grammaticalization and discourse functions*. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110907582

Buysse, L. (2015). 'Well it's not very ideal...' The pragmatic marker well in learner English. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, *12*(1), 59-89. https://doi.org/10.1515/ip-2015-0003

Buysse, L. (2017). The pragmatic marker you know in learner Englishes. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *121*, 40-57. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2017.09.010

Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (2006). *Cambridge grammar of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.4312/vestnik.1.207-211

Chapeton Castro, C. M. (2009). The use and functions of discourse markers in EFL classroom interaction. *Profile*, *11*, 57-77.

Cheng, W., & Warren, M. (2007). Checking understanding: Comparing textboooks and a corpus of spoken English in Hong Kong. *Language Awareness*, *16*(3), 190-207. https://doi.org/10.2167/la455.0

Furko, B. P., & Monos, K. (2013). The teachability of communicative competence and the acquisition of pragmatic markers: A case study of some widely-used business English coursebooks. *Argumentum*, *9*, 132-148.

Hellermann, J., & Vergun, A. (2007). Language which is not taught: The discourse marker use of beginning adult learners of English. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *39*, 157-179. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2006.04.008

Kawashima, C. (2021). Pragmatic roles of visuals in ELT textbooks. In P. Clements, R. Derrah & P. Ferguson (Eds.), *Communities of teachers & learners* (pp. 290-299). Tokyo: JALT. https://doi.org/10.37546/jaltpcp2020-36

Murahata, G. (2018). A critical analysis of the interjections 'oh' and 'ah' as pragmatic markers in MEXT authorized English textbooks. *ARELE: Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan*, *29*, 49-64.

Nguyen, M. T. T. (2011). Learning to communicate in a globalized world: To what extent do school textbooks facilitate the development of intercultural pragmatic competence? *RELC Journal*, *42*(1), 17-30. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688210390265

O'Keeffe, A., Clancy, B., & Adolphs, S. (2020). *Introducing pragmatics in use*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429342950-3

Soleimani, H., & Dabbaghi, A. (2012). Textbook evaluation: A reflection on the New Interchange series. International Journal of *Research Studies in Language Teaching 1*(2), 23-46. https://doi.org/10.5861/ijrsll.2012.v1i2.70

Tajeddin, Z., & Alemi, M. (2021). *Pragmatics pedagogy in English as an international language*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003097303-1

Thonus, T. (2007). Listener responses as a pragmatic resource for learners of English. *The Catesol Journal*, *19*(1), 132-144.

Vickov, G., & Jakupcevic, E. (2017). Discourse markers in non-native EFL teacher talk. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 7(4), 649-671. https://doi.org/10.17234/diss.2021.7779

Appendices

Appendix A

Textbooks Investigated in this Study

International ELT Textbooks

Interchange Intro (Cambridge University Press 2013)

 American Headway Starter (Oxford University Press 2010)

 Cutting Edge Starter (Pearson Education 2012)

 Global Beginner Course Book (MacMillan 2010)

 Time Zones 1 (Cengage Learning 2010)

 Japanese High School EFL Textbooks

 Progress in English 21 Book 3 (Edec 2012)

 Crown: English Communication I (Sanseido 2013)

 Vista: English Communication I (Sanseido 2013)

 Vivid: English Communication I (Daiichi Gakushusha 2013)

 Select: English Expression I (Sanseido 2013)

 Vision Quest: English Expression I (Keirinkan 2013)

Preparing Students for Academic Writing: A First-Year University Writing Class

David James Townsend

Shujitsu University

Abstract

How quickly a university writing program can get students up to speed is a vital measure of success. This paper will describe the first year of a successful writing program implemented in the English Department of a Japanese private university. All students must complete an 8,000-word graduation dissertation. Unfortunately, many students have had very little experience with English writing beyond sentence-level translations or journal entries before entering university. While academic writing is formally introduced in the second year, this paper will detail how the steps taken in the first year prepare the students by getting them up to speed as quickly as possible for the increasingly demanding requirements they will encounter in the years that follow. Initially, some information will be given about the current state of writing education in Japanese high schools, before explaining the theory and practical applications of this successful program.

日本語概要

大学の英作文プログラムを学生がいかに速く習得できるかは、成功の重要な尺度だ。この論文では、日本の私立大学の英語学科で実施した最初の一年間の英作文プログラムの成功例について説明する。すべての学生は８０００語程度の卒業論文を書く必要がある。しかし残念ながら多くの学生は大学入学前に高いレベルの英作文の経験がほとんどない。アカデミックライティングは大学二年目に正式に導入されるが、この論文では一年目のこのプログラムで、学生たちが、厳しくなる要件に迅速に対応する準備の方法について詳しく説明している。まず日本の高校における英作文の授業について説明し、この英作文プログラムの理論、実践的な応用法を説明する。

This paper will describe in detail the first year of a four-year writing program developed in the English department of a private Japanese university. All students in this department must complete the first and second year of the writing program conducted in English. In the third year, students choose one of three areas of specialization: English and American Culture, Translation / Interpretation, or English Communication. They will then join a seminar class taught by a faculty advisor from their preferred area of specialization.

As part of the graduation requirements of the department, all students must write a dissertation. Their seminar advisor guides them through this process in the third and fourth years. Students who choose the English and American Culture stream write their dissertations in Japanese, students specializing in English Communication are required to write their dissertations in English, while those students choosing Translation / Interpretation can elect to write their dissertations in either English or Japanese. All dissertations written in English must be approximately 8,000 words in length. As mentioned earlier, however, the first and second year of the English writing program is conducted in English regardless of what area of specialization the students choose. While the number of students choosing the English Communication course varies from year to year, it usually accounts for about half of the students in the department.

Unfortunately, as will be explained in more detail below, many of the students entering this program have had very little previous experience writing in English. As a result, the writing program must prepare these novice writers in four short years to be able to research and write numerous academic papers culminating in their graduation dissertation. The writing program has been carefully designed and continuously tweaked over the years to help our students develop the skills necessary to successfully complete their graduation dissertations. While academic writing is not formally introduced

until the second year, the goal of the first year of the writing program is to lay the foundation needed for students to be able to handle academic writing when it is introduced. Such a foundation includes improving the students' writing fluency, introducing them to the basic mechanics of writing (formatting, punctuation, topic sentences, et cetera.) as well as providing some practice with the most common rhetorical patterns.

Initially, this paper will explain how the current situation in the Japanese education system does not do enough to promote writing in high school. It will then explain the first year of the writing program which is divided into three important components: structured extensive writing, classroom instruction, and peer editing / teacher check. Furthermore, specific information and examples will be provided that flesh out what the goals and objectives of each component are and how they all fit together.

The Current State of Japanese High School Writing

Writing can be a very difficult skill to master. Even being a proficient speaker of a language does not guarantee the ability to write effectively. There are many examples of students in English-speaking countries that have problems with writing despite their proficiency in the language they grew up with. The most recent National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) report measuring the proficiency of U.S. students in writing found that 73% of students in grade 12 lack proficiency (*The Nations*, 2011).

It is easy to point the finger at the widespread use of smartphones and computers in modern society as a significant reason for this sad state of affairs. However, this problem has predated such technological advancements. For example, Dana Golstein (2017) states in a New York Times article ominously titled *Why Kids Can't Write*, that in 1874 more than half of first-year students at Harvard University failed an entrance exam in writing.

As difficult as writing is in one's first language (L1), this is compounded exponentially when writing in a second or foreign language (L2). In fact, Richards and Renandya (2002) suggest that writing is often considered to be the most difficult language skill for learners of English. While most aspects of learning an L2 can be challenging, writing possesses a number of unique characteristics that make it especially difficult.

Errors with spelling, grammar, punctuation, capitalization and formatting are laid bare on the page for all to see. As a result, "...writing requires greater precision and care than speech as it is a more formal act of producing a permanent record. When we speak, we gauge our listeners' response and instantly clarify if any points which have not been comprehended. As no such interactions take place in a piece of writing, our communication skills have to be unambiguous" (Hilton and Hyder, 1992: p. 7). Finally, there are rhetorical patterns and conventions that are unique to different types of writing genres.

As was touched upon earlier, despite the tremendous emphasis being put on English language education in Japan, many Japanese students enter university with very underdeveloped writing skills. The reason for this, according to Mulvey (2016), is that students in Japan simply have very little to no experience with L2 writing in high school.

Furthermore, what little practice Japanese high schools do have with English writing is often limited to sentence-level translation and vocabulary training (Nakanishi 2006). In fact, Mulvey (2016) cites research that indicates almost 60% of textbooks that are used in high school writing classes continue to favor teacher-centered instruction solely focused on particular grammar items at the sentence level rather than on how to construct short texts.

While the average Japanese high school student has limited experience with English writing, that might not necessarily be the case for students choosing to enter an English department. There is a possibility that these students might have had more exposure to English that precipitated their desire to specialize in English at University. In order to acquire a better understanding of

the English-writing experience of the students enter-ing the English department, an in-house questionnaire was administered on the first day of the writing class (Townsend, 2022).

As a result, 68.2% of the students in the first-year writing class (n=88) reported writing no more than half a page per week in their high school English classes. 42.1% reported writing 2 or 3 lines per week. Sadly, 11.4% of respondents reported having no experience of any kind writing English in high school. Additionally, when asked to define the types of writing they completed in their high school English class, 74% of the respondents answered that their writing assignments were primarily English to Japanese or Japanese to English translation.

Such as the case with most students finishing high school in Japan, the students entering the writing program being examined here do so with underdeveloped writing skills. As a result, the first year of the English writing program must take novice writers, and prepare them in one short year to be able to begin learning academic writing in the second year. Over time, the writing program that has been developed is highly effective in doing just that. The three components of the first-year writing program will now be examined.

Structured Extensive Writing

According to Paul Nation (2013), one of the leading experts on language acquisition, the time-on-task principle applies as much to writing as it does to the other skills. As such, every successful writing course for novices should include a lot of writing for fluency. In the first year of the writing program, the students will be expected to write a total of eight papers between 400 and 800 words. While having no maximum wordcount cap would allow for more writing practice, the 800-word limit provides the students with sufficient writing practice while at the same time encouraging them to be mindful of what information is most essential.

Another thing to consider when designing a writing program is the content of the writing. One option would be to allow the students to engage in extensive

free-writing activities where the students write about anything they like. While this has its benefits, there are other factors to take into consideration that make a more structured approach advisable. Research on language acquisition has shown that different types of texts make frequent use of different language features (Nation, 2013). As a result, if the language learners engage in a variety of writing activities that cover a wide range of language types, the students will more likely be exposed to a wider range of grammatical forms and vocabulary than if they engaged solely in free-form writing.

The following topics have been carefully chosen to provide the students in the first year of the writing program exposure to different grammatical structures as well as a wide variety of vocabulary:

First Semester
Project 1: University Plans
Project 2: My High School
Project 3: Favorite Person
Project 4: Original Short Story

Second Semester
Project 5: My Future Dreams
Project 6: Favorite Singer / Group
Project 7: Movie Review
Project 8: Important Things Learned This School Year

When describing their high school, the students use the past tense. When writing their movie review, they are required to write a synopsis of the movie's plot in the present tense. When detailing their dreams for the future, they use the future tense as well as phrases for expressing probability. Finally, in the project where students explain the important things they learned in their first year of university, they use a mixture of verb tenses. For example, they first explain what their expectations were entering university, and then contrast this with the reality of their school life. As well, they are encouraged to explain how these experiences will influence them as they move forward in their university career.

Additionally, these topics give the students the chance to experience a variety of writing conventions. For

example, when writing their short story, they are expected to follow the established conventions of a typical short story arc (opening, conflict, climax, resolution, and conclusion). While a detailed description of all the projects is outside the scope of this paper, it is believed that the breadth of language items, conventions and grammatical structures that the students are exposed to through these carefully curated topics is more beneficial than free-form writing alone.

Finally, when planning a writing program that focuses on developing fluency, it is important to make sure the writing tasks are not too difficult. Nation (2009) refers to this as meaning-focused output, and is accomplished here by providing writing activities that the students already possess experiential knowledge of. Six of the eight first-year writing projects are ones that the students can immediately begin writing without any research needed.

The remaining two projects have been integrated with a first-year class that teaches students how to conduct research (Townsend, 2018). In that class, students gather information on both a non-Japanese singer or group as well as a movie that they are somewhat familiar with, but are interested in learning more about. A worksheet is used as a guide, directing them on what kinds of information they should be researching. Once this worksheet has been completed, it is passed on to the writing teacher. The writing teacher then returns the worksheets to the students in the writing class who use the information as the basis for their writing project. The focus in the writing class is developing writing fluency though structured extensive writing on manageable, but varied topics.

Classroom Instruction

Initially, students are provided instruction on how the writing projects should be properly formatted. All projects must have five paragraphs: an introduction, three body paragraphs as well as a conclusion. Samples are given to the students which provide an easy-to-understand model detailing such important things as margin specifications, font type and font size, spacing requirements, et cetera. Students are also provided instruc-

tion and practice with the proper use of capitalization, indenting paragraphs, and punctuation. While much of this is a simple review for many students, for those students who have had little experience writing in English before university, this is very much needed.

As well, when a particular grammatical structure or writing convention is necessary for successful completion of one of the projects, instruction is provided in class to prepare the students. Again, useful models are provided, and the students engage in instructional activities conducted in pairs or small groups that help reinforce the instruction.

Finally, in each class a commonly-occurring problem is addressed. Some of these include instruction and practice with article and preposition usage, sequencing information, singular / plural, linking information as well as creating topic sentences. While these issues are common to all projects, whenever possible they are introduced when they have some direct relevance to the current project. For example, sequencing information is reviewed and practiced in preparation of the students writing their short stories when time-order words and phrases are essential.

For many students entering the department, proper formatting of English texts is something they have never had experience with. While the formatting specifications might change slightly in future classes, the first-year writing class provides a foundation that will be useful for future writing up to and including graduation dissertations. As well, the focus on commonly-occurring problems begins to address serious issues students have that can severely affect the quality of their writing. Addressing these problems in the first-year limits the amount of time that must be spent on them in the second year, when more important things can then be focused on.

Peer Editing and Teacher Check

The final component of the first-year writing class is the feedback students are provided to assist them in revising and improving future drafts. The first type of feedback is offered by the teacher after the completion of

the first draft. This teacher check serves two purposes. First, it allows for timely interventions if problems are identified. These problems could be with formatting, misunderstanding the theme, or problems understanding the conventions necessary for the topic.

Secondly, the teacher provides the students with follow-up questions that they can use to improve their paper. For each successive draft, the students must add approximately 200 words. Often, students are not sure where they should add additional information. The follow-up questions indicate to the student where they could expand their story. As well, they make the writer aware when parts of their paper are confusing, which allows them to revise these areas to make their paper more understandable. This early intervention by the teacher has proven useful in catching potential serious problems while they can still be easily addressed.

As well as the teacher check, each draft is checked by two classmates. In many respects this accomplishes the same thing as the teacher check, but allows for a wider spectrum of feedback. It is also very valuable for the students to gain perspectives and insights from their peers.

The peer editing is broken into two rounds, each with a distinct objective. In the first round, students are randomly assigned a partner and they exchange drafts. They read their partner's draft carefully and check it for mechanical problems. They should check for issues with formatting, punctuation, grammar, spelling or convention usage.

If they find an error, they should fix it. If something is potentially problematic, but the student does not feel confident how to proceed, they mark it for further consultation. After the students have had enough time to check their partner's draft, they engage in a counseling session where they take turns explaining the problems they found and how they can be fixed. As well, for those areas marked for further consultation, they should work together with their partner to resolve the issue. If the two of them cannot fix the problem, they are encouraged to ask the teacher for assistance. This first round of peer editing focuses the students on the explicit mechanical aspects of writing, and allows them to learn from each other.

In the second round, the students are randomly assigned a new partner. This time, the focus changes to content. Of course, if any previously undetected errors are found, they should be addressed. However, the main goal of the second round is to look for areas where the draft they are examining could be expanded. When reading their partner's draft, students are asked to look for areas that they would like to learn more about, or areas they find incomplete or confusing. Then, they are requested to write simple follow-up questions that allow the students to write additional information to make their paper more interesting, or clarify an area that is hard to understand.

This peer editing could be done as homework, but allowing the students time to negotiate with each other when considering how to resolve a problem makes it a worthwhile classroom activity. There are many benefits that peer editing such at this provides students in developing their L2 writing. As Rieber (2006) notes, "The very act of critically assessing someone else's assignment can cause students to assess their own assignments more critically. In other words, students can learn more from their review of another student's paper than they learn from a peer's review of theirs" (p. 325).

Conclusion

Over many years of trial and error, the first year of the writing program described above has developed into a very important introduction to English writing for students with underdeveloped English writing skills. It has proven effective in providing first-year students with the necessary foundation that allows them to more confidently handle the introduction of academic writing in the second year.

Each class is divided roughly equally between the three components introduced above. Classes generally begin with the classroom instruction component. Following this, peer editing is conducted on the drafts that were completed as homework. Finally, the students use this feedback to begin working on

their next drafts. They must finish the next draft for homework and have it ready to be checked by two classmates in the following class (or hand it in for grading if it is the final draft).

Writing an 8,000-word graduation dissertation would an extremely challenging task for any student. When those students are writing in their L2, and they are starting the process off as virtual beginners... it is a monumental task that needs to be handled carefully. The first-year writing class has proven very successful in providing students with the skills necessary to prepare for academic writing in the second year, and eventually complete their dissertation in their fourth and final year. It is a challenge, but the mix of these three components help the students develop the skills necessary to meet this challenge.

Students are introduced to a wide-variety of genres, given explicit instruction in various rhetorical patterns and conventions of English writing, as well as provided practice with many commonly-occurring errors. Furthermore, students are provided sufficient writing practice to improve their overall writing fluency. This provides a basis for the students entering their second year when academic writing is introduced, and they will be expected to synthesize material, quote sources, provide in-text references, and compile a Works Cited list. While this is still challenging, the foundation that was provided in the first-year of the writing program makes this transition less onerous.

References

Goldstein, D. (2017, August 2). Why Kids Can't Write. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from https://www.nytimes.com/2017/08/02/education/edlife/writing-education-grammar-students-children.html

Hilton, C., & M. Hyder (1992). *Getting to Grips with Writing*. London: Letts Educational.

Mulvey, B. (2016). Writing Instruction: What Is Being Taught in Japanese High Schools, Why, and Why It Matters. *The Language Teacher*, *40*(3), 3-8.

Nakanishi, C. (2006). *A Teaching Approach to Japanese College Students' EFL Writing*. Tokyo: Keio University Press.

Nation, I. S. P. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing*. New York: Routledge.

Nation, I. S. P. (2013). *What Should Every EFL Teacher Know?* Compass Publishing.

Reiber, L. J. (2006). Using Peer Review to Improve Student Writing in Business Courses. *Journal of Education for Business*. 322-326.

Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.). (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

The Nations Report Card - 2011 Writing Assessment. (2011). U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). Retrieved from https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/writing_2011/

Townsend, D. J. (2018). An integrated university language curriculum In P. Clements, A. Krause, & P. Bennett (Eds.), *Language teaching in a global age: Shaping the classroom, shaping the world.* Tokyo: JALT. 170-176.

Townsend, D. J. (2022). Reassessing the Level of First-Year Writing Students. *Shujitsu English Studies*, 39, 55-67.

Proposal of a Difficulty Estimation Method for Extensive Reading of General Books in English

Riho Sakaguchi
Masaaki Niimura
Mark Brierley
Shinshu University

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to validate a tool which will automatically predict the yomiyasusa level (YL) of texts in order to make it possible to practice extensive reading using books of unknown or uncertain difficulty. The study used web-based Coh-metrix software to analyse text, then Lasso linear regression and grid search cross validation to develop a model. The model predicted YL with a strong correlation of .91, which is better than the Flesch Reading index.

日本語概要

本研究では，YL の設定されていない一般図書を用いた多読学習を可能にするため，一般図書の YL を予測することを目的とした．YL に寄与するパラメータを調査し，そのパラメータを用いて線形回帰を行った結果，既存の難易度手法である FRE よりも YL の予測に適した手法になったが，高い予測精度であるとはいえない結果となった．その原因として，YL の予測に適したパラメータの選定ができていなかったことがあげられる．そこで，今後は YL の予測精度を高めるために，パラメータ選定方法の改善や Coh-Metrix で 算出されるパラメータ以外の検討を行う．

Extensive reading is a method for acquiring a foreign language by reading a large number of books in a relatively fluent manner. The aim is for readers to simply become engrossed in the text, which they read once only rather than repeatedly. Readers should enjoy rather than analyze the text. Sakai (2002) proposed three principles of extensive reading to help learners to continue reading a lot without falling behind: 1) Don't look words up in the dictionary; 2) Skip the parts you don't understand and move on: 3) Stop reading if it's boring. Therefore, in order to increase the effectiveness of learning through extensive reading, it is important for students to select books that are appropriate for their level and for an extensive reading program to be successful it is important to have a large number of books catalogued into a range of different levels.

Graded readers

Extensive reading libraries usually begin with the acquisition of graded readers that have been specially written or adapted for learners by limiting the vocabulary, or number of headwords, and often also by limiting the total number of words in the book. Publishers of graded readers assign levels or stages to their books, which will help learners to choose books that are appropriate for their level of reading proficiency. However, the standards used to determine the level of difficulty of a book differ from publisher to publisher. For example a stage 1 title from Oxford Bookworms may be as difficult as a level 2 Macmillan graded reader or a level 3 Pageturner.

Currently used methods for estimating readability

In order to unify the various standards used to assign levels, various researchers, reading support groups and companies have developed difficulty level estimation methods. The Flesch Reading Ease (FRE) index is a well-known example that is available as a tool in Microsoft Word and is expressed as a number between 0 and 100 (see Fujiwara, 2016). The higher the number, the more readable the text, and

the lower the number, the more difficult it is to read. The index is calculated on the basis of the number of words and syllables. The formula is shown below.

FRE = 206.835 - 1.015 × ave. words per sentence - 84.6 × ave. syllables per word

YL (yomiyasusa level) is a measure of readability for Japanese learners of English, defined by the SSS English Multilingual Reading Study Group, and is expressed as a numerical value from YL0.0 to YL10.0 (see Sakai & Kanda, 2005). The lower the number, the easier the text is to read; the higher the number, the more difficult the text is. This is an index based on the subjective opinions of a variety of Japanese learners who have read multiple books. Many learners in Japan use YL as a guideline for selecting books for extensive reading.

Several other scales of reading difficulty exist including the EPER levels, ERF levels and Kyoto levels but in this study we will have considered the YL and will compare our assessment of difficulty with the FRE.

Problems in learning to read a lot of books using extensive reading materials

One of the problems when practising extensive reading is that the number of graded readers is limited. Since the purpose of graded readers is to support beginners to read widely, there are many books with low YL levels, but at higher YL levels, the variety of graded readers decreases, and there is a gap between the most difficult graded readers, which are based on a vocabulary of around 3,000 words, and texts aimed at first-language adults which need a vocabulary of at least 6,000 words (Nation & Anthony, 2013). Even where graded readers are available, learners may want to read books that have not been specially written for them. In addition, publishers are steadily producing new graded readers that may need to be objectively assessed for their level.

For this purpose, it is necessary to set YL levels for general books that have not been divided into levels.

Previous studies

In a study by Hara (2020), a machine-learning-based difficulty estimation method is proposed to enable extensive reading with books that have not been assigned a YL. Hara's study focused on syntax and verified whether the ordering of parts of speech could be used as a new feature for estimating the degree of difficulty. The study suggested that syntax is insufficient as a parameter for estimating difficulty since the difficulty of a text appears to be related to various factors such as word difficulty and the length of the text as well as syntax.

Objective of the study

The purpose of our research is to estimate the difficulty level of general books by considering new parameters that contribute to the level of difficulty.

Method

Thus far, the YL of a book has always been determined subjectively. Our method sought to estimate the difficulty of general books by using objective criteria that could be expressed numerically. First we established parameters, then used these parameters to estimate difficulty by performing linear regression analysis. Examination of parameters contributing to YL

To examine the parameters that contribute to YL, we used the Coh-Metrix site (see Graesser, McNamara, Louwerse, & Cai, 2004). Coh-Metrix is a web-based software that quantitatively evaluates the linguistic features of texts. When Coh-Metrix analyzes a text, it calculates the scores for a total of 106 parameters in 11 categories. The categories used by Coh-Metrix and the parameters are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Coh-metrix categories and corresponding parameters

Category	Parameters
Descriptive	Number of paragraphs, sentences, words, average length of paragraphs and sentences, average number of syllables per word, etc.
Text easability	Narrativity, syntactic simplicity, cohesion, z-scores for specific word types, z-scores for paradoxes, additions, comparative conjunctions, etc.
Referential cohesion	percentage of overlapping nouns, percentage of overlapping arguments, percentage of overlapping content words, etc.
Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA)	Mean of Cosine Similarity, Standard Deviation of Cosine Similarity, etc.
Lexical diversity	content word type token ratio, measure of textual lexical diversity (MTLD) of all words, etc.
Connectives	incidence of all conjunctions, incidence of causal conjunctions, etc.
Situation Models	Occurrences of causative verbs, occurrences of causative verbs and particles, etc.
Syntactic complexity	average of modifiers per noun, minimum edit distance of headwords, syntactic similarity, etc.
Density of syntactic patterns	incidence of noun phrases, verb phrases, adverb phrases, etc.
Word information	average age of acquisition of content words, average of familiar content words, etc.
Readability index	FRE, FKG, etc.

As can be seen from the table, the readability index categories are calculated from existing difficulty estimation methods. Therefore, we considered them inappropriate for our analysis and excluded the parameters in this readability index category.

In this study, we input the first five hundred or so words from both graded readers and general books into Coh-Metrix, and calculated the score for each parameter. Since the number of words in graded readers is limited and may have different characteristics from those in general books, a test of the difference of the population correlation coefficients was performed. This is a method for verifying whether the two populations are different based on two sam-

ple correlation coefficients. The null hypothesis is that the correlation coefficients between the YL and a given parameter will be the same whether we are looking at graded readers or general books. A two-tailed test was conducted, as shown in the formula below.

$$\text{test statistic} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}\log\frac{1+rt}{1-rt} - \frac{1}{2}\log\frac{1+ri}{1-ri}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{nt-3} + \frac{1}{ni-3}}}$$

rt: Correlation coefficient for a graded reader between YL and the score for a given parameter

ri: Correlation coefficient for a general book between YL and the score for a given parameter

nt: Sample size of graded readers

ni: Sample size of general books

The p-value was obtained from the test statistic. If the significance level is set at 5 percent, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected for parameters with *p*-values less than 0.05. Therefore, we cannot say that there is a difference in the correlation coefficients between the graded readers and the general books. The fact that there is no difference means that the parameters can be treated in the same way for both types of books. Therefore, only the parameters for which there is no difference were obtained. Next, the acquired parameters and YL were evaluated. The parameter that has the strongest correlation with YL in each category was obtained, and linear regression was performed using this parameter.

Linear regression

Linear regression is the process of finding a formula that can describe the trends in a given data set. When an appropriate linear regression model is found, it is possible to predict the desired value from unknown data. There are several types of regression analysis, but some, such as multiple regression analysis, must be avoided because of the risk of over-learning, or over-adaptation to the data used to train the model. Lasso regression analysis is a means of suppressing this overlearning.

Lasso regression analysis suppresses overlearning by normalizing data using the sum of the magnitudes of the coefficients for each variable in the model. Therefore, the coefficients of explanatory variables that do not affect the objective variable have the property of being as close to zero as possible and can be used to select explanatory variables that affect the objective variable. Therefore, in this study, Lasso regression analysis is used to predict YL with the acquired parameters as explanatory variables and YL as the objective vari-

able.

Examination of the parameters contributing to YL

Coh-Metrix was used to analyze both general books and graded readers and compare data with the YLs. The correlation coefficients between the scores and YL calculated from the analysis were tested for differences in the population correlation coefficients between the graded readers and general reading books. From the beginning, the lexical diversity category was excluded because there were no corresponding parameter in this category.

