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From Many, One: Collaboration, Cooperation, and Community

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Message from the editors:

The 12th Annual PanSIG Conference was held at Nanzan University on May 18 and 19, 2013. The theme of the conference was, "From Many, One: Collaboration, Cooperation, and Community." This was a collaborative effort from 26 Special Interest Groups (SIGs) within the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). The conference was highly successful as approximately 400 participants attended about 200 presentations with a variety of topics and interests from a wide spectrum in the field of language teaching.

The 2013 PanSIG Proceedings is a representative effort from the conference in Nagoya as 44 papers were accepted for publication in this year's volume, as well as two papers from the conference Plenary Speakers. The quantity and quality of presentations and published papers from the conference are increasing year by year and show the professional determination of talented individuals who shared their thoughts and insights of teaching languages. We are honored and proud to have been a part of this process.

We would like to thank all of the contributors for submitting their papers for this publication. We are also very grateful for the readers of the papers who suggested changes to the authors and contributed to the high quality of this volume. The success of these proceedings is a cumulative effort from a large number of individuals. We hope that you will enjoy reading the papers in these proceedings and that you can gain some insight for your professional development.

Robert Chartrand
Gavin Brooks
Mathew Porter
Myles Grogan
April 24, 2014

Message from the conference chair:

Conferences are ephemeral things—many people work long hours over a long period of time to create a good conference, the conference happens, more or less as planned, people give presentations, people attend presentations (but not all they wanted to see), publishers show their wares, everybody is busy networking, and then it is over. The staff cleans up, pat each other on the back, and everybody goes on with their lives, teaching their classes, going to other conferences, growing professionally. PanSIG2013 is no exception. I was proud to have worked with such a dedicated and capable team of people. We hosted a good conference, and now it is over.

However, that weekend of the conference there was so much good information in the presentations we saw that we have since forgotten, there were so many presentations we wanted to attend, but didn't get to see, and there are so many gems of presentations that we overlooked in the busy PanSIG weekend. This is why the proceedings is so important. It is a way to make the ephemeral permanent. It is a tool to help us with our profession. It is also a reminder of the importance of the theme of the conference, "From Many, One: Collaboration, Cooperation, and Community."

A big thank you goes to Robert Chartrand, Gavin Brooks, Myles Grogan, and Mathew Porter, and the entire Proceedings team. They have created a useful tool, and a sort of yearbook of the conference.

David Kluge
Conference Chair, PanSIG2013

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Exploring Practitioner Perspectives on Collaboration, Cooperation and Community in the Language Classroom

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This paper discusses a form of practitioner research in language education, Exploratory Practice (EP), which invites teachers and learners to work collaboratively to investigate puzzles in their own classrooms. A case study of practitioners working with EP in an English for Academic Purposes context is presented and the challenges and opportunities that practitioners (teachers and learners) faced are analyzed.

本稿では、言語教育における授業実践研究—探求的実践 (EP) について論じる。この試みの中で、教師と学習者の協働を通して、自分達の教室内で起こっている様々な複雑な事象、現象を解き明かしていく。学術英語 (Academic English) のクラスでのEP事例研究を通し、教師と学習者が直面する様々な可能性や問題点を分析した。

Introduction

Over the decades, practitioner research has been increasingly recognised as a force for developing understanding of language learning and teaching (Clandinin & Connelly, 1995; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, 2009; Stenhouse, 1975). Yet, as others have argued (Borg, 2013; Johnson & Golombek, 2002; Zeichner & Noffke, 2001), there is still a need for greater understanding of the implications of, and for, practitioners wishing to engage in research into their own educational practices. The form of practitioner research under discussion here, Exploratory Practice (Allwright & Hanks, 2009; Allwright & Miller, 2013; Miller, 2009), provides an opportunity for examination of such implications.

The EP framework prioritizes the notion of working together for mutual development, and advocates including learners as co-researchers alongside their teachers as they cooperate to investigate their language learning and teaching lives (Allwright, 1993, 2003; Allwright & Hanks, 2009; Gieve & Miller, 2006b). But what does this mean in practice?

In this paper I discuss the potential for collaborative teaching, learning and research that EP offers. I argue that EP harnesses this potential to enhance quality of life for those in the language classroom. This, however, is not unproblematic. Based on a case study taken from a much larger research project (Hanks, 2013a, 2013b, Forthcoming), I analyse the challenges as well as the opportunities that a group of learners and teachers faced when they started to implement EP into their

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own classroom practices. As I do so, I propose to link the EP principles both implicitly and explicitly with the themes of the JALT PAN-SIG conference: community, cooperation and collaboration. I conclude that although such themes may be problematic, they are worth pursuing, leading as they do, to an enhanced sense of 'quality of life' in the demanding, challenging world of the language classroom.

Background

In order to address the divides frequently noted between teachers, academics, researchers, and learners (Edge, 2011; Freeman, 1996), Exploratory Practice advocates a principled approach to practitioner research (Allwright, 2001, 2005; Allwright & Hanks, 2009; Gieve & Miller, 2006a; Hanks, 1999, 2013b). Two distinctive characteristics of EP are: (i) the notion of minimizing the workload on already overloaded teachers and students by incorporating research into pedagogy, not adding it on top, and (ii) positioning learners as co-researchers (Allwright, 2003) alongside their teachers. These principles for practitioner research have been developed over twenty-five years of working with teachers and learners and researchers. They are fluid, and, as may be expected, have undergone a number of changes over the years. However, a number of themes remain constant:

The 'what' issues

1. Focus on *quality of life* as the fundamental issue.
2. Work to *understand* it, before thinking about solving problems.

The 'who' issues

3. Involve *everybody* as practitioners developing their own understandings.
4. Work to bring people *together* in a common enterprise.
5. Work cooperatively for *mutual development.*

The 'how' issues

6. Make it a *continuous* enterprise.
7. *Minimise the burden* by integrating the work for understanding into normal pedagogic practice.

(Allwright & Hanks, 2009, p260, original emphases)

Allwright (2001, 2003), Allwright & Hanks (2009), and Allwright & Miller (2013) argue that learners and teachers working together, as equals, to research their own classroom language learning and teaching experiences, may develop their own, and our, understandings of the pedagogic process. Above all, the notion of 'working for understanding' should be prioritized over the more common approach in other forms of practitioner research of problem-solving. In addition, collaborative working, it is argued, can lead to mutual development, and a greater understanding of what it is to learn or teach a language. But these principles, though ostensibly laudable, raise a number of questions: Why should we work to bring people together in a common enterprise? Why should we work cooperatively for mutual development? What does integrating the work for understanding into normal pedagogic practice really look like? The case study that follows will address these questions.

Before moving on to discuss the case study, though, it is worth pausing a moment to unpack the notions of collaboration, cooperation and community in the language classroom.

So what do we mean by 'collaboration'? Collaboration with whom, by whom, for whom? According to EP principles 3, 4 and 5 above, collaboration would include both teachers and learners working together to understand what is going on in their classrooms. An optimistic view of collaboration enumerates the benefits, as Tajino argues: "student-teacher collaborative reflection may contribute to better learning and teaching [...] a sharing of responsibility for achieving and sustaining an educational quality of life among all practitioners" (2009: 128). Yet, as Tajino (2009) and Slimani-Rolls (2003; 2009) have acknowledged, collaboration between individuals is rarely a smooth affair; people bring their own assumptions, needs and demands to the classroom.

Then what do we mean by 'cooperation'? Central to the EP principles above, is the notion of learners and teachers cooperating with each other and with other colleagues (administrative staff, friends and family, as well as academics and researchers) with the intention of developing understandings of what goes on in language classrooms. The notion of 'mutual development' is seen as crucial. But is this not an overly-idealistic view of learners and teachers, let alone academics and researchers? Cooperation, like collaboration, is notoriously complex, involving different personalities, egos, agendas.

And finally what do we mean by 'community'? For the purposes of this paper, I have used Wenger's early notion of a Community of Practice, in which practitioners "act as resources to each other, exchanging information, making sense of situations, sharing new tricks and new ideas, as well as keeping each other company and spicing up each others' working days" (Wenger, 1998 p47). This positive description of a community is uplifting. But might there be other, less attractive, sides? Who is defined as part of a community, who excluded, and why? The community itself is not homogenous, it is made up of individuals. Within a community there may be clashes between individuals, attempts at dominance, sometimes accepted, sometimes repulsed: 'spice' as chilli, bringing tears as well as delight.

Why explore practitioner perspectives?

In 2009, Dick Allwright and I put forward five propositions about learners. We argued that:

> Learners are both unique individuals and social beings who are capable of taking learning seriously, of taking independent decisions, and of developing as practitioners of learning.
>
> (Allwright & Hanks, 2009, p15)

To us, this meant a re-evaluation of assumptions about practitioner research, about learning, teaching and research. By inviting learners to work alongside teachers as "co-researchers" (Allwright, 2003, p129), we wanted to broaden the definition of a 'practitioner-researcher' to incorporate both teacher and learner perspectives. Learners, we felt, have much to offer in terms of insights into the pedagogic processes of the language classroom. They are also frequently overlooked as powerful actors in the drama of the classroom, with opinions and ideas of their own. As a participant researcher myself, I was convinced of the benefits to be had from including a range of voices in the study, including the perspectives of both learners and teachers. Consequently, I took care to include learners' narratives as well as those of the teachers in my study.

The Case Study

Having been involved with Exploratory Practice since the mid-1990s, I was intrigued by a conundrum. I knew that EP was thriving in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in a variety of contexts (private language schools, state schools at primary as well as secondary level, and at university level). Likewise, EP was clearly in evidence in China, Japan, Turkey, and the USA, to name but a few. However, to my knowledge, there were no practitioners engaging in EP in my own context of teaching English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in the UK at that time. I wondered: 'Why don't we do EP in my situation?' and then: 'What happens if we try it?'. For the purposes of this study, I re-framed these as Research Questions:

1. What are the challenges faced by practitioners (teachers and learners) when they try to conduct EP in an EAP context?
2. How do teachers and learners set about initiating EP?

To investigate these questions, I took a qualitative, interpretive approach, using a number of case studies, observing the implementation of EP in an EAP context. In working with colleagues (teachers and students) I was acutely aware of the ethical dilemmas that any researcher faces. For example: how to ensure confidentiality, while also honouring the contributions of the various practitioners? How to ensure informed consent, when the practitioners themselves were but budding researchers, who may not have fully understood all the implications? How to ensure that practitioners were not patronized, or their experiences marginalized? Such knotty issues are faced by any practitioner researcher wishing to include colleagues as equal participants in the research process, rather than positioning them as 'subjects' or even 'objects' of study. My own approach was to follow the notion of the 'virtuous researcher' (Pring, 2001; Small, 2001) – in other words, to remain aware of the ethical implications of every step, to seek permission from my institution's ethics committee, and to do this in as thoughtful manner as I could, and above all, to protect the interests of the participants.

What follows is the story of the implementation of EP for the first time on a long pre-sessional programme preparing students for study at undergraduate level in a British university. This was an intensive 11-week pre-sessional course, teaching English for Academic Purposes (EAP) to a group of young international students in the UK. In common with many other similar courses, this was a high stakes, goal-oriented programme, with limited time available to the students before they moved on to take up (if successful) places either on an International Foundation Year, or on their chosen undergraduate degree programmes.

A major issue for the teachers and myself was: how to incorporate EP in such a context? Would the very nature of such a programme clash with the EP principles? How would the learners respond (or not) to the introduction of an exploratory mindset, which invited them to investigate their own practices of learning, alongside their teachers? In order to find out, I observed as EP was implemented, and interviewed the participants at regular intervals over the 11-week programme.

What puzzled the practitioners?

A first step was to give a talk explaining the principles of EP. This talk performed the dual purpose of (i) providing valuable listening and note-taking practice (an opportunity to listen to a live speaker for an extended period is a typical activity in EAP, as it replicates the experience of listening to lectures, and focuses learners' attention on the academic skills they will need), and (ii) of introducing the EP framework. The talk ended with an invitation to the class: 'What puzzles you about your language learning experiences?' As the learners wrote down their puzzles, their

Table 1
Learner puzzles.

Name	Nationality	Length of time in UK	No of people in group	Puzzle(s)
Ahmad*	Saudi Arabian	6 months	4	Why don't I like to learn another language from my mother tongue?
				Why can't I study in certain situations?
Ted	Japanese	6 months	4	Why do people learn bad words [= swear words] more easily?
Chiho	Japanese	6 months	4	Why can't I express my feelings?
				Why can't I speak like I think?
Yumi	Japanese	New arrival	4	Why can't I speak like I think?
Kai	Japanese	New arrival	4	Why can't I speak like I think?
				Why when I read, I can't understand quickly?
Kelly	Japanese	New arrival	2 (rising to 3 later)	Why are Japanese good at writing and Saudi Arabians good at speaking?

* Pseudonyms are used throughout this study.

teachers were also invited to puzzle about their own language teaching (or learning) experiences. I have described the teachers' EP journeys elsewhere (Hanks, Forthcoming) so will concentrate here on the learners' stories. Their puzzles covered a range of issues, running from the social, to the practical, to the philosophical, psychological aspects of learning a language (see Table 1).

So what did we do?

Six weeks of the 11-week course included an EP strand. This meant in practice that between one and two 90-minute lessons (out of fifteen) were devoted to EP per week. In the first class EP was introduced via powerpoint presentation (as outlined above). The next class focused on the student puzzles, as they shared questions, and formed groups around topic areas that interested them. Once the groups had formed, the teacher, Jenny, encouraged them to think about small-scale data collection. For example, those who were interested in issues to do with speaking skills worked on developing a set of questions for an open-ended interview with a teacher, while others produced a questionnaire for students to fill in. In all, this took five weeks, as the learners shared (and refined) puzzles, investigated what it was that had puzzled them, read articles or chapters on the subject, collected data, collated and analysed their data, and prepared poster presentations of their findings to date. These presentations were delivered by the learners (in their groups), for the learners (and their teachers). Each group consisted of between three and five students, and every student in the group spoke. In addition, each presentation (again, to replicate the type of academic activity they might find during the course of their degrees) was followed by a question-and-answer session. As follow-up work, the students wrote up their small-scale investigations in group 'methodology' assignments.

As they worked, the learners

1. Set their own research agendas (puzzles)
2. Worked together to explore their agendas
3. Worked together to collect/generate data, analysed the data
4. Prepared presentations of their findings
5. Gave poster presentations to an audience who asked searching questions

During the whole process, the learners practised key language (question formation, negotiating meaning, listening, reading, speaking and writing skills) as well as the academic skills they would need (questioning, critical thinking, analysing, synthesising ideas and information). As they collaborated and cooperated in their Community of (classroom) Practice, over the 11 weeks of the study, a sense of harmony developed with heightened motivation for all.

What were the learners' perspectives?

Space does not allow a full analysis here of all the responses from the learners, which were predictably complex, having elements in common, while also individual, idiosyncratic. A few comments must suffice to give a flavour of the rich and varied reactions they expressed.

Kelly's puzzle: 'Why are Japanese good at writing and Saudi Arabians good at speaking?'

Kelly (a Japanese student) explained the reason for her question comparing the relative proficiencies of Japanese and Saudi Arabian students as follows:

> **Kelly:** on the first week of this programme I was very shocked that Saudi Arabians [...] speak very fast and, yeah very fast, and many opinions they have... they have many opinions. I can't say... I can't speak anything
>
> (interview 1g)

Initially, on entering this newly formed community (her cohort of classmates), Kelly expressed a degree of discomfort. She had assumed that the confidence and fluency of a particular group of students indicated their level of English was somehow 'better', and was therefore discouraged from speaking herself. However, as she puzzled over the question along with her group, she found layers of complexity: it was not a simple matter of one national group being better than another.

Kelly's group had started as a pair of Japanese students, with a late (Saudi Arabian) arrival joining them. She was delighted by this addition, explaining that having another nationality in the group allowed her to compare the Japanese and Saudi experiences more fully. The group worked well together, using questionnaires to ascertain the opinions of students and teachers. They produced a poster, which Kelly described with pride. Her group's poster illustrated the understandings that she and her fellow students had reached regarding developing skills in spoken and written language. Motifs such as pie-charts, lists and numerical information, and advice for learners were presented.

Arguably, by collaborating (with other learners, with teachers) she was able to more confidently take her place in her new community:

> **Kelly:** we have to discuss with other students in the group and so lots of speaking, and also we have to organise the – our information and also maybe the designing. I, - we have to think about the design how to write specifically [...] so maybe I get, my ability get more and more well
>
> (interview 2g)

Interestingly, the group used the poster to consider the processes learners go through when speaking, and identified heavy reliance on translation as an impediment to fluent speech. They also found that while many Japanese struggled with speaking, they had not reckoned on the fact that many of their fellow, Saudi Arabian, students were grappling with writing. These are, of course, not ground-breaking findings – many teachers, and researchers, are aware of such issues. However, crucially, these students had found out for themselves, and thus their findings had a depth of personal meaning for them.

Moreover, Kelly's story illustrated the shift away from 'how to...' and beyond the assumption that the teacher holds the answer: her group moved towards balancing the advice they received from teachers with their own understandings of the difficulties learners face when speaking and writing in a foreign language. In carrying out the investigations, Kelly discovered for herself that an initial superficial impression hid many complexities.

Chiho's puzzle: 'Why can't I speak like I think?'

Another group of students were also interested in oral communication, but this time from a more introspective position: they considered their own internal capacities in the language. One member of the group, Chiho, identified the complexity of their puzzle, separating the question about technique from self-perception and psychological aspects of learning:

> **Chiho:** It was very difficult to [...] define our puzzlement [...] because the... 'why we can't speak English' it is simple, but 'as we think we can' it is... each of us in our group have diff-difficulties in our brain
>
> (interview 3e)

In her first interview, Chiho had noted the role-reversal offered by EP: teachers could learn from students as much as the other way around:

> **Chiho:** of course we can learn a lot of things from the lecture, but I think [...] we are studying, the teachers are also studying, so interaction is very beneficial to both teachers and students
>
> (interview 1e)

She was intrigued by the egalitarian approach to teaching and learning found in EP and highlighted the potential for *mutual* development, and cooperation that EP offered. This was echoed by one of the teachers, Jenny, who pointed out at the end of the study that EP "makes them realise what they're capable of [...] and it helped me view them in a much more adult kind of way" (interview 5b).

Ahmad's puzzle: 'Why can't I study in certain situations?'