Among the categories of parameters for which no difference was found, the parameter with the strongest correlation with YL was obtained for each category. The obtained parameters are shown in Table 2 and the scatter plots of YL and each parameter are shown in Figures 1 to 9 where the horizontal axes are YL and the vertical axes are the values of each parameter.

Total number of words

The parameter that correlated most strongly with YL in the descriptive category was the total number of words. This correlation is very strong, and the higher the YL, the higher the total number of words (See Figure 1). This corresponds to the findings of Holster, Lake and Pellowe (2017).
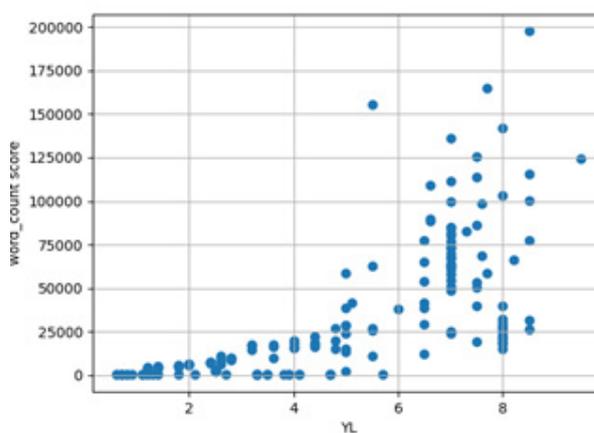

Figure 1

Word count

Z-scores for paradoxical, appositional, and comparative conjunctions

The parameter that correlated most strongly with YL in the text usability category was the z-score of paradoxes, additions, and comparative conjunctions. This indicates the extent to which paradoxical (but, however, etc.), additional (and, moreover, etc.), and comparative (although, whereas, etc.) conjunctions are used in a text compared to the mean for other parts of speech. The z-scores of these three types of conjunctions correlate with YL, and the z-scores of paradoxical, additive, and comparative conjunctions are found to increase as YL increases (Figure 2).

Figure 3
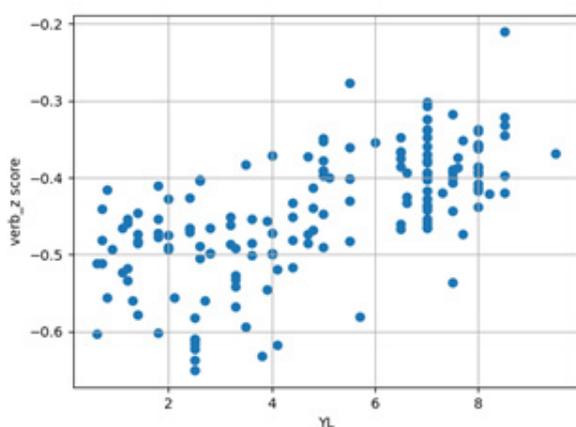
Content words

Figure 2

Z-score

Content word overlap

The parameter that correlates most strongly with YL in the referential cohesion category is the mean of overlapping content words in adjacent sentences. This indicates the extent to which the same content words are used in adjacent sentences. It is found to be correlated with YL, and the percentage of overlapping content words decreases as YL increases (Figure 3).
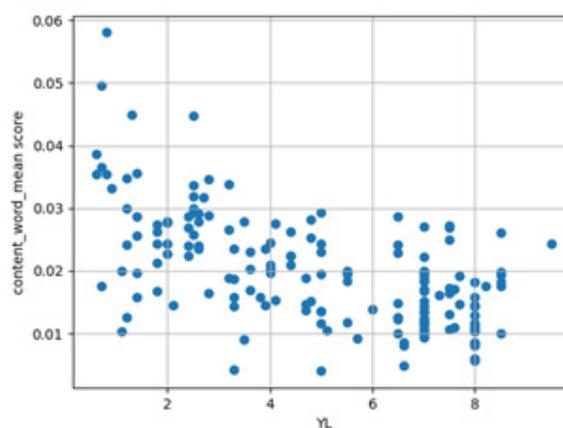
Cosine similarity in adjacent sentences

The parameter that correlates most strongly with YL in the LSA category is the cosine similarity in adjacent sentences. This measures how conceptually similar each sentence is to the next sentence. The correlation with YL is very weak (Figure 4).
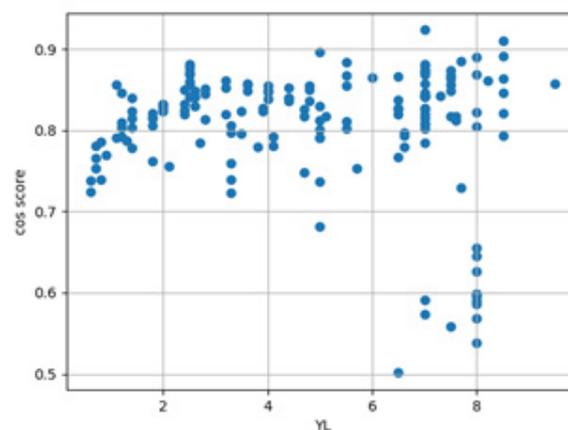

Figure 4

Cosine

Occurrence of causal connectives

The parameter that correlates most strongly with YL in the connectives category is the incidence of causative connectives. This indicates the percentage of causal connectives (e.g., because, since) among all parts of speech. It was found to be correlated with YL, with the percentage of causal connectives increasing as YL increases (Figure 5).
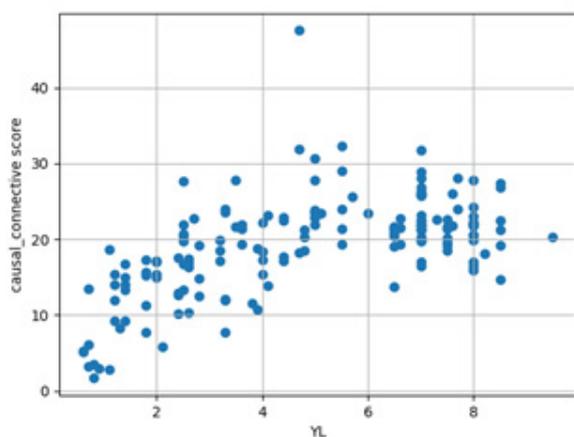
Figure 5

*Causal connective*

Percentage of causative verbs

The parameter that correlated most strongly with YL in the situation model category was the incidence of causative verbs. This indicates the percentage of causative verbs (result, lead, etc.) among all parts of speech. It was found to be correlated with YL, with the percentage of causative verbs increasing as YL increases (Figure 6).
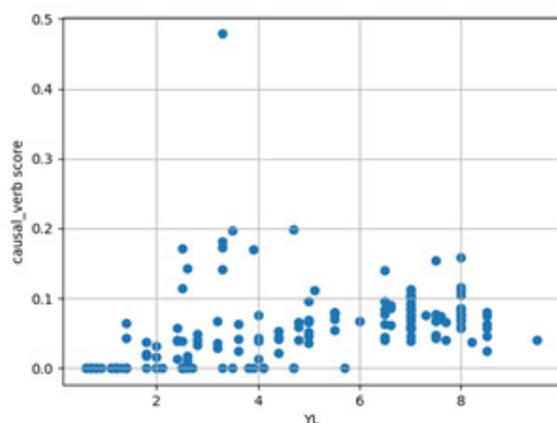
**Figure 6**

Causal verbs

Minimum edit distance of adjacent sentences by Lemma

The parameter that correlates most strongly with YL in the syntactic complexity category is the minimum edit distance of adjacent sentences by the lemma. The edit distance tells us how different two strings of words are,

calculated by the number of edits that must be made to convert one string into another. A lemma is a dictionary form of a word. It was found to be correlated with YL, and the higher the YL, the larger the minimum edit distance of the lemmas (Figure 7).
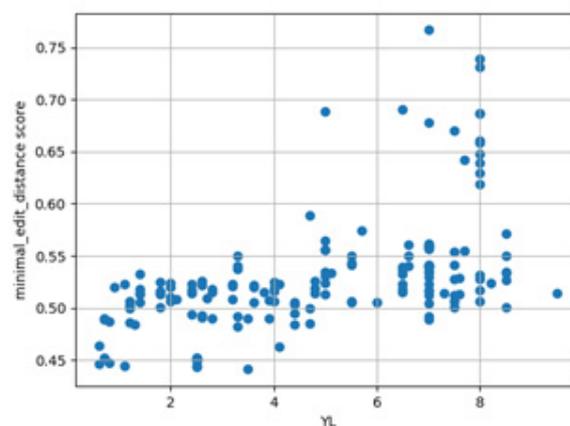
Figure 7

Edit distance

Verb phrase occurrence rate

The parameter that correlated most strongly with YL in the syntactic pattern density category was the occurrence rate of verb phrases. It was found to be strongly correlated with YL, with fewer verb phrases decreasing as YL increases (Figure 8).
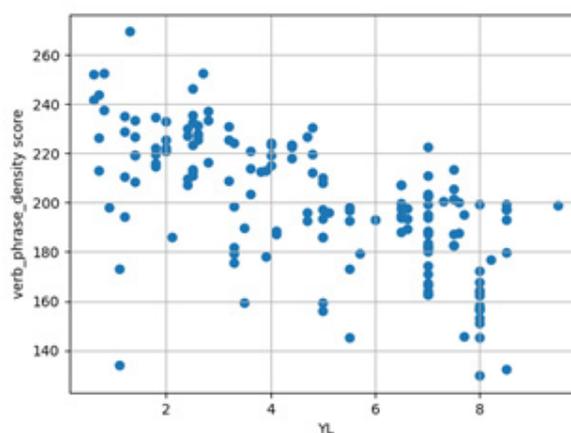
Figure 8

Verb phrase density

Average number of familiar content words.

The parameter that correlated most strongly with YL in the word information category was the mean of familiar content words. It is based on the MRC Psycholinguistic Database (n.d.), with lower values for unfamiliar words and higher values for frequently seen words. The correlation with YL was found to be very strong, with unfamiliar words becoming more common as YL increased (Figure 9).
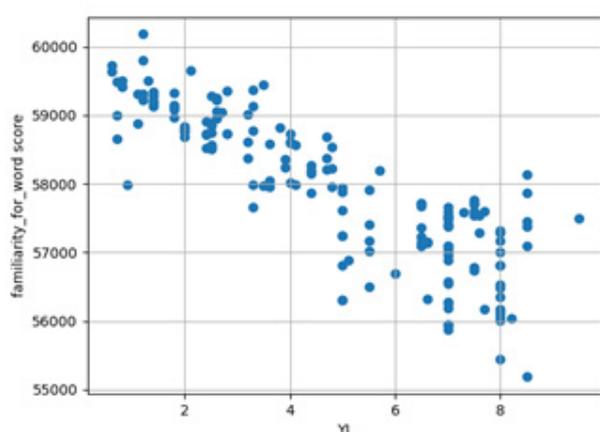

Figure 9

Word familiarity

Linear regression with parameters

Linear regression was performed with the obtained parameters as explanatory variables and YL as the objective variable. First, the data used for analysis was divided 4:1 into training and test data. Then, the training data was used for the analysis.

First, in order to determine the order of the model to predict YL, Lasso regression was performed with orders from 1 to 5, and the coefficient of determination for each order was calculated. The obtained coefficients of determination are shown in Table 3, which shows that the highest coefficient of determination is obtained when the order is 2, so the order of the model to predict YL is 2.

Next, we performed a grid search using cross-validation. Cross-validation is a statistical method to evaluate generalization performance, and grid search is

a method to find ways to improve the generalization performance of a model. The hyperparameters and other parameters with the highest accuracy are set by grid search, and the accuracy is evaluated by cross-validation. In this way, an optimal model for predicting YL was created.

Table 3

Order and coefficient of determination of the discriminant that predicts YL

Order	Coefficient of Determination
1	0.787
2	0.84
3	0.8
4	0.13
5	0.177

Results and discussion

A model to predict YL was obtained using Lasso regression analysis on the test data. The results are shown in Figure 10 where the horizontal axis is the actual YL and the vertical axis is the predicted YL.
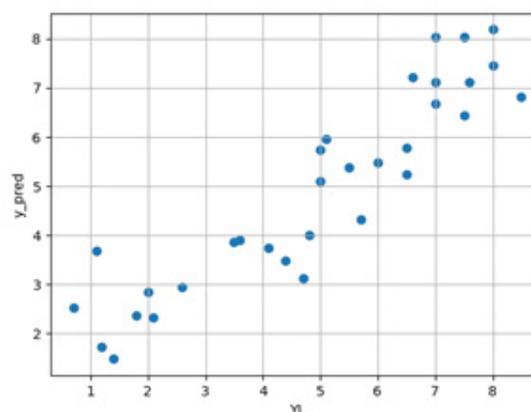

Figure 10

Actual YL and Predicted YL

Comparison with an existing difficulty estimation method

A comparison was also made between our method and FRE. We obtained the FRE of the test data and investi-

gated the relationship with YL. Figure 11 shows a scatter plot of YL and FRE. The horizontal axis in Figure 11 shows the actual YL and the vertical axis shows the FRE. The correlation coefficient between the actual YL and our predicted YL was .917, while the correlation coefficient between the actual YL and the FRE was -.650. A correlation of 1 or -1 would indicate a perfect match. From this, it can be said that our method is more suitable for predicting YL than FRE.
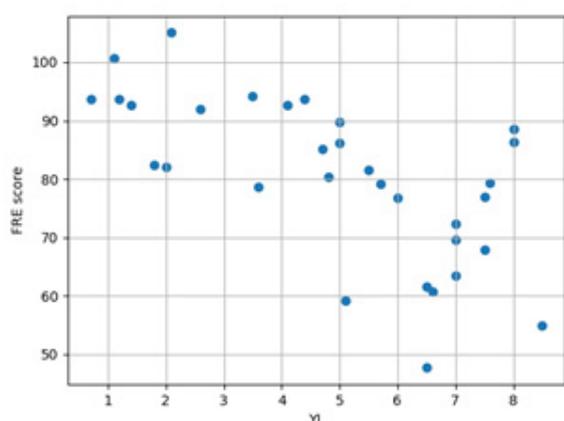

Figure 11

Actual YL and FRE

Prediction accuracy

In order to determine the degree of accuracy with which YL could be predicted, MAE (mean absolute error) and RMSE (mean squared deviation) were calculated. The MAE was 0.728 and the RMSE was 0.966 making RMSE/MAE 1.326. RMSE/MAE is an indicator of whether the forecasting model is able to represent the general characteristics of the data used in the training, and the closer it is to 1.253, the more accurately it predicts. In this study, RMSE/MAE was greater than 1.253, showing that a large number of data significantly missed the prediction, indicating that the prediction accuracy of YL was not high.

Conclusion

The method used in this study is more suitable for predicting YL than FRE. However, it was not able to predict YL more accurately than RMSE/MAE values. We believe this is due to the parameters used in the linear regression. As can be seen in Figures 1-9, there were few parameters that had a very strong correlation with YL,

making it difficult to increase the accuracy of YL prediction. In order to improve the accuracy of YL prediction, we will improve the parameter selection method and consider parameters other than those calculated by Coh-Metrix in the future.

References

Fujiwara, I. (2016). レクサイル指標の位置づけと計測方法 [Methodology of Lexile Index and Its Foundation]. *Kansai University Foreign Language Education Forum, 15*, 41-55, 2016.

Hara, Y. (2020). 機械学習による一般図書の多読向け難易度推定手法の提案 [*A proposal of difficulty estimation method for extensive reading of general books by machine learning*]. Graduation thesis.

Holster, T. A., Lake, J, and Pellowe, W. R. (2017). Measuring and predicting graded reader difficulty. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 29*(2), 218–244. http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/October2017/articles/holster.pdf

Graesser, A. C., McNamara, D. S., Louwerse, M. M., & Cai, Z. (2004). Coh-metrix: Analysis of text on cohesion and language. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers, 36*, 193-202.

MRC database. (n.d.) *MRC psycholinguistic database*. The University of Western Australia. https://websites.psychology.uwa.edu.au/school/mrcdatabase/uwa_mrc.htm

Nation, P. & Anthony, L. (2013). Mid-frequency readers. *Journal of Extensive Reading, 1*, 5-16.

Sakai, K. (2002). 快読100万語! [*The way to 1 million words*]. Tokyo: Chikuma Shobo.

Sakai, K. & Kanda, M. (2005). *1,000,000 English words read in the classroom: Recommendations for extensive reading classes*. Tokyo: Taishukan Shoten.

Reflections on the Effects of Free Writing in an EFL Writing Class

Edo Forsythe
Hirosaki Gakuin University

Steven G. B. MacWhinnie
Hirosaki Gakuin University

Abstract

Japanese university students are often required to perform free writing activities in their EFL classes to encourage and build confidence in writing in English. Free writing activities in this research are writing freely about a given topic for a set time. The authors have had their students do free writing activities throughout the course of 2 years of English composition courses and analyzed the quantitative effects of such activities. This paper explains the free writing activity tasks used, then provides quantitative data to show the participants' progress in EFL writing in terms of the number of words written per minute. Despite the commonly accepted notion that free writing improves language learners' writing abilities, the data did not demonstrate increased writing fluency in terms of being able to write more in a given timeframe.

日本語概要

日本人の大学生は、英語で書くことの自信をつけさせるため、EFL　の授業でフリーライティングを行うよう求められることがよくあります。　本研究のフリーライティングは、与えられたトピックについて、一定時間、自由に書くことです。　著者らは、2　年間の英作文授業の過程で大学生にフリーライティングを行わせ、定量的効果を分析しました。　この論文では、使用されるフリーライティングのタスクについて説明し、次に、参加者の　英作文の進捗状況を　1　分あたりの単語数で示す定量的データを提供します。　自由な作文は語学学習者の作文能力を向上させるという一般的に受け入れられている概念にもかかわらず、データは、特定の時間枠でより多くの文を書くことができるという点で、作文の流暢さの向上を示していません。

In many cultures, the idea that practice makes perfect is a given truism. Language teachers have long applied this idea to the practice of foreign language writing, and in the 1980s Jacobs' (1986) concept of quickwriting and Fox and Suhor's (1986) free writing formalized that idea. That concept developed into the current practice of free writing that Li (2007) defined as, "writing quickly for a set time from ten to fifteen minutes, just putting down whatever is in the mind, without pausing and worrying about what words to use, and without going back to modify what has been written" (p. 42). Rivers (2007) further clarified free writing as writing continuously for a set time without pausing, thinking, or correcting. Darling (2018) explained that free writing could be either guided—with a teacher-defined topic—or unguided—with a student-chosen topic. Recently, language teachers in Japan have used free writing activities to encourage learners' confidence and fluency in foreign language writing (Azizi, 2015; Baba & Nitta, 2014; Darling, 2018; Muller, 2014a, b; Rivers, 2007).

Even though free writing is a long-standing practice in foreign language education, its efficacy has not been thoroughly researched in the Japanese university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning context (Ferreira, 2013). This study aims to address that gap in research by exploring whether Japanese university students' EFL writing abilities improve over time through the regular practice of free writing in their language classes. Basing its methods on that of Azizi (2015), Baba and Nitta (2014), and Muller (2014a, b), this study assessed the participants' writing fluency based on the number of words per minute (WPM) that they wrote in numerous iterations over the research period. The research question that guided this study was, what is the effect of incorporating free writing activities in

Japanese university EFL classes on students' writing fluency as measured by their words-per-minute produced?

Literature Review

Jacobs (1986) recommended using quickwriting as a means to help students develop ideas and practice expressing ideas without the students worrying about content or form, or about overthinking the topic (p. 282). However, a closer reading of Jacobs' research shows that there were mixed results to this practice (p. 284). Fox and Suhor (1986) found that free writing encouraged the learners to write in less formal language, but that the practice did not "automatically produce better writers" (p. 35). Later, Elbow (1998) recommended free writing because it improved a writer's ability to write more fluently due to them not having to worry about being judged for making mistakes.

Bello (1997) recommended free writing as one of two approaches to improving EFL writing skills, the other approach being process writing, and used free writing as a springboard to more extensive process writing (p. 2). Jacobs (1986), Fox and Suhor (1986), and Bello (1997) seemed to view free writing as an activity to warm up the learner's creativity and writing abilities before engaging in more focused writing development activities. Li (2007) provided a strong rationale for the use of free writing to promote students' general academic skills (p. 51), but did not focus on using free writing to improve writing fluency. These are only a few examples of the existing research into free writing in language learning, but the authors feel that they are representative of the conflicting views about its efficacy in the EFL classroom.

In a Japanese university EFL context, free writing has certainly been recommended for teaching EFL writing (Ohno, 2002), even in the face of strong reluctance due to lack of teacher confidence (Iseno, 1991) and some skepticism in the process (Rivers, 2007). One reason for this skepticism might be that Japanese high school textbooks were not using free writing to improve students' English writing abilities as the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) recommended (Kobayakawa, 2011). Also, few Japanese

high school students are given experience with free writing (Darling, 2018). This lack of familiarity with free writing carried over into university EFL classes, therefore, Bradley (2013) stated that the lack of free writing experience of Japanese university students in EFL also extended to Japanese-language writing, so there would be little expectation of L1 to L2 carry over to support the efficacy of free writing in EFL (p. 9). Bradley recommended a mixed approach to EFL writing instruction that included simple and well-explained free writing activities, and Rivers (2007) recommended free writing as a tool to improve Japanese university students' creativity in writing as well as in oral communication with little demands on the teacher for preparation or feedback.

Following these recommendations, several instructors have used free writing in Japanese EFL writing classes—including the authors of this study. Muller (2014a, 2014b) evaluated the use of free writing in Japanese EFL classrooms in both high school (2014a) and university settings (2014b). In the high school-based study, Muller analyzed the number of words produced as a measure of fluency and found that the students did not increase in the number of words produced over the course of the semester. However, Muller's (2014a) students responded positively to the free writing activities and stated that they felt that their writing had improved. Muller (2014a) provided several recommendations for making free writing more effective, such as providing topics that students are interested in and making the process communicative by having students share their writing with partners (p. 25). These recommendations align with those proffered by Herder and King (2012) for applying free writing in a high school extensive writing program as a means to improve learner confidence in their writing. Herder and King used words per minute (WPM) as a measure of student writing fluency and saw modest improvement in their study results in an 11-week study (p. 129). Herder and King also found that students reported a feeling of positive improvement from the free writing activities (p. 130).

Muller (2014b) continued to explore free writing at the university level and found that the participants had an "overall positive evaluation of free writing…in relation

to the results obtained" (p. 29). Muller's (2014b) study found that through a year of weekly free writing activities, there was no significant difference in the number of WPM produced (p. 33). Considering the time limits for the free writing activities, Muller (2014a, 2014b) used both 5-minute and 10-minute writing periods and found no evidence that more writing time equated to more WPM (p. 34); so longer periods of writing do not necessarily equate to greater productivity in this sense. Baba and Nitta (2014) also explored the effects of regular, 10-minute free writing on a given topic with two Japanese university students over a 30-week longitudinal study. As with Herder and King's (2012) study, Baba and Nitta (2014) found that the average WPM of the participants fluctuated weekly, but the data indicated an overall upward trend in the number of WPM (pp. 15-23), contradicting Muller's (2014b) findings but with a vast difference in the number of research participants. Baba and Nitta (2014) did recommend repetitive free writing practice as a way to improve writing fluency over the course of a semester or even longer if possible (p. 30).

Azizi (2015) continued the exploration of free writing in Japanese EFL settings with research similar to Muller's (2014b) in an attempt to encourage the students' tolerance for ambiguity in language learning and to build the learners' confidence (p. 84). Azizi (2015) analyzed the WPM of the participants' computer-based free writing activities over a 9-week class term and unlike previous similar research, found an average improvement of 43 WPM among 36 Japanese university student participants (p. 86). When considering student perceptions of free writing, as with Muller's (2014b) study, the participants in Azizi's (2015) study expressed positive feelings toward the efficacy of free writing activities in their EFL classroom. Relatedly, in Darling's (2018) study of using free writing journals in Japanese university EFL classes, the students had only positive comments and felt that the activities helped them improve their writing fluency (p. 22).

Regarding the topics used in free writing, Muller (2014a) found that students prefer to be given a topic to write about and Darling (2018) reported that participants were okay with either teacher-provided or self-selected topics (p. 22). Ferreira (2013) explored whether it was more beneficial for students to use self-selected topics in free writing with Japanese university students. Ferreira compared the participants' free writing samples in terms of Bonzo's (2008) General Fluency Index instead of the WPM comparison, so it is difficult to compare the results with existing research discussed above. However, Ferreira (2013) found that participants seemed "to express themselves with a larger variety of words when asked to write about topics of their own choosing. That is, they appear to be more fluent according to the fluency index used…for this research" (p. 304).

Free writing as a language improvement activity has been used for decades to varying degrees of success, but one theme that seems to be constant across the current research among Japanese university students: they feel that free writing helps improve their writing fluency even if the quantitative data does not always bear that out.

Methods

Participants

The participants of this study were 73 first- and second-year students at a private university in northern Japan. As the data was collected over the course of two years, one cohort of private university students participated in the project for two consecutive years. Also, 68 first-year students at a public, national university in northern Japan participated in the study. The private university students were English-language majors and the public university students were majoring in a wide variety of subjects. Informed consent was obtained from all of the participants at the beginning of the study period and students were given the option to opt out of the study at any time.

The private university students were enrolled in a required English writing class in which the timed writing was a required part of their course work. The public university students were enrolled in a required English Writing (Intermediate) class that focused on improving EFL writing ability and used free writing as a way to practice different writing styles.

Data collection

All of the free writing done in this study was done in the classroom by hand. In the private university setting, students were given a worksheet with three different topics for that week's free writing assignment (see the Appendix for full list of topics). Topics in the writing assignments were based on topics that were covered in the course textbook, *American Headway* (Soars & Soars, 2016), or on slightly more difficult topics related to content the students were expected to have encountered throughout the year at university or recent news headlines. A variety of topics was provided with the intention of accounting for both student ability and students' interests as recommended by Baba and Nitta (2014).

Students were instructed to choose a topic and then to write about the same topic for two weeks' worth of free writing activities. Students were given 10 minutes for the free writing exercise. Students were allowed to use dictionaries for the free writing, but they were told not to use machine translation. At the end of 10 minutes, students were instructed to count the number of words they had written and write that number at the bottom of the worksheet before submitting it to the researcher. Private university participants completed a total of 17-20 free writing activities in this study.

In the public university setting, the researchers used the textbook *Writing for Fluency and Accuracy* (Boon, 2017) and within that textbook are free writing exercises on given topics (see Appendix). The participants wrote on those topics for 5 minutes at first, then reviewed their writing with a partner and discussed it. The instructor then provided some explanation about the genre being practiced before the participants wrote again on the same topic for 10 minutes from scratch. When a third free writing was done in the lesson, the participants were given 5 minutes to write about their partner's opinion and comments about the lesson topic. After each free writing activity, the students counted their words and noted the total word count and calculated the WPM in a chart provided in the back of the textbook. At the end of the semester, the students who agreed to participate in the study were asked to submit a photo of their free writing chart

for quantitative analysis. Public university participants completed a total of 15-16 free writing activities in this study.

Data analysis

The data for all of the participants was compiled into a spreadsheet to calculate average WPM for the two cohorts and to create the graphs provided below to chart the participants' progress individually and collectively across the term of the study. Based on previous research practices in investigating free writing efficacy (Azizi, 2015; Baba & Nitta, 2014; Muller, 2014b), the authors focused on analyzing the participants' WPM data to assess whether the free writing activities were having a positive effect on their writing fluency. When little observable improvement was noted, the private university students' data was analyzed using paired t-tests to determine whether a statistically significant improvement could be found.

Results

Private university participant results

For the cohort that completed two years of free writing activities, their WPM increased from 6.36 to 7.78 (n=35) (Figure 1) over the first year. In the second year their WPM began at 7.34 and decreased to 7.30 (Figure 2). While the first year generally showed a small increase (about 14 words for each assignment), this increase was not maintained in the second year, with students' WPM remaining fairly stable throughout the second year of the study.
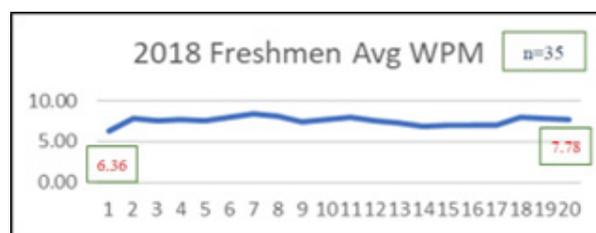

Figure 1

Chart of 2018 private univ. Freshmen average WPM across 20 free-writing activities
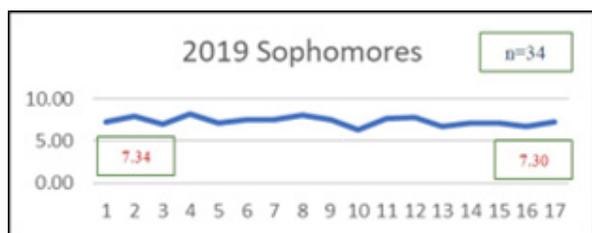
Figure 2

Chart of 2019 private univ. Sophomores average WPM across 17 free-writing activities

For the 2018 sophomore cohort, there was a small increase in WPM of 5.49 to 7.04 (n=25) (Figure 3). This indicates an increase of about 15 words per free writing over the course of the year. As stated above, this was not found to be statistically significant. The 2019 freshman had similar results with a starting WPM of 4.64 and a final WPM of 8.64 (Figure 4). This accounted for an increase of 40 words per assignment over the course of the year. This also was not statistically significant.
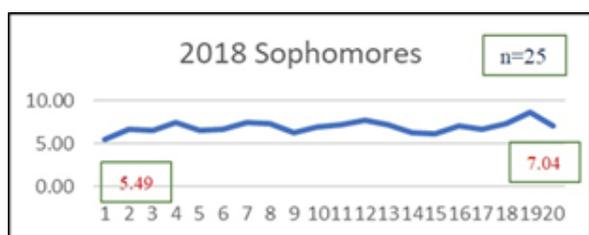

Figure 3

*Chart of 2018 private univ. Sophomores average WPM across 20 free-writing activities*
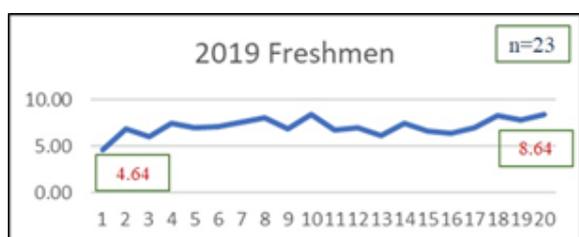
Figure 4

Chart of 2019 private univ. Freshmen average WPM across 20 free-writing activities

Statistical analysis was performed in an attempt to identify significant changes over the course of the study. First, paired t-tests were applied to evaluate the changes in students WPM from each set of same topic free writing activities. No statistically significant results

were found. Next, further t-tests were done to assess students WPM at the start of the term, and at the end of the term (week 1 and week 10), again, no statistically significant results were found. This analysis was repeated for week 1 and week 20, and then week 1 and week 37 for the cohort who completed two years of the project. No statically significant results were found. Further, the data was edited to include only those students who had completed all free writing in the first year, and then those students who had completed all free writing in the second year, and then all students who had completed the free writing activities entirely for both years in an attempt to try to find some statistically significant increases in WPM in free writing. In all cases, no statistically significant results were found.

Public university participant results

The public university participant cohort data was collected over two years in a total of three classes. The 2020 freshman cohort's (n=9) WPM decreased slightly from 11.7 to 9.24 (Figure 5) over the semester. The 2021-year cohort was split across two classes. In freshman class 1 (n=29), their WPM began at 8.14 and increased to 10.12 (Figure 6). Public freshman class 2 (n=30) had an even slighter increase in their WPM averages from 7.14 to 7.29 across 15 weeks of research (Figure 7).
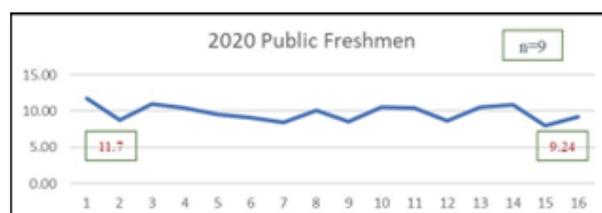

Figure 5

*Chart of 2020 public univ. Freshmen average WPM across 16 free-writing activities*
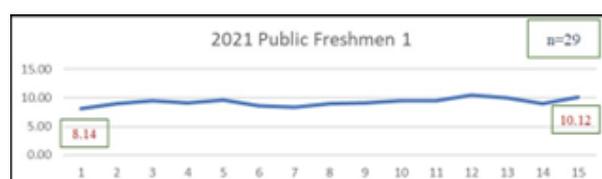
Figure 6

Chart of 2021 public univ. Freshmen class 1 average WPM across 15 free-writing activities
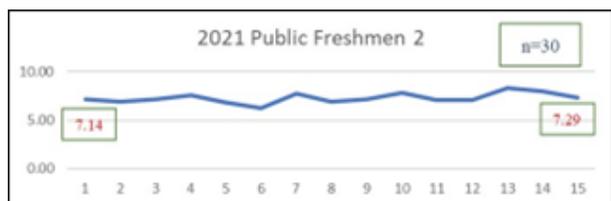
Figure 7

Chart of 2021 public univ. Freshmen class 2 average WPM across 15 free-writing activities

In none of the public university cohorts did the overall average WPM increase significantly through a semester of regular free writing activities. Paired t-tests were not done on the public university participants' data due to the fact that observable WPM data suggested that a paired t-test would provide no additional valuable results.

Discussion

As seen in Azizi's (2015) and Baba and Nitta's (2014) research, this study found small increases in WPM after a semester or more of free writing activities for many of the participants. However, these increases were not statistically significant nor consistent across all or most participants as some of the average WPM totals decreased after a semester of practice, as was also seen in Muller (2014b). Looking at individual participant data in an attempt to find some positive results to report, the researchers noted that while some students were able to increase their WPM consistently over time, others did not; in some cases, the free writing WPM decreased over time. The reasons for this cannot be determined from the numeric data. The research question guiding this study was, What is the effect of incorporating free writing activities in Japanese university EFL classes on students' writing fluency as measured by their words-per-minute produced? The data showed that there is no significant benefit to including free writing activities in EFL classes in terms of increases in students' WPM produced.

Limitations

In using WPM as a measure of the participants' writing proficiency, the researchers did not address the fact that there are varying ideas of what constitutes a word. It is possible that as students wrote more often, they used longer, more difficult words but that would not have been apparent in their counting of words. Future research could address this by training participants to follow Carver's (1976) recommendation that a word be considered 6 characters at the university level (p. 197). Additionally, the researchers realize that topic selection might have added a confounding variable to this study, in that students may not have had a topic of interest to choose from, thereby causing them to have less to write about, or conversely familiar topics might have allowed participants to write more quickly because they did not have to think too deeply about what to write. Future studies into free writing should consider what effects that the topic might have on the participants' text production.

This study did not analyze comments from the participants about their feelings about the efficacy of free writing activities as Azizi (2015), Darling (2018), and Muller (2014b) did. Given the evidence from existing literature about student perceptions of the benefits of free writing, future research into student perceptions of free writing would help to clarify the efficacy of such activities in EFL contexts. Also, none of the research discussed herein except for Ferriera (2013) analyzed the text of the participants to determine whether improvements in textual cohesion, grammatical accuracy, or vocabulary employment were observed after long-term free writing practice. Such research would certainly provide valuable insights into the benefits of free writing in EFL classrooms, so the authors encourage other researchers to continue to pursue those avenues.

Conclusion

Free writing is a commonly used activity in language classes (Bello, 1997; Elbow, 1996; Muller, 2014a, b; Rivers, 2007). Existing literature (Azizi, 2015; Herder & King, 2012; Muller, 2014b) used words-per-minute (WPM) as a measure of writing fluency in assessing the benefits of free writing, and this study attempted to duplicate their research. This study of the efficacy of free writing activities in a Japanese university context investigated whether participants' average WPM increased over a longitudinal study of regular free writing tasks in EFL classes. The participants of this study were 73 private university English majors and 68 public university stu-

dents from a variety of majors, all participating in their first or second year of university. The data collected was the word counts of free writing activities conducted in classes and the data was analyzed longitudinally to explore whether increases could be seen over time. Similar to Muller's (2014b) research, no significant increases in WPM were seen in any of this study's participant cohorts over a long period of free writing practice. Even though Azizi (2015) and Baba and Nitta (2014) found slight increase in WPM and positive student impressions of free writing, the efficacy of free writing in Japanese EFL classes has not yet been firmly established by this or other studies and additional research is necessary and encouraged.

References

Azizi, E. (2015). Word count matters: Increasing EFL learner's writing fluency through freewriting. *Kokusaigaku Kenkyu*, *4*(1), 83-89. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/10236/13145

Baba, K. & Nitta, R. (2014). Phase transitions in development of writing fluency from a complex dynamic systems perspective. *Language Learning*, *64*(1), 1–35. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12033

Bello, T. (1997). *Improving ESL learners' writing skills* (ED409746). ERIC. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED409746.pdf

Bonzo, J. D. (2008). To assign a topic or not: Observing fluency and complexity in intermediate foreign language writing. *Foreign Language Annals*, *41*(4), 722-735.

Boon, A. (2017). *Writing for fluency and accuracy*. Tokyo, Japan: Cengage Learning.

Bradley, N. (2013). Approaches to writing and the Japanese university context. *Language and Culture: Bulletin for the Institute for Language Education*, *26*, 1-15. Retrieved from https://taweb.aichi-u.ac.jp/tgoken/bulletin/pdfs/NO26/01p1-15Bradley.pdf

Carver, R. P. (1976). Word length, prose difficulty, and reading rate. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *VIII*(2), 193-203. Retrieved from https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/10862967609547176

Darling, M. (2018). Using freewriting in journals to improve written fluency. *Encounters*, *6*, 19-27. Retrieved from https://core.ac.uk/display/233128817

Elbow, P. (1998). *Writing without teachers*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Ferreira, D. (2013). Researching the effects of students' self-selected topics on writing fluency. *Ferris Letters*, *48*, 297-306. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/6241332/Researching_the_Effect_of_Students_Self_selected_Topics_on_Writing_Fluency

Fox, D., & Suhor, C. (1986). Limitations of free writing. *The English Journal*, *75*(8), 34-36. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/819077

Herder S., & King, R. (2012). Extensive Writing: Another fluency approach for EFL learners. *Extensive Reading World Congress Proceedings*, *1*, 128-130. Retrieved from https://erfoundation.org/proceedings/erwc1-Herder-King.pdf

Iseno, K. (1991). Free writing instruction. *Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan*, *2*, 73-82.

Jacobs, G. (1986). Quickwriting: A technique for invention in writing. *ELT Journal, 40*(4), 282-290. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/249252394

Kobayakawa, M. (2011). Analyzing tasks in Japanese high school writing textbooks: English I, II, and writing. *JALT Journal, 33*(1), 27-48. Retrieved from https://jalt-publications.org/files/pdf-article/art2_14.pdf

Li, L. Y. (2007). Exploring the use of focused freewriting in developing academic writing, *Journal of University Teaching & Learning Practic*e, *4*(1), 40-53. Retrieved from http://ro.uow.edu.au/jutlp/vol4/iss1/5

Muller, T. (2014a). Implementing and evaluating free writing in a Japanese EFL classroom. In T. Muller, J. Adamson, P.S. Brown & S. Herder (Eds.), *Exploring EFL Fluency in Asia* (pp.163-177), London, England: Palgrave Macmillan. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/304987593_Implementing_and_Evaluating_Free_Writing_in_a_Japanese_EFL_Classroom/

Muller, T. (2014b). Free writing in medical ESP: Exploring issues of research methods for intact classroom research. *Journal of Liberal Arts and Science University of Toyama*, *42*, 29-37. Retrieved from https://core.ac.uk/reader/84136915

Ohno, A. (2002). Considering strategies for teaching English writing. *Sōgō Seisaku Ronshū* [Comprehensive Policy Collection], *2*(1), 113-118.

Rivers, D. (2007). Free-writing as an expressive communication tool for Japanese English Learners. *The Language Teacher*, *31*(11), 9-12.

Soars, L., & Soars, J. (2016). *American headway series*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Appendix

Private University Class Free Writing Topics

There are ten sets of question topics. Each set was used twice (once per week for two consecutive weeks) for a total of 20 free writing sessions. The same topics were used in the first and second year of the project.

Set 1: Hobbies, favorite game / sport, favorite movie

Set 2: School days, clubs, part-time jobs, favorite holiday

Set 3: Foreign country to visit, studying at university, favorite food

Set 4: Where you want to live, favorite book, school trips

Set 5: Weekend activities, favorite TV show, pets, animals

Set 6: Summer vacation, North Korea problem, celebrities

Set 7: Birthdays, aging society, concerts

Set 8: Halloween, global warming, Japanese comedians

Set 9: New Year, declining birthrate, musician 'idols'

Set 10: Spring break, age of adulthood, internet of things (IoT)

Public University Class Free Writing Genres and Topics

Unit 1: Narrative Paragraphs: Interesting things about me; About their partner

Unit 3: Descriptive Paragraphs: My friend; About their partner's friend

Unit 5: Compare and Contrast Paragraphs: Two popular pets; Comparing self and partner

Unit 7: Cause and Effect Paragraphs: My study habits; Classmate's study habits

Unit 9: Summary Paragraphs: A typical day summary

Unit 11: Opinion Paragraphs: Working in a group; Classmate's opinions

Effect of Illustrations on Engagement & Phrase Retention

Craig Armstrong

Kumamoto Health Science University

Abstract

Quickly-rendered blackboard illustrations are part of a teacher's toolkit. They simplify and amplify the message being communicated and kindle interest among students in the subject matter. During segments of transmissive teaching, these sketches are used in order to elevate the students above being mere passive observers and lure them into longer intervals of contemplation regarding a word's meaning and its potential forms and uses. While this widely-used and time-honoured technique has long seemed successful, an attempt at quantifying its merits is made in this study. Students attending similar lessons, with the main difference being the use or non-use of such illustrations, were surveyed to gauge the method's effectiveness. The data gathered suggests that these illustrations enhance student engagement and retention of targeted language.

日本語概要

黒板にイラストを素早く描くことは、教師にとって重要なツールのひとつです。生徒の興味を引き、伝えたいことをシンプルに教えることができます。伝達型授業では、生徒を単なる受動的な観察者から解放し、言葉の意味や潜在的な形、使い方についてじっくり考えさせるために、これらのスケッチが使用されます。このような手法は古くから広く使われているが、本研究ではその効果を定量的に検証することを試みた。本研究では、イラストを使用するかしないかの違いだけで、同じような授業を受けている生徒を対象に、この手法の有効性を調査した。その結果、イラストを使用することで、生徒の学習意欲を高め、学習した言葉を定着させることができることが分かりました。

I often use quick blackboard illustrations – many of which are humorous in intent - to clarify the meaning of a word or to increase student engagement in the classroom. Young learners tend to brighten when I draw, and adult students tell me that they find enjoyment not only in the completed drawings but also in observing the act of drawing itself. These positive reactions and comments led me to wonder whether these drawings had any measurable effect on students' retention of targeted language. Why do amateurish sketches attract their attention, apparently making them more receptive to the message?

Chandler (1994) writes that "information and meaning arises only in the process of listeners, readers, or viewers actively making sense of what they hear or see. Meaning is not 'extracted', but constructed." For meaning construction to happen, attentiveness is needed, and anecdotal evidence suggests that humorous drawings may be effective in boosting mental participation by learners. Mirror neurons, stimulated by witnessing what is done by others, are motor neurons, and that "the motor system is involved in understanding the actions and intentions of others." (Ferrari & Rizzolatti, 2014) Many of us watching Bob Ross in *The Joy of Painting* have mentally held a brush and constructed an image in our minds even before his landscape was complete. However, Chandler continues, as no message contains a single, fixed meaning, inconsistencies between the sender's intention and the meaning constructed by the receiver come about due to varying individual perspectives and expectations. What exactly is done by the receiver cannot be predicted. How can a teacher a) engage the students so that they become willing participants in the act of constructing, and b) guide them to construct the intended meaning?

On Engagement

Chandler's observation rests upon the assumption that the receivers are indeed active. Wolf worries that the modern reliance on quick results and immediate

gratification inhibits the precision and independent interpretant-building required in language learning, characterising the 'busy mind' of the 21st-century consumer as one whose attention is constantly divided between multiple screens and tasks.

> We're left with a more short-circuited brain… skimming is the new normal, and we're becoming browsers and word spotters… [The young] are no longer wanting to try, push risks and to put pen to paper as much. They're always passive, expecting the answer." (Wolf, M. in Milligan & Robinson, 2019).

Where Chandler expresses concern about what meaning is constructed, Wolf wonders whether any meaning is constructed at all.

Do low-tech blackboard sketches help to overcome this by calming and focusing minds? Further, can humorous drawings improve affective responses among learners? Balogh (2015) states that "it is now commonly believed that foreign languages can be acquired faster and more effectively when the learning experience is an enjoyable one". Certainly, humour is a powerful tool in the hands of a competent and prudent teacher. Freud said that humour can be used to reduce psychological tension caused by stress (Hadiati, 2018).

The argument for the use of simple, quickly drawn images is supported by the four maxims of Grice's Cooperative Principle, summarised by Raskin for the purposes of humour:

Maxim of Quantity: give exactly as much information as is necessary for the joke.
Maxim of Quality: say only what is compatible with the words of the joke.
Maxim of Relation: say only what is relevant to the joke.
Maxim of Manner: tell the joke efficiently (Raskin, 1985)

On Construction

Chandler (1994) explains that the subject, or the participants' view of it, can shape received meaning. In other words, how the message is transmitted is also a factor in determining the width of divergence between the intended meaning and the meanings generated by interpreters.

Modern media is replete with images and videos of professional polish which, even decades ago, would have been nearly inconceivable. These works, while completely valid in their own right, in general bear scant resemblance to the simpler art and effects which made up the pop culture imagery of past generations. Present-day works are criticised as flawless, one-dimensional and untouchable, with a tendency to leave the viewer "far too aware of the messenger to fully receive the message" (McCloud, 1993, p.37), requiring no additional effort to construct and comprehend. In contrast, McCloud says that, as details are eliminated, focus is brought upon specific details and, "by stripping down an image to its essential 'meaning', an artist can amplify that meaning in a way that realistic art can't" (McCloud, 1993, p.30). Horsburgh (1967) requires the following from drawings if they are to be considered a successful aid to language learning: they must be drawn boldly, they must be drawn with speed, and that symbolism and simplicity be favoured over realism and detail. While contemporary, lifelike art tends to engage the eye, uncluttered doodles engage the mind. Can simple drawings narrow this gap between message and meaning? Can "amplification through simplification" (McCloud, 1993, p.30) reduce the number of possible interpretations which are drawn from a given message?

This paper asserts that boldly rendered line drawings combined with tactful humour contribute to the agreeable epistemic environment valued by Balogh (2015) and by Li and Jia (2006), overcome the mental passivity of the students, and help to maintain their focus on the desired subject matter by removing the extraneous, off-topic stimuli contained in photography and overly detailed illustrations which often appear in textbooks and other teaching materials.

The following research question is addressed: Do simple, humorous illustrations improve students' engagement and retention of targeted phrases?

Method

In 2020, as part of the medical English language study curriculum at a Japanese nursing university, four

classes of second-year undergraduate students were taught how to ask a patient about their health-related complaints. Two classes were held in the spring semester, and the other two in the autumn. In both semesters, there was one class of nursing students and one of medical technology students. The two spring classes had 42 participants in total while there were 116 between the two autumn groups. The unusually large autumn class of 85 participants consisted of two classes of medical technology students which the university combined under its new Covid-19 prevention regime. Study area (nursing or medical technology) – not English level – determined which class the students were in.

For this particular lesson, the length of instruction (10 minutes) and time given for pair work practice (5 minutes) were the same for each of the four groups. The verbal and written instructions given to two of the four groups were supplemented with simple, humorous blackboard sketches, while the other two groups were presented with a blander presentation which was solely verbal and written (i.e., did not introduce any graphics). In both semesters, only one group received the humorous version with graphics.

According to the lesson, the correct interrogatives were:
What is the matter?
What is the problem?
What is the trouble?
What seems to be the matter?

What seems to be the problem?
What seems to be the trouble?
What happened?
All of these sentences may be roughly translated into Japanese as どうされましたか？

The above questions were separated into two groups: one to be used when a patient presents no glaring outward symptoms (e.g., a sore throat, a headache), and the other for times when the problem is evident, such as a conspicuously broken limb or a bleeding gash. The information was presented on the blackboard in the following manner:

The Non-Graphic Board

Correct pronunciation, focus word stress, and interrogative sentence intonation were explained, as was the interchangeability of the words matter, problem, and trouble. Students were asked to repeat each question two to three times. The four lessons to this stage were conducted similarly, with the one deliberate change being in the visual and oral presentation of the set of questions. Student attention, engagement, and affective responses in all four classes were, to all appearances, high. See Figure 1 for a depiction of the Non-graphic board.

The Graphic Board

For the 'non-obvious problem', the patient seeking treatment appears as a man of indeterminate age. No

Figure 1
Non-graphical Board

outward signs explicitly announce his complaint or reason for visiting the hospital. It is therefore incumbent on the hospital worker to elicit some explanation from the patient regarding his affliction or injury. As with the non-graphic group, the above six possible interrogative sentences were presented as appropriate for achieving that end. In the second panel, however, the victim is wounded in a most overt, grievous, and ridiculous fashion. Two details were considered vital in the humorous portrayal of this unfortunate person: that his injury be bloodless, and that his countenance be completely unaffected by the awfulness of his reality. The lack of blood and emotion each served a specific purpose. A display of blood would detract from the lesson in two potential ways: it would be superfluous to the joke, and it may distress sensitive viewers. Indeed,

Grice warned that any flouting of his maxims be done with care and in good taste (Grice, 1967). Further, his blank-faced composure, incongruously maintained in the second panel, exists to normalise absurdity – an indispensable ingredient in traditional comedy. This calm demeanour implies that he believes that presenting oneself at a medical facility in such a plainly farcical condition is in no way out of the ordinary. By these means, it is hoped that any shock or upset induced by the image be eliminated entirely, and that amusement be the sole reaction among students.

Seven days following the presentation, the students were given a slip of paper in class on which was a single question:
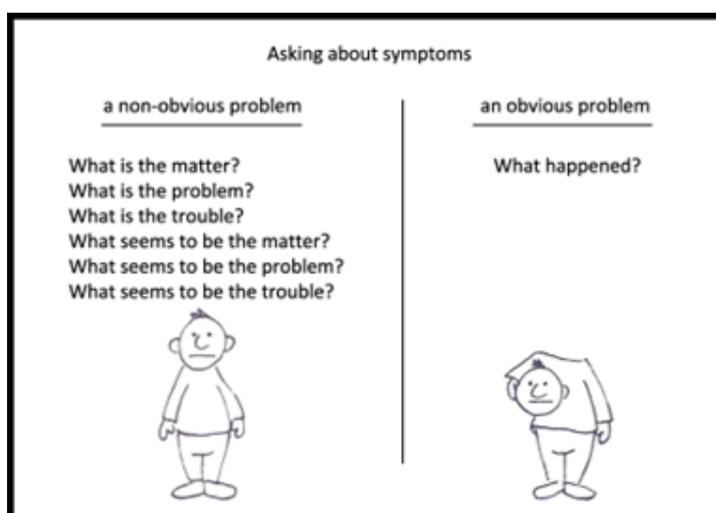

Figure 2
Graphical Board

What is どうされました in English?

Approximately 2 minutes were given for answers to be written. Participants were instructed not to consult their notes, textbooks, or each other during this short period. To remove extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000), it was made clear that their participation was voluntary and that their questionnaires would be anonymous. The slips were subsequently collected for evaluation, and after class they were sorted into two categories: *correct* and *incorrect*. Only answers which faithfully reproduced one or more of the seven interrogatives presented during the lesson were considered *correct*. All others were categorised as *incorrect.*

Results

The Spring Groups

The results of this binary appraisal regime were that the two virtually identical data sets produced a p value of 0.41 in a one-sided t-test. There seemed to be no appreciable improvement in the performance of the graphic group (See Figure 3). However, while rigidly classifying the responses as either *correct* or *incorrect*, two marked differences in the responses of the groups became apparent: their relative quality and the number of blanks. To quantify this, a second, more itemised look at the data was undertaken (See Figure 4).

Since acquisition of vocabulary precedes communicative competence, viewing answers as a simple *correct* or *incorrect* dichotomy was unhelpful, for it relegated respectable near misses to the same bin as nonsensical
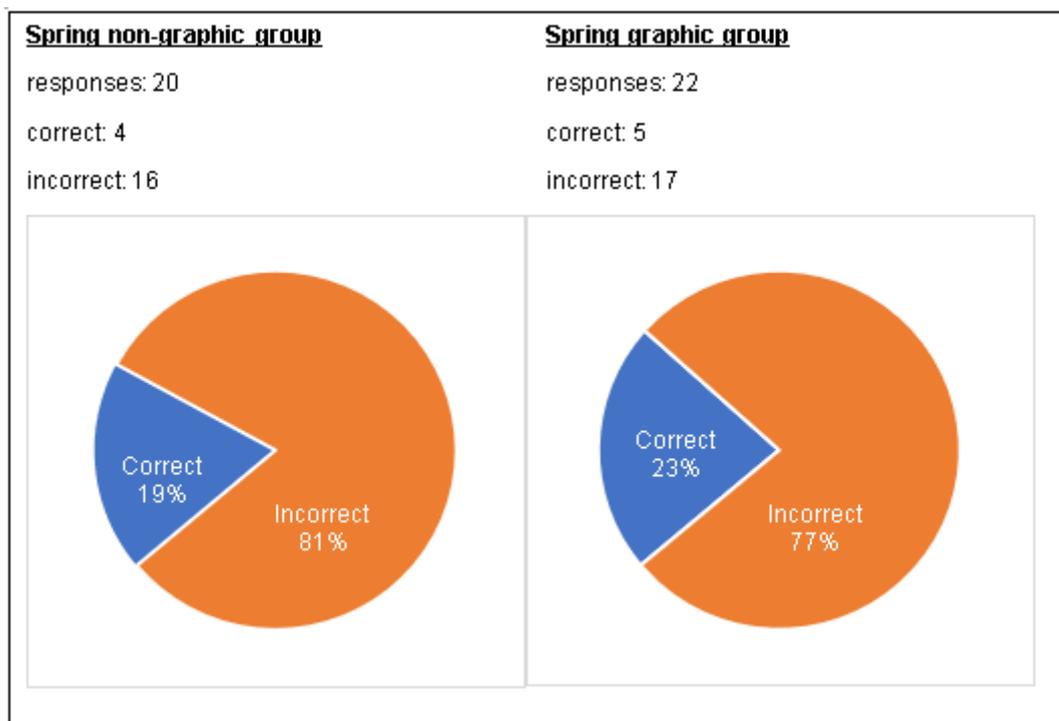

Figure 3
*First semester (Spring) questionnaire binary results*
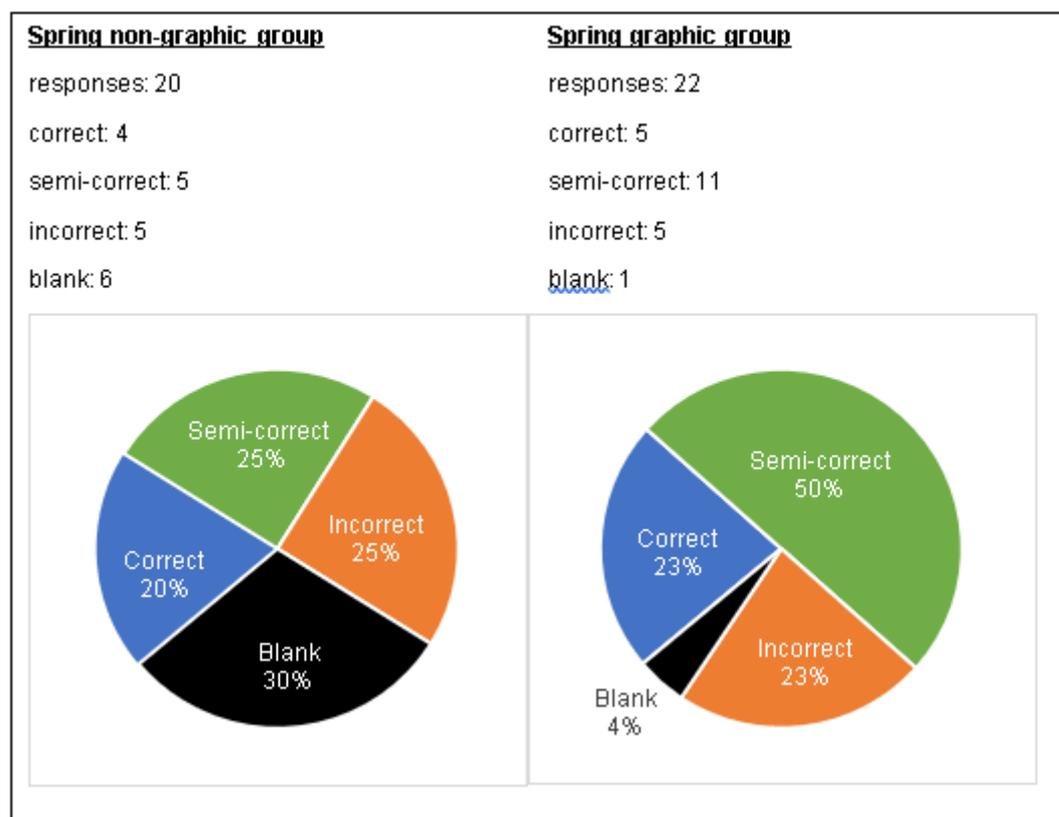
Figure 4
First semester (Spring) questionnaire subjective results

answers or blanks. There was in fact a noticeably larger number of incorrect yet coherent responses in the graphic groups which deserved some consideration. A means by which the comparative quality of the *incorrect* ones could be weighed was merited given the fact that they were not uniformly bad or incomprehensible. To that end, a reassessment of the data was carried out, one which would remove from the incorrect bracket submissions which contained enough correct vocabulary and grammatical structure to be understood by most any listener. This would thereby give a clearer picture of the overall relative correctness and understandability of the responses and what, if any, effect the inclusion of graphical element scaffolding in the lesson may have had on target language acquisition by the pupils.