A third student, Ahmad, illustrates the complex ecology (Tudor, 2001) of classroom work. He declined the opportunity to work on his initial puzzle ('Why don't I like to learn another language from my mother tongue?'), choosing instead to work in a group. This was despite a significant amount of encouragement from his teacher, who was interested in his initial puzzle herself. He also rejected the option of working individually on the puzzle, even though he claimed not to enjoy group work:

> **Ahmad:** usually in my life I prefer to work alone, that's why I don't like groups work because I'm... naturally I don't like participate in others ((*really?*)) yes, but I think in this project I have to work in groups because you know I need to make questionnaires, surveys and some... interviews some people, that's why I think I need to work with other people
>
> (interview 1f)

He displayed a pragmatic and mature attitude, identifying the need to work with others, and explaining this, while also stating that he preferred to work alone.

As time went on, though, Ahmad seemed to forget his initial reluctance, enthusiastically relating the processes of delivering questionnaires and interviewing people. Nevertheless, he later returned to his staunchly individualistic stance. His teacher noticed this distancing as her class worked in their groups to write up their EP work:

> **Jenny:** as they started writing it, he just basically sat apart from them, and they were [...] sat at the computer writing it basically together sentence by sentence, arguing about what sentence should be what... and I thought it was quite cooperative [...] he physically kept away from them, and I was trying to say, you know, 'Ahmad are you OK, do you want to contribute, do you feel that you're being ignored?' and we had quite a deep discussion about his feelings about group work
>
> (interview 5b)

Ahmad himself explained his position as follows:

> **Ahmad:** generally everything in life I don't like to work with group, I prefer to work alone [...] when we start write our report we couldn't find the best way to divide the work between us
>
> (interview 3f)

This difficulty in negotiating responsibilities and tasks within the group will be familiar to both learners and teachers. There was no question about Ahmad's commitment to the work: he was a serious student, but found the social aspects of collaboration and cooperation tricky.

I wondered if this had implications for the EP principles of collegial working. Perhaps working together was not always desirable? But Ahmad surprised me by continuing his story. When the course was drawing to a close, he described the group writing assignment as follows:

> **Ahmad:** always in my essays I tried to use complicated sentences long sentences [...] but what I found that some members of my group, they have the same idea but maybe they are- they write the areas in different sentences but they use connection words perfectly
>
> (interview 3f)

he re-emphasised this point:

> **Ahmad:** honestly I was really surprised ((*Why?*) I didn't expect it to be that good, to be... that clear, many opinions, but I found it very, very clear. Specially using... connection words. And I don't know who wrote the conclusion but he wrote the conclusion in very, very good way xxx include the main ideas. [...] So I was very surprised
>
> (interview 3f)

His estimation of his partners increased and he found a renewed respect for the contributions of his classmates.

Ahmad's story is particularly interesting because he had struggled with working collaboratively. Despite choosing to work with others on a puzzle that was not of his own devising, Ahmad had become involved. He had persevered, taking the mature view that working with others is a necessary part of classroom language learning. And in the end, he had found that his classmates did have something to offer him after all.

On being asked for his views on the Exploratory Practice experience, he, like Chiho above, emphasized the mutually beneficial aspect of the process. At the same time he identified another aspect of collaboration and cooperation:

> **Ahmad:** I think [EP]'s very important because education is not just teaching it's teaching from one side and learning from other side
>
> (interview 3f)

So what does it all mean?

In the words and actions of the teachers and learners in this study, there is a clear allegiance to notions of learner autonomy, empowerment, and integration of research and pedagogy. Freire (1973) argued many years ago that the only person who can learn is the person who appropriates learning for themselves. Even so, there remains a general assumption that learners will learn and teachers will teach, even when collaborating, cooperating. But the participants in this study show that learners can learn from one-another; teachers can learn from learners, and that this can be an enjoyable and stimulating experience.

I have presented here a case study of EP, considering the views of learners as they went about implementing EP in their teaching and learning lives. As participants worked together to investigate their puzzles, a new sense of mutual respect emerged. Through EP, the teachers began to understand the issues that their learners were grappling with. Learners enjoyed the opportunity to collaborate not only with other learners, but also with their teachers as they investigated their puzzles about language learning on an equal footing. Smith expresses this eloquently: "One of the hidden resources in our teaching worlds is the joy in the companionship of [a] few kindred spirits working together on projects that they believe in." (2009, p112).

As demonstrated by the learners in this study, collaboration, cooperation and community are both motivating and complex. This is clearly not a simple matter: not everyone enjoys collaboration; cooperation frequently involves negotiation, compromise, and at times, conflict; within a community there may be disagreement, jostling for position, in-fighting, and exclusion, as well as the joyful sharing of ideas and resources. These are convoluted concepts in a dynamic and complex world.

The JALT community collaborating and cooperating

Such complexity was writ large in the JALT PAN-SIG conference of 18-19 May 2013. In the vibrant atmosphere of the conference it was clear to me that people are passionate about their teaching, their students, their colleagues, their work. In those dealing with the aftermath of the Fukushima disaster, helping learners in ordinary and extraordinary ways; in those dealing with less traumatic, but nevertheless important daily questions of what to teach, when, and why; of who teaches, who learns and how these groups interact, I saw many examples of committed teachers dedicated to their learning and teaching community. Most exciting to me, were the suggestions of inviting learners to research and publish alongside teachers in respected professional journals.

As an 'outsider looking in', a visitor and guest, my impressions may seem overly idealistic, but I was also aware that there are (inevitably) tensions between individuals and within communities, many of which may have been bubbling only just under the surface. Those within the community are all too aware of this, and do not need an outsider to draw attention to them. Despite such tensions, they continue to meet together and share their experiences.

In the range of Special Interest Groups presenting at the conference, I saw a huge variety within the community of language teachers in Japan. Many of the discussions were rooted in the Japanese context. And yet in every one I found points of contact with issues in my own and other situations in the UK and elsewhere: how to encourage learners to speak confidently, how to address notions of culture, learning and teaching, how to incorporate egalitarian approaches to learning and teaching. In discussing issues that seem most relevant locally, it is perhaps easy to forget that we are all part of a much larger community of language teachers who face similar dilemmas, struggles and joys in our classrooms worldwide. JALT takes its place in that global community, cooperating and collaborating with language teachers and learners around the world. Battling the shared experiences of pedagogic questions, exhausting schedules, theoretical struggles, teachers and learners draw on their community in conferences such as this to return to work with renewed energy, enthusiasm and ideas.

Concluding remarks

Much has been written about the need for practitioner research which positions learners as co-researchers (Allwright, 2003, 2005, 2009) and focuses on quality of life in the classroom (Gieve & Miller, 2006). To date, however, there has been little evidence of what learners themselves might think about engaging in such work. This paper has merely scratched the surface of the wealth of experience that learners as well as teachers can bring to the notions of collaboration, cooperation and community in language classrooms.

EP is about remembering that life can be joyful, tapping into the energy that this brings, rediscovering an interest in learning and teaching, and incorporating that into our working lives. In other words 'Quality of life'.

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Ten Principles to Guide Researching Your Own Classroom

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For language teachers with little experience doing classroom research, beginning a research project can seem a somewhat daunting endeavour. What to focus on, how to define terms, how to collect data, and how to determine the research findings can all seem like huge tasks, each intimidating in its own way. Unfortunately, there is no universal "research road map" that shows exactly how to do a research project. This is because classroom research is not a set of mechanical steps to be blindly followed but rather a series of decisions guided by basic research principles. Knowing these principles will help you complete research projects more quickly and effectively and also help you create stronger research findings that are key to getting your research published. This paper describes ten essential principles of research, each one illustrated with examples from classroom research.

教室での研究をしている経験が少ない語学教師たちは、研究プロジェクトを始めるにあたり、やや困難な努力が必要だと思えるかもしれません。何に焦点を当てるべきなのか、用語を定義する方法、データを収集する方法など、研究成果を決定する際には、それぞれの方法が威圧で、大量な作業のように思えるかもしれません。残念ながら、研究プロジェクトをするにあたり、一般的な筋道を示す研究方法はありません。それは、なぜかと言いますと、教室での研究は、盲目的に従うべき機械的な一連の手順ではなく、むしろ、基礎研究の原則によって導かれる一連の決断力であるためです。以上、それらの原則を知っておくことにより、迅速かつ効果的に研究プロジェクトが行えて、また、研究成果を公開するにあたり、それらは、強力な研究成果を作成するための重要なことにつながります。本論文では、研究するにあたり、10の基本的な原則を説明しております。各それぞれは、教室での研究からの実例で説明されてあります。

Introduction

There has been a steady increase in the number of teachers researching their own classrooms over the past two decades (Altrichter, Feldman, Posch, & Somekh, 2008; Burns, 2010; Henning, Stone, & Kelly, 2009). Teacher research represents an important way to bridge what teachers read in journal articles and research textbooks with their experience of teaching in classrooms. Many language teachers working in Japanese universities are also expected to research and publish each year. Some teachers find this expectation intimidating, as they might not have had the opportunity to take a research methods class for a very long time, if ever. Also, published research may offer little insight into the research process as it often does not explain in a straightforward way how the research

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was actually conducted (Croker & Stewart, 2013).

Research is not a mysterious practice but rather a process, a series of decisions guided by basic research principles. These principles help you decide how to plan your research project, collect and analyze your data, and make your research claims. There are many principles that guide classroom research; this paper describes ten that are most useful for language teachers researching their own classrooms:

1. have a clear research focus
2. do not decide your results before you begin
3. be careful of terms
4. collect your data in the most appropriate way
5. be realistic
6. choose your participants carefully
7. behave ethically
8. collect the best quality data you can
9. analyze your data honestly, both the positive and the negative
10. make cautious and precise claims.

Principle Number One: Have a clear research focus

The first step in any research project is to decide on a broad research topic; the next step is to narrow that topic down and then to create your research questions. Writing focused research questions is essential as they guide the design of your entire study, helping you decide which participants to include, what data to collect, and how to analyse that data.

One common mistake is to write research questions that are too broad, making them difficult to answer. When this happens, you might find that you end up collecting a lot of data about your topic but not really saying anything significant. In order to narrow your research, you could ask yourself three focusing questions: *What am I looking at? When am I looking at this?* and *Who am I looking at?* Then, use the answers to these three focusing questions to help you write narrower research questions.

To help illustrate this first principle, let's look at an example of classroom research. Many language teachers use group work in their classrooms so their students can practice hearing and speaking the target language. An initial, broad research question a language teacher may have about group work is "How do students interact in small groups?" This research question is too broad to be answered in one classroom research project, so let's apply the three focusing questions to help tighten the research focus and create narrower, more answerable research questions:

> Question one: *What am I looking at?* There are different stages and types of interaction during group work. Perhaps you have noticed that before beginning actual learning tasks, most groups spend time interacting with each other to establish some form of emotional connection or positive rapport with each other, like people do in most social encounters. Moreover, perhaps you have observed that groups with better rapport tend to stay in the target language more and have longer interactions. Realizing the importance of establishing positive rapport, you decide to narrow your focus and look at how students in groups establish rapport with each other.
>
> Question two: *When am I looking at it?* Having decided what to look at, it is now easier to determine when to focus on during group interaction – when students are initially establishing rapport when groups first meet.
>
> Question three: *Who am I looking at?* Even in the relatively short period of time when students are initially establishing rapport, it would be impossible to try and observe all of the students in a class. So, focus your research on just some of the students, such as those students who only have intermediate-level proficiency yet seem to prefer to use English to establish rapport. This might limit your observation to three to four students in each class.

Considering the answers from these three focusing questions you can now create a narrower research question, "How do intermediate-level students use English to establish rapport before beginning group work?" This research question is more easily answered than the original "How do students interact in small groups?" because it is more specific and concrete.

Another common mistake even experienced researchers make is to have too many research questions. Most research papers published in JALT publications have only two or three research questions (Croker and Stewart, 2013). More than that and you might find it difficult to answer each one satisfactorily. If you do have too many, prioritise them by deciding which ones you would like to answer in your first project, and put the others aside for future research projects.

Principle Number Two: Do not decide your results before you begin

One of the most basic, self-evident principles of any empirical investigation is that you begin with an open mind, allowing what you discover to determine your results. Even though you may agree with this principle, it is easy to allow your hidden assumptions and expectations to shape what you see. The first warning signs of this may come in your research questions. For example, you might have written the following research question, "Why don't Japanese university engineering students like English?" You have clearly made one major assumption: that all Japanese engineering university students do not like English. This research question can easily be written in a more open way: "How do Japanese university engineering students feel about English?"

Here is another example, this time based upon our example of interaction during group work. In accordance with the first principle, the initial broad research question was rewritten as "How do intermediate-level students use English to establish rapport before beginning group work?" However, this research question has one important assumption: that these students always only use English. At times, they may also use Japanese, for example when their partners are not very proficient at English. To address this assumption you could rewrite the research question, breaking it into two separate questions:

"How do intermediate-level students use English to establish rapport before beginning group work?"

"When do these students use Japanese?"

These more precise research questions require more care and thought to write. It can be very difficult to see your own assumptions, so consider asking a colleague to look over your research questions with you.

Principle Number Three: Be careful of terms

In research, terms are defined very carefully and should always be used correctly. However, there are two potential problems. The first one is that some words used in classroom research have a general meaning in English but a more specific meaning in our field. For example, the general meaning of the word *noticing* is to become aware of something (*Oxford Dictionary of English*, 2010). However, the more specific meaning of noticing in second language acquisition research is giving your attention to a specific feature of language to make it available for acquisition (Harmer, 2007). These distinctions may seem small but they are important ones. Other words to be careful of include acquisition, input and output, learning, and motivation. As you research, check the specific meaning of such terms and use them accurately for the context.

The second potential problem is that although certain terms are used only in the field of applied linguistics numerous researchers have created different definitions of them. For example, the terms *communicative language teaching* and *task-based learning* are both often used when looking at group work interaction. Both have been explored and debated for many years by a number of researchers, and a broad range of definitions have emerged as a result. If you are studying these processes, it would help your readers if you explain which definition you are using and use that definition consistently.

Principle Number Four: Collect your data in the most appropriate way

Deciding how to collect data can be tricky, but in essence it can be broken down into two steps. The first one is to decide what to focus on. In classroom research, there are essentially five processes, and your research will explore one or more of them:

- behavioural processes: what people do
- linguistic processes: what they say

- cognitive processes: what they think
- emotional processes: how they feel
- learning outcomes: what they have learned

These processes are not necessarily separate or distinct. For example, what students learn (learning outcomes) overlap with other processes, such as what students do (behavioural processes) and what they say (linguistic processes), but to make it easier to collect data it is often easier to separate these processes out.

Here are some examples of what you could look for in each of these processes, illustrated with the case study of using English to establish rapport before beginning group work:

- behavioural processes: whether students look at each other more or less when they speak in English than when they speak in Japanese.
- linguistic processes: what language students use to begin to create rapport.
- cognitive processes: what strategies students use to establish rapport e.g. how they decide what topics are suitable to raise.
- emotional processes: how students feel about working with students who do not want to use English to establish rapport.
- learning processes: which rapport-building strategies students have learned from other students.

The first step is to decide which of the five processes you will focus on; the second step is to decide how you will collect your data. That is, which processes you focus on determines how you will collect your data. For example, in basic classroom research, to find out what people are doing it would be most productive to look at their behaviour, and video-record them or make notes on observation sheets. Possible data collection methods are summarised in Table 1.

To illustrate this fourth principle, let's look at our example, intermediate-level students using English to establish rapport before beginning group work. In this case, you are primarily trying to understand what students do and say. The most appropriate ways to collect data would be to observe students interacting during group work and make notes, and to audio-

Table 1

Two steps: Deciding what to focus on then how to collect your data

Step one: decide what to focus on		Step two: decide how to collect your data	
Explore what people are ...	**... by looking at their ...**	**Collect data by ...**	**by ...**
doing	behavioural processes.	looking	observing and making notes video-recording.
saying	linguistic processes.	listening	audio-recording analysing the transcripts.
thinking and feeling	cognitive and emotional processes.	asking	giving questionnaires getting class feedback interviewing people collecting learning diaries doing think-alouds*.
learning	learning processes and learning outcomes.	evaluating	collecting samples of student work giving students written or spoken tests.

*Notes: In a think-aloud, the researcher asks a participant to explain what they are thinking and feeling as they do a task, such as choosing a graded reader or reading a text.

or video-record group work. However, if you also wanted to understand what students are thinking and feeling, you could add another research question, "How do students feel about using English to establish rapport before beginning group work?" To answer this question, you could interview a few students or give the entire class a questionnaire.

Too often, teachers first decide how they are going to collect their data (for example, using a questionnaire) and then decide what they are going to focus on (such as student behaviour), which is putting the cart before the horse. The consequence is that teachers may not be able to answer their research questions. The basic principle is to do the opposite: first decide what you want to focus on and then decide how you are going to collect your data. Adopting this principle will help you collect the right data to answer your research questions.

Principle Number Five: Be realistic

Teachers are often very busy with teaching and administrative duties, and these duties take precedence over classroom research activities. Yet research takes time, and possibly a lot of time. Creating a research table to determine what data to collect and a research schedule to decide when to collect those data will help you manage your research project more effectively. Doing so will also ensure that you collect the data that you need to answer your research questions and help you complete your research project on time.

A research table presents your research questions and explains how you will collect data to answer each one. Such a table ties your data collection methods to your research questions. Create it before you start collecting data. See Table 2 for an example, on the topic of establishing rapport before group work. The first two questions can be answered collecting data in the same way and so can be grouped together; the third question is the new question exploring how students feel about using English to establish rapport.

To be time efficient, only collect data that will

Table 2
An example research plan

research questions	how to collect data
1. "How do intermediate-level students use English to establish rapport before beginning group work?" 2. "When do these students use Japanese?"	video-record group work transcribe what students say
3. "How do students feel about using English to establish rapport before beginning group work?"	interview four students give students a questionnaire

Table 3
An example research schedule

	Data Method	September	October	November	December
looking	**observation**	observe all of the class	observe four students	observe four students	observe four students
	video or audio record	-	record four students	-	record four students
asking	**interviews**	-	-	-	interview four students
	questionnaire	-	-	-	give a class questionnaire

help you answer your research questions. Other data are unnecessary no matter how interesting they might appear, and time spent collecting them will be time that you cannot spend answering your research questions.

Creating a research schedule will help you to plan when you will collect your data. By following it you can avoid getting to the end of a course and suddenly realizing that you do not have enough time to collect the data that you need. See Table 3 for an example research schedule, based on the group work case study.