Broadly speaking, imperfect yet comprehensible responses fell into two sub-categories: 1) nearly grammatically correct and 2) grammatically correct but inappropriate. Although flawed, these contained Chandler's building blocks from which the desired meaning may be reliably constructed by the listener/ reader. All answers which could be described in one of these two ways were given the classification *semi-correct*. Examples of these were:

1) nearly grammatically correct:
What's happen?
What the matter?

2) grammatically correct but inappropriate:
What is your problem?
What is the matter with you?

Answers which defied understanding were left categorised as *incorrect.*
What are you?
Do you find?

Finally, the number of uncompleted questionnaires was large, warranting them a classification of their own. Thus, in this second round of data analysis, blank non-responses, which had been counted as simply *incorrect* in the first accounting, were tallied independently and called *blanks*. These included pristine blank papers and those which had been written on, but

the response had either been erased or crossed out. By recording these non-responses independently as a fourth category, a clearer picture of the relative quality of responses between the two data sets became manifest.

This was an important development, for under this revamped categorisation structure, it became apparent that answers which were incorrect yet would likely be intelligible to an English-speaking patient were much more common in the graphic group. Conversely, the non-graphic group had more blanks.

Even in this four-category system, between the two spring groups the percentages of purely *correct* (20% and 23%) and *incorrect* (25% and 23%) responses were nearly the same. However, this is where the similarity ended. It was in the percentage difference between the two groups' *semi-correct* answers that the improvement was apparent, with fully half of the graphic group's responses being *semi-correct* while only a quarter of those of the non-graphic group qualifying as such. In short, the ratio was two to one.

In the non-graphic group, 45% of the responses were either *correct* or *semi-correct*, suggesting that meaningful communication would presumably be established between these students and an English-speaking patient on a first attempt less than half of the time. However, the graphic group achieved a much higher degree of success, producing questions which would theoretically elicit a desired response in nearly three-quarters (73%) of cases. Moreover, the graphic group submitted far fewer blanks, demonstrating that a greater proportion of these students possessed the confidence or at least a heightened inclination to put pen to paper.

It can be said, therefore, that while the overall number of binary *correct - incorrect* responses was nearly the same in the spring groups, the relative quality of the answers was superior in the graphic group, and the participants were more willing to engage with the questionnaire.

The Autumn Groups

Would the same lesson and questionnaire in the autumn produce a similar result? For the non-graphic group, the results of the binary *correct – incorrect* classification system in the autumn were nigh identical to the spring. While 19% of the spring group's responses were *correct*, the autumn group answered correctly on 20% of their questionnaires (See Figure 5).

The autumn graphic group did show a stronger *correct* result than the spring graphic group (29% vs. 23%). Although it is impossible to say with confidence what would account for the improvement, it may have been that, by the second semester of 2020, the students had become accustomed to wearing masks and being taught by a mask-wearing person (See Figure 6).

In the four-category subjective analysis, the results between the spring and autumn groups, both non-graphic and graphic, were comparable. The ratio of the sums of the *correct* and *semi-correct* groups across both semesters held firm. The spring non-graphic group's total of 45% was consistent with the autumn non-graphic group's 42%. Similarly, both the graphic groups' spring and autumn totals were in the mid-70 range (73% and 77%, respectively).

There was a noticeable change in the blank response category. Despite the fact that the proportion of blank responses had nearly been halved in the non-graphic autumn group (18%) from its spring counterpart (30%),
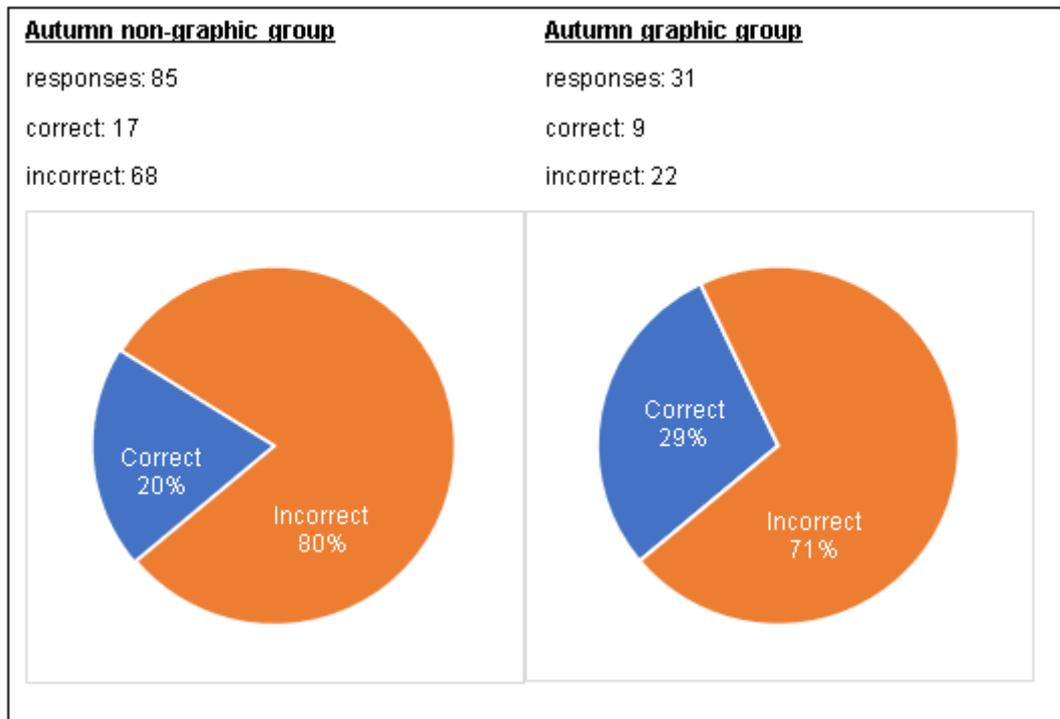

Figure 5
Second semester (Autumn) questionnaire binary results

Autumn non-graphic group

responses: 85

correct: 17

semi-correct: 34

incorrect: 19

blank: 15

Autumn graphic group

responses: 31

correct: 9

semi-correct: 15

incorrect: 5

blank: 2
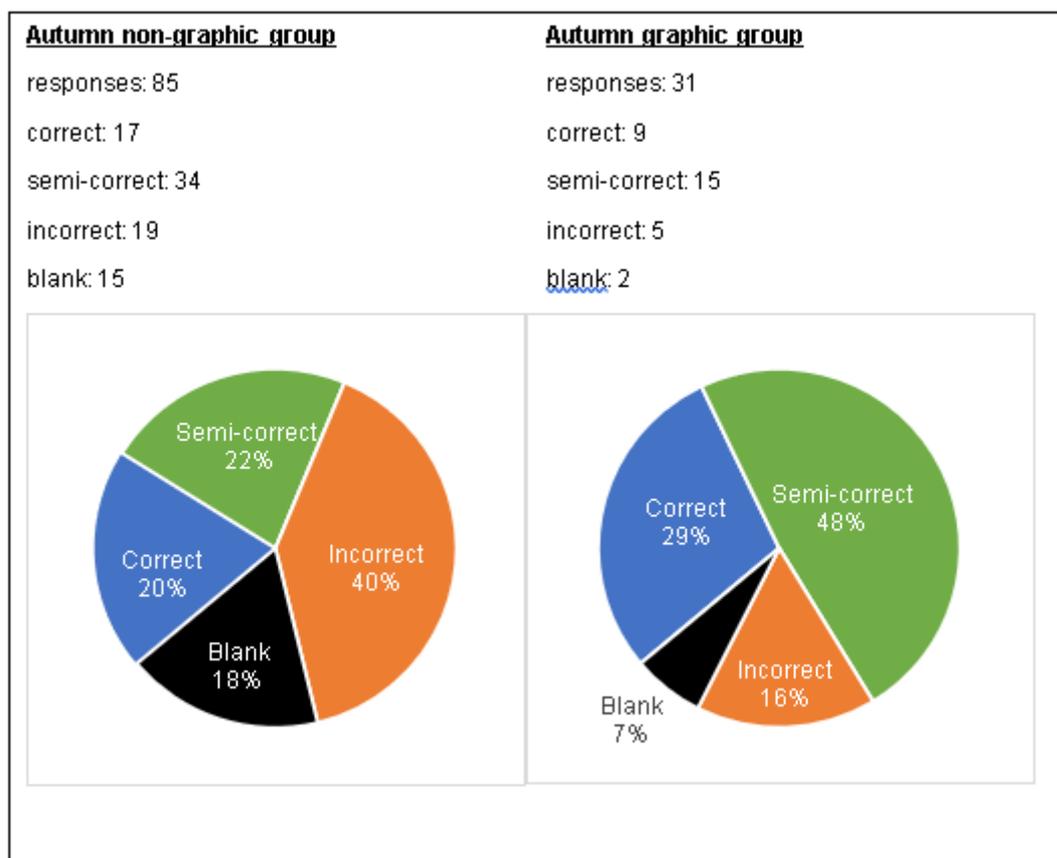
Figure 6
Second semester (Autumn) questionnaire subjective results

these percentages remained much higher than in the graphic groups (Spring: 4%, Autumn: 7%). Even in the autumn, when the gap between the non-graphic and graphic groups had substantially closed, the non-graphic group still had more than double the percentage of blank responses. The relative absence of blank responses in the spring and autumn graphic groups suggest that the humorous illustrations had made: a) the subject matter and subsequent questionnaire less daunting, and b) the participants more inclined to attempt a reply.

To answer the question "Did the graphic groups perform significantly better on the questionnaire?", a one-sided t-test was performed on the spring and autumn result totals. For the binary results, correct answers scored as 1, and incorrect answers were 0. The test gave a p value of 0.189, showing no significant difference. For the spring and autumn subjective result totals, two separate t-tests were done: one weighted for student questionnaire engagement, and one which was not. For the former, the following scores were assigned: cor-

rect = 3, semi-correct = 2, incorrect = 1, blank = 0. Incorrect scores were given a value of 1 to account for the fact that the participant attempted an answer. The p value of a one-sided t-test here was 0.006. For the latter t-test, scores were as follows: correct =2, semi-correct = 1, and both incorrect answers and blank questionnaires were scored as 0. The resulting p value was 0.024.

Discussion & Conclusion

Media-savvy youngsters recognise and disdain fakery in images in textbooks and in stock photos. The simplicity of line drawings allows the viewer to focus on the message being conveyed by the instructor rather than peripheral messages they may perceive in more data-laden imagery. A briskly-rendered illustration focuses the attention of the learner and, although providing ample space for viewer interpretation and construction, act as simplified and amplified guard-rails to direct them toward the intended message and knowledge. "By de-emphasizing the appearance of the physical world in favour of the idea of form, the cartoon

itself places itself in the world of concepts" (McCloud, 1993, p.39), where learners' intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000), stimulated by the pleasurable challenge of meaning construction through thoughtful observation of the instructor's act of drawing, can begin to grow. Intrinsic motivation has been associated with greater retention of key information (Guthrie et al., 1998), greater persistence in overcoming frustration (Deci & Ryan, 1982), and enhanced enjoyment (Cox & Guthrie, 2001). The latter two factors may help explain the increased engagement with the questionnaire among the graphic groups.

In contrast, fully realised artwork or photography neither forces students to fill in any blanks nor requires them to act rather than observe. The reduction of engagement caused by automation or by media imagery that is visually rather than mentally stimulating comes at a cost as we circumvent deep cognitive processing.

The tenets of Grice's first two maxims are satisfied by line drawings which are no more and no less informative than the explanation demands, and are economical and conducive to making the desired point clear. The third demands that they are relevant to the transitory conversational interests – the education and learning – of the participants. Extra information, which contains more steps of accomplishment between the maker and viewer, threatens to confuse the students by making them believe there was some point to the nonessential data. The fourth – the maxim of Manner - demands that obscurity of expression be avoided, brevity be sought, and the information be presented in an orderly fashion (Grice, 1967). The drawings' simplicity allows the viewer to skip the first cognitive step – that is, understanding the situation which the text describes - because one does not need to be educated to 'get' what an uncomplicated illustration is trying to convey (McCloud, 1993). Assisted by the framework provided by the illustration(s), observers are forced to fill in the blanks for themselves, and are able to move more rapidly through the steps of observing, perception, and interpreting and into meaning construction.

Humour falls within Grice's 'conversational implicatures'. It moves the conversation in a mutually accepted

and fixed direction – teaching by the instructor and learning by the student. Yet it challenges and explores the boundaries of the cooperative principle which Grice states participants agree to observe, and therein lies the stimulus.

> The most obvious function of humor is to create solidarity among the participants. Davies (1984) showed humorous exchanges are co-constructed, with participants taking up the humor produced by another speaker, elaborating on it, repeating it, commenting on it, or merely signaling their appreciation, thereby reinforcing it. (Attardo, 2017)

For viewers used to having media presented to them as a fait accompli, simple illustrations which change a relationship between the sign and its referent from natural to paradoxical or negative (Hadiati, 2018) – i.e., which are humorous – create signs which birth unique interpretants in the minds of their audience, enticing them into active attempts at construction of meaning. Cognitive psychology's generation effect – the act of calling something to mind, whether a word, sound, or picture – leads to better retention of information (Rosner et al, 2013).

Learners' responses in the graphic groups did improve. In the spring semester, the non-graphic group's responses were correct or semi-correct 45% of the time, while the graphic group's number was 73%. The autumn non-graphic and graphic groups were, respectively, 42% and 77%. Likewise, the learners' ability - or at least willingness - to engage with the questionnaire was higher. In both semesters, blank responses were much less frequent among the graphic group. Their ability to generate intelligible situational interrogatives, however imperfect, suggests they were inside Vygotsky's Proximal Zone of Development.

The subjective classification system aside, the data shows that a consequential difference between the non-graphic and graphic groups was the greater number of blanks among the former, and therefore the higher rate of questionnaire participation among the latter. This supports the proposition that simple, humorous illustrations engage the viewer, obviate the need for excessive explanation, alleviate class-

room tedium, and elevate the viewers into active and volitional participants who construct meaning even during periods of transmissive teaching.

It follows that a classroom language teacher ought to have or seek to gain some competency in drawing. Simplicity is key, so with practice, anyone can produce engaging illustrations which reduce the number of unintended interpretations made by learners.

References

Attardo, S. (2017, March 29). *Humor in Language. Oxford Research Encyclopedias.* https://oxfordre.com/linguistics/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780199384655.001.0001/acrefore-9780199384655-e-342

Balogh, Susanne (2015). An Extensive Reading and Extensive Listening Program in a Japanese Elementary School, *The 2015 PanSIG Journal*, *2*. https://pansig.org/publications/2015/2015pansigjournal.pdf

Chandler, D. (1994). *The Transmission Model of Communication* http://visual-memory.co.uk/daniel/Documents/short/trans.html

Cox, K.E. & Guthrie, J.T. (2001). Motivational and cognitive contributions to students' amount of reading. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 26*, 116- 131.

Davies, C. E. (1984). Joint joking: Improvisational humorous episodes in conversation. In C. Brugman, M.Macaulay, A. Dahlstrom, M. Emanatian, B. Moonwomon, O'Connor (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Tenth Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistics Society*, 360-371.

Deci, E.L., & Ryan, R.M. (1982). Intrinsic motivation to teach: Possibilities and obstacles in our colleges and universities *New Directions for Teaching and Learning.* 27-35.

Ferrari P.F., & Rizzolatti G. (2014) Mirror neuron research: the past and the future. *Philosophical Transactions*, 369. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4006175/

Grice, H.P. (1967). Logic and Conversation. In Cole et al (Eds.), *Syntax and Semantics 3: Speech Arts*, 41-58. https://www.ucl.ac.uk/ls/studypacks/Grice-Logic.pdf

Guthrie, J.T., van Meter, P.V., Hancock, G.R., Alao, S., Anderson, E. & McCann, A. (1998). Does concept-oriented reading instruction increase strategy use and conceptual learning from text? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *90*, 261-278.

Hadiati, Chusni (2018). *Humor in Some Linguistic Perspectives*, 1. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324795696_Humor_is_Some_Linguistic_Perspectives

Horsburgh, David (1967). *How to Use the Blackboard in Teaching English*. Orient Longman, 4.

Li, X., & Jia, X. (2006). Why don't you speak up?: East Asian students' participation patterns in American and Chinese ESL classrooms. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, *15*(1),192-206. http://web.uri.edu/ iaics/2006-vol-15-no-1/

McCloud, Scott (1993). *Understanding Comics: The Invisible Art*. Harper Perennial

Raskin, V. (1985). *Semantic Mechanisms of Humor*. Dordrecht: Reidel, 103.

Rosner, Z.A., Elman, J.A., & Shimamura, A.P (2013). The generation effect: activating broad neural circuits during memory encoding. *Cortex. 49*(7):1901-9.

Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L. (2000) Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology. 25*: 54-67.

Wolf, M. in Milligan, L. & Robinson, L. (2019). *The first generations of 'digi kids' are struggling with literacy as experts warn against screen time.* ABC News. https://www.abc.net.au/news/2019-11-11/screen-time-and-impact-on-literacy/11681026

Wolf, M. (2019). The Reading Brain: We Were Never Meant to Read [Conference Presentation]. *Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture Reykjavik, Iceland*, https://www.stjornarradid.is/media/menntamalaraduneyti-media/media/maryanne-wolf/iceland-lecture827final.pdf

Teacher Trainees' Opinions of the Viability of TBLT in Japanese High Schools

Joshua Brook Antle

Tsuda University

Abstract

For this study, teacher trainees spent nine weeks discussing and analyzing the merits of task-based language teaching (TBLT). They also experienced a TBLT lesson from the students' perspective. Qualitative data were collected which indicated the student's positive impressions of TBLT. They believed TBLT would lead to communicative English classes which would be motivating and enjoyable for the students. They also felt that the current entrance exam system is the main obstacle to using TBLT classes in Japanese schools.

日本語概要

この研究では、教員研修生が 9 週間かけ、TBLT のメリットについて話し合い分析した。 また、学生の視点から TBLT の授業も体験した。 TBLT に対する学生の肯定的な印象を示す質的データが収集された。 彼らは、TBLT が学生の意欲を高め、楽しいコミュニケーション英語クラスにつながると信じている。 また、現在の入試制度が日本の学校で TBLT クラスを使用する上での主な障害であると感じている。

Keywords: communicative; entrance exams; teacher trainees

The potential benefits of task-based language teaching (TBLT) include more communicative English classes, a higher level of student engagement and a more enjoyable experience for the students. In this study, teacher trainees discussed these merits and debated the viability of incorporating TBLT into Japanese schools.

Background

For this study, Willis' (1996) definition that "tasks are always where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome" (p. 23) is used. The appeal of TBLT is its focus on communicating meaning through oral interactions. Zieglar (2016) explains "TBLT, then, offers an ideal environment for negotiation, feedback, and output, thereby providing opportunities for L2 development to occur" (p. 139). In comparing TBLT and PPP (present/practice/produce), two forms of communicative language, Harris and Leeming (2022) found that TBLT produced more immediate increases in proficiency. However, both approaches resulted in improvement over a short period, and could prove equally effective over the long term.

While other communicative language teaching approaches are also effective for improving communicative competence in our students, TBLT offers other advantages. Holland et al. (2017) found that a task centered around student-created podcasts created a sense of autonomy and accountability in the students. Similarly, Kato (2019) found that students responded well to a TBLT methodology during tasks involving iPads.

The proficiency level of the students is a prime concern when choosing tasks. While certain tasks are best suited for higher proficiency levels, TBLT is quite flexible and can be successfully used for all levels. Rasuki (2016) states "task-based teaching allows teachers to design and implement instruction that best suits learners' needs and proficiency levels" (p. 7). Harris and Leeming (2022) similarly state "TBLT is argued to facilitate acquisition by allowing students to focus on language that they are ready to acquire, and also to consider multiple structures at a given time" (p. 3). As long as the given task is doable, TBLT allows students to use language at their current level while also testing out language at a slightly higher level. When working with lower levels, however, teachers must be aware of

the need for adequate scaffolding (Jackson & Ward, 2016; Harris, 2018). Harris also mentioned that teachers can use a weaker form of TBLT which is more similar to the typical Japanese teaching approaches. Brooks (2019) states "this weaker form of TBLT allows for much more flexibility and it is easier for Japanese teachers to integrate this type of TBLT into their existing classes" (p. 48). Numadate (2019) conducted a TBLT study using a job fair task, and she describes how TBLT offers great flexibility while also giving the students the freedom to use language of their choice. With suitable tasks and support, TBLT is appropriate for low-level students and can help them develop self-efficacy as they can use their language resources to successfully complete the task through communicating meaning (Willis, 1996).

In addition to oral communication, TBLT can also be used to teach grammatical structures. In Willis' framework (the pre-task, the task, the post-task), the final stage is an opportune time to practice grammar. The post-task is a suitable time for students to look at errors they made during the task or unknown language which might have been helpful during the task. The language the students study in the post-task will be beneficial if the task is repeated (Harris & Leeming, 2022). Zieglar (2016) also notes TBLT provides "opportunities for learners to be active participants in the task: to notice their errors, modify their output" (p. 137). The belief is that students will be more receptive to grammatical instruction after having gone through the task and noticing gaps in their knowledge.

The main obstacle for implementing TBLT on a larger scale in Japan is the importance of entrance exams. Researchers (Butler & Iino, 2005; Littlewood, 2007; Sato, 2009) have claimed that TBLT is not suitable for test preparation. Harris (2018) states "it is argued, TBLT does not allow focus on discrete test items" (p. 141). Harris and Leeming (2022) describe the current environment for English education by stating "the focus on testing that is a feature of secondary school education in Japan creates an environment where students often strive for accuracy at the expense of fluency or the simple enjoyment of using language" (p.6). However, Brooks (2019) believes

The solution to many of these problems is not to avoid using TBLT in the Japanese English language classroom, but to rather scaffold it in a way that meets the needs of our students. Teachers need to be aware of their students' expectations and the potential problems Japanese students may experience when doing tasks in the classroom. (p.49)

Another important consideration for implementing TBLT in Japan is the teaching material needed. In many cases, teachers spend considerable time creating or adapting material for TBLT lessons (Harris, 2018). It is particularly challenging for teachers to create materials which are suitable for lower-level students which also follow the framework outlined by Willis (1996).

If TBLT is to be more widely used in Japan, it will be necessary to convince both in-service teachers and teacher trainees that TBLT is an effective methodology that they can realistically use in their classrooms. Harris (2018) notes "there has been very little work done on the beliefs of teachers who are actually carrying out TBLT in foreign language classrooms in Japan" (p. 142). While this study will focus on teacher trainees, hopefully it will provide insight into the concerns of future teachers regarding TBLT.

Procedure

Qualitative research with thematic analysis was used for this study. The participants were 35 fourth-year seminar students who will mostly be future English teachers at junior high schools and senior high schools in Japan. These students have a relatively high level of English proficiency. Several had study abroad experience, and they were able to understand the majority of the course material. The data were collected over three years from three separate seminar groups (approximately 12 participants each year). This seminar met once a week for a 90-minute lesson. For this study, only the first term (the first nine weeks) was used for data collection. The nine classes were organized as follows:

Class 1 – introduction and one chapter from a pedagogical TBLT text

Classes 2 and 3 – one chapter each week from the ped-

agogical TBLT text

Classes 4 to 8 – one academic article about TBLT each week

Class 9 – example TBLT lesson

During the first three weeks, the seminar teacher/researcher for this study led the class in a pedagogical discussion of TBLT using Willis' (1996) textbook 'A Framework for Task-Based Learning'. In each of the following five classes, an academic article was assigned as homework; the students were required to read the article for the following class. Additionally, two or three students were assigned the role of class leaders. They wrote a summary of the article, created discussion questions based upon the article and led class discussions. The final class was an example TBLT lesson conducted by the seminar teacher; this lesson's purpose was to give the seminar students the experience of a TBLT lesson from the perspective of students. After the nine classes, the students completed a structured reflective paper containing six open-ended items which are also the research questions for this study. The items are as follows:

RQ 1. Do you think Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) is a viable approach for English education in Japan?
RQ 2. Do you think TBLT is a suitable approach for low-level learners?

RQ 3. What do you think are the strengths and weaknesses of TBLT?

RQ 4. How could you incorporate TBLT into English classes in Japan?

RQ 5. Do you think TBLT would affect student motivation?

RQ 6. Do you plan on using TBLT in the future?

The students were instructed that they could reference articles, class discussions and personal experience when answering the questions. They were free to respond in any way they felt appropriate, but they

had to support their points and explain their opinions. They were also told to imagine themselves as English teachers. The researcher felt that the students' English proficiency level was at a high enough level to both understand the articles and respond to the items on the structured reflective paper.

Findings

Each of the research questions will be addressed individually. For each question, I will indicate how many participants responded in the affirmative whenever possible. This will be followed by the themes which were identified and quotations from participants corresponding to those themes. An analysis of the findings will be presented in the Discussion and Conclusion section of this paper. The numbers in parentheses following the student comment refer to the year and the participant number.

1. Do you think Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) is a viable approach for English education in Japan?

From the responses collected, 27 of the participants answered in the affirmative while eight students answered in the negative.

Justification - Affirmative

TBLT can stimulate communication.

> "I believe that by working together with several students on a task, they can strengthen their communication skills". (22-08)

> "TBLT seems difficult to introduce, but it is not. All it takes is for the teacher to take the stance of supporting the students from input to output of English with various activities, rather than teaching grammar and vocabulary in a one-sided manner". (21-01)

Meaning over form is a good approach for Japanese students.

"If TBLT is introduced in elementary school, children can learn English through 'thinking', 'listening', and 'speaking'. (21-10)

"In TBLT, the goal is to complete a task and the emphasis is on the meaning rather than the accuracy. This approach can give students an experience that is similar to actual communication and develop their English skills". (21-07)

TBLT is more enjoyable for students.

"Japanese schools, especially in public schools, have to change the teaching method, in which students can join the class more actively, and have fun studying English". (20-16)

Justification – Negative

Teachers have difficulty in using TBLT.

"English education in Japan is basically based on teaching with textbooks and has been taught by teachers who mainly learned grammar-translation method in their school including universities". (20-08)

The importance of entrance exams makes TBLT problematic.

"It may be difficult for students to be aware of the merits of TBLT". (21-08)

"In my opinion, students are studying it in order to get scores on the exams". (20-15)

The burden on teachers to create materials is a concern.

"Teachers have to prepare materials and tasks to use in a class of task-based learning. It takes even more time and effort if the teacher prepares tasks that suit each level of student. Thus, it can be hard for teachers". (21-03)

2. Do you think TBLT is a suitable approach for low-level learners?

From the responses collected, 24 of the participants answered in the affirmative while 11 students answered in the negative.

Justification - Affirmative

TBLT will be motivating for the students.

"I also think that TBLT gives learners the confidence and motivation to accomplish tasks and get results at a level that is appropriate for them, because they will see a clear outcome". (22-02)

"When learners feel they can communicate in English, it would motivate them to learn English more". (21-05)

TBLT is a good approach for multilevel classes.

"Low-level learners can benefit by hearing what better students say. They can learn a lot from better students. Furthermore, better students can improve their language skills by explaining and paraphrasing for weaker students". (21-02)

"If we have a class with students of different language levels, pairing people with higher levels with those with lower levels may help the students to learn more effectively I think". (20-10)

TBLT is appropriate for low-level students.

"TBLT can be used as a good 'introduction to English learning', especially for 'low-level' learners, as it can be done to a certain extent without technical terms or knowledge, and can hone children's thinking and output skills". (21-10)

"TBLT helps them to rapidly acquire a basic stock of words and phrases and give them the opportunities and the confidence to use them". (20-16)

Students will feel it is okay to make mistakes.

"A class with tasks and activities is more likely to be remembered than a one-sided classroom lecture, and students are less likely to feel hesitant using the assigned language when it is needed". (21-01)

Justification - Negative

TBLT will lead to the L1 being used.

"When the tasks become more complex, students who do not have the confidence to speak English use Japanese more often during pair or group work". (21-07)

TBLT requires a certain level of English to work properly.
"The reason is that TBLT is an educational method that assumes that English can be spoken to some extent". (20-13)

3. What do you think are the strengths and weaknesses of TBLT?

Strengths

TBLT allows students to learn other skills.

"TBLT allows students to acquire skills that are useful in various aspects of life, such as communication, problem solving, and cooperation". (22-08)

Students learn English which is useful for real-life communication.

"Students get opportunities to use the target language naturally to complete the required task. They can interact with the language while they enjoy completing the tasks". (21-02)

"The strengths of TBLT is that it connects what happens in the classroom to real-world interactions". (20-16)

Meaning over form is emphasized.

"By not involving the teacher in the task more than necessary, learners acquire the ability to communicate and convey meaning rather than grammar". (22-02)

"Since grammar instruction is not given before the activity, learners are free to use whatever vocabulary and grammar they know to complete the task". (21-07)

Mistakes are okay.

"It allows learners to experiment and make errors". (21-08)

"The ability to practice mistakes once they have actually occurred is a strength in that it leads to greater improvements in accuracy". (22-02)

The structure of a TBLT lesson will help the students.

"The strengths are that TBLT has clear 3 stages: pre-task, task cycle, and language focus, so both students and teachers are able to understand how they should act in each stage easily, and it is an efficient way to learn". (21-05)

Weaknesses

There is a large burden placed on the teacher.

"The disadvantages were that it places a heavy burden on teachers, such as task management". (22-03)

"If they teach English using TBLT, they must spend a lot of time preparing materials". (21-03)

TBLT does not teach enough grammar.

"For better or worse, there is very little focus on 'grammar'. Grammar is an important element that forms the foundation of all skills, including speaking, writing, and listening". (21-10)

Assessment is difficult.

"In order to evaluate learners, teachers have to

watch each learner carefully, how much they try to use English, how much they improve their English and so on". (21-05)

"It is difficult for teachers to know who did and did not do an assigned task within the group". (20-15)

4. How could you incorporate TBLT into English classes in Japan?

For this item, many students responded with specific ideas for lesson plans. However, several students also mentioned government issued textbooks in their answers. In general, the students felt that because of the textbooks, TBLT could not be used in every class, but it could be used as a supplement to the textbook content.

> "Since teachers have to follow the textbook that schools or the government assigned, teachers cannot do TBLT all the time. So I think a good way to do task-based activities is after teachers finish teaching a whole section and have extra time to do it. Another way of incorporating TBLT is doing task-based activities which have a topic relevant to textbook contents". (20-14)

5. Do you think TBLT would affect student motivation?

From the responses collected, 32 of the participants answered that TBLT would positively affect student motivation while the other three students answered that it would negatively affect motivation because the tasks would likely be too difficult for the learners.

Achievable goals would positively affect motivation.

> "Task-based activities have a clear aim or goal which is easy to understand". (20-14)

> "Teachers should make them set achievable goals and to highlight student's success". (20-16)

> "TBLT gives students chances to have a sense of achievement". (21-05)

6. Do you plan on using TBLT in the future?

All but three of the students answered that they are planning on using TBLT in the future. The reasons for their answers are similar to the positive responses given for the previous research questions. The only caveat commonly mentioned was their ability to use TBLT while also spending enough time on the assigned textbook.

Discussion and Conclusion

The overall response to TBLT was largely positive. The participants agreed with the literature about the potential benefits of TBLT for Japanese students by commonly mentioning how it would stimulate conversations, allow students to communicate meaning in authentic situations and be both enjoyable and motivating for students. They also believed TBLT would be suitable for lower-proficiency students if the tasks were at a suitable level.

Their main concern was preparing their future students for entrance exams. While grammar instruction in the post-task stage is a part of Willis' framework (the TBLT lesson structure the participants were shown), they still felt that the focus on entrance exam preparation would be a major impediment to using TBLT in most classes. It should also be noted that in the example TBLT lesson conducted in the ninth class, the students were exposed to several grammatical exercises within the post-task stage. However, this stage accounted for only 25% of the total class time spent on this TBLT lesson. Other concerns about using TBLT included L1 use and a lack of materials.

If the current entrance exam system remains in place, it seems unlikely that TBLT would be used as the main teaching approach in Japanese classes. The participants in this study feel that TBLT would be effective in helping Japanese students become competent English speakers, yet they do not think it is possible to use this approach on a full-time basis due to the pressure of preparing students for entrance exams. A realistic compromise might be to include TBLT units within government-endorsed English textbooks. If the benefits of TBLT can be shown in various Japanese contexts,

the government might be more willing to make this change to the textbooks. By having every fourth lesson or so be a TBLT lesson, the students would be able to experience the benefits of TBLT and the teachers would not have to prepare materials. Moreover, these textbook units would require little preparation on the teacher's part, and they would, hopefully, be level-appropriate. While this compromise might be disheartening, it would represent a foothold for TBLT. In the future, with more influence, these teacher trainees may be able to use TBLT to create classes which are more communicative and enjoyable for the students.

Joshua Antle is an Assistant Professor in the English department at Tsuda University. His research interests include collocations and spoken fluency.

References

Brooks, S. (2019). Bridging the Gap Between Teacher and Student Perspectives of TBLT in the Japanese EFL Classroom. In S. Sasayama (Ed.), *Proceedings of the TBLT in Asia 2018 Conference*, (pp. 47-58). JALT Task-Based Language Teaching SIG.

Butler, Y. G., & Iino, M. (2005). Current Japanese reforms in English language education: The 2003 action plan. *Language Policy*, *4*, 25–45. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-004-6563-5

Harris, J. (2018). Responding to the critics: Implementation of TBLT in Japan. Indonesian *Journal of Applied Linguistics*. 8(1), 139-148. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v8i1.11473

Harris, J. & Leeming, P. (2022). The impact of teaching approach on growth in L2 proficiency and self-efficacy: A longitudinal classroom-based study of TBLT and PPP. *Journal of Second Language Studies*, *5*(1), 114-143. https://doi.org/10.1075/jsls.20014.har

Holland, S., Hayashi, P. & Rode, T. (2017). Student-produced podcasts: TBLT in action. In S. Sasayama and J. Harris (Eds.) *Taking It To Task*, *2*(1), (pp. 11-24). JALT Task-Based Language Teaching SIG.

Jackson, L. & Ward, D. (2016). Rethinking student presentations: A task-based language teaching approach to making short group smartphone documentaries. In S. Sasayama and J. Harris (Eds.) *Taking It To Task*, *1*(2), (pp. 9-19). JALT Task-Based Language Teaching SIG.

Kato, K. (2019). Task-based methods and iPad materials for active learning. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & P. Bennett (Eds.), *Diversity and Inclusion*, (pp. 369-377) Tokyo: JALT. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTPCP2018-49

Littlewood, W. (2007). Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms. *Language Teaching*, *40*, 243–249. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444807004363

Numadate, J. (2019). Authentic application of TBLT in Japan. In S. Sasayama (Ed.), *Proceedings of the TBLT in Asia 2018 Conference*, (pp. 38-46). JALT Task-Based Language Teaching SIG.

Rasuki, M. (2016). Integrating a genre-based approach and task-based instruction in teaching writing skills. In S. Sasayama and J. Harris (Eds.), *Taking It To Task*, *1*(2), (pp. 3-8). JALT Task-Based Language Teaching SIG.

Sato, R. (2009). Suggestions for creating approaches suitable to the Japanese EFL environment. *The Language Teacher*, 33(9), 11–14. https://jalt-publications.org/files/pdf-article/33.09-art2.pdf

Willis, J. (1996). *A Framework for Task-Based Learning*. Longman.

Ziegler, N. (2016). Taking technology to task: Technology-mediated TBLT, performance, and production. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *36*, 136-163. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190516000039

The Genre and Discovery Learning Approach to Teaching and Assessing Writing

Louisa POON Yin Ting

Mita International School/ British Council

Abstract

The process approach (Taylor, 1981; Zamel, 1982; Raimes, 1983) is the most commonly used approach to teaching writing. Since the approach covers from brainstorming to composing, it allows teachers to participate and give feedback in the writing process as a reader, before switching back to their role as a grader. However, it is debatable how much it benefits students, as it lacks focus on a particular skill (content, organisation and coherence, language, or writing style). This is notably valid with upper-intermediate or higher proficiency English learners, who tend to be weaker in just one or two aspects, but not all. This workshop will focus on applying the genre approach (Hyland, 2002) with application of the discovery learning method and collaborative writing, to the existing process approach. By minimising lecturing (where students discover the conventions and linguistic features with the teacher's guidance) and maximising peer learning (with more scaffolding than the process approach), students write as a group, receive instant feedback in a class, and eventually work individually. It is an approach addressing all skills step-by-step when teaching half/ one term with flipped learning.

日本語概要

プロセスアプローチ（タイラー1981年、ザメル1982年、ライムズ1983年）とは、ライティングを教えるにあたり最もよく使われる手法である。その手法はブレインストーミングから文章作成まで網羅するので、教師たちが採点者であるまえに読者として、ライティング作業の途中でフィードバックを与えることを可能にする。しかし、その手法は、特有の技能（内容、組み立て、統一性、言語やライティングスタイル）に焦点をあてないため、どれだけ生徒にとって有益かは疑わしいところもある。この問題点は、全ての分野でなく一つや二つの分野だけが劣っている中上級者や高い能力を持つ英語学習者にとっては顕著である。このワークショップでは、現存する手法にディスカバリーラーニング手法とコラボレイティブライティング（共同執筆）を応用し、ジャンルアプローチ（ハイランド2002年）に焦点をあてる。講義（生徒が教師の指導のもと、従来の慣習と言語学的要素に気づく）を減らし、ピアラーニング（プロセスアプローチよりも足場掛けに重点を置く）を最大限にし、生徒にグループで書かせ、クラス内で即座にフィードバックを受け、最終的には各自が各々作業をする。これは学期の半分、または学期の全てを反転授業にして、全ての技能に一つずつ取り組む手法である。

Teaching Writing and the Process Approach

In recent decades, the most dominant approach to teaching writing is arguably the process approach, as it is widely adopted in popular textbooks by a number of world-renowned publishers. The process approach (Taylor, 1981; Zamel, 1982; Raimes, 1983) recognizes writing as a cognitive process, instead of a mere act to produce a text as a product.

With a focus of emphasising that writing is a 'non-linear, exploratory and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning' (Zamel, 1983, p.165), a typical writing textbook would have one of the earlier chapters describing the benefits hence the importance of following the procedure of 'pre-writing, writing, post-writing', instead of a one-off 30-minute activity to students. Students are then supposed to brainstorm and/ or research for ideas, organise their ideas, then write their first draft. Self-editing and peer reviewing are common tasks which follow, and students would submit the second draft to their teacher, receiving feedback before writing their final draft.

One of the key concepts of this approach is the feedback between drafts being helpful in facilitating recursive planning, drafting, revising and editing (Flower & Hayes, 1981), with teachers' role shifting from a marker to a reader, meaning that they participate in the writing process. In addition, with the chance of having their earlier drafts read by more people, such as their peers,

students can reduce or hopefully even avoid blind spots with their writing.

Potential Weaknesses of the Process Approach

Regardless of the wide recognition the process approach has gained and the enormous research on it as an effective writing teaching method, it seems to work less effectively among L2 writers (Hyland, 2002). As Hyland argues, '[The fact that little hard evidence suggests that process-writing techniques lead to significantly better writing] is not really surprising, as "the approach" is actually many different approaches applied unevenly and in different ways' (2002, p.25). As mentioned above, writing textbooks typically take a descriptive approach to the steps of process writing, but little information concerning the role of the teacher as a facilitator is provided. With the added challenge of managing a class of students in a writing lesson, it is not uncommon that teachers end up focusing only on covering the basic structure of an essay, then setting time to ensure pre-writing, writing and post-writing take place, which makes the process contestably more linear than unguided writing, despite the fact that the process approach is theorised to encourage creative thinking while not downplaying the awareness of purpose of writing, its audience and context.

The feedback system also tends not to be ideal. In terms of students' attitude towards the feedback they receive, there is a tendency to disregard peer feedback, as many may doubt that their classmates are "proficient" enough to "correct" their writing, although the intention of peer reviewing is usually not about getting their work evaluated, but to receive opinions from readers on how communicative the text is (Cheng et al., 2015). Even feedback from the teacher may not promote recursiveness of the writing process. As feedback is often just one-way communication (teacher providing feedback to student), or at best back-and-forth communication between the teacher and the student, mostly asking for clarification of comments or rechecking of the corrections made, in many cases the final draft ends up being a copying task requiring students to rewrite or retype all the corrections their teacher has already made for them, when it is on the final stage of giving feedback, after students failing to self correct with reference to the teacher's colour code/ correction code.

In some optimistic cases, however rare they are, when the class size is more manageable, time is ample, and the teacher is more experienced in teaching writing, the teacher may attempt offering feedback which encourages critical thinking, which means not providing direct corrections. Still, providing feedback in such a situation can still be too complex, or even impossible, to deal with. For L2 writers, challenges of writing can be multifold, as a text can be problematic on different levels, ranging from failing to address the purpose/ fulfil the task to lacking linguistic clarity (see next section for more information). Studies have shown that even professional gatekeepers such as journal reviewers can be at a loss as to what to comment on (Shashok, 2008), as language teachers probably have developed a tendency to overcorrect a certain element while under-correcting the others, when being shown a text which is problematic at different levels.

What Constitutes "Good Writing"

Given the complexity of both leading a writing class and commenting on students' papers (and helping students gain the most from peer reviewing), it is important to take a step back and look at what makes 'good writing'. The following list shows my analysis of some holistic criteria of an effective academic essay:

- writing style
- critical and creative thinking
- logical thinking (e.g. the flow of ideas, the effectiveness of evidence provided)
- language accuracy (e.g. grammaticality, mechanics)
- appropriateness (e.g. what content to include, academic conventions)
- the form/ structure (e.g. paragraphing, thesis statement, topic sentences, conclusion/ summary)

The criteria are sequenced such that the more essential are at the bottom and the less essential, yet what distinguishes an excellent work from a fair work, are

placed at the top on the list, with a view to see a text as a communicative device. In other words, it is a must for students to master the lower-order criteria to be seen as a successful writer of the text type, but if their aim is to be an advanced writer, they would have to demonstrate criteria higher up on the list.

L1 Writers vs L2 Writers

Taking what good writing means into account, the fact that process writing is a method mainly designed for teaching writing is probably why it does not work to its best in an ESL/ EFL setting.

To illustrate, with reference to the above list, while native speakers tend to need less help on language accuracy and probably logical/ critical/ creative thinking as well, such criteria may be what L2 writers, especially those from collectivist cultures would struggle with (Ramanathan & Atkinson, as cited in Hyland, 2002). For L2 writers, learning writing is not just about learning to express themselves in the written form, but also showcasing their understanding of the grammatical rules of the target language, in this case, English, and complying to the cultural norms of the target language, with the essay pattern of writing a thesis statement and topic sentences being an example, as such a logical flow is distinctively different from oriental logical thinking, for instance (e.g. 'patterns of written discourse in different languages', Kaplan, 1966). Therefore, there are many more challenges for L2 students to meet than just learning 'writing'.

Literature Review

A Proposed Approach to Teaching Writing: Process Approach + Genre Approach + Discovery Learning

The proposed approach in this paper is not about denying the idea of the process approach, but rather, addressing the weaknesses of the approach when carried out in an L2 classroom setting, to better achieve the intended outcomes. Before explaining the proposed approach, some brief information of the genre approach and discovery learning is as follows:

The Genre Approach (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2002)

According to Swales, genre approach is an approach commonly used in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), and the New Rhetoric School. As discourse communities evolve their own conventions and traditions, specific genres are formed in texts serving particular communicative plans and purposes (Swales, 1998, as cited in Hyland, 2002).

Therefore, to achieve such communicative goals, it is helpful to study sample texts to understand 'the ways they are structured and the choices of content and style they make available' (Hyland, 2002, p.66).

Figure 1 is a suggested lesson design which illustrates a model of genre analysis (Bhatia, 1993, as cited in Hyland, 2002) as a reference.

Quote 5.3 Bhatia on doing genre analysis

1. Select a text which seems to represent the genre you want to study.
2. Use your background knowledge and text clues to put the text in a context, guessing where the genre is used, by whom, and why it is written the way it is.
3. Compare the text with similar texts to ensure that it represents the genre.
4. Study the institutional context in which the genre is used (visit sites, interview participants, study manuals, etc.) to understand its conventions.
5. Decide what you want to study (moves, lexis, cohesion, etc.) and analyse the text.
6. Check your analysis with a specialist informant to confirm your findings and insights.

(Bhatia, 1993: 22–34)

Figure 1

(Bhatia, 1993, as cited in Hyland, 2002)

Discovery Learning (Bruner, 1961; Bicknell-Holmes & Hoffman, 2000)

The learning theory, as its name suggests, 'permits the student to put things together for himself, to be his own discoverer' (Bruner, 1961, p.21). Bruner (1961) described the role as a teacher being someone who provides students with a firm grasp of subject knowledge, then allows autonomy as far as possible. By discovering regularities and linking the task with what has been taught, students would be able to devise ways

to solve similar problems and hence have such knowledge better retained in their mind –– which Bruner referred to as 'cumulative constructionism'(1961, p.23).

Bicknell-Holmes and Hoffman suggest three important attributes of discovery learning: '1. The creation, integration and generalisation of knowledge through exploration and problem solving; 2. A process of learning driven by interest-based activities in which the learner exercises some control over the sequence and frequency with which they occur; 3. Activities which strive to integrate new knowledge with the learner's existing knowledge base' (2000, p.314).

Therefore, by applying discovery learning to a writing class, an additional benefit is that it helps students get used to the mindset of providing and receiving feedback, which improves the quality of giving peer review in the later lessons (see 'Third lesson: Instant feedback and discovery learning').

Putting the Approaches Together

The list showing my analysis of some holistic criteria of an effective academic essay is revisited (see 'What Constitutes "Good Writing"'):

(The higher the criterium: Less likely to be solved by self-proofreading and reading reference materials)
-    writing style
-    critical and creative thinking
-    logical thinking (e.g. the flow of ideas, the effectiveness of evidence provided)
-    language accuracy (e.g. grammaticality, mechanics)
-    appropriateness (e.g. what content to include, academic conventions)
-    the form/ structure (e.g. paragraphing, thesis statement, topic sentences, conclusion/ summary)
(The lower the criterium: more likely to be solved by self-proofreading and reading reference materials)

Generally speaking, the lower the criterium, the easier it is to be taught in a larger class/ to be achieved by self-learning, while the higher the criterium, the more feedback is needed from a professional language teacher/ language learner. This lays the framework of how teaching writing can be scaffolded, especially in an L2 classroom setting.

The Proposed Approach Explained

Figure 2 shows my proposed lesson design (for five 45-minute lessons), based on the previously mentioned concerns, applying flipped learning:
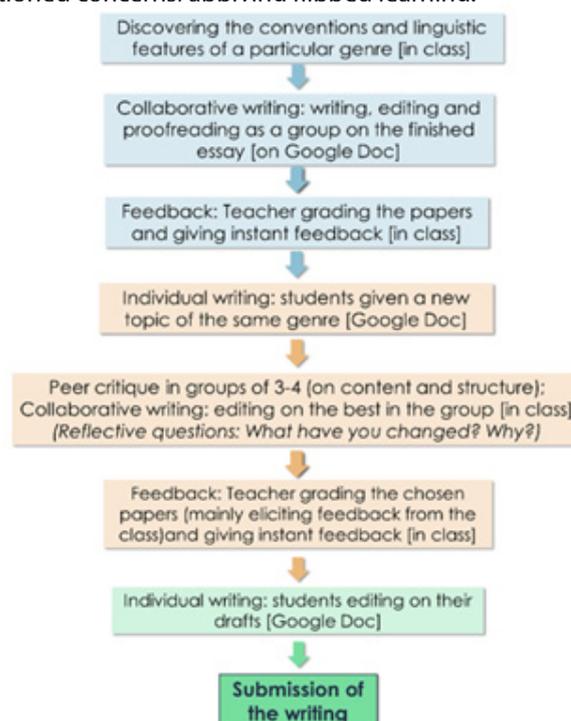
Figure 2

My proposed writing lesson design (for five 45-minute lessons) in this paper

Input Lessons: Schema Building

First Lesson: Genre Analysis
Genre analysis (see figure 1) is the first task to take place in the approach. In groups of 3-4, students are shown at least one sample text. (The number of sample texts provided depends on how familiar or experienced students are with the genre; for students who are entirely new to the genre, it is less confusing to just show them one good example, while for those who have already had exposure to the genre before, it is more beneficial to show them 2-4 texts with minor mistakes of different kinds (content, organisation and coherence, language, or writing style), facilitating analytical discussions. Then, students compare their analysis of the

text, focusing on the purpose, audience, the form and structure with other groups in a student-led in-class discussion, while the teacher provides feedback when needed. Students can be given a topic to research for the next lesson.

Second Lesson: Collaborative Writing
In the same group, students work on composing a text relevant to the topic they have been given in the previous lesson. After being given the prompt, students are given 10 minutes to share what they have brainstormed as homework, with the purpose of composing a brief outline as a group.

Moving on to the writing stage, students are asked to write on the same Google doc (reason to be explained in the next part). In fact, for all collaborative writing tasks in this approach, Google docs is used, as it allows text co-construction, which means students can be writers but editors of their group mates' work at the same time, which helps ensure coherence of the text. Also, functions such as 'edit' and 'comment' allow group mates to leave traces of their contribution as a co-writer. Note that in this approach, the writing, editing and proofreading are less staged, but more fluid and spontaneous. As Storch suggests, collaborative writing "provides a natural environment for peer feedback" (2013, p.23). In the case of students being new to the text type, typical interactions usually involve reconfirming the text's structural and lexical conventions, and students should be referring to the sample text(s) from the previous lesson. Providing a handout of the summary of the text type would also be helpful (see Appendix 1 for my sample handout for short essay writing).

Students can continue working on their writing as homework if they need more time.

Third Lesson: Instant Feedback and Discovery Learning
Students should have all finished the collaborative writing, and be able to see work from other groups, as all works are on the same Google doc. Using students' work as a source of discussion, the teacher highlights typical problems/ errors from their writing, scaffolding from the lower criteria to the higher ones. As discussed earlier, since students should be more capable

of noticing issues related to the form/ structure and language appropriateness, the teacher should prompt those issues as something to discuss in groups, eliciting corrections from students. For critical thinking or writing style-related issues, for instance, the teacher can ask guiding questions, or provide language upgrades, explaining the flaws of the original writing. By the teacher providing instant feedback to everyone's writing, students have the chance to learn from the feedback from their peers and to solve common problems together as a group. Such an activity also offer professional examples and training on how to give reviews, which improve the revision types and quality of feedback students can do in the output lessons (Min, 2006).

Output Lessons: Application

Flipped Classroom: Individual Writing as Homework

A topic of the same genre is set as writing homework, with the whole class typing on the same Google doc. Students can then, although writing individually, have a chance to view peers' writing, since active reading of texts of the same genre, whether well-written or not, is believed to be arguably more advantageous than having their essays commented upon (Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; see 'Potential weaknesses of the process approach'), as they can learn what to write and not to write in the role as a reader.

Fourth Lesson: Peer Review in the Manner of Teamwork
In different groups of 3-4, students use the 'comment' function to spot any problems on peers' papers, focusing on the lower-order criteria (see 'what constitutes "good writing"'). Then, the best writing in the group is picked, and the group works on this paper to make it better (group editing and proofreading), using the 'edit' function. In the last 10 minutes of the lesson, each group has to explain: (i) why this writing is the best in the group; (ii) what has been changed and why. This is to foster higher-order thinking skills, nurturing conscious intellectual moves in editing and proofreading. Students should read all the other chosen writing from other groups in preparation of the next lesson.

Fifth Lesson: Task Repetition of the Third Lesson:
Instant Feedback and Discovery Learning

The same lesson flow as the third lesson is to be repeated, but if possible, the teacher should give students more autonomy in discovery learning this time, as students are already accustomed to such a lesson flow. It is recommended that the teacher can simply just highlight some expressions and sentences, and ask the groups to contemplate why such lines are highlighted.

Consolidation

To complete this approach, an individual writing task can be set (if a strong class), or students can be asked to edit on their draft written for the fourth lesson, not the group one, but the individual one. Students can then submit their writing and get assessed, by either a more generic rubric, i.e. content/ organisation/ language accuracy/ language variety, or the framework shown in the previous sections (see 'what constitutes "good writing"'/ 'Putting the approaches together').

Summarising the Proposed Approach and its Rationale

The following are the intended goals of this hybrid approach:

1. **Input lessons made more interactive:** By doing lessons in the form of text analysis, collaborative writing, discovery learning and group reviewing, students are constantly thinking aloud with their peers and negotiating understanding through interactions. It is easier to retain what has been learnt when students are actively engaging.

2. **Non-time-staged:** The nature of recursiveness of writing is addressed, as students are situated such that they are being a writer, an editor and a reviewer at the same time (see 'Second lesson: Collaborative writing'). Likewise, the teacher is no longer just a timekeeper of pre-writing, writing and post-writing stages, but a more efficient facilitator: while listening to discussions and tracking changes on Google docs, they can note down common misconceptions and errors to address at the end of each lesson.

3. **Whole-class instant feedback being more effective:** When receiving feedback from teachers, most students, unfortunately, focus more on 'how can I make it mistake-free' instead of 'why did I get this wrong'. Doing whole-class instant feedback enables students to focus on the 'why', which is believed to help prevent them from making the same error in the future as they know the cause of it. Another benefit is that they can learn from each other's mistakes, which is a good chance for the teacher to convince students that such problems are typical, which should work better than just having a slide of 'common errors in writing' to lecture on. In addition, it is also a good chance to foster critical thinking, as students are having a long discussion class on how to fix those writing problems themselves.