Principle Number Six: Choose your participants carefully

Your participants are key to the success of your research project, so it is wise to choose them carefully. In classroom research, the basic principle is to choose the participants who will best help you answer your research questions, by a process called purposive sampling. This is essentially a two-step process. First, choose the class (or classes) that you would like to collect data from. This could be the class that is most relevant to your research topic or that you have the best relationship with. Then, from within that class choose individual students or groups of students to focus on more closely. You cannot observe everything that is going on in class or interview all of your students, so having a limited focus is a practical solution to a lack of time. Furthermore, some students will simply not be able to help you answer your research questions. Focusing on students who can provide you with relevant data is an effective strategy.

Looking at the rapport before group work example, you might first choose a class in which you do a lot of group work. Then, you might choose those students in that class who establish and sustain interaction very effectively using English, and closely observe and video-record them, and later interview them. Choosing participants carefully like this will help you answer your research questions more effectively and efficiently.

Principle Number Seven: Behave ethically

Your classroom research might focus on yourself, more broadly on your students, or even on other teachers. If your research does involve other people, then there is one golden rule that all researchers follow: do no harm. In its most basic sense, that is, do not put people in a situation that might potentially make them feel uncomfortable. It is sometimes difficult to anticipate what these situations might be. Even seemingly innocuous topics such as participants' level of English proficiency might intimidate English teachers who are non-native speakers. Put yourself in the position of the weakest or most vulnerable participants and see your research from their point of view. Asking other teachers or even potential participants to read over your questionnaire or interview questions can help you see how other people might respond to your research. If you are in doubt, treat others the way that you would like to be treated yourself.

It is also wise to get permission from your institution to conduct the research. This might just involve informing the course coordinator, particularly if you are only collecting data about what you yourself are doing in your classroom. However, if you are planning to give your students a questionnaire, interview them or collect comments from them then the institution might have more formal procedures for evaluating your research. This may include submitting your research plan to an ethics committee (commonly called an institutional review board or IRB in universities overseas) that ensures your research will not cause your participants any harm.

If you are going to obtain data from people or create data about them, then it is also essential to obtain their individual consent. This consent should always be voluntary – your potential participants have the right not to participate without any penalty from you, such as lower grades. Informed consent means explaining to your students, before they agree to participate, the topic of your research and how you will collect, manage, analyse, and share their data with other people. Before you make any promises to your students make sure that you can keep them, and never break them.

Two terms that you might be familiar with but not sure exactly what they mean are anonymity and confidentiality. Participation is anonymous when even you do not know who provided the data, such as in questionnaires with no names on them. Participation is confidential when you know who the participants are, such as in interviews or from class test scores, but you do not identify them to other people.

Even though you obtain consent once, if you are collecting data over the length of a course it would be sensible to check from time to time that your students still consent to participate, and give them further opportunities to ask you any questions they might have. Moreover, rather than thinking that you are doing research on or about your students, imagine instead that you are doing research with them. Many teachers use their research as a way of having a conversation with their students about their experiences learning in their classrooms. For example, you could share the results of a class questionnaire with your students, or respond to their classroom feedback.

Principle Number Eight: Collect the best quality data you can

In empirical research, the claims you make are based entirely upon the data you collect. Poor quality data means weaker, narrower, and less convincing claims. The fourth principle helped you plan what data to collect and how to do so; this eighth principle reminds you to constantly check throughout your research project that you are collecting the best quality data. Asking yourself the following three questions can help you do this:

Am I collecting the right data? Collecting the right data is essential. To make sure you are doing so, regularly ask yourself whether the data you are collecting helps you answer your research questions. Try to use the data you are collecting to answer your research questions; if they are not helpful, then perhaps you are not collecting the right data, and need to collect other data instead.

Am I collecting data in the right way? Come back to this question from time to time to confirm that you have chosen the best way to collect your data. Perhaps there might be a more effective or efficient way to collect them. For example, rather than interviewing students one by one, you could give the whole class a questionnaire, and save yourself a lot of time.

How am I affecting the data I collect? This is a particular worry for classroom teachers researching their own students. It is important to collect data that reflects the real classroom situation, not a performance your students put on only when you are observing them. For example, if you are recording group work, consider how the presence of a video-recorder might alter group work routines. Try to minimize your impact by being unobtrusive or putting the video camera on desks for a number of weeks before beginning to collect data so your students become used to its presence.

Principle Number Nine: Analyse your data honestly, both the positive and the negative.

There is always a temptation to put a positive spin on things and only look at data that supports a particular perspective. For example, you might strongly believe in using English to establish rapport before beginning group work. When you look at the data, however, you find that many of the students actually use more Japanese than English. You could only focus on the students who stay in English and ignore these other students, but in such data you may discover not only how to improve your teaching but also the kernels of your next research project. There is value in actively searching for and exploring such negative data, and you also have an ethical obligation to your participants to fully represent their experiences and opinions.

Principle Number Ten: Make cautious and precise claims

The claims you make must be based firmly upon the data you collect. Readers quickly notice when you overstate your claims and may judge your research to be untrustworthy. For example, you might claim that intermediate students use an array of English strategies to establish rapport. However, if in fact you found that most students only use two or three strategies but a few students who have had the opportunity to live or study overseas use a broader range, then you have overstated your claim. Communicate as precisely as possible, and understate rather than overstate your results.

Also, be careful not to overgeneralize your claim; that is, claim that your results are relevant to other classrooms when they might not be. For example, it might be tempting to claim that group work is an appropriate arrangement in Japanese university classrooms, suggesting that it would work in all such learning environments. However, a more precise claim would be that group work is an appropriate learning arrangement for those intermediate students who have lived or studied abroad.

It is also tempting to write a grand title, such as 'Interaction in group work in Japanese Universities', suggesting either that you collected data in a number of different universities or that your results are applicable to all universities in Japan. A more appropriate title might be 'Interaction in group work in a Japanese University'. Being precise will impress careful readers.

Conclusion

If you are going to embark on a research project in your classroom it is worthwhile doing the best possible job that you can. These ten principles will guide you to make sounder decisions throughout your project and also help you to write more precise findings. This will not only facilitate your becoming a better teacher but also help you to get your research published more easily. The most important principle of researching your own classroom, however, is to use your research project as a way of establishing and sustaining better relationships with your students. In that way, both the teacher and students can benefit from the experience of classroom research.

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A Study of Test-Taking Strategies Used by EFL Listeners

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The study aims to investigate the test-taking strategies for an EFL listening test (GEPT). The participants were 104 freshmen from a university in northern Taiwan. Results show that test-wise has the highest average frequency among the five listening test-taking strategy categories. The strategy most often used by the participants among the 42 test-taking strategies is "I used the process of elimination." Proficient EFL listeners used significantly more top-down and affective strategies than less proficient listeners did. Through providing insights into the response behaviors prompted by the listening tasks, the study can facilitate our understanding of EFL listeners' test-taking strategies.

本研究は、EFLリスニングテストに対する受験ストラテジーについて調査することを目的とする。被験者は、台湾北部の大学の新入生104名であった。その結果、リスニングテスト受験ストラテジーに関する5つの範疇のうち、「テスト慣れ」に属する学生が平均利用回数がもっとも多いということがわかっている。42の受験ストラテジーのうち、被験者にもっとも多く用いられたストラテジーは「消去法」であった。能力の高いEFLリスナーは、トップダウン式の効果的なストラテジーを能力の低いリスナーよりも明らかに多く利用していた。本研究は、リスニングタスクによって引き起こされる反応態度についての洞察を提示することにより、EFLリスナーの受験ストラテジーに対する我々の理解を容易にしうるものである。

A Study of Test-Taking Strategies Used by EFL Listeners

For the past decades, there has been growing interest in how second or foreign language learners solve their learning and communication problems. Research into learning strategies has gained prominence in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). However, Vann and Abraham (1990) indicated that the way strategies are used by learners in assessment tasks remains neglected. As claimed by Cohen (2006), little is known about the methods used by test takers to produce answers to questions. According to Nikolov (2006), test-taking strategies refer to the strategies learners apply while solving language test tasks. Cohen (1998) suggested that test-taking strategies can be regarded simply as learner strategies applied to the area of assessment, and belong to a common set of strategies activated for the task encountered (Cohen, 1998). In his literature review of test-taking strategies, Cohen (2006) concluded that researchers are increasingly aware that theory building in the area of test-taking strategies is called for to develop a coherent body of knowledge. Since strategic behavior has hardly been explored in L2 listening tests (Macaro, Graham, & Vanderplank, 2007), it is worth investigating the issue using a Taiwanese experience by examining how EFL learners take the listening test.

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Research Questions

The purpose of the present research is to investigate the test-taking strategies used by EFL listeners in Taiwan. This study mainly addresses the following research questions: (1) What strategies are used by EFL learners when they take a listening test? (2) Are there significant differences in the test-taking strategies used by proficient and less proficient EFL listeners? (3) What are EFL listeners' perceptions of their test-taking strategies?

Literature Review

In accordance with the purpose of the current research, a number of studies examining the strategies used for listening tasks were reviewed. The research literature focused on the test-taking strategies used by EFL/ESL listeners.

Teng (1998) investigated the EFL listening comprehension strategies used by college freshmen in Taiwan. Findings showed that the strategy "translating" was most frequently used, followed by "repeating". A study conducted by Yi'an (1998) looked into the test-taking processes of Chinese EFL listeners for taking a multiple-choice (MC) task. Results showed that linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge was activated in a parallel manner with input of various difficulty levels and that the MC method posed threats to the construct validity of the test. In Taguchi's (2001) study, 54 Japanese college EFL students took an English listening test and completed a strategy questionnaire immediately after the test. Findings revealed a significant difference in their perceived use of top-down strategies between more proficient and less proficient listeners. Yoshizawa (2002) examined the text-processing strategies that Japanese learners reported using when they were engaged in reading or listening tasks in EFL classrooms and testing situations. Three factors emerged from the test-taking strategy data, including comprehension and monitoring strategies, compensatory strategies (elaboration strategies in listening), and strategies related to attention and task assessment.

Douglas and Hegelheimer (2007) investigated the strategies and sources of knowledge test takers use to respond to New TOEFL listening test tasks. Results revealed four types of strategies for approaching the response task, including recalling elements of the test input, reviewing the response options in order, making a hypothesis about the likely answer, and referring to notes before reviewing options. Chang (2008) examined the listening strategies of Taiwanese EFL college students with high and low levels of anxiety under four listening tasks. Results indicated that previewing questions had a greater impact on listening strategy use than the other types of support. Another study by Chang (2009) found that participants' listening performance had a strong correlation with the strategy used before the test-taking phase and that they were able to adjust their strategy use based on the change in task situations. Wagner (2010) has examined how ESL test-takers interact with a video listening test. He found that the test-takers viewed the video texts less than half of the time, and there was a moderate negative correlation between viewing rate and test performance.

As suggested by Nikolov (2006), future research of test-taking strategies should also include listening tasks to explore similarities to and differences from other skills. Since there have been limited number of studies which investigate the test-taking strategies in the EFL listening context, the current research aims to help fill this void by examining the Taiwanese EFL listeners' test-taking strategies.

Methodology

Participants

Participants were 104 college students taking a required freshman listening course in a university in northern Taiwan. The participants, aged 18-20, have studied English formally in school for at least eight years. Since the study took listening proficiency into account, the participants were divided into proficient and less proficient EFL listeners based on their scores in the listening test of GEPT intermediate level, which are elaborated on in the following section.

Instruments

The instruments used in the study included a listening test, a questionnaire of test-taking strategies, and an interview guide. The first instrument was the listening test of intermediate GEPT (General English Proficiency Test) developed by *LTTC* (Language Training & Testing Center) and based on the English ability of high school graduates in Taiwan. The listening test consisted of three parts (picture description, answering questions, conversations). The test included 45 items, and the total assessing time was approximately 30 minutes.

Another instrument was a questionnaire of listening test-taking strategy, which included 42 Likert-scaled items (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was mainly based on the strategy questionnaires designed by Taguchi (2001) and Cohen & Upton (2007). The 42 items were divided into six categories, i.e., top-down, bottom-up, repair, affective, test-wise strategies, and difficulty elements (see Table 1). On a five-point scale ranging from "strongly agree (5)" to "strongly disagree (1)", participants circled the response that indicated what they did during the listening test. In addition, an interview guide was developed based on the questions in Cohen & Upton's (2007) study and Chang's (2009) study (see Appendix B). There were mainly five questions to further explore participants' perceptions of their listening test-taking strategies.

Table 1
Specifications of the Questionnaire

Strategies (42 items total)	Item Number
I. Top-down	8, 12, 21, 24, 25, 34, 35
II. Bottom-up	6, 7, 11, 15, 17, 18, 23, 27
III. Repair	3, 10, 14, 22, 28, 29, 31, 33
IV. Affective	1, 2, 9, 19, 20, 26, 32, 36
V. Test-wise	39, 40, 41, 42
VI. Difficulty Elements	4, 5, 13, 16, 30, 37, 38

Procedures

The study was conducted in the freshman class *English Oral Practice*. Before the test began, participants were instructed how to take the listening test and how to answer the strategy questionnaire. After the listening test was played, participants were asked to complete the questionnaire of listening test-taking strategies given in the appendix. They were reminded to think about the listening test they had just taken while responding to the questionnaire items. Finally, an interview was held with twelve of the participants to probe how they perceived their test-taking strategies.

Data Analysis

The total score of the GEPT listening test is 120 and the average for the whole sample was calculated. Those who obtained scores above the mean were in the group of proficient listeners, and those who scored below the mean were the less proficient listeners. For the scoring of test-taking strategy questionnaires, the scale range for each item was 1–5. Frequency counting and a *t*-test were conducted to analyze participants' responses to the strategy questionnaire. As for participants' answers to the interview, they were transcribed and categorized according to the five main questions in the interview guide.

Results

Among the five strategy categories used by participants, "test-wise" had the highest average frequency. "Affective" had the lowest average frequency. Table 2 lists the five strategies most often used by the participants among 42 listening test-taking strategies. Results show that "I used the process of elimination" is the most frequently used strategy.

In addition, Table 3 shows that proficient EFL listeners used significantly more top-down and affective strategies than less proficient listeners did. Less proficient listeners employed slightly more bottom-up strategies.

Furthermore, results indicate that there are significant differences in six strategies between proficient and less proficient listeners. Among them, the average frequencies of five strategies used by proficient listeners are significantly higher than those by less proficient listeners. On the other hand, there is only one strategy adopted significantly more often by less proficient listeners than by proficient listeners, i.e.

Table 2
Five Listening Test-taking Strategies Most Often Used by Participants (N=52)

Category	Test-taking Strategies	Rank
Test-wise	I used the process of elimination.	1
Repair	When I didn't understand something, I guessed the meaning from the context.	2
Repair	While listening, I guessed the meaning from the vocabulary I know.	3
Test-wise	I used clues in other items to answer an item under consideration.	4
Bottom-up	While listening, I was trying to hear familiar vocabulary.	5

Table 3
t-test for Test-taking Strategy Categories of Proficient and Less Proficient Listeners

Strategy	Proficient			Less Proficient			Mean		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	difference	t	p-value
Top-down	52	3.67	0.45	52	3.44	0.55	0.23	2.32	0.02*
Bottom-up	52	3.33	0.57	52	3.42	0.46	-0.09	-0.88	0.38
Repair	52	3.46	0.33	52	3.45	0.3	0.03	0.20	0.85
Affective	52	3.48	0.50	52	3.09	0.49	0.39	4.00	0.00**
Test-wise	52	3.97	0.39	52	3.7	0.38	0.01	0.00	1.00

*p<.05 **p<.01

"I used Chinese partially (e.g., word translation)." The test-taking strategy with the most significant difference is "While listening, I did something special to relax."

Discussion

In the current study, results indicate that "test-wise" had the highest average frequency among the five categories of listening test-taking strategies. Based on Allan (1992), test-wise strategies refer to the strategies for using knowledge of test formats and other peripheral information to answer test items without going through the expected linguistic and cognitive processes. Amer's research (1993) found that the experimental group of EFL students who were taught test-taking strategies outperformed the control group. The research suggests support for training EFL teachers to provide instruction in test-taking strategy. Among the 42 strategy items, the participants most often adopted the test-wise strategy, "I used the process of elimination" and employed the strategy "I used clues in other items to answer an item under consideration" more often. The most frequent use of test-wise strategies implies that the participants tend to be more strongly motivated in a testing situation and are concerned about the accuracy of their listening comprehension. As a result, regardless of their EFL listening proficiency levels, both the proficient and less proficient listeners chose to employ the most time-efficient test-wise strategies.

Among the five categories of test-taking strategies, proficient EFL listeners used significantly more top-down and affective strategies than less proficient listeners did. The findings confirm Taguchi's (2001), which revealed a significant difference between proficient and less proficient listeners in their use of top-down strategies. Moreover, the current study found that proficient listeners employed significantly more affective strategies. Before and during the listening test, they kept encouraging themselves, did something special to relax, and listened to English in order to get mentally prepared for the test. On the other hand, the only test-taking strategy adopted significantly more often by less proficient listeners is the bottom-up strategy "I used Chinese partially." With deficient English linguistic knowledge, they can mainly make use of their L1, Chinese. These findings add to the limited body of existing literature by suggesting that top-down and affective strategies might be factors contributing to effective EFL listening test performance.

With regard to interview responses, some participants answered that they would scan the questions first so that it can be easier to predict what the speaker would say. This result supports Chang's position (2008) proposing that previewing questions had a greater impact on listening strategy use than the other types of support. Douglas and Hegelheimer (2007) also found that the New TOEFL listening test takers approached the response task by making a hypothesis about the likely answers. The study result confirms the facilitating effect of question preview on taking EFL listening tests. By previewing the questions at first, L2 listeners can focus on wh- words, then listen carefully for the possible answers, and activate their background knowledge to make assumptions to see if the answer is appropriate and reasonable.

Finally, most of the interviewees reported that listening test-taking strategies are useful for them. Test-taking strategies can let them feel more relaxed, and they can answer questions more quickly because they know the test formats. When they take the listening test, they will adopt some strategies to reduce their listening anxiety, and they can have more confidence in the process of listening. Therefore, it seems that test-taking strategies can offer L2 listeners such affective benefits as a sense of security and comfort besides the encoding and retaining functions.