4. **Peer review made more purposeful:** It is hard to deny that the traditional way of doing peer review does not provide students with much incentive. While it would be very helpful for writers themselves to receive peer feedback, if done thoughtfully, it is human nature to get less motivated to do something not directly beneficial to ourselves, which is why many students, as reviewers, lack the effort when giving peer reviews. Hence, it is likely to be more productive to do group peer review, as students have a mutual goal to work on (In lesson 2, they are co-writers, and in lesson 4, they have to choose a winner).

5. **Providing better reasoning as a habit:** Although not the intended goal of this approach, while students share their idea in the beginning of lesson 2, they get into the habit of giving evidence, examples, or elaborations to clarify themselves to their group mates, before deciding which point to focus on, which is an excellent pre-task warming up for academic essay writing.

Constraints and Limitations

The following are the intended goals of this hybrid approach:

1. Since the key to this framework is to allow time for text analysis, group writing, and ample peer dis-

cussions to take place under a teacher's observation and facilitation, at least 3 lessons (but ideally 5 lessons) of a minimum of 45-minute classes are required to make this approach effective.

2.   The intended age would be 12+, and the intended level of students would be CEFR level B1 - lower C1, as students at this age and level are communicative enough to have discussion, but still need guidance.

3.   The recommended class size would be 6-20: for problem solving tasks, groups of 3-4 people work best for initiating intellectual discussions (cf. Laughlin et al, 2006), and having no more than 5 groups in a class would allow the teacher to pay better attention per group.

Conclusion and Remarks:

Teaching Writing in Japan

As mentioned briefly in 'L1 writers vs L2 writers', teachers should make cultural adjustments while using any teaching approaches. Being in a collectivistic culture, many Japanese students may feel uneasy being asked to share their opinions, as this is perceived as aggressive in their culture. However, Japanese students seem to be more comfortable having discussions and participating in group activities; in fact this should be what they are used to doing. To put their minds at ease in sharing their opinion and analysis is hence the first step.

In the case of this proposed approach in this paper, the starting point of the discussion (in the second lesson) is discussing the forms and structure of the genre. Since this has been something covered in the previous lesson, the availability of notes and handouts fosters a comfortable environment for students to be more open to share opinions. On a related note, it is also useful that the teacher can introduce the importance of bringing in evidence to support their claim at this point, which leads to the idea of doing research and citations, and making them feel less threatened, once they are convinced that it is contributing to, but not dominating, the discussion.

Another consideration would be building students' confidence. In an ESL/ EFL setting, students can be easily discouraged when receiving too much 'constructive' feedback. Therefore, when providing instant feedback, the teacher should make a distinction between error-correction and picking resources for teaching purposes. The teacher should take care not to highlight all mistakes on a paper in front of the whole class, but rather, choose around 3-5 typical/ more significant problems per paper, ideally on different aspects, for class discussion. In this sense, no one would feel inferior. One other method for building a lower-achieving class's confidence would be setting the last task also as a group writing task, as there is a higher chance for a successful writing with collective wisdom.

It should be borne in mind that the lessons/ course should be an effective yet pleasant learning experience. The proposed writing lesson design in this paper intends to scaffold the traditional process writing approach further, so as to minimise stale lecturing, and help students gain confidence by having more learner autonomy via plentiful in-class discussions and peer reviewing. Students having a sense of accomplishment is a vital drive for them to continue striving to be a successful writer.

References

Anastasiadou, A. (2014). The Impact of the Application of a Process Writing Component on the Students' Writing Output in English as a Foreign Language, in N. Lavidas, T. Alexiou, A. M. Sougari, *Major Trends in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*, De Gruyter, England, 3: 11-32.

Bruner, J. S. (1961). The act of discovery. *Harvard Educational Review*, *31*: 21-32.

Bicknell-Holmes, T. & Hoffman, P. S. (2000). Elicit, engage, experience, explore: Discovery learning in library instruction. *Reference Services Review. 28*(4), 313-322.

Cheng, K. H., Liang, J. C., & Tsai, C. C. (2015). Examining the role of feedback messages in undergraduate students' writing performance during an online peer assessment activity. *The internet and higher education*, *25*, 78-84.

Flower, L. & Hayes, J. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. *College Composition and Communication*, *32*: 365–87.

Min, H. T. (2006). The effects of trained peer review on EFL students' revision types and writing quality. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *15*(2), 118-141.

Hyland, K. (2002). *Teaching and Researching Writing*. Harlow: Longman.

Laughlin, P. R., Hatch, E. C., Silver, J. S., & Boh, L. (2006). Groups perform better than the best individuals on letters-to-numbers problems: effects of group size. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *90*(4), 644–651.

Lundstrom, K., & Baker, S. W. (2009). To give is better than to receive: The benefits of peer review to the reviewer's own writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *18*:30-43.

Raimes, A. (1983). *Techniques in Teaching Writing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Shashok, K. (2008). Content and communication: How can peer review provide helpful feedback about the writing?. *BMC Med Res Methodol*, *8*: 3.

Storch, N. (2013). *Collaborative writing in L2 classrooms*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Taylor, B. (1981). Teaching Composition to Low Level ESL Students. *TESOL Quarterly*, *10*: 309-313.

Zamel, V. (1982). Writing: the Process of Discovering Meaning. *TESOL Quarterly*, *16*: 195-209.

Appendices

Appendix 1
A sample handout for short essay writing

Short Essay Writing Cheat Sheet

Step 1: Reading the essay question

- Identify the theme (key words) of the essay
- Identify the essay type and the general essay structure
- Paraphrase the essay question → "giving background information" in introduction

Essay question analysis example

Some people prefer online classes, while others feel face2face is still more effective. Discuss both sides and give you opinion.

Science has resulted in many people living to over 100 years old or more. Do you feel this is a positive or negative development?

Step 2: Brainstorming: outline or mind map for body paragraphs

Step 3: Writing first draft

title (noun phrase)

Introduction (~15% length)

-Hook (optional)
-Background information: brief definition/ explanation (optional)
 essay question paraphrased (add details/ reference/ news if possible)
-Thesis statement (thesis (=your main opinion)) + 2-3 main ideas (depending on the number of body paragraphs)

Thesis statement example

Being an exchange student is an invaluable experience leading to their personal, cultural and professional growth.

By understanding the main transitions associated with Washoku and the reason this has taken place, it can be proven that a change of eating habit over time are not necessarily bad and just a reflection of the contemporary changes in Japan.

(thesis, main ideas)

Body paragraph 1

~70-75% length
~25% per #
(if 3 body #)
(more common))

30-35% per #
(if 2 body #)

Body paragraph 2

-Topic sentence (topic + controlling idea)
-Reasons/ Elaboration
-Evidence/ Examples

Topic sentence example

Endangered species are also the result of hunting and fishing.

As well as these laws, there were some key traditions common to most weddings in the UK.

(topic, controlling ideas)
*The linking phrase "as well as" used to connect to the ideas of the previous paragraph.

Body paragraph 3 (can be skipped if you have two major points to elaborate)

Conclusion (10-15% length)

-Restatement of thesis statement
-Summary
-recommendation/ final remark

University Students' Impressions about the Use of Jokes in the EFL Classroom

Kevin Crowley
Ritsumeikan Asian Pacific University

Kent Jones
Ritsumeikan Asian Pacific University

Abstract

"Why shouldn't you write with a broken pencil? Because it is pointless." Jokes like this fall into the category of dad jokes. The usage of humor in the EFL classroom has been known to increase motivation, increase confidence, keep student attention, and create a positive classroom atmosphere. Furthermore, Japanese university students seem to favor the inclusion of jokes in English courses (Neff & Rucynski 2017). To verify such claims, through a daily warm-up icebreaker of dad jokes and a follow-up questionnaire, this study aimed to gather data about Japanese university students' impressions of such jokes in the English classroom. This questionnaire surveyed 124 Japanese university students after eight weeks of introducing a joke at the beginning of each class. The students were surveyed about their impressions of jokes in six areas: enjoyment, practical usage of assisting in the comprehension of the meaning of words, motivation, shareability, classroom atmosphere, and general education. The results of the survey were overwhelmingly positive in all categories except for the shareability category. The possible implications of these results are also discussed, such as the recommendation that jokes be used as an icebreaker and the possibility of extended lessons that examine jokes.

日本語概要

なぜ折れた鉛筆で書いてはいけないのか？それはポイントレスだからだ。」（Pointlessは無意味と尖った部分がないという意味）。このようなジョークは、オヤジギャグの種類に属する。英語教育（EFL）の授業でユーモアを使用することは、モチベーションを上げ、自信をつけ、生徒の注意力を持続させ、教室を明るい雰囲気にすることが知られている。さらに、日本の大学生は、英語コースにジョークを取り入れることが好きなようだ（Neff & Rucynski 2017）。このような主張を検証するために、毎日のウォームアップのアイスブレーカーである、オヤジギャグとフォローアップのアンケートを通じて、本研究は英語教室におけるそのようなジョークに対する日本の大学生の印象に関するデータを収集することを目的とした。このアンケートは、毎回授業の最初にジョークを導入して8週間経過した後、124名の日本人大学生を対象に調査したものである。調査項目は、「楽しさ」「言葉の意味の理解を助ける実用性」「モチベーション」「共有性」「教室の雰囲気」「一般教養」の6項目で、ジョークの印象について調査した。その結果、「共有性」を除くすべての項目で、圧倒的に肯定的な意見が多かった。また、この結果から考えられることとして、ジョークをアイスブレーカーとして使用することの推奨や、ジョークを考察する授業の拡張の可能性などが議論されている。

There is abundant research that has examined the usage of jokes in the ESL/EFL classroom. Concerning the practical benefits of jokes in EFL and addressing why they would be included in the first place, there are numerous known advantages. Namely, humor has been shown to improve student motivation, confidence, attention, and overall classroom atmosphere (Neff & Rucynski, 2017). Considering how prone L2 learners are to struggle with the aforementioned points, humor is arguably more important in L2 classrooms than in their L1 classrooms. The inclusion of humor as a teaching tool also has the potential to aid learners' vocabulary knowledge. For example, Blyth and Ohyama (2011) included 10-minute humorous riddle segments in their lessons for a semester and found that vocabulary acquisition and language awareness increased when comparing pre and post-tests. Moreover, on the issue of classroom atmosphere, West (2016) noted that the use of playful language in the Japanese EFL classroom lowered anxiety in the classroom. Dealing with anxiety when speaking a foreign language is an issue that is notoriously more prevalent for Japanese learners of English compared to other international students learning English (Kitano, 2002). Furthermore,

humor training can also help better equip students to navigate and understand comedic content that they may find in English media, which contains a considerable amount of puns, satire, and editorial cartoons. Understanding such humor is a skill that is overlooked yet essential in the 21st century when trying to read and understand current events in English since many news media outlets rely on humor to convey a message (Hodson, 2008b). Furthermore, since Japanese learners of English have little opportunity to interact in English in Japan, many will seek online formats and are very likely to run into internet meme culture, in which understanding the humor is crucial to understanding the meme. Lastly, there has also been shown to be a strong correlation between teachers who use humor in the classroom and a positive evaluation from students regarding those teachers (Bryant et al., 1980), suggesting that teachers who are 'humorous' may form better rapport with their students.

Regarding past research of Japanese EFL students' impressions of jokes in the classroom, Neff & Rucynski (2017) asked 918 university students across Japan about their views on humor in the classroom and found strong support for its inclusion. This study, however, did not include any sort of exposure phase to jokes in the class's lesson as part of the research. Instead, the study only inquired into students' views on humor in the classroom and its relationship to cultural understanding. The authors of this study believed that exposing students to English jokes regularly in the classroom is important to minimize the effects of memory decay and changes in attitudes or behaviors over time. The goal was to ensure that students' impressions of the jokes were based on recent memory, rather than outdated recollections. By regularly familiarizing students with English jokes of various difficulties, the authors aimed to preserve the accuracy and relevance of their impressions. Although this approach could be viewed as priming students to enjoy the jokes to get a positive response in the survey, the authors chose various difficulties of jokes to potentially leave students feeling bewildered, which they believed was more realistic when dealing with humor in a foreign language. Choosing only easy jokes that they were confident students could understand would increase the chance of enjoyment, but it is unlikely that such jokes would

be encountered when surfing the internet. Moreover, since the university where the study was conducted had a large percentage of international students, Japanese students who were taught the jokes would have a higher chance of hearing them in real life.

In another study, Stroud (2013) surveyed 104 Japanese high school students that addressed student-perceived benefits of humor for learning and included a joke phase (teacher-created jokes), and even included jokes that students were instructed to produce (student-created). In this study, they looked at five effects of humor on the classroom: relaxation, retention, participation, enjoyment, and atmosphere. While student-created humor had a large degree of uncertainty due likely to students not being confident about making their own jokes, teacher-created humor had overwhelmingly positive effects in all five areas. English instructors in Japan have also been surveyed on their views of the use of humor in the classroom and strongly agreed it is a powerful tool for the EFL classroom, but few teachers viewed it as essential in EFL (Neff & Rucynski, 2021).

Despite the wide variety of research that has already been conducted in this field, little research has asked EFL university students about their impressions regarding the inclusion of jokes in their classes as a warm-up activity. In particular, the novelty of this research was to discover whether Japanese university students find jokes favorable after telling students a joke and explaining its meaning at the beginning of class over the course of a semester.

The Research Question (RQ) can be distilled to the following: What are Japanese university students' impressions of jokes as a warm-up activity in an EFL college class?

Methodology

From the aforementioned RQ, this study further elaborates on the idea of "student impressions of jokes" into the following questions: (1) How much did students enjoy jokes told at the beginning of their classes? (2) Do students believe jokes can assist them in the comprehension of English words? (3) Do students feel that jokes can motivate them to study more? (4) Does the

inclusion of jokes help create a positive atmosphere? (5) Are students likely to tell the jokes to others, and (6) Do students believe that jokes are useful to education?

There was a total of seven questions given in English, including a Japanese translation of the questions to ensure that participants understood them clearly that inquired about the student's impressions of the jokes they were exposed to in the classes. Six of the seven questions correspond with the research questions above, and the seventh asked if they had other comments or opinions regarding jokes. The data that we received from the questionnaire responses were intended to answer the above research questions, distilled to the following domains: enjoyment, facilitation of vocabulary acquisition, motivation, shareability, classroom atmosphere, and general education.

The survey was administered to students of intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced levels of an international university in Kyushu, Japan, who agreed to participate. In total, there were 124 respondents: 76 (61%) female and 48 (31%) male. Student names and student ID were not requested as the questionnaire was intended to be taken anonymously in order to encourage honest impressions about the inclusion of jokes in the lessons.

Jokes were mostly of the 'dad joke' category, which typically includes a relatively simple pun as the punchline. To understand the humor in such jokes, students often needed to know the polysemous meaning of words or how words combined together can sound like other words or phrases. All of the jokes were selected and curated by the teachers ranging from question-answer types to short-story types and ranged from what we determined as easy to difficult (see Appendix for examples of the types of jokes used). Students' reactions indicated that we successfully selected jokes that were of a variety of levels, as some jokes elicited smiles or laughs, while other reactions such as blank stares or expressions of confusion indicated a lack of comprehension of the joke's punchline. Of course, a student's own proficiency in English was also likely a determinant of whether they understood the humor in the joke or not, as it was noticed by both administrators of the research that students who could easily converse in

English often could understand the punchline immediately. Nonetheless, the aim of this research was not to assess whether or not the students could 'get' the joke, but rather to determine whether they had a favorable impression of jokes as a warm-up in English classes, regardless of their level of English proficiency or their comprehension of the joke. The students' impression of the jokes and whether they perceived any benefit in their language learning was more important to assess as such factors could have significance towards lesson design for EFL.

Description of Teaching Methods and Materials

Jokes were used as a warm-up at the beginning of each class as an icebreaker. We chose to present them in this format for two reasons: 1) to provide activation of background schema, which has been shown to be an effective pre-reading strategy in the EFL classroom, as it can help learners to better understand and remember new information by building on their prior knowledge and making meaningful connections to a particular topic (Hattie, Biggs, & Purdie, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983), and 2) to start the class with a light-hearted atmosphere in order to hopefully set the tone of the class as not being overly serious.

On the first day, the educational value of jokes was explained—Jokes were explained to the class to be potentially enjoyable and could teach multiple meanings of words, and could possibly be a memorable way to study vocabulary. This was to reassure the students that there was some purpose to the jokes. Students were given a question, told it was a joke, and one to two minutes to think about the joke. During this thinking time, the teacher took attendance. If no one could correctly guess the answer after the time had passed, they were then told the punchline. Some students guessed the answer to the joke with varying degrees of success. If a student got the answer correct, the teacher applauded the student and either allowed that student to explain it in Japanese to the class for students who were still confused (which was often the majority of the class) or included Japanese explanations built into the slides. After the punchline was given by either the student or teacher, relevant language points related to the

joke were briefly taught, such as pronunciation, polysemy, or grammatical insights. For example in the joke, "What kind of cheese isn't yours?" "—Nacho cheese!", the blending of the words "not" and "your" which combine to sound like "nacho" was brought to attention to show how the pronunciation of contracted words changes. An example of polysemy was explained in the following joke: "Why was the artist afraid he might go to jail?" "—Because he'd been framed!". Many students knew "frame" as in a "picture frame" but did not know the verb used in crime situations, thus proving to be a learning experience for most students. Any example of a grammar joke would be the necessary usage of a comma in the sentence "Let's eat, Grandma!" versus "Let's eat Grandma!" (See more examples of jokes in the Appendix). When the teacher ended up explaining the meaning of the joke, the ways in which it was explained differed –sometimes in English, sometimes in Japanese, or sometimes the PowerPoint included one additional slide that had the translation of the joke or punchline included near the English words.

Student Survey Design

Google Forms was chosen as the survey engine due to its simplicity and easy-to-use format, as well as students' familiarity with it. Names, emails, and class codes were not requested, making the survey completely anonymous.

The survey was administered on two separate occasions: 1) 60 students were given the survey two and a half months after they finished the Spring semester of 2021. 2) Another 64 students were given the survey mid-semester at the end of the first quarter of the Fall semester of 2021, for a total of 124 participants. The survey was held both on-campus in class and offsite as some students were taking online classes due to COVID restrictions or other personal reasons.

Results

In Question 1, students were asked about how much they liked the jokes that were introduced at the beginning of each class (See Figure 1 below).
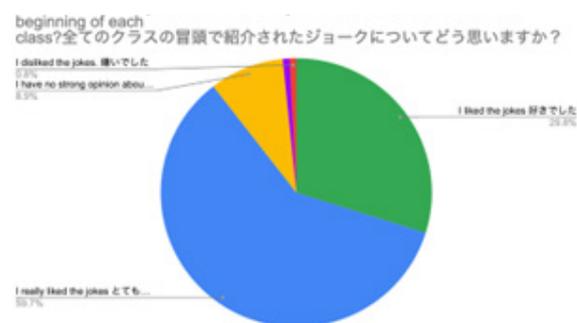

Figure 1

Enjoyment of the Jokes

Question 1: What do you think about the jokes that were introduced at the beginning of each class? 全てのクラスの冒頭で紹介されたジョークについてどう思いますか？

Answer choices and results: I really liked the jokes (blue, 59.7%), I liked the jokes (green, 29.8%), I have no strong opinion about the jokes (yellow, 8.9%), I disliked the jokes (red, 0.8%), I really disliked the jokes (purple, 0.8%).

We hypothesize that there would be a strong favorable impression of the jokes in the Enjoyment category due to the mostly warm reaction by the students, and as expected there was an overwhelmingly positive impression at nearly 90% (by combining the top two answer choices: "I really liked the jokes" and "I liked the jokes").

The other categories that we researched were Word Analysis (Figure 2), Motivation (Figure 3), Atmosphere (Figure 4), Shareability (Figure 5), and Value in EFL Education (Figure 6).

Question 2: Did you feel that the jokes helped you think more about the meaning of words? ジョークが言葉の意味についてもっと考えるために役立ったと思いましたか？
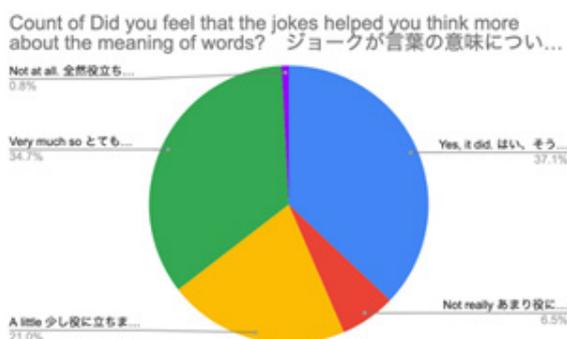
Figure 2.

Word Analysis

Answer choices and results: Very much so (blue, 34.7%), Yes, it did (green, 37.1%), A little (yellow, 21%), Not really (red, 6.5%), Not at all (purple, 0.8%).

Question 3: Did the jokes motivate you to study more? ジョークはあなたにもっと勉強するモチベーションを与えましたか？

Figure 3

Motivation

Answer choices and results: Very much so (blue, 36.3%), Yes, it did (green, 27.4%), A little (yellow, 21%), Not really (red, 12.9%), Not at all (purple, 2.4%).

Question 4: Did the jokes make the atmosphere of the class more fun? 冗談はクラスの雰囲気をもっと楽しくしましたか？
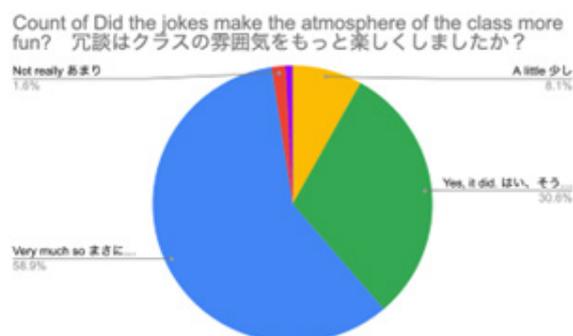
Figure 4

Atmosphere

Answer choices and results: Very much so (blue, 58.9%), Yes, it did (green, 30.6%), A little (yellow, 8.1%), Not really (red, 1.6%), Not at all (purple, 0.8%).

Question 5: Did you ever tell the jokes that you learned in class to other people? クラスで学んだジョークを他の人に教えたことがありますか

Figure 5

Shareability

Answer choices and results: Yes, a lot (blue, 11.3%), Yes, often (green, 7.3%), Sometimes I did (yellow, 27.4%), Occasionally (red, 22.6%), Not at all (purple, 31.5%).

Question 6: Do you think the inclusion of jokes in the English classroom is useful to your education? 英語の教室にジョークを含めることはあなたの教育に役立つと思いますか？

Count of Do you think the inclusion of jokes in the English classroom is useful to your education? 英語の教室にジョー…

Not really. あまり 3.2%

A little, perhaps. 少し… 16.1%

Yes, very much so. は… 41.1%

Yes, it is. はい、そう… 37.9%

Figure 6

Valuable in EFL

Answer choices and results: Yes, very much so (blue, 41.1%), Yes, it is (green, 37.9%), A little, perhaps (yellow, 16.1%), Not really (red, 3.2%), Not at all (purple, 1.6%).

The above six categories were compiled into Table 1 below and the evaluation of the students was summarized into a 5-point scale that was labeled as follows: Very favorable, Favorable, Indifferent, Unfavorable, and Not favorable at all. An Overall column was added which averaged the evaluation of the participants of each category.

Table 1

Overall Impressions of Jokes in the EFL Classroom Divided into Six Categories (N=124)

	Enjoyment	Word analysis	Motivation	Atmo-sphere	Shareabil-ity	Valuable in EFL	Overall
Very favorable	59.70%	34.70%	36.30%	58.90%	11.30%	41.10%	40.33%
Favorable	29.80%	37.10%	27.40%	30.60%	7.60%	37.90%	28.40%
In the Middle	8.90%	21.00%	21.00%	8.10%	27.10%	16.10%	17.03%
Not very favorable	0.80%	6.50%	12.90%	1.60%	22.20%	3.20%	7.93%
Unfavorable	0.80%	0.80%	2.40%	0.80%	31.50%	1.60%	6.32%

The final question, Question 7 was stated as such: "Do you have any other comments or opinions about the usage of jokes in class? クラスでのジョークの使う事について、他にコメントや意見はありますか?". There were many answers to this question that is too copious to include here. However, here are some examples of both positive and negative comments:

- ジョークのレベルが高くて理解できなかったです。もっと簡単な方がウケると思います！
I like your class very much so please keep joking
- I felt happy when you said a joke and laugh
- I like your English jokes! But sometimes they were too difficult to answer.
I thought everyone in our class was grinning in beginning class.
- 雰囲気が良くなるのですごくいいと思います！
- difficult English joke, I can't understand. However, easy English joke is fun!
- Most of the words used in the jokes were new

to me, so I learned a lot.
- I sometimes found the joke was difficult to understand, so if they made it a little easier and more familiar it would be better.

Discussion

The survey data of the 124 students showed a remarkably favorable attitude towards jokes in five out of the 6 categories. For the purposes of filtering out favorability, the top two (out of five) responses, "Very favorable" and "Favorable", will be considered as students showing support for a particular category. Whereas "In the Middle", "Not very favorable, and "Unfavorable" will be considered as showing "little to no support".

The Enjoyment category scored the highest with 59.7% and 29.8% as very favorable and favorable, respectively for a total of 89.5%. Probing whether students thought deeply about the meaning of words was an interest-

ing question since it infers an appreciation of the joke beyond the humor itself and of the meaning (or double meaning) of words. The Word Analysis category scored 34.7% and 37.1% as very favorable and favorable, respectively for a total of 71.8% support. The question that enquired about the jokes increasing their motivation to study English more was an important question for us as motivation is one of the key factors for learning. In the Motivation category, nearly 64% (36.3% very favorable and 27.4% favorable) of participants supported the idea that the jokes motivated them to study more. The results were modest here, however, it indicates that jokes may have an important role in the motivation to study English outside of the classroom. Although this question only probes at their feeling of motivation and we did not ask for further details or evidence of whether this feeling of motivation actually led to the students studying more than usual. Question 4 asked about whether jokes improved the classroom atmosphere (Atmosphere category), and the results were very similar to that of question 1 (Enjoyment) in that most students thought that the jokes improved the classroom atmosphere, with very few disagreeing (58.9% very favorable and 30.6% favorable, 89.5% in total). In Question 6, students were asked if they thought that the inclusion of jokes in the English classroom was useful to their EFL education (ie. Value in EFL category). Although Question 2-Word Analysis also hints at an educational benefit, we asked this question in order for students to reflect on potential benefits separate from analytically thinking about the meaning of words. Despite this, the results of Question 6 were similar to that of Question 2, although slightly stronger in the positive categories with 79% positive impressions (41.1% very favorable and 37.9% favorable) .

The only exception seems to be in the Shareability category which had 11.3% of respondents said that they told the jokes they learned in class to other people a lot and 7.6% respondents said they told other people the jokes often. This low level of support (or lack of favorability in this category) is unsurprising as it is difficult to remember jokes even in one's own native language, let alone a foreign language. Furthermore, students may not have felt they had the confidence to deliver the joke properly or surmised that their friends or families may not get the joke due to the jokes being in

English. Japan's 'joke-telling' culture also differs from anglophone countries as there are expected places, known as 'warai no ba', where humor and joke-telling are welcome (Neff & Rucynski, 2021); and the usage of puns are often found in oyaji gyagu, which suggested by its name, is often perceived as something only middle-aged or old men tell and something not to be admired or imitated among youth. That being said, it is still remarkable that even nearly 19% had shared the jokes to some degree (combining the highest favorability responses, Very favorable and Favorable) and around 27% were in the middle (worded as "sometimes shared the jokes with other people"). Thus, while the Shareability category scored the lowest, 46% of students sharing jokes that they learned in class is a surprising result given that the jokes were in English, and students were able to remember the contents of the joke well enough to tell them to others. The willingness of students to share jokes that they have learned from a lesson icebreaker may be due to them using the jokes as an icebreaker themselves. Although speculation, it is possible that students may tell English-speaking foreign friends jokes as a way to initiate conversation or lighten the atmosphere to avoid nervousness while speaking English –a sort of social lubricant.