Conclusion

Results of the current study show that 'test-wise' has the highest average frequency among the five categories of listening test-taking strategies. The strategy most often used by the participants among the 42 test-taking strategy items is "I used the process of elimination." Proficient EFL listeners used significantly more top-down and affective strategies than less proficient listeners did. In participants' opinions, listening test-taking strategies benefit them a lot. Their listening anxieties are reduced and they are more confident when they take the listening test. The study results can provide some empirical descriptions for the research literature of listening test-taking strategies. This study can also help college students effectively improve their performance in EFL listening tests through the understanding of their test-taking strategies. Last but not least, since practice makes perfect, Taiwanese college students who want to get high scores on EFL listening tests need to do more practice of test-taking strategies by themselves.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire of Test-Taking Strategies for Listening Tests

(Taguchi, 2001; Cohen & Upton, 2007)

Please circle the response on agreement to indicate what you do during the listening test.

1. During the test, I kept encouraging myself.
2. I tried to enjoy listening.
3. When I didn't understand something, I tried not to worry about it so much.
4. It was difficult to understand the pronunciation of each word.
5. It was difficult to understand the main idea of each conversation.
6. While listening, I paid attention to the vocabulary that was repeatedly used in the conversation.
7. While listening, I was trying to hear familiar vocabulary.
8. I tried to predict the questions coming after each conversation.
9. During the test, I tried to forget I am taking the test.
10. When I didn't understand something, I guessed the meaning from the context.
11. I used Chinese partially (e.g., word translation).
12. While listening, I tried to imagine the setting of each conversation.
13. It was difficult to keep up with the speed of the tape.
14. When I didn't understand something, I gave up trying to comprehend.
15. While listening, I paid attention to particular parts of speech (verbs, nouns).
16. It was difficult to understand the combination of words into phrases.
17. I focused on understanding the details of the conversation.
18. I translated.
19. While listening, I did something special to relax.
20. I kept saying to myself, "I can pass the test."
21. I focused on understanding the overall meaning of the conversation.
22. I lost my concentration when I didn't understand something, but I recovered my concentration immediately.
23. I focused on the grammatical structures.
24. I paid attention to the speakers' tone of voice and intonation.
25. While listening, I paid attention to the overall tone of the situation.
26. Before the test, I did something to relax.
27. I focused on understanding the meaning of each word.
28. When I didn't understand something, I lost my concentration and couldn't hear the rest of the conversation.
29. While listening, I guessed the meaning from the vocabulary I know.
30. It was difficult to understand the meaning of each word.
31. When I didn't understand something, I guessed the meaning from the tone of the conversation.
32. I was thinking about doing something fun after the test.
33. When I didn't understand something, I found myself stuck on the segment I didn't understand.
34. I tried to relate each conversation to my own experience in order to understand the conversation.
35. While listening, I was thinking about the relationship between the speakers.
36. I listened to English before the test in order to get mentally prepared for the test.
37. When I heard a question, it was difficult to recall the content of the conversation.
38. While listening, it was difficult to know when I understood something and when I did not.
39. I took notes.
40. I used the process of elimination (i.e., selecting an option even though it was not understood, out of a vague sense that the other options couldn't be correct).
41. I used clues in other items to answer an item under consideration.
42. I selected the option because it appeared to have a word or phrase from the passage in it – possibly a key word.

Appendix B

Interview Guide of Test-Taking Strategies for Listening Tests

(Cohen & Upton, 2007; Chang, 2009)

1. What kinds of things were difficult for you while taking the listening test?
2. What did you do when you didn't understand something during the listening test?
3. What did you focus on in order to compensate for limitations in your listening ability during the test?
4. Do you think listening test-taking strategies are useful? Why or why not?
5. Has anyone encouraged and/or given you instruction on how to take listening tests? If you received the instruction, when and where did it take place? Please describe it.

A Taste of Teaching in Australia – The Great Adventure

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This paper describes the organization and implementation of an overseas teaching practice program in Australia in Summer 2012, lasting three weeks with 21 university of education students studying to be teachers of English at elementary, junior high or senior high school in Japan. The paper first explains the background to the project and its aims, before describing why Australia was chosen as the destination. The financial and logistical issues related to the project are then considered, as well as information as to how students were chosen to take part. The range of experiences that participants could benefit from, both with regard to English exposure and teaching experience, are then described, including relating how the geographically dispersed group could exchange opinions with each other and with their supervisors by using a wiki. Finally, students' reflections on their experiences are shown and changes for the future in this ongoing project are considered.

2012年夏期にオーストラリアにおいて行われた海外教育実習プログラムの構成および内容について記述します。このプログラムは小学校、中学校、高等学校での英語教育を志す学生21名を対象に行われました。　なぜオーストラリアが目的地に選ばれたのかを説明する前に、最初にプロジェクトとその目的や背景について説明します。その後、プロジェクトに関係する費用や地域的な問題について、また参加学生がどのように選ばれたかに関する情報が述べられています。

このプログラムによって得られるであろう、参加者の英語との接触、および教職実習体験の両方での利点が記述されます。地理的に分散したグループが、どのように互いと、また彼らのスーパーバイザーとインターネットなどを使用して意見交換することができたのか、そして最後に学生のそれらの経験に対する意見が示されます。またこの進行中のプロジェクトにおける将来の改善、変更についても考慮されています。

A Taste of Teaching in Australia – The Great Adventure

This paper describes a program, under the umbrella of a wider MEXT financed project, to send students studying to be teachers to do overseas teaching practice in Australia. The program is part of a wider project focusing on the issues involved in teachers adapting to ongoing developments in Japanese English education, particularly elementary school English and the challenges of meshing it with English at junior high school.

Aims of the "Taste of Teaching in Australia" Program

This program, which first took place in 2012, gives students planning to be English teachers the

Robins, A., Ryan, A. (2014). A taste of teaching in Australia – The great adventure. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 35-40). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

opportunity to spend three weeks in a primary or secondary school in Australia, where they are involved in teaching Japanese, as well as English and other classes. It attempts to address certain current shortcomings in both teacher education and university level English education in Japan. The most important of these is to markedly increase the time spent by students undertaking *kyoiku jisshu* (teaching practice), which is currently short by international standards, as described by Robins (2008). Apart from earlier introductory class observations, students normally undertake three to six weeks of teaching practice, to satisfy part of their teaching license requirements. As Obara, Takahashi, and Nakazawa (1993) indicate, the Teacher Certification Law (1949) established four weeks as the period for elementary school practice and that remained the same in a revision in 1990. However, teaching practice may be in two blocks, to allow, for example, a period in both elementary school and junior high school. Although it is natural that teaching practice primarily focuses on the future teaching environment (the student's home country), it was also felt that exposure to a contrasting teaching and learning environment would be valuable. Finally, students would be exposed to an English environment in a native speaking location. While a number of programs featuring study abroad have been instigated at our university, particularly through sister university relationships, there are still too many students going on to become teachers of English without such experience. They may not have the chance again after graduating, given limited government support, teaching workloads, school club commitments, and particularly, as described by Aspinall (2013), short vacations in real terms. Thus, through this program, in 2012, some 21 students from two departments (2nd- to 4th-years from English Education and 4th-years from International Cultural Studies) were selected. This process is described later in this paper.

Location

The initial program took place in Australia for several reasons. Paramount among these was the range of connections which one of the authors had with schools there. Without such connections, the program would have been markedly more difficult to organize. Another factor was its known attractiveness to students. In spite of the high cost of living in Australia, a separate annual language-learning program has long been popular and in Spring 2013 attracted no fewer than 69 students. A further positive factor for students was a limited time difference with reduced jet lag. Finally, the schools are located in a country with a well-developed educational focus on Japanese language and culture. Section 6.2 of a policy white paper entitled "Australia in the Asian Century" indicates such a focus with the objective that, "All students will have access to at least one priority Asian language; these will be Chinese (Mandarin), Hindi, Indonesian, and Japanese."

Financial and Logistical Issues

While Australia was chosen for the above reasons, it entailed both financial and logistical issues. As with most potential locations for overseas teaching practice, or indeed language courses, inflation has continually raised costs (Robins, 2011, p. 216). At the time of the program the Australian Dollar was strong, a situation further exacerbated since, with its continual strength combined with weakening of the yen. This means that money had to be stretched to cover the four main financial elements:

1. International flights from Japan to Australia, plus domestic flights for some participants.
2. Supervisors' accommodation and additional transport costs (public transport or car rental) for school visits.
3. Payment to schools for supervising students (30 Australian dollars a day per student, equating to 2,520 yen at that time).
4. Payment to host families (35 Australian dollars a day per student, equating to 2,940 yen at that time).

Given that finance was provided by MEXT, these challenges were not as great as the logistical challenges, which can also be divided into four:

1. There was only a brief window for the program, after 4th-year students finished teaching license examinations and before 3rd-year students did early autumn teaching practice in Japan itself.

2. Finding the required number of suitable schools to receive students.
3. Matching students to those schools, including issues such as location (rural or urban), single-sex or co-educational schools, and level of school (primary or secondary).
4. Locations of schools, often necessitating an end-to-end journey from their homes in Japan in excess of 30 hours and providing a challenge to scheduling visits by supervisors, which will be returned to later.

The Participants

As previously indicated, 21 students participated, representing approximately 70% of students who applied. The main reason for non-acceptance was that the student did not meet the key proviso of the funding, that they had taken, or were committed to taking, a teaching license examination (*saiyo shiken)* for a city or prefecture. Another reason was that the student was thought to be able to benefit from improving their skills before joining the program in a subsequent year. As to the process of selection, candidates had to initially complete an application form, secondly to attend an interview in a small group, and thirdly to agree to join orientation sessions held between the latter and the time of departure for Australia. Questions asked at the interview were primarily of five types, as follows, with an example question:

Personality – "How would other people describe you in terms of 'initiative' and 'independence'"?

Teaching – "Why do you want to be a elementary/junior high/senior high teacher?"

Experience – "Tell us about your experiences to date overseas/on teaching practice in Japan."

Ideas – "If you had to plan three 50 minute lessons around the theme 'Introduction to Japan', what would be the main topic of each of the lessons?"

Initiative – "How do you plan to spend your free time?"

Perhaps a key dilemma was whether to select only the most competent students, particularly those with previous experience or abroad, or whether to also select less strong students to "push start" their progress, especially with final year students, given that they were intending to be teachers of English anyway. The authors decided that the latter approach would be beneficial, and the validity of the decision was borne out in student feedback. This feedback indicated awareness of improvement and will be returned to later in this paper. In addition, there was the question of whether prioritizing students with previous overseas experience might discriminate against students with lower financial resources. The generous funding situation for this program, which only necessitated students taking spending money, was seen as a way of helping such relatively disadvantaged students.

The Nature of the Experience

Having selected the students, groups departed on two consecutive days due to other commitments, as described above. This was the start of an experience encompassing five main strands:

1. A homestay, providing an English-speaking environment with a family associated with their school.
2. Teaching and assisting with Japanese language and culture in classes and out of class clubs.
3. Giving teachers of Japanese at the schools (mostly non native speakers) the chance to practice and improve their language skills.
4. Involvement in other classes including English and history.
5. Joining in the life of the school more generally, including themed days (a feature of primary schools).

As described above, the participants in this program were intending to become teachers of English, so teaching Japanese may not seem entirely compatible. In fact, the university does have a course in teaching Japanese to non-native speakers, but its students were not included in this project. However, it appeared that it was stimulating to be put in a kind of reverse situation (Japanese in Australia rather than English in Japan) and see how another country approaches second language education. It was also interesting to see parallels with Japan, including a greater focus on speaking the language in primary schools but on speaking about the language and the use of translation in secondary schools. In Japan, this is often seen as a result of the enduring power of *yakudoku,* or grammar-translation (see Gorsuch, 1998, and Nishino 2008). However, probably the greatest benefit for participants was seeing the contrasts between schools in Australia and Japan. These will be returned to later in this paper.

Although the total number of students was not so large, dispersal saw them at fourteen different schools in nine cities or towns. While two were in Melbourne, Victoria, the other nineteen were in Queensland, up to 1,900 kilometers from the former. Even within Queensland, 852 kilometers marked the greatest geographical separation between students. Keeping in touch involved the traditional (the visit), and the technological (the wiki). To reduce costs, just two supervisors, the authors, went to Australia. One stayed for the whole three weeks and one for two weeks. Basically, the aim was to visit each school at least twice, with one supervisor covering Melbourne and Brisbane, and the other covering schools in other locations in central and southern Queensland. That was not without its travails, with the latter supervisor driving no less than 3,576 kilometers in 21 days (equivalent to driving from Sapporo to Naha and then back to Nagoya). Such physical visits aimed to achieve four objectives:

1. To show students that the supervisors were interested and supportive concerning their progress.
2. To take video of class activities as a record of the program and for use in the orientation of future participants.
3. To liaise with local teaching staff, both concerning the current stay and future possibilities.
4. To familiarize the supervisors with the current educational environment in Australia.

The importance of physical visits is indicated by writers such as Stimpson, Lopez-Real, Bunton, Chan, Sivan, & Williams (2000), who state that, "Supervision is an integral part of the teaching practice or teaching practicum undertaken in schools by part-time and full-time students seeking initial teaching qualifications" (p. 3).

The schools proved to be very accommodating and supportive. The informal staffroom environments, themselves something of an eye-opener to the participants, also very much helped give both the participants and the supervisors the opportunity to get to know local staff and their teaching situations.

Communicating Across Distances

However, something more was needed to allow communication both between supervisors and participants, and between participants. The method chosen was a wiki, in the form of Wikispaces (http://www.wikispaces.com). It was selected because it is education oriented and available either free or for a nominal cost if used for educational purposes. Furthermore, it is intuitively easy to use and had been successfully used by one of the writers previously. Before departure, every student was introduced to the site, signed up, and required to post at least one trial message covering their aims and wishes from the program. Participants were not required to post daily, but rather regularly, and although English was encouraged, Japanese could be used. Content included the following five types:

1. Reflections on their lessons and other school activities.
2. Responses from other participants and the supervisors.
3. Posting photos of classes and other activities.
4. Sharing Power Point presentations used in classes.
5. Making arrangements, particularly for a gathering of all the participants in Queensland in Brisbane before returning to Japan.

Two examples of the first type of contribution from one participant, two days apart, show the value of using this kind of site in putting across progress achieved by a participant:

"I am feeling that teaching is really hard. I presented new Japanese grammar to year 10 students for 70 minutes alone, which was not satisfying for me at all. The students are not keen on studying Japanese so I needed to inspire them to be interested and to tackle to learn Japanese. Even if I told them that those grammar points would be asked in the next test coming up next week, they just temporarily showed their interest and started talking to other friends." Student A (male), 5th September

"I did a presentation about Japanese culture to year 6 students which was good. In this time I told them that they would be asked what were the interesting things that you listen to so that they would focus on my class. It worked very well. They were sometimes loud but it was a good practice to keep students calm giving instruction in English. Teachers in high school will be forced to speak English in English class from next year so I am very happy to have had good opportunities to practice English in the class." Student A (male), 7th September

In his last sentence, it can be seen that he clearly indicates his awareness of the useful relationship of this program to his future teaching career. A further example of reflection shows how one participant summarized her overall experience:

"Through this experience, I learned about differences between Australian schools and Japanese ones, and Australian cultures. First, the atmosphere of the staff room was very friendly, and teachers often laughed. In Japan, a teachers' room is very quiet and teachers do their own work. I think Japanese teachers are too busy. Second, every class had a teacher and an assistant teacher. They divided their roles and cooperated with each other. This system made them possible to reduce their burden, and was better for children. Third, each class had about twenty-five students. It is smaller than classes in Japan. It was efficient to look after each child. Fourth, children respected teachers and each other. They followed what teachers said. I didn't see any bullying for three weeks. Fifth, children started to use computers from prep (pre 1st-grade class). They learned how to type capital letters, question mark and space, and they inserted clip art. It was hard for them to match capital letters and small letters, but I thought it was good for them. And this school has computers in every class. They used them to study math. Sixth, every class had an interactive white board. It was very useful to teach something or show movies. But children didn't copy contents on their notebook, so I doubted whether they could remember the contents or not. Seventh, children had snacks for lunch. Firstly they had snacks, and then they had sandwiches. Sometimes they only had snacks, so it was not good for children's health. But I think it was a part of Australian cultures." Student B (female), 14th September

Benefits and Considerations for the Future

Participants can be seen as having both the opportunity to improve their language skills and gain exposure to a different educational environment. In a follow-up activity after the 2013 program, participants were asked a number of questions. Their replies will be the subject of a future paper, but one example here indicates the benefits of this program in allowing students to contrast their experiences of teaching practice in Japan and in Australia:

"While the teaching practice in Japan requires us to play a certain role in each class very strictly, like that we are not allowed to talk to students during observation, the Australian teaching practice gave me a lot of opportunities to think what the teacher's role was and what the right thing was for each of the children."

Several changes were made to the program in 2013. As the primary school curriculum appeared to be more flexible than that at secondary schools, the balance towards sending students to primary schools was increased. To deal with the time constraints indicated above, in 2013 students from different years went in two distinct periods. This had the effect of avoiding the supervision pressure referred to above, which was the result of all the students doing the program at the same time.

As we write, an application has been made for funding to continue the program beyond this period. This brings us to the final point: a program such as this requires a reasonably stable and long-term budget, so that students can see it as an integral part of their course and so taking part can be better planned for. Therefore, being able to take part can become a future incentive to study hard from the beginning of their course.

The writers realize that many readers may not be in a position, particularly financial, to organize a program such as this. However, we would like to strongly encourage you to consider what similar possibilities you might be able to offer students to gain the kind of benefits referred to in this paper.

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Adding Drama to Role-plays: The Road to Authentic Communication

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This paper examines the role-play--one of the standards of communication classes--and discusses how the activity can be modified to provide more opportunities for meaningful and more authentic types of communication in the L2. It provides practical examples of drama activities that can be used to enhance the role-play in the EFL classroom and discusses the benefits of incorporating such activities into the teaching repertoire.

英会話の授業でおなじみのロールプレー。これなどは生徒を英語社会で無事にコミュニケーションを取れる様に育てられるのか。役者などを育てるために使われている”drama activity”　をこのロールプレーに加える方法、そして加える事により生徒が何を得る事が出来るかを理解していただけると思います。

Introduction

There is not an English teacher out there that is not familiar with role-play activities in the EFL classroom, whether it is at an English conversation school or university communication course. It is standard practice for rehearsing dialogue, which is the basic component of any type of language learning (Kao & O'Neil, 1998). It can be said, however, that due to the commonplace nature of this activity, often little thought is placed on trying to expand and improve upon this standard activity. This paper provides a fresh look at role-plays and examines how the activity can be utilized to allow students to practice more authentic forms of communication, in order to truly prepare them for the real world of the language. Through this paper, I suggest that using drama activities can help to achieve this goal and will provide some practical drama activities examples for setting up, implementing, and expanding upon role-play activities.