Overall, students exhibited a positive attitude towards jokes in five out of six categories, with the highest levels of support in the Enjoyment and Atmosphere categories, both at 89.5%. The perceived value of incorporating jokes in EFL was 79%, and the Word Analysis category also received strong support, with 71.8%. The Motivation category garnered 64% support, suggesting that jokes could play a crucial role in motivating students to study English outside of the classroom. The only exception was the Shareability category, which had low support at 18.9%, potentially due to cultural differences and/or the difficulty of recalling jokes in a foreign language. However, the percentage of students who reported sharing the jokes they learned in class increased to 46% when accounting for the "sometimes" sharing option, indicating that some students used them as icebreakers with others or that the enjoyment of some jokes extended beyond the classroom into social interactions. However, adhering to the predetermined criteria of only considering the responses categorized as "Very Favorable" and "Favorable" that

signify a positive impression, it may be more suitable to maintain the utilization of the 18.9% figure. In any case, the results of the highest-scoring five out of six categories align with previous studies that demonstrate that jokes can affect enjoyment (Stroud, 2013), learners' motivation (Neff & Rucynski, 2017), and classroom atmosphere (Neff & Rucynski, 2017; Blyth & Ohyama, 2011; Stroud, 2013). Additionally, we inquired about the perceived value of jokes in EFL education, which the other studies did not investigate, and discovered that a vast majority of students favored their inclusion. In conclusion, the study's results suggest that students have a positive attitude towards jokes in the EFL classroom, with high levels of support for enjoyment, atmosphere, perceived value, word analysis, and motivation categories.

Limitations

There are a number of limitations that should be addressed regarding the survey conducted and its analysis.

Firstly, explaining to the students the pedagogical value of jokes may have biased participants in favor of jokes. Both teachers who conducted the research only mentioned this in brief at the start of the semester to explain to students why jokes were being told, we do not think it had too much influence over the students' overall impression of jokes. However, we do admit that this framing may not be ideal for a blind study, especially in regard to the "valuable in EFL category".

Secondly, some of the wording of the answers in the survey may be problematic. For example, the answers in Question 3, "Did the jokes motivate you to study more?", were "Not at all", "Not really", "A little", "Yes, it did", and "Very Much So" may not correspond appropriately with the answers to other questions such as Question 5, "Did you ever tell the jokes that you learned in class to other people?", which include answers such as ""Not at all", "Occasionally", "Sometimes I did", "Yes, often", "Yes, a lot". Furthermore, the wording of a question's particular answer choices itself may have lent itself to some bias, like in Question 5's answers, in which "Sometimes, I did" could be considered more in the favorability category than a truly "in the middle"

impression.

Thus, although there were five answer types that generally correspond to Very Favorable, Favorable, In the Middle, Not very favorable, and Unfavorable, the answers to each question may not fit neatly into a Likert Scale and may further not correspond with each other appropriately as the analysis in Table 1 indicates. Therefore, it may have been better to pose the questions as statements instead and rather than use a variety of answer types, use answers such as Strongly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree. Although the weakness of the wording of the answer choices is recognized, we still consider that this study shows a favorable impression of the various categories as indicated in Table 1. One indicator of this is that although in some questions, the middle choice answer was usually leaning toward the Favorability category, only the Favorable and Very Favorable categories were taken into account as evidence of the percentage of favorability. Consequently, it is possible that there could be an even higher percentage of Favorability in reality. Nevertheless, future studies should be careful to select their answer-choice wording carefully and it may be better to use a proper 5-point or 6-point scale to ensure the results are robust.

Conclusion and Implications

The data collected indicates high favorability of the inclusion of jokes as a warmup in a Japanese university English class. However, this data was taken from a university in Japan that is known for having a large number of international students. Thus, there could be a bias in favor of foreign cultures that this university's students possess that other universities may not to such a degree. Future studies that enquire into Japanese university students' impressions of the usage of jokes in the English classroom may want to verify if this is shared with universities where the ability to communicate in English is less of an overall focal point. Nevertheless, the discovered implications are that the inclusion of jokes may not only create an enjoyable atmosphere and motivate the students to study more but may also aid students in thinking about English words more deeply. A possible implication of these findings is that students may gain value from the cre-

ation of longer lesson activities based on jokes, rather than a short ice-breaker activity. The high rating that students gave to the value of jokes in education provides some support for the notion that they may be receptive to such lessons. While it is unclear what role jokes can and should play in an EFL university classroom, it is clear that jokes and humor in general can be a positive tool for teachers and curriculum developers to employ that most students would welcome.

References

Bryant, J., Comisky, P. W., Crane, J. S., & Zillman, D. (1980). Relationship between college teachers' use of humor in the classroom and students' evaluation of their teachers. *Journal of Education Psychology*, *72*, 511–519.

Blyth, A., & Ohyama, T. (2011). Using humour in EFL classes. In A. Stewart (Ed.), *JALT2010 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 735-745). Tokyo: JALT.

Carrell, P. L., & Eisterhold, J. C. (1983). Schema theory and ESL reading pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, *17*(4), 553-573. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586774

Hattie, J., Biggs, J., & Purdie, N. (1996). Effects of learning skills interventions on student learning: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 66(2), 99-136. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543066002099

Hodson, R. (2008b). Media humour in the language classroom. *Proceedings of CLaSIC 2008*, 669–679.

Kitano, K. (2001). Anxiety in the College Japanese Language Classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *85*(4), 549–566. https://doi.org/10.1111/0026-7902.00125

Neff, P., & Rucynski, J. (2017). Japanese perceptions of humor in the English language classroom. *HUMOR*, *30*(3), 279-301. https://doi.org/10.1515/humor-2016-0066

Neff, P., & Rucynski, J. (2021). The English classroom as "warai no ba": Instructor views on humor and language learning in Japan. *International Journal of Educational Research Open*, *2*, 1-9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedro.2021.100070

Stroud, R. (2013). The Laughing EFL Classroom: Potential Benefits and Barriers. *English Language Teaching, 6*(10), 72-85. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/4613770/Stroud_R_2013_The_Laughing_EFL_Classroom_Potential_Benefits_and_Barriers_English_Language_Teaching_6_10_72_85

West, T. (2016). Observations on the Effectiveness of Humor and Language Play in the L2 Classroom. *New Directions in Teaching and Learning English Discussion*, *4*, 25-31.

Williams, E., & Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Class Democracy:
Allowing Students to Have Input in Class Decisions

James Emmet Owens
Kanda University of International Studies

Abstract

Research suggests allowing individuals agency in decisions encourages greater engagement, responsibility (Birdsell et al., 2009), participation and empowerment (Collins et al., 2019) in addition to communicative competence (Egitim, 2021). Thus, partly in response to the recent pandemic-associated transition to either wholly or partly online classes, during the 2021-22 academic year the teacher-researcher allowed students a choice in matters such as lesson format and assignment deadlines. Students were then surveyed to establish the extent to which this experiment in class democracy was well-received, and whether or not it benefitted the learning environment. In this paper, the results will be discussed. The analysis reflects on, for example, whether too many decisions were allocated to students (or not enough), how to be mindful of minority voices in any 'voting system', and whether allowing students a role in decision-making increases their motivation. This paper will provide a summary of the decision-making progress, the results from student surveys, and how this will affect future decisions in the classroom.

日本語概要

研究によると、個人に決定権を与えることは、コミュニケーション能力（Egitim，2021）に加えて、より大きな関与、責任（Birdsell et al，2009）、参加、エンパワーメント（Collins et al，2019）を促すとされています。そこで、近年のパンデミックに伴う全面的または部分的なオンライン授業への移行に対応するため、教師兼研究者である筆者は、2021–22学年度の授業形式や課題の締め切りなどの事項について学生が選択できるようにしました。そして、この授業民主化の試みがどの程度評価され、学習環境にメリットをもたらしたかについて、学生を対象に調査を行いました。この論文では、その結果について説明します。分析では、例えば、学生に割り当てられた決定事項が多すぎたのか（あるいは少なかったのか）、「投票システム」において少数派の声にどう配慮すべきか、意思決定において学生に役割を与えることが彼らのモチベーションを高めるのか、などについて考察しています。本稿では、意思決定の進捗状況、学生アンケートの結果、今後の教室での意思決定にどのような影響を与えるかについて示します。

During the 2021-22 academic year, the author took advantage of greater class flexibility offered in response to the recent pandemic to offer students some input into classroom decisions. This was inspired in part by both historical and recent relevant research advocating that we abandon the convention whereby the teacher makes most if not all decisions for how the language classroom should be managed. Breen and Littlejohn (2000), for example, claim "there are several justifications for raising such decisions to the level of overt negotiation with students" (p. 8). In the following section, these justifications, and limitations, are examined in greater detail. This is followed by an explanation of how student reactions to providing input were explored, and the extent to which this experiment in allowing student input can be considered a success.

Literature Review

Benefits to the learner

The main justification for allowing more student input into classroom decisions centres around the direct benefits such "overt negotiation" offers to the learners and the learning process itself. This is not an exclusively modern phenomenon. Vygotsky (1962) believed that students learn as they engage in social activity, while Rogers (1969) maintained that it was fundamentally the teacher's job to enable learners to assume responsibility for their own learning. More recent research has demonstrated that allowing individuals agency in decisions encourages greater engagement and responsibility (e.g. Birdsell et al., 2009). In fact, Breen and Littlejohn (2000) propose that the main goal of the classroom is to develop each "learner as an active agent of his or her

learning" (p. 19).

Justifying high levels of student agency and the benefits to the learning process, Breen and Littlejohn claim that it "activates both personal and interactive negotiation while… contributing to their scope and quality during learning", and that these are essentially "…mutually supportive processes for developing the capacity to communicate in a new language." (p. 10-11). That is, the act of negotiation itself involves, and demonstrates proficiency in, the development of communicative competence, a finding further echoed by Egitim (2021).

Benefits to society

A democratic classroom, it is argued, also has benefits in terms of its consequences in wider society, the first step in which is to make the school (and the classroom) a microcosm of democratic civilisation: "If we ever hope to have schools that are engaging and that truly embody democracy, then the classes within them must provide opportunities for students to experience autonomy, freedom, and choice in what is studied, when, and how" (Morrison, 2008, p. 50). The hope seems to be here that democracy in wider society can filter down into the classroom, which can then in turn lead to more effective participation in democratic processes at the level of society. According to Breen and Littlejohn (2000), "student responsibility and co-operation during learning" can both be a functional demonstration of, and help to further enable, "participation as a citizen in democratic processes" (p. 19). More succinctly, Crookes (2021, p. 251) paraphrases the point often made that, "if we want democracy in society, it does not make sense to exclude it from schools".

Counter-arguments

There are, of course, issues with trying to install democracy in the classroom, no matter how well-intentioned the motives. Amongst these are the mental strain it can add, especially if the class contents are already challenging: "…when it comes to democratic education", there is "… the challenge of having too much choice and an increased focus on the self" (Underwood, n.d., Challenges Students May Face section, para. 1). Leaving too many decisions in the hands of students can lead

to cognitive overload, and/or a sense of selfishness or entitlement, where they might otherwise be inclined to follow simple instructions and be more co-operative.

Power dynamics also come into play: "There is also the challenge of one student, or a group, dominating the space of a democratic classroom." (Challenges Students May Face section, para. 1). If not managed well by the teacher, the more dominant students may effectively get their way by importuning less dominant personalities, or the 'tyranny of the majority' may preponderate too often. If, for example, the same 60-70% of students form a bloc who consistently choose later deadlines for assignments rather than earlier, the remaining 30-40% of students with alternative preferences could feel permanently disgruntled, resentful and/or disempowered.

There may also be time constraints. How much time would the negotiation/decision process take, and would students find this irritating in a course that already felt demanding? Breen and Littlejohn (2000) acknowledge that it would be "highly unusual and inefficient… to seek negotiated agreement on all of the major questions in every lesson, even if this was feasible" (p 30). Culture and personality are other concerns. While many may relish the opportunity for their voice to be heard, students often have their own expectations, based on experience or preference, of how a classroom should function, and if they are not used to being consulted or negotiated with, they may not necessarily value the experience.

In realistic terms, students may not always make decisions with the interests of others, or even their own long-term interests, at heart. Being human, they may, for example, always choose the 'easier' or 'lazier' option; the extended deadline or the online class because it is more immediately convenient, rather than what is best for their own learning, or the circumstances of their peers.

Even advocates of greater democracy in the classroom are keenly aware of these limitations. Breen and Littlejohn (2000) concede that, while ideally we may want to produce students who can "take responsibility for their decisions" and "be responsible for the impact of such decisions on others" (p. 20), it can be difficult given

that, "[c]ollaborative decision-making requires the constant balancing of an individual agenda with everyone else's" (p. 22).

The teacher then, aware of "the potential and limits of negotiation" in both their own classroom and the "wider educational and cultural context in which it is located" needs to be realistic about what they can achieve in terms of class democracy, and should be "explicit" as to "...what seems non-negotiable", while at the same time making the best use of any "feasible opportunities for sharing decisions" (p. 27). This study wished to exploit one such 'feasible opportunity': the flexibility of class format in response to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Background and clarification

At this point, it would seem expedient to clarify what this brief experiment in limited class democracy is, what it is not, and what it sets out to investigate. Much of the literature on democracy in the classroom is fairly radical in its aims, framing it in the wider context of a critique of 'oppressive' traditional teaching practice (Fritzsche, 2022) and/or of 'neoliberal' models of education (Fielding & Moss, 2010). Some advocate turning the classroom into a forum where almost every decision is made by students, including the curriculum and content of the course itself (Crawford, 1978, as cited in Crookes, 2021). Operating within a much more constrained context, where detailed curricula are pre-set by the institution or must be submitted before the course begins, the goals of this study are far more modest.

In this study, students were given limited input (but still more than they were used to) into some classroom decisions, and then the impact of that input and their level of satisfaction were measured. Most typically, I allowed students to discuss, vote or help me decide on (where possible) which classroom they prefer (where a choice was available), deadlines for assignments, and whether lessons should be (and/or which lessons should be) face-to-face, online.. etc.

The last option needs greater clarification. In response to the COVID-19 pandemic, classes at my university in the academic year 2020-21 were initially all switched to online classes (available in both Zoom and asynchronous/'on-demand' formats). However, the institution had to achieve a delicate balance in terms of not only addressing health concerns, but also student and parent satisfaction, and pressures from MEXT to have face-to-face components of lessons. Accordingly, in 2021-22 the university encouraged a combination of both face-to-face and online formats for lessons, with some exceptions and scope for flexibility (e.g. health exemptions). It was basically up to most teachers how they wished to proceed, with up to 47% of lessons being made available online per course.

While the decisions were mostly made by the teachers themselves, it also presented a great opportunity for the author to involve students in the decision-making process. As all the author's courses were taught twice a week, students could not only help decide the number of online classes, but also when to have online classes (e.g. Monday face-to-face, Wednesday online; or alternate weeks of face-to-face and online classes).

Methodology and Research Questions

Decisions were largely based on voting systems, but different styles of voting were experimented with, which allowed the author to also explore which forms of input and democracy students proved most effective. For example, votes were at times based on a show of hands (i.e. no anonymity), anonymous polls on zoom (during online classes), or anonymous polls via google forms (typically after class). Sometimes these votes were preceded by discussions in which students shared their preferences and opinions; but sometimes they were not, depending on time constraints. While the usual process was to go with the clear majority decision, occasionally the teacher had to intervene and make a contrary decision. This would happen when, for example, the same minority of students were constantly being side-lined (e.g. a small number of students who wanted earlier deadlines corresponding to their own scheduled workloads). In the case of appeasing the minority, one rule of thumb was to let the minority have their way in every 4th or 5th decision, where the minority still had significant numbers (e.g. 20-30% of the class).

I wished to investigate how students really felt about being allowed some input into classroom decisions. Specifically, I wanted to know:

- Did students value having input?
- Did they want more input? Less?
- How effectively were the opinions of the minority also valued?
- How effective was the way in which 'democracy' was practised?

, and any other points of interest or concern that may have emerged from the experiment.

Accordingly, at the end of the semester, each class was sent a survey (through Google Forms) asking them to provide feedback. This survey successfully underwent an ethical review, following standard university practice, and was approved. It was also clearly stated that all responses would remain confidential. While most of the answers were multiple-choice, respondents were allowed to comment if they wished, but were promised that their identities would be protected in any publication. The surveys were voluntary, and students were allowed to deny consent for their data to be used in publication.

What follows is an explanation of the survey, and an analysis of the results. For the sake of language efficiency, the Results and Discussion sections have been combined.

Results and Discussion

The author taught four classes during the 2021-22 academic year. Three of the four classes featured students in the English department, while one class was for first-year students within the Global Liberal Arts (GLA) faculty. The English department classes taught were Foundational Literacies (for first-year students), Media English (sophomores) and Critical Thinking (mostly third and fourth-year students). Each class had 20 students. All first and second- year classes were high-tier, whilst the Critical Thinking class has mixed levels. In total, 44 students responded and consented to their answers used, which was slightly more than half of the total number of students enrolled (80) in the various classes. A roughly equal proportion of students from each taught course responded (54.5% first years, 22.7% second years, 15.9% third years, and 6.8% fourth years) making the pool of responses a fairly representative sample.

Amount of input

In the survey, students were asked what types of decisions they were allowed input in, and how often. Table 1 summarises the responses.

Table 1
What decisions were you allowed input into, and how often

The teacher allowed us input into…	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Choice of class format (e.g. Zoom, Face to face)	20	17	7	0	0
Which classroom we used	23	11	3	1	6
Assignment deadlines	26	10	7	1	0
Assignment tasks	24	14	3	2	1
Something else	19	9	4	2	10

Typical answers for 'something else' included choice of group mates for assignments, and whether or not they preferred to work as individuals, in pairs or in groups for a given task.

The most predominant answers for each question were 'Always', followed by 'Often', though it is interesting to note that, even within the same class and regarding the same question, some students answered 'always' and others 'never'. This suggests that the same level of democracy can be perceived in different ways in the minds of each respondent, and there is clearly a large subjective component to this survey. Nonetheless, it is clear from the results that most students felt they had regular input in the four main areas, especially class format and assignment deadlines.

Balance of input

The next series of questions looked at the level of input students feel to be appropriate, to what extent this was achieved, and other issues pertaining to balance, such as the extent to which the minority should be integrated into decision-making, and the extent to which this took place.

As can be seen from Figure 1, all respondents indicated that they felt students should have input into at least some class decisions, with the most common response

being 'most', followed by 'some'.

Students were subsequently asked more specifically which decisions they think they should be allowed input in. The results are summarised in Figure 2, and support the findings of the previous question, i.e. that students believe that having at least some input into classroom decisions is important for them. The most common answer for each section was 'agree to some extent', followed by 'strongly agree'. This was most overwhelmingly the case with regards to assignment deadlines and class format. The fact that 'to some extent' was a more popular answer than 'strongly agree' echoes the 'most' and 'some' answers shown in Figure 1. That is, students do not feel they should be involved in every decision, and seem happy to concede authority to the teacher to make some decisions for them, a sentiment well-summarised by the following student comment:

> I think allowing students to make decisions in class can make a class more active. However, the final decision should be made by the teacher, taking into account the opinions of the students, because a student's opinion alone is not a good balance.

The only relevant comment listing examples of other decisions on which they felt they should be consulted was how they are divided into groups.

Figure 1
*Summary of what students feel to be an appropriate level of general input*
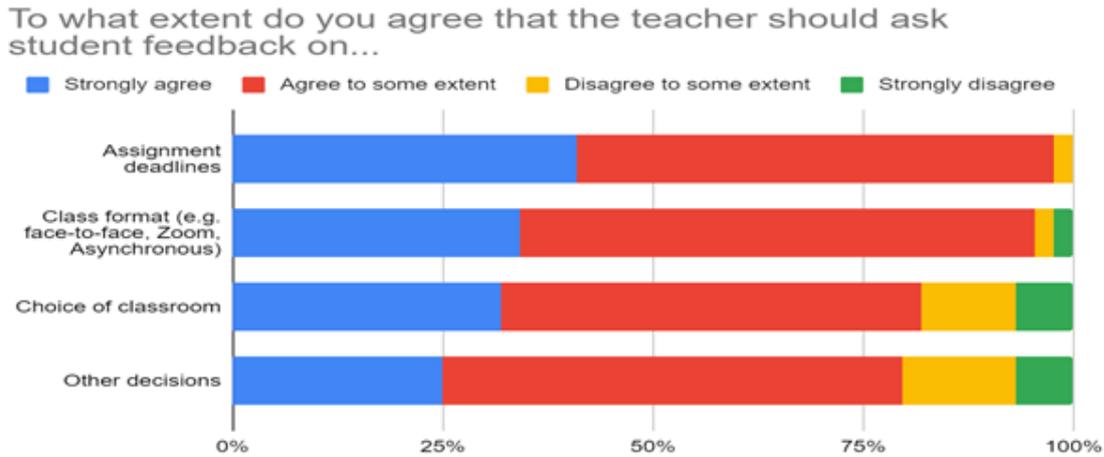
Figure 2
Which decisions students felt they should be allowed input in

Figure 3 looks at the extent to which students feel the teacher got the balance right in terms of allowing too little or too much student input into decisions. As can be seen, the vast majority of students (84.1%) felt the balance to be just right, with smaller numbers believing they should have been allowed more input (11.4%) or less input (4.5%).

Respondents were also asked to consider the best way to deal with minorities of voters in classroom democracies. The author wanted to know whether students felt the teacher was mindful enough, or too mindful, of those who consistently were outvoted, and thus may have felt marginalised, and also what students feel about this issue: should a democracy be mindful or such minorities, or always go with the majority vote?.
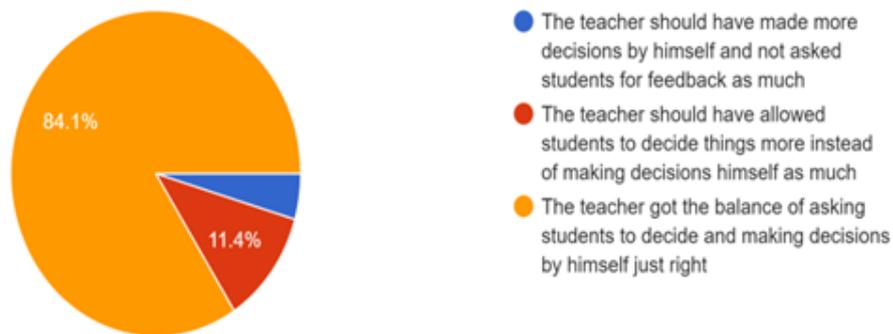
Figure 3
Overall balance of input

Figure 4 summarises responses on whether students do feel always going with majority decisions is unfair on minority voters, and is perhaps the most polarising question in terms of response, with large numbers both agreeing and disagreeing with the statement (to some extent). Nonetheless, there are no students who strongly disagree with the statement, and most students agree that it is unfair (and by implication that therefore it is right to concede to the minority sometimes).
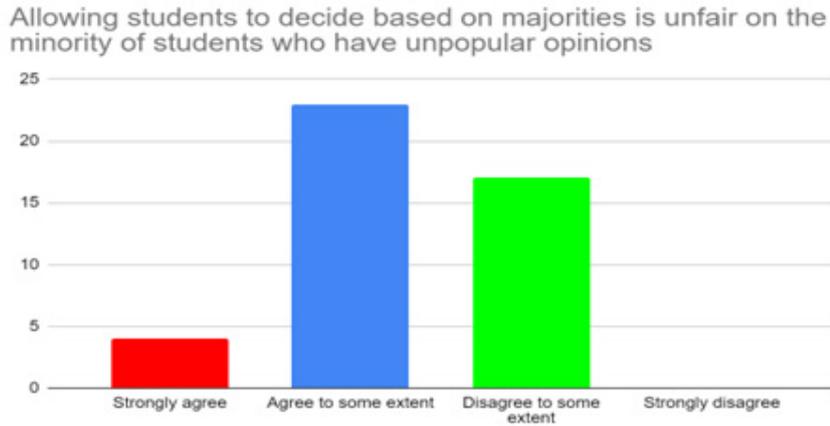
Figure 4
Student feelings on consideration of minority opinion

Students were also asked if they thought the teacher overall struck an appropriate balance when dealing with this minority. The answers can be seen in Figure 5.
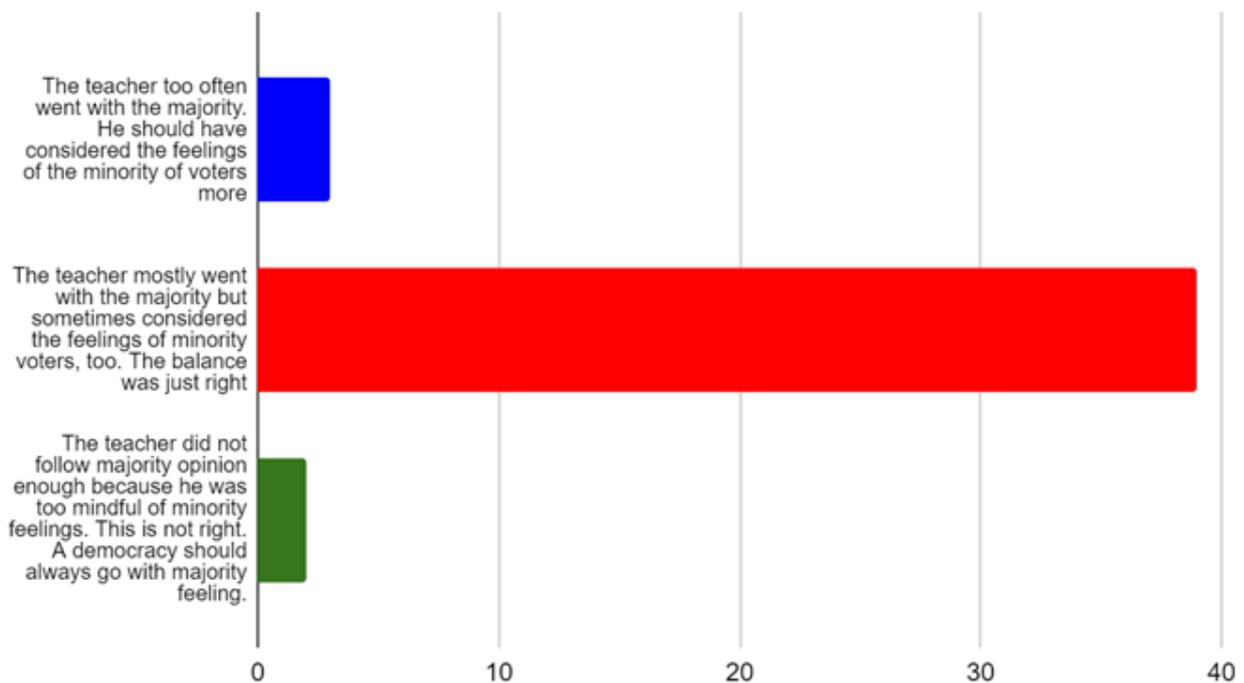

Figure 5
Student feelings on Involving the minority of voters

A clear majority of respondents feel the balance was "just right" (and by implication that sometimes it is right to let the minority have their own way). Most of the relevant comments with regards to this echo the findings. For example, one comment applauded the "moderate amount of the choices" offered, and also the fact that the teacher "considered both majority and minority opinions." However one student opined that, "Majority decision may not respect the opinions of the minority, but that's the way it is, and I don't think it can be helped." Similarly, one student thought it "is the best way to follow the majority opinion when we decide something", although they conceded "there are some bad points", and other students supported the idea of moderation and compromise when dealing with minority voters:

…if majority opinions don't oppress minority extremely, voting is functional. However, some class decision may not be tolerable for minority, so if class can make compromise, they should do. Students should understand that all of our wills never be adopted.

Another respondent suggested that it depends on the type of decision being made: "If it's not particularly important, we'll come to a conclusion soon enough. However, when it comes to important decisions, I think it is necessary to listen to minority opinions."