What is a Drama Activity?

Drama means some type of performance to many educators (Gaudart, 1990; Royka, 2002) but in EFL, performance is not necessarily the goal. The activities that EFL educators interested in utilizing drama refer to are those "that traditionally are used to develop skills that actors need, and oddly enough, these match the skills needed by EFL learners" (Kawakami, 2012, p. 134). A drama activity is any activity that "asks the student to portray himself in an imaginary situation; or to portray another person in an imaginary situation" (Gaudart, 1990, p. 230). Drama in the EFL classroom focuses on honing skills that will help students to express themselves in the second language. Role-plays, as can be seen from the definition, are themselves a type of drama activity. Like many drama activities, it can be expanded to incorporate learning opportunities for many different skills and provide unique experiences

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that will benefit the EFL student. Like any other drama activity, role-plays can be performed for other people or can be done within a small group without others observing. It is the process that is important and, as will be discussed in a later section, the self and group reflection of the activities that is the key.

The Authenticity of Traditional Role-plays as Communication Practice

English conversation or communication classes at all levels struggle with the balance of teaching form and providing students with enough of an opportunity to use the L2 to communicate in a spontaneous fashion. Unfortunately, many model conversations in textbooks (a common starting point for classroom role-plays) are created specifically to introduce the content of each unit. As Kao and O'Neil (1998) state, the goal is "to encourage students to perform particular linguistic structures, practice particular idioms, or recite lines according to pre-written scripts using certain items of vocabulary" (p. 6). These types of conversation often do not reflect the kind of language that is actually utilized in daily life, and to the student, often seem devoid of any significant meaning or purpose (Duff & Maley, 2001; Kao & O'Neil, 1998). Students often feel that learning to speak is about memorizing phrases from the textbook, which is hardly the goal that the teacher is trying to achieve. What, then, are the key skills that speaking activities are aiming to teach? Duff and Maley (2001) seem to be on the right track with the following list; students need to learn skills such as "adaptability (i.e. the ability to match one's speech to the person one is talking to), speed of reaction, sensitivity to tone, insight, anticipation; in short, appropriateness" (p. 7). From this we can see the primary issue with model dialogue practice in terms of authenticity is that there is little or nothing that is unexpected in these conversation activities. The students are already aware of what their partner is going to say (Kao & O'Neil, 1998).

How Authentic a Communication Act are Role-plays?

Traditional role-plays are certainly a step in the right direction. They allow students to participate in situations in a somewhat spontaneous fashion. There is no script and so the students must come up with what to say, for the most part, by themselves. Having said this, however, teachers do often give opportunities in class to prepare students with the brainstorming of phrases, questions, and vocabulary a student might need in a given situation. Even if students are given an opportunity to brainstorm and prepare for the scene, they are still actively listening and reacting to what their partner(s) are saying, something that would rarely occur if students were reading a pre-scripted dialogue. In addition to this, by the very nature of role-plays, students are given ample opportunities to play different roles, which is something that is vital to the student broadening their experiences in the EFL classroom. All too often, communication within a classroom can be limited to that between teacher and students or students communicating with other students (Kao & O'Neil, 1998), which means that students will experience communicating with people with whom they have a set dynamic and power position. Having different roles allows a student to practice, for example, being in a more powerful position than the teacher or fellow students. It is therefore clear that there are many aspects of authentic communication in the L2 in traditional role-play activities, as the students must actively listen and react, to a greater or lesser degree, spontaneously to others, whilst considering the relationship they have with the person (or people) they are communicating with. Is it authentic enough? Is there any way to add to or otherwise improve upon the traditional activity? Can teachers find a way to make this activity become even closer to real experiences that the student will encounter in the L2? The next section will examine an example of a typical role-play and demonstrate how to add additional elements to enhance the students' experience.

A Typical Role-play

In an EFL communication class, a typical role-play in a textbook probably looks something like Figure 1.

A teacher seeing this would most likely envision a lesson where, as mentioned previously, the class would brainstorm possible phrases, questions, and vocabulary

At a Restaurant

Role A: You are a customer having dinner with a friend at a nice Italian restaurant. Look at the menu on this page and order an appetizer, main dish, dessert, and something to drink.

Role B: You are a customer having dinner with a friend at a nice Italian restaurant. Look at the menu on this page and order an appetizer, main dish, and a drink but you don't want dessert.

Role C: You are a waiter/waitress at a nice Italian restaurant. Take the two customers orders, write them down, and bring them their food.

Variations:
(For the customers)
1) The waiter makes a mistake with the order. Complain
2) The waiter is rude taking the order. Ask for the manager
3) There is something wrong with the food. Complain.

(For the waiter)
1) The customers are behaving badly and disturbing the other customers. Try to calm them down.
2) The customers are arguing loudly. Try to resolve the situation.

Figure 1. A typical role-play situation.

needed to do the activity. The students would try doing the role-play, either in front of the class or in small groups, and then perhaps the teacher would introduce one or more of the variations for the students to attempt after the initial role-play. There may be some feedback from the teacher about the role-play after the first try in the form of advice or focus on a common error found in the role-plays, and then the students would try again. But what is missing? This next section examines some of the key aspects of authentic communication that are missing from typical role-play activities.

One of the first missing components is depth of the characters and their relationships in the role-plays. The relationship between the two friends, for example, would greatly dictate how they would communicate with each other and the waiter or waitress. Of particular importance would be the power relationship between the two customers, as this would dictate their behavior. The same is true of the type of lifestyle they lead. The way that the staff would react and behave also would be dictated by their age, their personality, their job satisfaction, and many other factors that are not mentioned.

Another factor missing, and one that is related to character relationships, is emotion. Emotion is what drives and motivates communication. It dictates how a person would speak, the tone used, and the choice of words speakers would make. In other words, true drama is missing from the role-play. In the very basic lesson plan mentioned, there is also no focus on physicality. Our bodies are connected to how we feel and also how we communicate with others. Non-verbal communication in the form of body language and facial expressions is a key part of communicating with others (Duff & Maley, 2001). Having a clear awareness of the need to incorporate physicality will bring more reality to the speech acts and aid in increasing the tools by which students can communicate with others (Winston, 2012).

Having looked at some of the things that could be added to increase what the students will learn and experience from role-plays, the next section will discuss some drama activities that can help to achieve these goals.

Putting the Drama into Role-plays

The first crucial step is the set up of the role-play. This can be done in many ways, but a simple visualization exercise would help to set the scene. The teacher would ask the students to close their eyes as the teacher describes the restaurant, asking the students to try to visualize in their mind what the teacher is saying. The teacher should try to incorporate as much of the senses as possible to describe the exterior and interior of the restaurant, giving as much detail as possible. For example, the teacher would say "As you open the dark, wooden door, you smell a wonderful warm smell of garlic toast and tomato sauce. The room is crowded, full of customers chatting softly. The room is a little dark with soft, warm lighting". The teacher may want to do a Q&A session, asking the students to recall as much as they could of the description.

The teacher would then set up the situation: Two friends are going to eat dinner at the restaurant described. The teacher can provide the students with the basic role cards of the two friends and the waiter but tell the students that there are many details about the characters that need to be added. For a first-time group, the teacher can put on the board some basic questions such as, "How old is she or he? What is her or his name? Where do they live? What is their job?" and have the students come up with character backgrounds in groups. An area that students often neglect in this activity is physicality. What do the characters look like? How do they walk? The teacher can add this idea of physicality here when developing characters.

An interesting alternative to this set-up is to do a drama activity called "hot seating". The students playing the characters are put in the middle of a circle of students. The student in the circle will ask the student in the middle questions about them and the student in the middles would answer as if they were the character. For example, a student in the circle would ask "What do you do for a living?" and the student in the middle would think as the character and answer, "I'm an investment banker. I make a pretty good salary".

There are many ways to go about this activity, but for the sake of this particular role-play, it may be wise to put the two friends in the middle together so they can create their back-story together. The waiter is a stranger to the two friends and therefore should not be in the circle together. The friends knowing about the waiter would compromise the opportunity for a more authentic situation.

While working in the groups, the teacher could plant a surprise. For example, pull aside one of the friends and tell them that they are secretly angry at their friend for not paying back money owed and ask the student to try to put that into the situation where appropriate. The other friend being unaware is a wonderful opportunity for spontaneous conflict resolution, something that occurs often in real life.

It is important to mention here that one of the great benefits of drama activities such as hot seating is that while the activity is a set up for trying to create authentic communication, the very act of doing hot seating is in itself a goal driven, authentic form of communication. The students are asking questions in the L2 to reach a common goal. The students will also be very motivated and will ask questions actively because the task's goal is easily grasped and meaningful. They will see using the L2 as an essential tool and thus will be motivated to utilize it (Chang, 2012, Duff, A., & Maley, A., 2001).

Once the students have had sufficient time to develop the characters, they are ready to do the role-play. After the initial enactment, the students performing will be asked to reflect on their scene. It is essential here that the students do not feel criticized, but instead are given opportunities to process their experience and self assess, which is another key aspect of drama activities (Duff & Maley, 2001; Spolin, 1986). It is important that physicality, tone of voice, and facial expressions be a key part of this reflection. This is also a key point to focus on form—students will be more likely to pay attention to and see the need for learning forms taught as it is easier to see a connection between the forms they need and the goals they want to achieve. They will be more likely to absorb and remember the content taught. After the reflection, students may be given the opportunity to do the scene again. While this is no longer spontaneous, it is an important way for the students to learn from their experience and to improve their communication skills.

One useful alternative is to add ruptures, sudden conflicts that the teacher or students shout out for the students in the role-plays to resolve spontaneously. This alternative adds another layer of authenticity to the role-plays, as it is often the case that people must resolve sudden and unforeseen issues in the L2 as effectively as they can. By taking the time to develop characters and (power) relationships and by adding "ruptures" that students must spontaneously react to, students will have the opportunity to practice communicating in a safe environment in a style much closer to real L2 situations.

Conclusion

Drama activities do not create a perfectly authentic situation for the students, but they do provide a good intermediate step that brings the students more opportunities to work on their adaptability and spontaneous communication skills from an emotion driven source. The students are not playing themselves, but instead characters, which of course, is not what they would do in real life. But, this is often what frees the student to experiment and take a step outside of their comfort zone (Gaudart, 1990; Kawakami, 2012). The experimenting and confidence building that will occur from trying these activities in character will transfer to the students using these skills in their own lives to communicate in the L2. Role-plays can be a wonderful catalyst for many activities that motivate the student to participate actively in their L2 learning.

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An Alternative Basis for Novice L2 Learner Oral Presentation Assessment and Development

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Oral presentations can be valuable tools for measurement of L2 learner spoken performance and enhancement of learner responsibility. Yet conventional focus of assessment that stresses oral delivery over visual and written material may demotivate learners who are novice L2 presenters, especially for those from the teacher-centric Japanese educational context. While presentation portfolios can shift the focus of assessment to display material, such shift may also compel novice presenters to execute to the portfolio rather than their topics. It may therefore be better to trade conventional assessment and portfolio creation for a valuation of creativity and effort in display with novices. This may enable them to undertake their preparation with reduced stress, a greater sense of ownership over the process, less pressured spoken output in delivery, and possibly reveal latent L2 presentation ability.

口頭発表は、L2学習者のスピーキングの成果を評価する上で有用な方法と言える。また、それは同時に学習者の責任感を高める上でも役立つ。しかし、従来の視覚・文字による作品よりも、口頭での発表に重きを置く評価方法は、むしろ初級レベルの発表者のやる気を失わせてしまうことにもなりかねない。近年、プレゼンテーションのポートフォリオが、作品発表を主眼とする評価方法へのシフトを可能にした一方、初級学習者にとってそれは過重な負担にすらなりかねない。そのため、初級学習者に関しては、ポートフォリオよりむしろ、簡単な視覚・文字作品の製作とその努力を評価する方がむしろ妥当であると思われる。そうすることで彼らはストレスの少ない状態で準備に取り組むことができ、また製作のプロセスを自分で管理する事で、プレッシャーの少ない状態で発表を行う事が可能となる。そしてその結果、L2の潜在的発表能力を発揮することができるかもしれない。

Introduction

While a review of the literature on L2 learner oral presentations demonstrates a preoccupation with spoken output as the measure of performance, reliable measures of such output have proven elusive. O'Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996) provide a qualitative basis for oral performance assessment in terms of vocal clarity, spoken coherence, and topical organization, and Ortega (1999) details learner pre-planning for greater success in oral task work. Others such as Topping (1998), Falchikov and Goldfinch (2000), and Cheng and Warren (2005), however, raise issues in oral presentation assessment concerning assessor subjectivity, evaluative variegation, and classroom dynamics that may complicate oral presentation performance measure.

Arnold, L. (2014). An alternative basis for novice L2 learner oral presentation assessment and development. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings (pp. 46-52). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

Yet for learners new to L2 oral presentations, especially from the teacher-centric and test-oriented educational system common to East Asian learning cultures, the scheme can be a major challenge. King (2002), in a Taiwanese study, states that "When a teacher moves from the traditional role of teacher as an authoritative expert to the new role of facilitator of learning, students may feel uncomfortable," and learners "need to be psychologically prepared for autonomy and responsibility" (p. 407). There is no question that in Japanese settings, some learners may also feel discomfort over the new connection with teachers and learning that oral presentations suggest, and questions of assessment must take this possibility into consideration.

As Otoshi and Heffernen (2008) nonetheless demonstrate, the potential for more learner-centric task involvement in oral presentations could lead to a greater sense of learner responsibility. Given such potential, it therefore begs the question as to what may bridge the gap between what assessment calls for and the realization of learner development the presentation format may make possible.

Possibilities and Limitations of Portfolios for Presentation Assessment

In TEFL, such a bridge already exists in the form of learner presentation portfolios. In the basic sense, a presentation portfolio is a collection of learner visual artifacts for display as part of oral delivery. Originally conceived within the scope of writing assessment, portfolios have been defined and explicated by Moya and O'Malley (1994), Gottlieb (1995), and Hamp-Lyons and Condon (1999), among others, as a broader basis for alternative assessment. According to Hamayan (1995), portfolio-based assessment makes it "possible to focus on the process as well as the product of learning" (p. 216).

Among the studies involving presentation portfolios in Japanese settings, Apple and Shimo (2004) demonstrate that learners responded affirmatively to the schema in the terms of project ownership, goal setting, and extension of learning opportunities (pp. 55-56). Hensley (2009) explores the possibilities of Web-uploaded presentation portfolios, stating that "the (virtual) portfolio exists as a record of what the learner has accomplished in the L2 as well as language growth" and that "the act of repeated performances for the purpose of what a learner feels to be his or her best would force the learner to self-evaluate immediately and correct his or her perceived errors" (p. 36).

Burt and Keenan (1995) nonetheless find logistical issues with portfolio management, along with wariness on the part of some administrators and learners to the alternative basis of evaluation that portfolios suggest. Brown and Hudson (1998) echo similar concerns over design, grading criteria, content and authenticity with portfolios, in that teachers need "to read and rate portfolios on a regular basis throughout the school year while simultaneously helping students develop these portfolios" (p. 665). Apple and Shimo (2004) concede that the schema may be difficult for some learners as it involves aspects of goal setting and self- and peer-assessment they may need extensive direction in (p. 57).

Definition of Novice L2 Presenters and Basis for Novice Assessment

Given these issues, it also begs the question as to how learners may even step into L2 presentations at all. It is here where the considerations of learners new to L2 presentation, including written and visual displays, must come up front. For the purposes of this exploration, I shall define novice L2 presenters as learners who are zero beginners with regard to L2 presentations, with no prior experience or perhaps even a frame of reference for what L2 presentations entail.

For such novices, criteria of evaluation must be geared accordingly, and as a start, I will suggest that it is best not to task them with presentation portfolios given the difficulties cited above. The breadth that such schema call for, even with the affirmative findings that have been demonstrated, may compel some novices to prepare and perform more to the portfolio rather than to heartfelt explorations of their topics and themes, further raising the possibility of greater anxiety and demotivation.

On that basis, an evaluative focus for novice L2 presenters on visual and written coherence alone may serve them better by lessening task anxiety and encouraging creativity in their displays. Such an approach could in turn promote confidence in oral delivery, and possibly reveal a latent ability to prepare and deliver effective presentations. From there a sense of task investment, learner responsibility and ownership of process may bear fruit.

It was with this focus in mind that I decided to initiate group L2 presentation schemes involving display material with five classes of novice L2 presenters across three different institutions where I was employed part-time in 2012-13.

A Review of Class Samples

Of the classes under review, three carried out their presentations in poster form, while two employed poster, OHP, and Power Point formats. All classes were mainly content-oriented, but differed greatly from one another in degree majors and level of L2 proficiency.

When asked, all learners reported that none of them had previously undertaken oral presentations in the L2, save for one learner in one class, who reported having delivered a presentation in English once. Two classes had carried out L1 presentations within their coursework, though they had never been required to deliver L2 presentations. All classes therefore essentially consisted of novices with regard to L2 presenting, with the sole learner mentioned above as a "false beginner."

With each class, I de-emphasized spoken performance in favor of coherence and creativity within organization of visual display and comprehension to their level in delivery. While such an evaluative basis seems loose, I felt it more vital to set a depressurized tone in order to encourage an acceptance of responsibility to the process, wagering that their spoken output might flow from their displays under such conditions. Such a foundation would enable the learners more comfortably to invest themselves into their projects in their terms.

Methodology

In the beginning, I allowed all learners to form their own groups. While pairs or groups of three were ideal, I mandated that four members to a group would be the maximum I would allow, though in one special case I later had to allow a fifth member in one group. My rationale for group projects came from Kobayashi's (2003) findings that oral task learner success emerges from an atmosphere of peer support and encouragement, and that project investment and ownership could develop when learners could choose whom they wished to work with.

I handed out task sheets in which the groups were free to determine how task preparation would be divided among their membership. I also encouraged the learners to view my TEFL blog, on which I had uploaded posts for them on language of delivery, samples of learner presentations, and information and tips on fine-tuning their displays.

To make the process more manageable for the learners, topic selection and time for research were given staggered deadlines, after which I would review their progress. The process would then culminate in one to two class sessions of final presentations within group schedules the learners could determine.