Overall, then, it seems fair to say that students felt the teacher got the balance of decisions correct. Most students feel that they should be consulted on some but not all decisions, especially with regard to assignment deadlines and class format, and that the teacher did this to an appropriate level. Most also believe that the minority of students should be considered, too, and that again the teacher got the balance of doing so just right.

How input is collected

As explained earlier, the way students voted and gave their input was varied, with some votes anonymous and others not, and some votes preceded by discussions. Sometimes no vote took place at all, with the teacher 'feeling the room' after a discussion took place. The survey featured a question asking them for their preferences in this regard, and their answers are demonstrated in Figure 6.

What is the best way to let students have input into decisions?
44 responses

- Class discussion. The teacher can base decisions on what we discuss or deba…
- An anonymous vote (google forms or Zoom poll) after a class discussion
- A show of hands (not anonymous) after a class discussion
- An anonymous vote (google forms or Zoom poll) without any discussion
- A show of hands (not anonymous) without any discussion
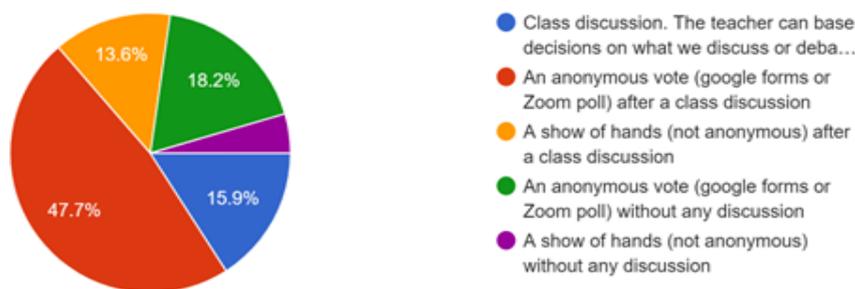
Figure 6
Student preference for providing input

As can clearly be seen, the most popular form of input was an anonymous vote (either a Zoom poll or Google Form) following a discussion. The next most prevalent preference was for an anonymous vote without discussion. Interestingly, a class discussion with no vote was more popular than a non-anonymous vote after discussion. The least popular option (4.5%) was a show of hands without any discussion.

It would seem that what would students care most about in terms of providing an input is the ability to do so with anonymity (when voting). Perhaps this is unsurprising given the context. The majority of students are Japanese and/or raised in Japan, where the stress and impact of peer-pressure and fear of peer-judgement is well-documented. The students also have a general preference for discussing their options first with peers before voting.

Pros and cons of student input

Respondents were asked to what extent they agreed with a range of other statements regarding what could be considered the pros and cons of student input, and provided some interesting answers. Each question and a summary of the answers can be seen in Figures 7-10.

As Figure 7 demonstrates, all students believed having input into classroom decisions motivated student interest in the class to at least some extent.

Figure 8 suggests that the question of whether students felt it was lazy of the teacher to 'outsource' decision-making to students or not to be polarising to some degree. However, the most popular answers were 'Disagree to some extent' and 'Strongly disagree', so it would seem safe to conclude a majority of students did not feel this to be the case.

Opinions regarding whether or not students would make 'easier' but not necessarily 'better' decisions
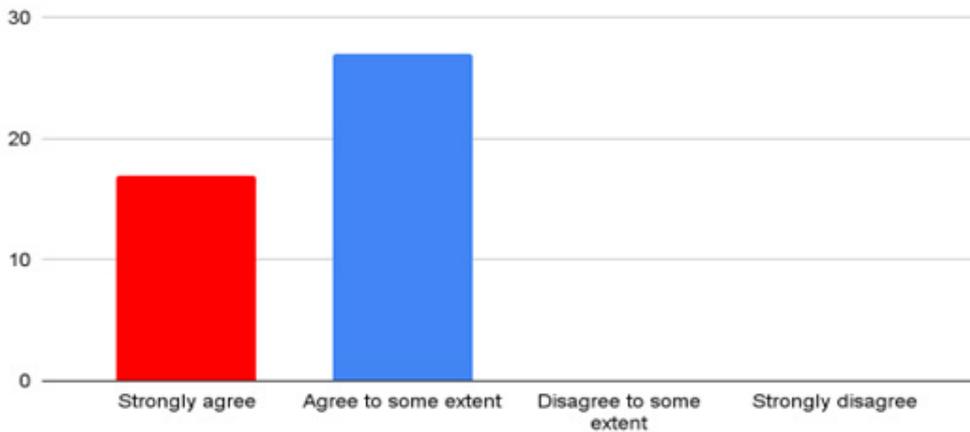
Figure 7
*Effect of providing input on motivation*
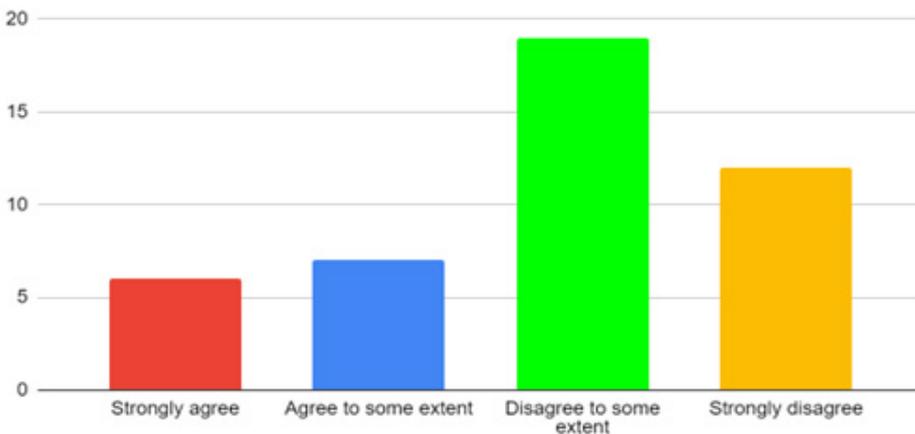
Figure 8
Is it lazy for the teacher to let students decide?

when given the choice (Figure 9), were varied and interesting. While overall most students agree that this is the case, either strongly or to some extent, over a third of respondents (16 in total) disagreed, either strongly or to some extent. This honest appraisal from students suggests that one of the earlier stated potential limitations of class democracy does ring true.


If you allow students to make decisions, they will always choose the 'easiest' option rather than the option that is best for their learning
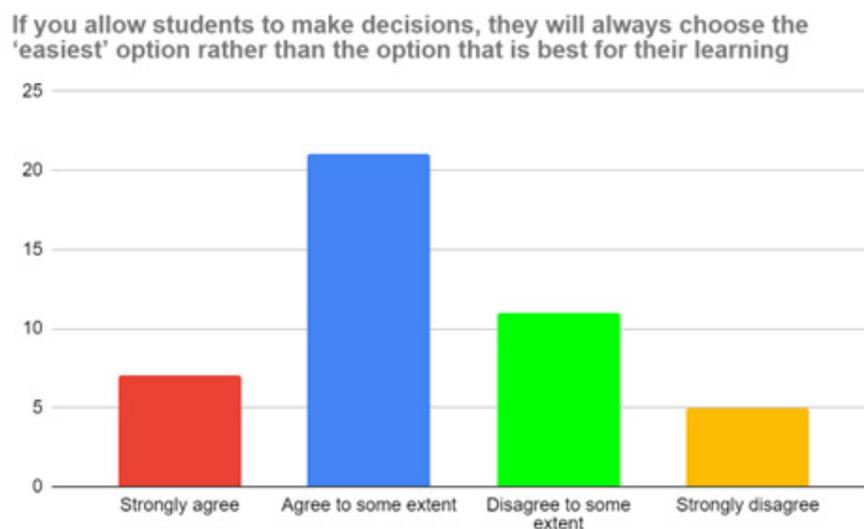
Figure 9
Will students make 'easy' choices rather than the 'best' choices?

Both the question itself and the results for the next question (Figure 10) were similar to those in Figure 9. The question again alludes to a limitation of democracy (making decisions that are better for individuals than the whole class), and while most respondents agreed with the statement, a not inconsiderable number (nine in total) did not. Once more, the respondents showed an admirable level of honesty in answering this question, and it does suggest another limitation of democracy in the classroom is well-founded.

In summary, then, when it comes to analysing the advantages and disadvantages of consulting students on certain decisions in the classroom, all students felt it had a positive impact on their motivation, and most disagreed it was lazy for the teacher to do so. However, most students also conceded that it may lead many to make 'easy' and/or selfish decisions that might not be the best choice for their own learning or for the class as a whole.

Is democracy good or bad?

The final question was a simple one: generally speaking, did students think the idea of 'class democracy' is a good or bad idea? The results, as exhibited in Figure 11, are clear: 92.3% (41 in total) of respondents felt it was a 'good' thing.

Students always choose what is best for themselves as individuals rather than considering what is best for the whole class
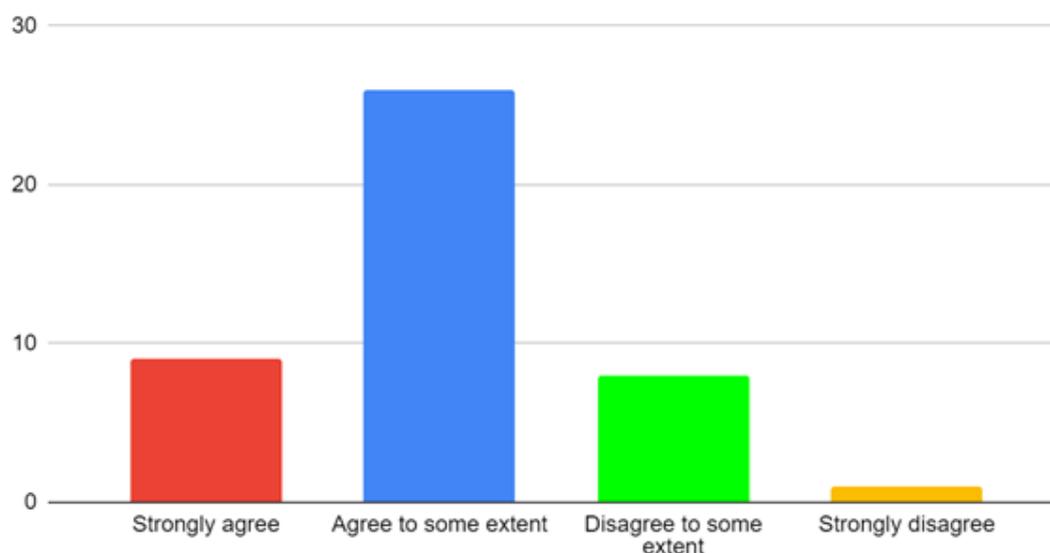

Figure 10
Are decisions made by students selfish?

Generally speaking, do you think the idea of 'class democracy' is a good or bad idea?
44 responses
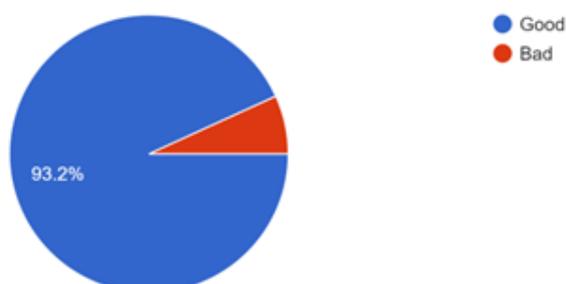
Figure 11
Is democracy overall good or bad in the classroom?

Limitations

Before summarising the results in the conclusion, it seems expedient to concede where there are limitations to these findings.

There are issues when the evaluatee is the same person administering the survey, especially when that person is in a position of authority. For example. if students like their teacher, they may be more likely to offer unrelated positive appraisals ('Halo effect', Thorndike, 1920). This could be enhanced by the well-documented tendency of respondents to choose positive answers on any survey (acquiescence bias). Respondents may also fear that their identities would be known to the teacher and that providing answers that could be perceived as critical or negative would have a negative impact on, for example, their grading. However, the wording of the survey reassured them both of their confidentiality and that their answers would not affect their grades, and some students seem to have given honest, and frank admissions in certain sections, so this would seem to be mitigated to some extent.

In addition, the sample size was small. Furthermore, any voluntary survey carries the obvious potential for voluntary response bias (responses may not be representative of all students, as those with stronger opinions are more likely to respond), and nonresponse bias (those with no interest in, in this case class democracy, are less likely to respond, which would certainly limit the findings that all students thought it was good for their motivation). However, with over half of all students responding, again that seems less of a concern here.

The author does not make any claims of statistical significance. However, what the results of this survey do offer are an indication of the extent to which students responded well to having input in class decisions, and helps the author tailor any similar efforts in the future.

Conclusion

Did students value having input?

The responses to the survey would seem to indicate a resounding 'yes'. 93.2% of students stated they thought class democracy was a 'good idea', 100% agreed that it motivates students to have more interest in the class, 100% believed that students should have at least some input into class decisions (with 43.2% believing that they should be involved in most decisions, and 15.9% in all decisions). The overwhelming majority of students stated they believed they should be allowed input into all the examples listed (class format, assignment deadlines, classroom.. etc), and this was most discernibly the case with assignment deadlines (97.7%) and class format (95.5%).

Students were frank about the fact, as most conceded, they may make decisions that are 'lazy', short-termist or selfish, all of which can be seen as limitations to democracy in wider society, too, it could be argued. However, this is more about the level of input they should be allowed (addressed in the next section) than whether they should have any input at all, and most students would likely agree with the previously cited respondent that, "...the final decision should be made by the teacher, taking into account the opinions of the students, because a student's opinion alone is not a

good balance."

Did they want more input? Less?

When asked how often students felt they were allowed input into each of the five types of decisions, the most popular answers were 'always' followed by 'often'. In terms of striking the right balance in terms of too much or too little, 84.1% felt the teacher got it 'just right'. While there were some students who would have preferred more input, there were also those who would have preferred less, a set of results that suggests the level of input they were allowed was well-balanced.

When asked if students felt there was any other area where they should have been allowed input, the only suggestion was for how the groups for tasks and assignments are formed, which is something to think about going forward.

How effectively were the opinions of the minority also valued?

While there was more variation in opinion on the theme of making concessions to minority voters, most students agreed that always granting the majority their wish would be unfair on others, and the vast majority (88.6%) again felt the teacher got the balance 'just right' in terms of sometimes making such concessions, while respecting democratic votes.

How effective was the way in which 'democracy' was practised?

The results above suggest that most students felt the teacher got the balance in general terms 'just right'. More specifically, in terms of how democracy was practised, most students (84.1%) indicated that they preferred having a vote of some kind, with or without a discussion. Of those, the clear preference (66% of respondents in total, and 78.5% of the aforementioned group that prefer a vote) was for an anonymous vote rather than a show of hands. In total, 77.2% of respondents would rather integrate a discussion with their peers into any decision-making, with or without a vote. This set of results suggests anonymous votes, preceded by discussions if time permits, are the most

appreciated and effective form of democracy in the classroom, going forward.

Limitations notwithstanding, this modest experiment with class democracy seems to have met with some success, based on the reactions from students. Students overwhelmingly believe they should provide at least some input and that doing so has a positive impact on their motivation, valued the input they were permitted, felt the amount of input they had was well-balanced, and sensed that an appropriate level of concessions were made to minority voters. Going forward, they would like more say in how groups are formed for tasks, and would prefer their input to be in the form of discussions followed by anonymous votes, where time permits.

It is hoped this experiment will inspire other teachers to allow students to have a say in classroom decisions, even if very limited, as it clearly has met with their approval in this instance.

References

Birdsell, B., Ream, S., Seyller, A. & Zobott, P. (2009). *Motivating students by increasing student choice*. Masters thesis, Saint Xavier University. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/234651137_Motivating_Students_by_Increasing_Student_Choice

Breen, M. P. & Littlejohn, A. (2000). *Classroom decision-making: Negotiation and process syllabuses in practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Collins, J., Hess, M. E., & Lowery, C. L. (2019). Democratic spaces: How teachers establish and sustain democracy and education in their classrooms. *Democracy and Education*, *27*(1), 3.

Crookes, G. V. (2021). Critical language pedagogy: an introduction to principles and values, *ELT Journal*, *75*(3), July 2021, 247-255. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab020

Egitim, S. (2021). Collaborative leadership in English language classrooms: engaging learners in leaderful classroom practices and strategies. International *Journal of Leadership in Education*, 1-21. https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2021.1990413

Fielding, M., & Moss, P. (2010). *Radical Education and the Common School: A Democratic Alternative* (1st ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203837405

Fritzsche, L. (2022) Integrating contemplative pedagogy and anti-oppressive pedagogy in geography higher education classrooms, *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, *46*(2), 167-184. https://doi.org/10.1080/03098265.2021.1946766

Morrison, K. A. (2008). Democratic classrooms: Promises and challenges of student voice and choice, part one. *Educational Horizons*, *87*(1), 50–60.

Rogers, C. R. (1969). *Freedom to learn: A view of what education might become*. Columbus, Ohio : C.E. Merrill Pub. Co., 1969.

Thorndike, E. (1920) A constant error in psychological ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *4*, 25-29. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0071663

Underwood, Julia. (n.d.). *The Challenges of Democratic Education*. Retrieved from https://juliaunderwoodjau.wixsite.com/msunderwood/about3-cu6c

Vygotsky, L. S. (1962). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

JALT Special Interest Groups and the PanSIG Conference

Accessibility in Language Learning

The Accessibility in Language Learning SIG became a new forming SIG in February 2021. This SIG aims to create a community of language teachers to better understand learners with special needs to improve learners' overall learning experiences with diverse learning needs.

Bilingualism

Our group provides support to families who are bringing up children in two or more languages in Japanese contexts. Our newsletter, *Bilingual Japan*, includes practical information about bilingual parenting, as well as academic and theoretical issues. The SIG's annual forum and banquet at the national conference provide an opportunity for members to network with other bilingual families. Further information can be found at www.bsig.org.

Business Communication

The JALT Business Communication (BizCom or BC) SIG represents a group of like-minded teachers intended to develop the discipline of teaching English conducive to participation in the world business community in Japan. To facilitate this, we aim to provide instructors in this field with a means of collaboration and sharing best teaching practices.

CEFR and Language Portfolio

CEFR & LP SIG wants to discuss the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) and European Language Portfolio (ELP), and other similar frameworks andtheir relevance for Japan. There is an emphasis on developing materials to support educators who would like to use these pedagogic tools; the bilingual Language Portfolio for Japanese University is available on the SIG website.

College and University Educators

Our goal is to provide a forum for the presentation and discussion of educational activities, ideas and research of broad interest to college and university educators in Japan. If you are involved in tertiary education and are committed to professional development, you are CUE too.

Computer Assisted Language Learning

The CALL SIG serves the interests of language teaching professionals who are interested in bringing together knowledge and skills of technology and language learning. CALL practitioners work in a variety of educational settings: private language schools, elementary and secondary schools as well as colleges and universities.

Critical Thinking

The Critical Thinking (CT) SIG was established for the purpose of providing a clear but ever-reforming definition of critical thinking; to provide a forum for the discussion of critical thinking and praxis; to provide research opportunities to language educators interested in promoting critical thinking; and to provide an area where language teachers can enjoy friendly, professional and engaging examination of the rationale, validity and, furthermore, the critical importance of its instruction in various environments.

Extensive Reading

The ER SIG exists to help promote extensive reading (ER) in Japan. Through our website, our newsletter, the ERJ Journal, and presentations throughout Japan we aim to help teachers set up and make the most of their ER programmes.

Gender Awareness in Language Education

The purpose of the GALE SIG is to research gender and its implications for language learning, teaching, and training. We welcome submissions for our newsletter (spring, summer, and fall issues) on topics, both theoretical and practical, related to the SIG's aims. Book reviews, lesson plans, think pieces, poetry -- basically anything related to gender and language teaching is welcomed. To see our past newsletters, please visit our website at www.gale-sig.org.

Global Issues in Language Education

GILE aims to promote global awareness, international understanding, and action to solve world problems through content-based language teaching, drawing from fields such as global education, peace education, environmental education, and human rights education. The SIG produces a quarterly newsletter, organizes presentations for local, national, and international conferences, and maintains contacts with groups ranging from Amnesty International to Educators for Social Responsibility to UNESCO.

Intercultural Communication in Language Education

This SIG aims to explore various ways language teachers could help shape their students' intercultural minds, raise their students' cultural self-awareness, and educate for intercultural understanding. It promotes discussion about various approaches to teaching intercultural communication in a language classroom, allowing educators to become better informed about language intercultural education theory. We also promote the development of resources appropriate to a foreign language teaching environment while considering the practical challenges of taking culture into account in the language classroom.

Japanese as a Second Language

日本語教育研究部会（JSL SIG）の役割は、第二言語としての日本語指導、日本語学習、日本語教育研究の向上を目指し、指導、学習、研究のための資料や情報を与えることです。日本語の指導者、学習者、研究者の皆様加入大歓迎です。発表の援助をし、ニュースレターと論文集を発行するので論文・記事の寄稿を歓迎します。

The mission of the Japanese as a Second Language (JSL) SIG is to serve as a resource for promoting JSL teaching, learning and research. We welcome JSL teachers, learners, and researchers to join and take an active role in our SIG.

Learner Development

The Learner Development SIG is an active and supportive community of individuals with a broad range of personal and professional experiences, all sharing an interest in exploring learner (and educator) development. We encourage anyone with similar interests to join us. To find out more, please visit our SIG's website, ld-sig.org.

Lifelong Language Learning

We offer a bright future to our aging society. The energy of older learners who wish to lead active lives is flowing all over Japan. LLL (**Life Long Learning**) is willing to help these older learners enrich their lives through language learning. LLL also provides resources and information for teachers who teach English to older learners by holding events and publishing online newsletters.

Listening

The Listening Special Interest Group (Listening SIG) provides a forum for focused listening research and discussion in specific regard to teaching and learning. The group offers both teachers and researchers a place to connect, collaborate and share practice and research regarding how teachers teach listening and assess their learners, how learners improve their listening and use it to improve their knowledge, and finally how theoretical aspects connect to classroom practice.

Literature in Language Teaching

Hi! A hearty welcome to the Literature in Language Teaching SIG. We started up this group to encourage and promote the use of literature in the language classroom. Literature provides real content to engage and to motivate our EFL students.

Materials Writers

The MW SIG was established for the purpose of helping members to turn fresh teaching ideas into useful classroom materials. We try to be a mutual assistance network, offering information regarding copyright law, sharing practical advice on publishing practices, including self-publication, and suggesting ways to create better language learning materials for general consumption or for individual classroom use.

教材開発研究部会 (MW) は、メンバーが日々の教育の場で得た新しいアイディアを教材にしていく助けとなることを目的に設立されました。著作権に関すること、自費出版を含めた出版に関する実践的なアドバイス、広く一般学習者または特定の授業のためにどうしたらより良い語学教材が作れるか、といったことに関するアイディアを共有しお互いを高め合える部会であることが願いです。教材開発についてもっと知りたい、自分のアイディアを形にしたいという方、入会大歓迎です。一緒に活動しませんか。

Mind, Brain, and Education

The Mind, Brain, and Education SIG is a forum for language educators and researchers to share insights in neuroscience. We hope to be a driving force in bringing relevant new discoveries in psychology, cognitive neuroscience and neurolinguistics into language teaching in Japan.

Mixed, Augmented, and Virtual Realities

Mixed, Augmented and Virtual Realities (MAVR) is not a new concept or area of study, but it an area that is beginning to be implemented at a larger scale in many other fields. There are those of us working in this area connected to education here in Japan and more specifically language education in Japan. Our SIG is not just about the technology, it is also looking into what these technologies mean for how we communicate and learn as we create and augment our own reality.

Other Language Educators

Hello; dobr denj; kalimera; ni hao; guten tag; anyong hashimnikka; bonjour, buenos dias; hyvää päivää; bom dia; haisai; konnichiwa!

In a time when we can easily understand where and how other people live, there is still only one surefire way to find out what they think individually or as a culture: to learn their language. As every culture contains specific patterns of thought and mindsets which cannot always be put into English or translated easily from one language to another, learning its language opens the door to that culture and the countries using it. The purpose of the OLE SIG is to serve the special needs of such learners and teachers.

Performance in Education

The mission of the Performance in Education (PIE) SIG is to provide a forum for teachers and academics to discuss, research, and implement oral interpretation, speech, debate, and drama in language education. The main activities are creation of a newsletter and sponsoring a National Speech, Drama, and Debate Contest. Future activities may be the sponsoring of workshops and conferences, and supporting local and regional speech, drama, and debate contests or festivals.

Pragmatics

The Pragmatics SIG welcomes members who are interested in both research and practical teaching issues related to "how people do things with words." The group's newsletter, *Pragmatic Matters*, is published electronically three times a year. Our *Pragmatics Resources* series offers practical and theoretical papers on language in use. If you do anything with language, you are using pragmatics! So, come join us!

School Owners

Language School owners have always played a significant role in JALT both at national & local levels. The SO SIG is where owners can share ideas, experiences, and solutions to the academic and commercial challenges they face which cannot be addressed through other SIGs. If you have questions or would like to learn more about what the SIG provides, please contact us at so@jalt.org or visit our website at https://jaltsosig.wixsite.com/home.

Study Abroad

The Study Abroad SIG welcomes anyone interested into its wide membership, domestically and overseas. The aim is to facilitate an active and working network of faculty, staff, and students who can share and exchange experiences, knowledge, and knowhow on how to plan, prepare, implement, and evaluate different study abroad programs/experiences. Study abroad includes all categories of inbound and outbound, one-way study abroad, exchange, internships, experience, and cultural programs. The goal for many SIG members is to network, to collect and share data and information for future collaboration, research, presentations, and papers in the area of study abroad.

Task-Based Learning

The JALT Task-Based Learning (TBL) SIG is a Special Interest Group aimed at teachers who currently use, or are interested in using, task-based approaches in the classroom. The SIG focuses in particular on issues related to Task-Based Language teaching and learning in the Asian EFL context, where TBLT has yet to enter the mainstream of language pedagogy. We hope that the SIG will serve as a useful forum for the exchange of practical teaching ideas, theoretical discussion, and academic studies of TBLT issues.

Teacher Development

The Teacher Development SIG is a group committed to helping ourselves and our peers to become more effective language teachers in order to better serve learners. As such, our varied activities and interests include forums, conferences, and journals about professional development, practitioner research, and reflective practice. Our SIG offers opportunities for teachers from different educational settings to come together for careful and critical reflections and explorations of their practice, with a view to developing as professionals. The TD SIG is a flexible group, open to new ideas and potential collaborations.

Teachers Helping Teachers

The THT SIG began from the charity work of the late Bill Balsamo and we organize 4 overseas conferences in Laos (Feb/Mar), Vietnam (Early August), Kyrygystan and Bangladesh (Sept, date depends on Ramadan) as well as work to develop overseas volunteer opportunities. Participants pay their own way, and are asked to prepare 2-3 presentations (practical presentations are most welcome) that they may present multiple times to organize and fill out the conference schedule. For more information, please contact thtjalt@gmail.com.

Teaching Younger Learners

The TYL SIG is for teachers of younger learners. This SIG was formed by the merger of the JALT Teaching Children SIG and the Junior Senior High SIG in February 2015. The goal of the TYL SIG is to support those involved with or simply interested in the teaching of languages to learners aged 0-18. We publish a bilingual newsletter with columns by many of the leading teachers in the field.

Testing and Evaluation

The Testing and Evaluation SIG aims to provide avenues for research, information, and discussion related to foreign language testing and evaluation both from within JALT membership and with other professional organizations which have common interests and goals. Please visit our website at www.jalt.org/test.

Vocabulary

The Vocabulary Special Interest Group (Vocab SIG) provides a forum for focused research and discussion in specific regard to vocabulary acquisition. We offer both teachers and researchers a place to connect regarding how learners improve vocabulary knowledge, how to test their knowledge, and how these theoretical aspects connect to classroom practice. The Vocabulary SIG aims to be a driving force for both current and future research in the field of how vocabulary can be taught, learned, and tested in an increasingly global context.

PanSIG Journal 2022

Patrick Conaway –Editor-in-Chief

Duncan Iske –Associate Editor

PanSIG Journal

PanSIG Journal 2022

PanSIG is a yearly conference held by the Special Interest Groups in the Japan Association of Language Teachers.