Towards the end of their preparation, I walked them through the basic steps of spoken form, requiring only that each group allot the delivery so that every member would take a turn speaking on a particular section in the presentation. I urged them to place key words and ideas on note cards and to aim to speak from them rather than prepared scripts. I did not bar use of the L1 for topical illustration or L2 errors in display or delivery, allowing these points so long as neither posed severe distractions in coherence or comprehension.

Sample Class 1: Background and Learner Analysis

The first presentation sample for review came from an early childhood education English communication class at my current institution, when I was a part-time teacher. The class consisted mostly of high beginner second- and third-year course majors, with a few both of higher proficiency and in their fourth year.

The aim of the class was to further develop L2 skills for use in the learners' future work as kindergarten teachers with childrens' classes who may have some

Figure 1. Sample Material from Sample Class 1.

bilingual returnees, or children with parents who may use English as an L1 at home. An additional goal was for my learners to build some ability to explain basic kindergarten policies and procedures in the L2 to any mixed Japanese-foreign parent English users among their future students.

The class, while predominantly low in overall spoken proficiency, was enthusiastic and cooperative. I nonetheless ascertained that even low-level technical issues with any equipment-based presenting vehicles could potentially create enough disruption to weaken the overall atmosphere for presentation. I therefore felt that group poster presentations would work best for them, as the format would compel greater care in notation of written material while dealing with content and design in team orientation.

Sample Classes 2 and 3: Background and Learner Analysis

The second and third presentation samples were made up of two classes of second- and third-year engineering majors in an elective general English class at a technical university. The overall proficiency of both classes was around the intermediate level, and target content was made up of culturally oriented themes in a reading textbook.

Both classes overall had demonstrated a high level of classroom participation in discussion and activities in the first part of the term. As the learners were engineering majors and routinely carried out poster-scale hand plotting of mechanical schema in their coursework, I saw poster presentations as natural for them. While the demands and pressures of their engineering studies could potentially impact their L2 presentations, I determined that their plotting ability could be channeled to yield latent strength in design and meaning in content.

Sample Classes 4 and 5: Background and Learner Analysis

The fourth and fifth presentation samples were drawn from two classes of third-year students at a pharmaceutical science university. Both classes had learners of quite variable proficiency; advanced

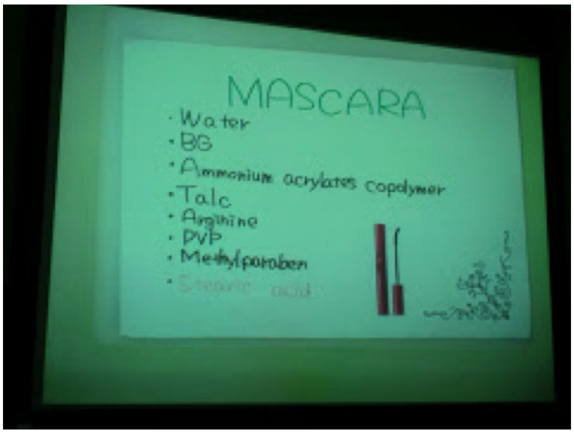

Figure 2. Sample Material from Sample Class 2.

learners were sometimes side-by-side with learners of low proficiency, with one of the advanced learners as the sole student who, as previously mentioned, reported having once delivered an L2 presentation. The target content was identical between both classes and centered on a reading textbook of themes and research in pharmaceutical sciences drawn from authentic sources.

I saw the learners' L1 presentation experience in student laboratory research as a possible source for their novice L2 presentations, and permitted their choice of formats, though I felt Power Point and OHPs to be more ideal for those of higher proficiency while posters might serve those of lower proficiency better, given the freedom from technical distraction.

Discussion

Overall, each class across the board took some care in visual design, with great effort among some groups. Indeed, a number of the classes appeared to enjoy the process and invested their time into it.

Such enjoyment and investment was often evinced in the care and creativity that the groups brought to their displays.

The fourth and fifth classes of novice L2 presenters appeared to reach the highest degree of achievement in their group presentations in overall proficiency in spoken delivery, execution in visual display, and teamwork. This indicated that their seasoning in L1 presentations was a viable foundation for their

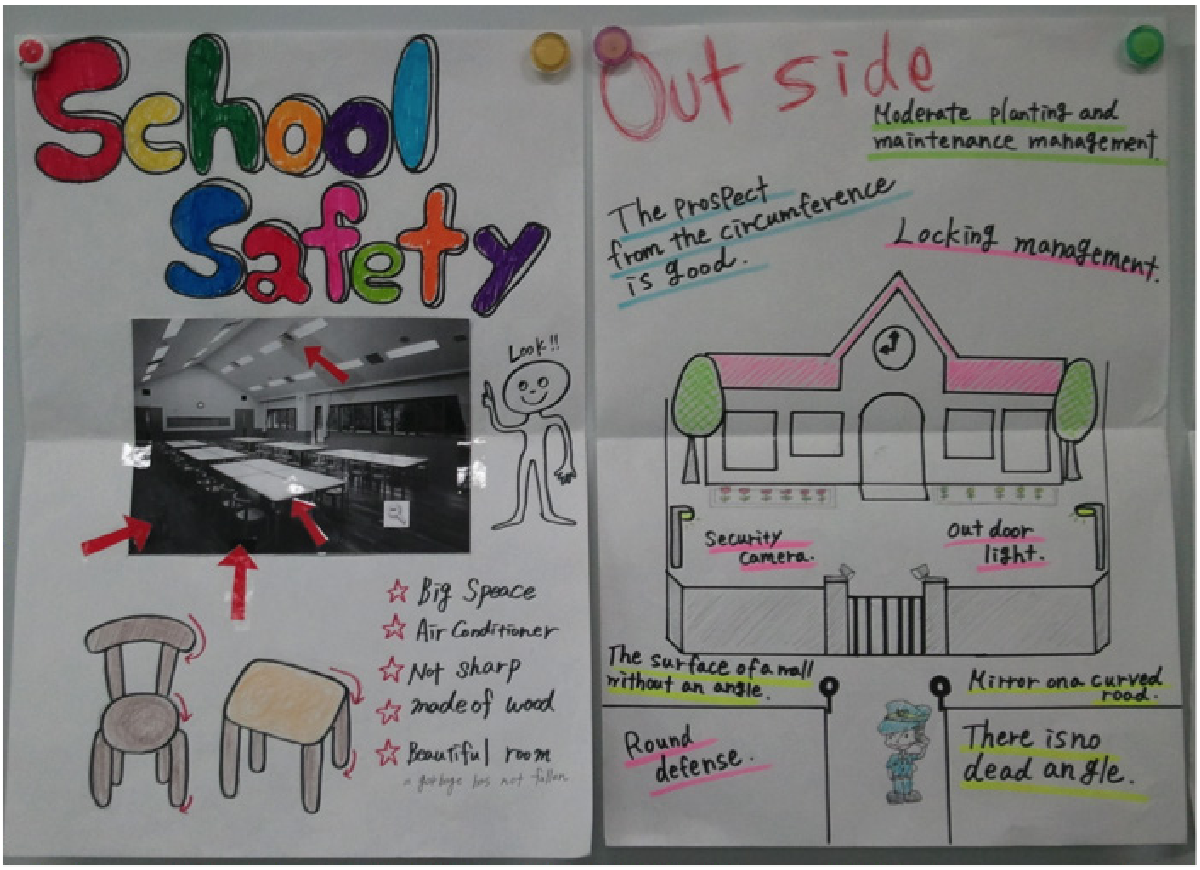

Figure 3. Sample Material from Sample Class 3.

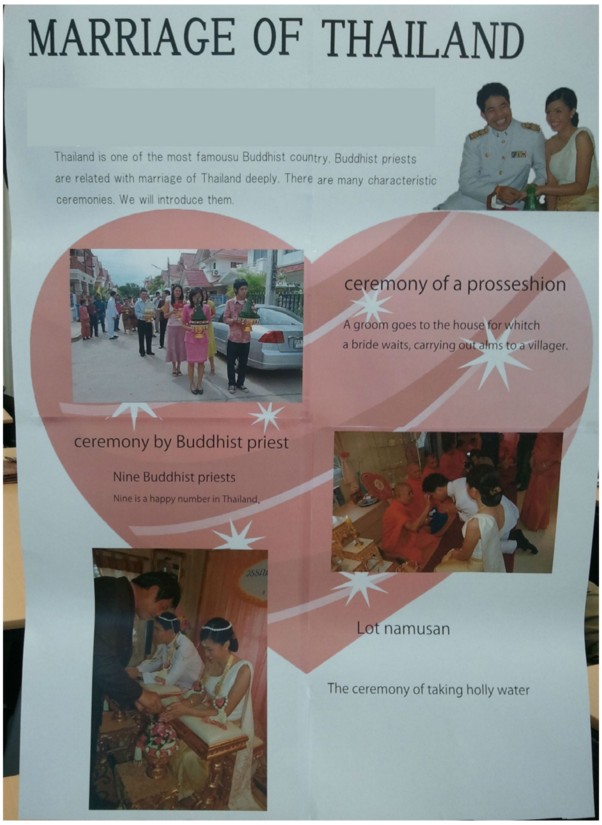

Figure 4. Sample Material from Sample Class 4 & 5.

novice L2 presenting. Furthermore, they appeared to bring the high level of diligence and discipline necessary in their pharmaceutical coursework to their L2 presentation efforts. The first class of novice L2 presenters nonetheless also rated well in the level of their group cooperation, though somewhat lower in terms of spoken output and content of display.

The second and third classes of novice presenters displayed somewhat variable results. Some of the groups in each class demonstrated a high level of oral proficiency and ability in display content, as well as group cooperation. Yet some other groups did not appear to show quite the same reach in either delivery or display.

What was most noteworthy among all the classes was the maximization of L2 use with minimum employment of the L1. I had expected at least a few of the groups to employ the L1 to perhaps more than judicious levels, particularly among those in the first class. Yet all groups in every class strived for delivery entirely in the L2 to the best of their level.

The only major drawback of their output was that several of the groups across the board relied on some scripted speech, particularly among those of lower proficiency. Wherever their L2 errors did not detract in coherence and content, I did not severely downgrade them, as they had written many of these notes themselves.

In a similar vein, groups with a mixture of lower and higher levels of proficiency tended towards shorter presentations. Yet a dynamic of teamwork came through in these groups, and allowed learners of higher proficiency to showcase their speaking ability. Indeed, all groups in every class accepted responsibility for their preparation and delivery, and I weighed individual learner task acceptance as equal to delivery and display in my evaluation of their roles in their groups' presentations.

Despite the promising signs I found, more studies are needed with novice L2 presenters, as I cannot conclude that my approach is definitive. My assessment of my novices weighed what admittedly are subjective factors of group and learner effort, to a degree that qualitative scrutiny may dismiss as a lowering of the bar. Yet I take the stance that my approach positioned the learners to step up to the occasion, and on that basis I found an emergence of learner task responsibility in all classes.

Conclusion

While learner oral presentations may provide showcases of L2 learner performance, novice L2 presenters in Japanese settings must be defined in literal terms and positioned to the task with their complete inexperience in mind. Assessment for such novices should set aside portfolio requirements or precision in spoken output in favor of an evaluative focus on creativity and effort. This could more reasonably allow them a greater sense of learner task ownership and inculcation of responsibility, as well as enhance oral performance. This approach may also prepare such learners better for more thorough assessment, as well as portfolio schema, in future L2 presenting.

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An Interesting Project About Interest

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Creating interesting lessons is often a goal for teachers that can remain elusive, despite our best efforts. This paper will provide insights from psychological research into what exactly interest is, and what makes something interesting, by examining novelty-complexity appraisals. Subsequently, the results of a survey of learners' attitudes are given to help determine which lesson activities in English Discussion Classes learners find interesting or otherwise. The various strategies which learners in these classes employ to cope with uninteresting activities (Interest-Enhancing Strategies) will also be investigated. Finally, suggestions for how to make activities more interesting will then be made by focusing on survey findings and insights from research.

学習者が興味を持つ授業を作り出すことは多くの場合教師にとって明白な目標であるが、最善を尽くしても達成し得ないこともある。本論文では心理学的観点から興味とは何であるか、またどうすれば興味を持たせることができるのかを新奇性、複雑性の評価の検討により洞察する。次に、学習者の態度に関する調査を行い、英語ディスカッションクラスの学習者が興味を持つ授業活動と持たない授業活動について検討する。学習者が興味の持てない活動に対処するために取るさまざまな方策（Interest-Enhancing Strategies）についても考察する。最後に、これらの調査結果および洞察から授業活動をより興味の持てるものにするための提言を行う。

Introduction

As teachers we constantly attempt to engage our learners with interesting lesson activities so that they can have an enjoyable learning experience and learn effectively. The pedagogical benefits for learners of interesting lessons are manifold and include greater persistence in learning tasks, longer periods spent studying, reading more deeply, getting better grades, and remembering more of what they have read (Silvia, 2008). It may, therefore, be worthwhile to conduct some preliminary research to examine learners' interest in learning EFL and to investigate the behaviors learners employ to deal with activities they find uninteresting. A previous examination into interest has been provided by Wiśniewska (2013), who surveyed adolescent learners and discovered they were "moderately interested" in learning English. Various activities were rated by students. "Singing" rated as the most interesting activity, with "Group Work" and "speaking" also rated highly. Conversely, "homework" was rated as the least interesting part of English classes with "Grammar" and "Testing" also rated as some of the least interesting classroom activities for students. Although an insightful study, it is unclear what specific types of activity consist of (e.g. a grammar activity or a group work activity). This is particularly true when comparing classes, as different teachers may have had different approaches, influencing the

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students' survey responses. The survey undertaken in this paper examines learner attitudes to activities similar to Wiśniewska's study in the context of English Discussion Classes at Rikkyo University to ascertain which activities students are interested in. Although the students of two different teachers were surveyed, the activities undertaken by students in these classes are highly similar between different teachers. Several practical ideas to make activities more interesting will also be suggested, which, it is hoped, will provide guidelines for teachers to consider when teaching EFL classes.

Research questions

How do learners perceive English Discussion Class activities in terms of their interest?

What strategies do learners employ to deal with uninteresting activities?

Literature Review

In the field of psychology, where considerable research into emotions has been conducted, interest is defined as "a feeling of wanting to investigate, become involved, or extend or expand the self by incorporating new information and having new experiences with the person or object that has stimulated the interest" (Thoman, Sansone, & Pasupathi, 2007, p. 338). The connection between the individual and the object of their interest is a recurrent theme in literature on interest, as Dewey (1913, p. 17) in one of the earliest works on interest and education explains: "Interest marks the annihilation of the distance between the person and the materials and results of his action; it is the sign of their organic union." The "union" could be with ideas, objects, other people, and events (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000). Interest develops when individuals have a positive affective experience (Thoman, Sansone, & Pasupathi, 2007) and where the object of interest is considered to hold value (Dewey, 1917). Our interests, therefore, are attached to objects that are perceived as important to our concept of self. What we personally value and consider interesting can be influenced by a range of variables, such as our perceived strengths and weaknesses (Schiefele, 2009), gender (Kohlberg, 1966), and affiliation with a social group (Todt, 1990). As our view of ourselves develop over time so do our interests as we both take on new interests and discard those that no longer hold any value for us (Silvia, 2008).

Personal and Situational Interest

Two typologies of interest--situational interest and personal interest--can be helpful to explain how interests develop and form. Situational interest is spontaneous and environmentally activated (Schraw, Flowerday, & Lehman, 2001; Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000). It can be triggered suddenly by external stimuli (triggered situational interest), such as a teacher providing engaging lessons (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010). If a person deems something interesting enough they may devote further attention to it and maintained situational interest occurs. If our interests are sustained for long enough, they can eventually develop into personal interest, representing a strong personal preference for a particular topic or domain. Personal interest signifies a state where individuals seek to expand knowledge themselves, and is associated with positive feelings, increased knowledge and value (Schiefele, 1999). As situational interest is more susceptible to change and manipulation by the classroom environment, this study will attempt to provide suggestions for enhancing this form of interest.

What is Interesting?

Although intuition informs us that there is considerable variation in what individuals find interesting or otherwise, it is possible to explain in terms of novelty-complexity appraisals and with insights from text-based interest research. Novelty appraisals involve the individual evaluating "an event as new, unexpected, surprising, mysterious, or obscure" (Silvia, 2008, p. 58). If something is new, it naturally arouses our curiosity, which can impact our interests. However, the degree of newness is subject to variation between individuals. Novelty appraisals relate to how new we view objects or events to be, with something appraised as new regarded as more interesting than something familiar. In the classroom environment, new student groupings or the introduction of a new activity type may therefore be regarded as interesting in this way. It is important to note, however, that teachers need not continually devise novel activities to generate learner interest. Instead, activities can be repeated if learners have had a positive affective experience with activities. Complexity appraisals relate to our ability to understand events appraised beyond our understanding considered to be confusing and less interesting. For example, people reported an abstract poem as more interesting after receiving a hint to help them understand it (Silvia, 2005). It does not necessarily follow that interest is adversely affected by the level of difficulty. If an event is appraised as potentially understandable it could trigger interest.

Interest-Enhancing Strategies

If activities are uninteresting, yet individuals have good reasons to take part in these activities, then Interesting Enhancing Strategies (IESs) can be employed. Sansone, Weir, Harpster, and Morgan, (1992) proposed that individuals have implicit knowledge of IESs and utilize them to enhance interest. Research into this area is limited. Based on experimental studies in the field of sports psychology four IESs have been proposed:

> *Challenge enhancement*: attempting more demanding tasks that are above current ability levels.
>
> *Exploitation of stimuli outside own task performance*: using cues from outside the activity itself, such as watching others carry out an activity.
>
> *Introduction of variety within the task*: changing the task type or content by switching tasks before becoming bored.
>
> *Provision of self-relevant rationales*: creating reasons for participating in an activity, for example to get a good grade.
>
> (Sansone, Weir, Harpster, & Morgan, 1992; Green-Demers, Pelletier, Stewart, & Gushue, 1998)

The survey of IESs used by students in English Discussion Classes reported in this paper have been developed from both Wiśniewska (2013) and from personal observation of IESs that students appear to employ in these classes.

English Discussion Class

English Discussion Classes (EDC) are compulsory for all first-year students at Rikkyo University, Tokyo. Lessons are held weekly and duration is 90 minutes. Class size is generally limited to eight, and students have multiple opportunities to communicate in English as classes involve minimal teacher instruction and intervention. Guidelines suggest that students engage in direct student-student interaction for around 55 minutes, which means a variety of pairwork and groupwork activities. EDC primarily focuses on improving English speaking ability and fluency. All teachers on the EDC program receive explicit instruction on EDC teaching methodology and are frequently observed to ensure that they are adhering to this methodology. EDC teachers generally follow a standard lesson plan for every class (see Table 1). Overall, satisfaction ratings for EDC are high as reported by a student survey, which showed that 92% of students were happy with this class.

Methodology

A questionnaire (Appendix A) was administered to 73 EDC students in semester one, after students had become familiar with EDC activities. The methodology employed questionnaires with attitudinal questions, to determine which activities students were interested in, and behavioral questions about IESs students employed (Wiśniewska, 2013). Both parts of the questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale for measuring students' responses. Questionnaires are advantageous because they can collect data efficiently and in a standardized manner (Dorynei, 2007). One drawback is that they have a tendency to produce superficial responses. In order to provide greater depth of response, for the first part of the questionnaire, students were asked to discuss their responses together. Some of these responses were recorded in field notes. Acquiescence bias (in which the respondents answer questions according to how they think the researcher, in this case their teacher, would like them to respond) was also an issue. Questionnaires were therefore kept anonymous and students were told their responses would not affect their classroom grades. The second part of the questionnaire required students to consider which IESs they employed to deal with uninteresting classroom activities. Due to time constraints in some classes where the questionnaire was administered, not all students were able to respond to the second part of the questionnaire (Appendix B, n=41). The questionnaire could be problematic in that students may not be consciously aware of IESs they employed. Nevertheless, the responses provided in the questionnaire were useful in providing suggestions to make activities more engaging.

Results

The results of students' reported levels of interest in different EDC activities showed that they generally rated activities as "interesting" with one activity (homework readings) rated as "neither interesting or boring". Overall, students' reported levels of interest in different EDC activities (See table 2) did not vary appreciably, with activities rated from 4.07 for learning function phrases to 3.01 for homework readings.

The relationship between interest and the perceived difficulty of different EDC activities was often used a reason to explain students' variability in interest ratings. Learning function phrases was rated as most interesting, with several students remarking that these phrases were both useful and not difficult to learn. The relation between complexity appraisals and interest was also used to explain why some students rated 3-2-1 activities as one of the least interesting activities. Students reported that this activity type was most challenging, requiring them to speak at length. One student complained of this activity that they "were not fluent in English," which they saw as the main hindrance for completing this activity type successfully. Students also noted that they did not have sufficient vocabulary, signifying that preparation could be advantageous in raising interest levels. The relation between complexity appraisals and interest was further highlighted by one student who reported that English was generally difficult for them as the reason why they checked "neither interesting nor boring" for all activities.

Both discussions activities in a standard lesson were rated highly by most students, with a negligible difference in interest between the first and second discussions. For discussions, students reported feelings of interest and enjoyment when working with

Table 1
Structure of English Discussion lessons.

Stage	Activity
1. Quiz	Students do homework reading quiz.
2. Fluency	Students do a 3-2-1 fluency activity.
3. Function presentation	Teacher presents function phrases (giving reasons, giving examples...).
4. Function practice	Students practice function phrases.
5. Discussion preparation #1	Students generate ideas for discussions.
6. Discussion #1	Students have a topic-based discussion for 10/12 minutes.
7. Teacher Feedback	Teacher gives students feedback on performance.
8. Discussion preparation #2	
9. Discussion #2	16-minute discussion.

Table 2
Student Interest Ratings of EDC Activities.

	Mean Value	Standard Deviation
Learning f**unction phrases** is...	4.07	0.653
The second discussion is...	4.04	0.848
The first discussion is...	4.03	0.721
Practice activities with the function phrases are...	4	0.745
Receiving feedback from the teacher after the first discussion is...	3.93	0.643
Preparation activities (before the discussion) are...	3.79	0.726
3-2-1 fluency activities are...	3.6	0.812
In general, I think the **homework readings** are...	3.01	0.905

n=73

Table 3
IESs Employed by Students in EDC Activities

When I find topics/activities boring	Modal response	Percentage of respondents
I think about how I will use what I am learning **in the future**.	3	30%
I try to make the activity interesting by **asking interesting questions**.	3	45%
I try to make the activity interesting by **disagreeing** with other students' opinions.	3	41%
I make an effort if other students are also making an effort.	3	37.5%
I tell myself that it is **important** to learn English.	3	37.5%
I tell myself that my **English level will improve** if I do the activity.	3	37.5%
I tell myself that **I have to do the activity** if it is interesting or not.	3	37.5%
I sit quietly and wait for the activity to finish.	2	40%
I tell myself that **the teacher will be happy** if I make an effort.	2	30%
I do the activity in order to **get a good grade**.	2	35%
I **daydream/think of something else** (my boyfriend/girlfriend, other classes...)	2	37%

n=41

one another, and sharing experiences and opinions together. In contrast, the majority of students were indifferent towards homework readings, with some students reporting that the content of the reading texts was often uninteresting.

Results of the IESs employed by students (see Table 3) showed a wide variance as a result of students' differing motivations for learning English, varying attitudes towards EDC, and differences in individual student behaviors. Therefore, for analytical purposes the modal value was used. Overall, students showed a tendency to employ strategies that dealt with the provision of self-relevant rationales (thinking about the usefulness of an activity for their future), as well as introducing variety within a task (asking questions or disagreeing with other students' ideas). Students reported that strategies that dealt with the exploitation of stimuli outside task performance (daydreaming, consideration of how the teacher will respond to their efforts) were employed less frequently.

Recommendations for Increasing Levels of Situational Interest

This study has focused on a specific EFL class type and learning environment. Using the results to give suggestions on how to make EFL activities more interesting in general could be problematic. Nevertheless, preliminary suggestions will be put forward to provide teachers with guidelines for making lessons more interesting, which it is hoped teachers will implement with careful consideration of their own teaching circumstance.

The first point to consider is that, however negligible, there is variation in students' interest levels for different activities. The teacher, therefore, should not make a priori assumptions about what activities are interesting but instead take measures to find out this information. Once uninteresting activities have been identified, it is then necessary to consider ways to deal with them.

The students surveyed reported that interest can be adversely affected by overly difficult activities. Therefore allowing more support, either from the teacher or from their peers, by providing background information or lexical items could be beneficial (Schraw et al., 2001). Alternatively, topics could be chosen with which the majority of learners will be familiar. Those topics which are wholly unfamiliar to students may be difficult and consequently lack interest.

When faced with an uninteresting activities, students employed IESs whereby they justified reasons for participating. Explanation and emphasis of activity goals and learner outcomes should therefore be a priority for teachers, in order to motivate students to engage in an activity even when it is not personally interesting for specific students. Once activities are completed the teacher could also provide feedback on whether these goals were achieved and provide suggestions for students to make improvements. In addition, activity types and topics that are personally relevant for students could be exploited, in particular for motivating low-interest groups of students (Means, Jonassen & Dwyer, 1997).

Research has shown that for some individuals, working with others resulted in increased interest (Isaac, Sansone & Smith, 1999), which the interest ratings reported for EDC groupwork activities appear to confirm. Although working together with other students should be encouraged, consideration should be given to what groupings of students are most effective. That is to say, students may only employ IESs if they see that other students are interested and are making an effort. Conversely grouping together uninterested students should be avoided.

Allowing students to make choices about how they carry out activities can result in students employing IES to adapt an activity to make it more interesting personally. Allowing students some flexibility in carrying out activities is therefore worth considering, as is providing students with a degree of meaningful choices (Schraw et al., 2001; Cordova & Lepper, 1996). Providing students with choice, no matter how arbitrary, appears to increase individuals' overall levels of both satisfaction and interest (Flowerday & Schraw, 2000). Choice is important, as individuals tend to make choices based on what they like or are curious about. In addition, choices are made for topics and activities that they may have some prior knowledge of. Having some prior knowledge allows students to appraise something as comprehensible thereby enhancing interest.

Finally, if activities continually lack interest, either abandoning an activity altogether, reducing the duration, or considering experimenting with a new activity type should be considered.

Conclusion

The aim of this paper has been to gain insights into learner interest by focusing on what students find most interesting about EDC activities. It has also provided general recommendations to make lessons more interesting. Further research to determine if these recommendations are effective in enhancing learner interest is necessary. Although this study has made a case for making lessons interesting for learners, teachers should note that despite their best efforts and hard work, it may be difficult to engage learners who have negative perceptions of English. Individuals may simply have fully formed personal interests which could exclude learning EFL. As teachers, we should, nevertheless strive to make our lessons interesting and enjoyable, but not be discouraged if these efforts are not entirely successful.

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Appendix A

I am a boy / a girl

My major is ...

Sometimes learning English is interesting and we enjoy taking part in activities but sometimes it is not very interesting and some of the activities we do in class can seem boring.

Mark (X) your opinions of the following EDC activities...

	Very interesting	Interesting	Neither interesting or boring	Not very interesting	Boring
1. In general, I think the **homework readings** are...					
2. **3-2-1 fluency activities** are...					
3. Learning **function phrases** is...					
4. **Practice activities with the function phrases** are...					
5. **Preparation activities** (before the discussion) are...					
6. **The first discussion** is...					
7. **Receiving feedback from the teacher** after the first discussion is...					
8. The second discussion is...					

Appendix B

When some topics and activities are not interesting to you, what do you do? Mark (X) in the table below what you do...

When I find topics/activities boring	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. I tell myself that it is **important** to learn English.					
2. I tell myself that **I have to do the activity** if it is interesting or not.					
3. I try to make the activity interesting by **disagreeing** with other students' opinions.					
4. I try to make the activity interesting by **asking interesting questions**.					
5. **I sit quietly** and wait for the activity to finish.					
6. I tell myself that **the teacher will be happy** if I make an effort.					
7. I do the activity in order to **get a good grade.**					
8. I think about how I will use what I am learning **in the future**.					
9. I tell myself that **my English level will improve** if I do the activity.					
10. I make an effort if other students are also making an effort.					
11. I **daydream/think of something else** (my boyfriend/girlfriend, other classes...)					

Is there anything more you want to say? Please write...

Building the Four Skills through Documentary Films

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Documentary films have the power to engage learning and transform lives. Based on a course taught at Meiji University, this paper describes the methodology for teaching an integrated skills course through the medium of documentary film. The university course draws upon a range of compelling English-language films dealing with real-world environmental, political, and social issues urgently affecting society today. Students have regular opportunities to enhance speaking, listening, and writing skills through viewings, guided discussion, and critical reflection.

ドキュメントフィルムは、習得する力・生活を変化する力を持っている。明治大学で学んだコースに基づきこのペーパーは、ドキュメントフィルムという媒体を通して、一貫した熟練のコースを指導するための方法論を記述している。大学のコースは、ある幅を持った納得性のある真の環境世界に関連するフィルム・今日の社会に影響を及ぼしている緊急性がある政治など、納得性を持つ英語のフィルムをあてにしている。学生は常に、会話・聞き取り・討論の導き方・批評への影響・見ることを通して書く技術を高める機会を 持っている。

The use of English-language documentary films in the university classroom can serve not only as an entertaining and motivating source of authentic English but as a profoundly engaging tool for raising awareness of vital issues impacting the world today. What follows is a comprehensive description of a 15-week English language course based around feature-length documentary films. The description includes the course content, materials, lesson sequence, and method of assessment. In addition to its information-rich content, one of the main pedagogic aims of the cours is to use and develop the four basic language skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing. An integrated approach allows learners to comprehensively develop and practice basic language skills around particular themes and, as such, offers excellent preparation for what students are most likely to expect in the real world outside the walls of their classroom.

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Background

This documentary-based elective course was initially offered at Meiji University in the spring of 2010 within the School of Global Japanese Studies. The 15-week course met for two 90-minute lessons per week. The total lesson time was approximately 45 hours. Enrollment for the course averaged around ten students. Eight full-length English-language documentary films, all screened in class, comprised the main content of the course. Although eight films may be beyond the scope or duration of any standard university course, it is believed that this article will still be of pedagogic merit for the use of any type of documentary films or non-fiction video in an English-language teaching context.

Why Use Documentary Films?

Documentary films offer a rich source of pedagogic and educational benefits. Providing a rich and intensive source of contextualized authentic English, they can also entertain while broadening one's knowledge, awareness, and interest in a variety of contemporary issues. Documentaries can also open a unique and fascinating window into different cultures. Controversially-themed documentaries, in particular, can stimulate classroom discussion, debate, and expression of personal opinion. Finally, documentaries can serve as a potent linguistic resource for the development of language skills and vocabulary.

Why Use Feature-length Documentary Films?

While many fine short documentary films are available, the decision was made to use primarily full-length films. Feature length documentaries, such as *Super Size Me*, *An Inconvenient Truth* or *The Cove*, tend to have higher name recognition value and will likely motivate learners more than lesser-known or obscure short films. It is also believed that watching and successfully comprehending a full-length movie will impart a greater sense of learner achievement or pride, as opposed to a short film or single scene. Moreover, screening a full-length movie may also boost student motivation and confidence, as students will realize that comprehending a film is not as challenging as they had expected (King, 2002). It is also likely that, in a longer film, exposure to repeated vocabulary and language related to a particular theme will lead to a greater likelihood of vocabulary acquisition. A full-length film also serves as a richer and more varied source of content by which to exploit for discussion, analysis, and other activities. In general, it is believed that the overall educational experience is deeper and more satisfying.

Selection Criteria

With the bewildering number of English-language documentary films available at the outset, choosing a suitable film may seem like a daunting task. A number of practical questions can be addressed that will help facilitate the selection process. (1) Is the film relevant to the lives of young adults? In other words, will learners have a personal stake in the message of the film? (2) Is the film linguistically comprehensible? If the language is overly complex or technical, learners may quickly become discouraged and lose interest. (3) Is the film fast-paced, visual, and sufficiently entertaining? (4) Is the film reasonably short? Documentaries that extend beyond two hours will require considerable class time and may start to challenge the attention span of learners. (5) Is the film recent? Movies older than 15 years may risk exposing learners to outdated facts and information. (6) Is the film well-made or award-winning? Any notable accolades will serve as a reliable litmus test of quality. (7) Is it emotionally or psychologically safe? Some documentaries may include footage of graphic or gratuitous violence, mistreatment to humans or animals, profanity, or sex. As such, they may not likely be appropriate for the classroom. Full-length documentary films that meet the above criteria and have been successfully used in this course include *Super Size Me, Food, Inc., An Inconvenient Truth, No Impact Man, The Cove, Happy,* and *Out of the Blue: The Definitive Investigation of the UFO Phenomenon*.

The recommended length of movie for the documentary-based course would be approximately 90 minutes or less. In each 90-minute lesson, a third of the film (or around 30 minutes) was viewed in class. This permitted one hour for other activities, such as pre-viewing and post-viewing pair work and group activities.

Using English-language Subtitles (Closed Captioning)

In the course, English-language subtitles (closed captioning) were typically used during the in-class viewing of each film. Although regarded as perhaps a considerable crutch for learners, it was seen as a necessary one. Unless learners are at a highly advanced level, much of the authentic input would not likely get processed, resulting in demotivation and disengagement. However, studies in this area suggest that the use of subtitling in the target language does indeed offer a host of pedagogic benefits. Subtitles make the language more salient, allowing the learners to better concentrate and process the language. Subtitles also help students recognize and learn the pronunciation of words, expressions, and idioms. They can also help viewers to better understand jokes or humor (King, 2002). In addition, because there is a deeper processing of language through two modes (both listening and reading), there is a stronger reinforcement of vocabulary (Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010). In terms of helping and building general listening comprehension skills, captioned movies also tend to be more effective than non-captioned movies (Huang & Eskey, 1999; Kikuchi, 1997). In short, less able students receive greater linguistic support, anxiety is reduced, and this allows for greater enjoyment and processing of the film's message.

Materials

As stated previously, each documentary movie was roughly divided into three 30-minute segments. One 30-minute part was screened in each 90-minute lesson. There was a special worksheet that accompanied each part of the movie, which students completed as homework prior to each lesson. There were typically three worksheets per movie. The worksheet included three main sections: Focus Questions, Pre-Viewing Vocabulary, and Comprehension Questions. A worksheet for the part one of *Super Size Me* appears in Appendix A.

Focus questions

There were usually three to four pre-viewing questions given as a warm-up, related to the particular part of the film the students would watch that day. Students were asked to prepare their answers in advance, and share their answers in class with a partner. This was an easy and practical way to get learners interested in and thinking about the film, while activating any relevant schemata related to the topic. In theory, at least, this preparation would help support comprehension of the video segment to be watched that day.

Pre-viewing vocabulary

Following the focus questions was a list of 25 English vocabulary items (words, phrases, or expressions) that would appear in that lesson's documentary segment. The vocabulary was also listed in the order in which it appeared in the film. It is generally a good idea that unknown words be pre-taught if knowing these vocabulary items is important for successful comprehension. This makes it more likely that learners will understand the passage; moreover, it will give learners a greater sense of confidence (Wilson, 2008, p. 76). It will also help learners make predictions as to what to expect in the particular video segment, which should further aid comprehension.

The 25 vocabulary items were chosen in advance by the instructor and generally adhered to four main criteria: (1) Was the item likely to be new or unfamiliar to learners? (2) Was it likely that learners would have trouble inferring the meaning of each item in context? (3) Was the item essential for decoding the meaning of the segment to be viewed? (4) Was the item used repeatedly throughout the film? Prior to the lesson, students were asked to use dictionaries to check the meaning of each item themselves or translate it into their first language. In addition, students were asked to find and mark the accent of each word; this would help in the recognition of the item while viewing the film. Optionally, students may also be asked to record an example sentence of each vocabulary item showing its typical usage.

Comprehension Questions

The third section of the worksheet contained approximately 10 to 15 comprehension questions related to the section of the film to be viewed that day. As learners watched the film, they tried to answer the questions. There are two good reasons why students should be given a listening task as opposed to simply watching the film. First, comprehension activities encourage learners to pay attention and understand the film. Secondly, it's important that students "show evidence of understanding or non-understanding", so that teachers can provide additional practice activities or clarification, if necessary (Wilson, 2008, p. 82-83). The comprehension questions were all objective in nature and were deliberately designed to be answered relatively quickly while viewing. There were three main types of comprehension questions: true/false, multiple-choice, and fill-in-the-blank. These recognition-type responses are easier to deal with and are less distracting than other types of exercises. (Wilson, 2008, p. 82). To help minimize the burden of reading and answering the questions in real-time, students were requested to pre-read the comprehension questions for homework in advance and *guess* the answers. While viewing the film in class, students could quickly confirm their answers or make any relevant changes.

Lesson Sequence

Each 90-minute lesson was typically divided into three general stages: the *before-viewing* stage, the *while-viewing* stage, and the *after-viewing* stage.

Before Viewing

The before-viewing stage would typically last from 30 to 45 minutes. If a new documentary was being presented, the teacher would spend a few minutes introducing the film. This may have included the film's general thesis, the director, budget, its box office performance, prizes or awards, critical or public reaction, controversies, discussion of the official poster, and so on. Following this, students, in pairs, would spend up to ten minutes sharing their answers to the Focus Questions that they had prepared in advance. This was followed by a whole class discussion of one, some, or all of the questions. Students then compared their list of Pre-viewing Vocabulary with a partner. If they had trouble understanding the meaning of a particular item or its pronunciation, they could consult with their partner. To familiarize learners with the phonological features of new vocabulary, it may also be useful for the teacher to lead a choral drill of the vocabulary (Thornbury, 2002, p. 85). Students can check that they have identified the stressed syllable correctly. If time permits, students can also go to the Comprehension Questions and compare their guesses with a classmate.

While Viewing

One-third of the film (approximately 30 minutes) was screened in class (the first, second, or third part). While watching the film, students answered the Comprehension Questions. However, they were also encouraged to take additional notes of any interesting information.

After Viewing

Following the video segment, students spent a few minutes comparing their answers to the Comprehension Questions with a partner. While pair work obviously allows students to speak longer, it also helps them sort out any differing interpretations of the material (Wilson, 2008, p. 97). The teacher monitored the discussion, then went over the Comprehension Questions, eliciting and confirming answers from the class and answering questions. If there was time, the teacher led a whole class discussion, inviting general reactions to the segment just viewed.

Homework

Homework for the documentary course consisted of two regular activities: the film worksheet and the reaction journal.

Film Worksheet

Students needed to complete the film worksheet (Focus Questions, Pre-Viewing Vocabulary, and Comprehension Questions) for the segment of the film that would be screened in the next lesson.

Reaction Journal

With any interesting or controversial input, students will naturally want to know if the message correlates or conflicts with their own views on the issue. This will likely prompt classroom debate, discussion, or some personal response (Wilson, 2008, p. 99). Apart from discussion opportunities, students also had a chance to react to the input in writing by keeping a journal, in which they composed a personal response (150 words or more) to the segment of the film viewed in the previous lesson. Some recommended areas of discussion included:

- What did you learn that you didn't know before?
- What did you like? What didn't you like?
- Has the movie affected your opinions? beliefs?

Table 1
Summary of skills used in the course.

SPEAKING • Focus Questions (pair work) • Guided whole class discussion	LISTENING • Documentary narration/speakers • Pair work discussion • Guided whole class discussion
READING • English subtitles • Lesson worksheets • Supplementary materials	WRITING • Focus questions (written answers) • Reaction journal (150+words)

lifestyle? If so, how?

- What was the most interesting/funniest/surprising/shocking/disturbing part?
- Do you strongly agree or disagree with any of the points made in the movie? Why?
- Was the movie easy/difficult for you to understand? Explain.

The reaction journal was a valuable component of the course for numerous reasons. It served as a general check that students were indeed paying close attention to the movie. It gave learners valuable writing practice and a platform in which to carefully consider and express their views. Since the mid-term examination and final exam were composition-based, a writing journal would help prepare learners for this method of assessment.

The Four Skills

One of the fundamental course goals was to use and develop speaking, listening, reading and writing. Table 1 summarizes the course activities beneath its associated macro-skill.

Assessment Procedures

How the final grade is usually determined is summarized in Table 2.

Homework Assignments

A homework assignment score was mainly based on the completion of the film worksheets (Focus Questions, Pre-viewing Vocabulary, and Comprehension Questions).

Class Participation

A class participation score was based on how communicatively active students were during pair work activities and whole class discussion and whether students were giving their full attention during viewings of the documentary film.

Reaction Journal

A grade was assigned based mainly on regular completion of the journal entries. As previously noted, each entry should be a minimum of 150 words. Optionally, and depending on the class size, the teacher collected the journals and provided written feedback on the content of all or part of the journal.

Vocabulary Quizzes

Following the completion of each documentary film (eight quizzes in total), a short recognition-based vocabulary quiz was administered to encourage the study and retention of new vocabulary items associated with the theme of each film. The quiz was based on the Pre-viewing Vocabulary items. There were 10-items on

Table 2
Assessment plan.

Component	Grade
Homework assignments	10%
Class participation	20%
Reaction journal	20%
Vocabulary quizzes	10%
Mid-Term assessment	20%
Final Assessment	20%

each quiz, with each quiz testing up to 75 vocabulary items. Each quiz adhered to a conventional testing format, in which students had to choose a suitable word or phrase from a box and properly contextualize them in a "fill-in-the-blank" sentence. A vocabulary quiz for *Super Size Me* appears in Appendix B. However, to offer a greater and appropriate challenge for this level, it was decided that 15 vocabulary choices would appear in the box, yet five of them would serve as distractors—attractive yet incorrect answers.

Mid-Term & Final Assessment

The mid-term and final examinations were one-hour in-class composition-based tests and each adhered to the same format. Both the mid-term exam and final exam were administered following four documentary films. For each of the four films viewed, there were two essay questions. One question was information-based (the answer expects facts, details, and examples from the film); the other question was opinion-based (the answer expects the learner's well-supported opinion). In the exam, the student chose either the information-based or opinion-based question, and wrote a short but well-organized response of at least 120 words. For the film *Super Size Me*, for example, the learner would choose question (a) or (b):

(a) In what ways did eating McDonald's food for 30 days affect Morgan Spurlock?

(b) Do you think fast food companies should be held responsible for the obesity problem in the US?

Conclusion

Documentary films can serve as an ideal resource for fostering awareness of important global and social issues and for developing valuable language skills and vocabulary. An impressive array of compelling and award-winning contemporary films is waiting to be explored and exploited for the English language classroom. Learners can be given the opportunity to enhance their speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills through regular viewings, classroom discussion, vocabulary analysis, and critical reflection of contemporary issues. Although the process of choosing films and designing materials may discourage teachers from a labor standpoint, the educational and pedagogic payoff is certainly worth the effort. In the end, learners will be met with a uniquely enjoyable and educationally-rewarding experience.

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Appendix A

Worksheet for *Super Size Me*

Super Size Me

Dir. Morgan Spurlock. Sony Pictures, 2004.

FOCUS QUESTIONS

1. How often do you eat fast food? What's your favorite fast food restaurant?
2. What kind of people do you think eat fast food?
3. Do you think fast food is healthy for you? Why or why not?
4. How would you feel about eating fast food every day for a month?

PRE-VIEWING VOCABULARY

English	Translation / Meaning
obese	
obesity crisis	
waistline	
overweight	
sue (the bastards)	
lawsuit	
blame	
corporate responsibility	
fatigue	
binge	
thorough	
glucose	
cholesterol (level)	
heart disease	
body mass index (BMI)	
ridiculous	
judge	
epidemic	
lure (in)	
appeal	
nasty	
puke	
toxic	
chore	
hector	

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

1. America is the **most dangerous / richest / fattest** nation in the world.

2. **20% / 40% / 60%** of all adults in the US are overweight or obese.

3. **Minnesota / Mississippi / Texas** is the fattest state in the US.

4. The two main causes of preventable death in America are ____________ and ____________.

5. **10% / 25% / 40%** of Americans visit a fast food restaurant every day.

6. Morgan is a smoker. **True / False**

7. Morgan's current health is **poor / OK / excellent**.

8. More than **30% / 40% / 60%** of Americans get no exercise.

9. There are **44 / 83 / 99** McDonald's in Manhattan.

10. Morgan's girlfriend is a **doctor / teacher / vegan chef**.

11. Morgan's first meal at McDonald's is **a Big Mac / an Egg McMuffin / a McFish**.

12. John Banzhof is **a law professor / a doctor / a cook.**

13. Banzhof says it's fair to criticize McDonald's because they're big and they try to attract **kids / overweight people / low-income people.**

14. Fast food restaurants used to offer only one size of French fries or drinks. **True / False**

Appendix B

Vocabulary quiz for Super Size Me

Super Size Me

Vocabulary Quiz 10 Points

NAME ________________________________ STUDENT ID NO. __________________________

obese	go blind	vice	ban	crave
judge	lobbyist	cholesterol	consume	resilient
nutritionist	appease	blame	drastic	sue

Directions: Complete each sentence with a suitable word from the box above.

1. You can't _______________ all your problems on your parents.

2. He smokes on occasion, but that's his only _______________.

3. I got really sick after I ate at that restaurant, so I'm going to _______________ them for $10,000.

4. People with a BMI of 30 or higher are _______________.

5. In 2005, Hong Kong decided to _______________ smoking in bars, restaurants, and office buildings.

6. If _______________ action isn't taken, global warming will only get worse.

7. Most children should reduce the amount of sugar they _______________ each day.

8. I became a vegetarian last year, but I still _______________ the taste of meat.

9. Children are often very _______________. Even after a difficult situation, they're able to become happy and healthy again.

10. Some people who have severe diabetes might _______________.

Comparing Yes/No Test Correction Formula Predictions of Passive Recall Test Results

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One weakness of the convenient Yes/No vocabulary test is that of students claiming knowledge of words they do not truly know. To overcome this, pseudowords were introduced to the format and a number of correction for guessing formulas were devised. Four such formulas were compared in Huibregtse, Admiraal, and Meara (2002). The simplest of these was h - f; and the others, in increasing complexity, were cfg (correction for guessing); Meara's Δm; and Isdt. This study will determine which of these correction formulas best adjusts Yes/No test scores to predict scores on a subsequently taken passive recall translation (L2 to L1) test.

便利なYes/No語彙テストにおける弱点の一つは、学生が実際には知らない単語の理解を主張することである。これを克服するために、疑似語がテスト形式に導入され、多くの推測公式の補正が考案された。その公式のうちの4つがHuibregtse, Admiraal and Meara（2002）によって比較された。4つのうちもっとも単純なものはh − fであり、cfg、MearaのΔm、Isdtとなるにつれ、より複雑になった。この研究では、後に学生に受けてもらう受動型の回想式翻訳テスト（L2からL1）のスコアを予測するために、4つのうちどの補正公式がYes/No語彙テストに最も適応するかを判定する。

Introduction

Yes/No vocabulary tests present learners with a list of words, usually selected from word frequency lists, and ask them to signify their knowledge of each item by either checking that word, or by selecting either "yes" or "no". Read (2007, pp. 112-113) notes that "Despite its simplicity, the Yes/No format has proved to be an informative and cost-effective means of assessing the state of learners' vocabulary knowledge, particularly for placement and diagnostic purposes." As Yes/No (YN) tests rely solely on self-reporting, the actual lexical knowledge of the students cannot be verified. One concern with the YN format is whether test results accurately reflect the test takers' knowledge of the selected items, or if the results over-estimate the number of words actually known (Read, 1993, 2000). To compensate for the potential of students claiming knowledge of words they actually do not know the meaning of (over-estimation), pseudowords, or non-real words, were introduced to the vocabulary checklist test by Anderson and Freebody (1983). Pseudowords were introduced to the field of second language acquisition by Meara and Buxton (1987).

This use of pseudowords in YN tests has remained widespread through present-day versions. In these tests, knowledge of a real word is known as a hit, while claiming knowledge of a pseudoword is a false alarm (FA). Not claiming knowledge of a real word is labeled

Stubbe, R., Hoke, S. (2014). Comparing Yes/No test correction formula predictions of passive recall test results. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 72-78). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

a miss and not claiming knowledge of a pseudoword is a correct rejection. Claiming knowledge of words that do not exist is seen as an indication of falsely claiming knowledge of real words (overestimation).

There are two approaches to utilizing YN test pseudowords data (Schmitt, 2010). One common use is to set a maximum acceptable number of pseudowords beyond which "the data are discarded as unreliable" (Schmidt, 2010, p. 201). Schmitt, Jiang, and Grabe (2011) set their acceptance limit at three (10% of their 30 pseudowords). Barrow, Nakanishi and Ishino, (1999) set the same cut-off point. Stubbe (2012a) demonstrated that a cut-off point of four (12.5% of the 32 pseudowords) better suited those YN test results.

The other use of YN pseudowords is to adjust the YN scores, using a correction for guessing formula. The test results from learners checking pseudowords are adjusted using a variety of formulae, to better reflect their actual vocabulary size. Four such established formulas were compared in Huibregtse, Admiraal, and Meara (2002): h - f, cfg, Δm and Isdt.

Huibregtse, et al. (2002) found that their Isdt formula had the best prediction ability of the four correction formulas, but that the simpler h - f formula (Anderson & Freebody, 1983) worked just as well under most conditions. They also reported that the Δm formula (Meara, 1992) returned negative scores when a low hit rate was met with a high FA rate. Mochida and Harrington (2006) and Stubbe (2012b) similarly report that Isdt had the highest correlation of the four correction formulas with a second multiple-choice test of the same items, while YN raw hits had the lowest correlation. Eyckmans (2004) however, comparing Yes/No test results with a passive recall (L2 to L1 translation) test reported that the cfg formula (Anderson & Freebody, 1983) had higher correlations than Isdt. Eight years following the Huibregtse et al. (2002) study, Schmitt (2010, p. 201) noted that "it is still unclear how well the various adjustment formulas work."

Aims

The aim of the present study is to determine which of the four *correction for guessing* formulas best predicts passive recall ability (as measured by an L2 to L1 translation test) from Yes/No test real-word scores and pseudoword false alarm (FA) counts.

This project will also attempt to determine whether the above ranking of the four *correction for guessing* formulas is affected by false alarm counts.

Method

This study uses data from another, larger study conducted by the author. For this larger study a YN test was prepared consisting of 96 real-words (half of which were English loanwords in Japanese) plus 32 pseudowords. Forty-four of the 96 real-words included in the YN test were from the pilot to the larger study (Stubbe & Yokomitsu, 2012), as were the nine best pseudowords, all identified in Stubbe and Stewart (2012). The remaining 52 real-words were randomly selected as required from the various JACET 8000 levels (JACET Basic Word Revision Committee, 2003), and the 23 additional pseudowords were randomly selected from *Tests 101-106* of the *EFL Vocabulary Tests* (Meara, 2010). Both real-words and pseudowords were randomly distributed throughout the Yes/No test.

A passive recall (L2 to L1) test of the same 96 real-words (all randomly distributed) was also created. The passive recall test format (as defined in Laufer & Goldstein, 2004) was selected over the more common multiple-choice (M.C.) format because there exists little chance of correctly guessing the correct answer when translating. Stewart and White (2011), on the other hand, demonstrated that M.C. tests do suffer from guessing effects. Eyckmans (2004) also opted for the passive recall test format because "asking the participants to provide mother-tongue equivalents of target language words was the most univocal way of verifying recognition" (Eyckmans, 2004, p. 77).

Participants first took the YN test at the beginning of one class in July or August, 2012. This was a paper test in which the students signaled whether they knew a word by filling in either a *yes* bubble or a *no* bubble beside each item. The same students then took the paper translation test towards the end of that same class in order to maximize test pairings. The YN test was scored by means of an optical scanner; the translation test was hand-marked by three raters.

Table 1
Summary of YN and PR tests

Test	Mean	SD	Reliability
YN hits	48.82	17.23	0.96
YN FAs	2.17	3.16	n/a
PR score	27.06	12.16	0.92

Note: Reliability = Cronbach's alpha; n = 455; k = 96 real-words and 32 pseudowords on the YN test and 96 real-words on the translation tests.

Inter-rater reliability was 92%, and *FACET* analysis (Linacre, 2012) revealed that the raters were basically equal with overall measures of .02, .02 and -.04 logits. Participants were all students enrolled in one of four Japanese universities, with TOEIC scores ranging from about 200 through 450 (n = 455).

Results

Means and standard deviations (SDs) for the YN test as well as the passive recall (PR) test are presented in Table 1. The nearly 45% drop in item mean (48.82 versus 27.06, YN and PR tests respectively) can be interpreted as students overestimating their lexical knowledge on the YN test. However, Eyckmans (2004) reported YN results that also exceeded results on the subsequent translation test of the same items (82.4% versus 69.4%, respectively). Laufer and Goldstein (2004) explained and demonstrated that recalling a word's form or meaning is considerably more difficult than recognizing its form or meaning. Nation and Webb (2011) further suggest that partial word knowledge may also contribute to such a gap.

Means, standard deviations (SDs), ranges, correlations with the passive recall test scores (*r*), and residuals for YN hits and FAs as well as the four *correction formulas* for the full 455 participants are presented in Table 2. Of the four correction formulas Δm had the closest mean to the passive recall mean (33.11 and 27.05, respectively), the highest SD (26.57) as well as the greatest range, with a low predicted score of -71.1. In fact, 40 of this formula's 455 calculations were below zero, rendering its predictions basically useless as knowing less than zero words is not realistic. Only this formula returned negative scores. Residuals, in the final column, were calculated by squaring the

Table 2
Means, SDs, range, correlations and residuals of applying the four correction formula (n = 455, FA count = 22).

	mean	SD	range	r	residual
PR Score	27.05	12.16	3 - 58	1	-
YN hits	48.82	17.23	7 - 78	0.721	24.82
FA Counts	2.17	3.16	0 - 22	-0.142	-
h – f	42.29	16.53	**2 - 77**	**0.833**	**17.84**
cfg	45.46	17.50	2.1 – 82.1	0.807	21.19
Δm	**33.11**	26.57	-71.1 – 76.0	0.739	20.31
Isdt	50.02	13.55	6.7 – 77.9	0.775	24.56

Note: r = correlation (Pearson Product-Moment) with translation test scores, range = lowest and highest score. Closest mean (to translation score mean), highest correlation and smallest residual are in **bold**.

differences between each passive recall test score and each matching YN prediction (YN *hits, h - f, cfg*, Δm and *Isdt*) summing those squares, calculating the mean, and finally acquiring the square root. It can be noticed that the simplest correction formula, *h - f*, had the highest correlation with passive recall scores as well as the lowest residual. Using Chen and Popovich's (2002, p. 23) *t (difference)* formula for paired *t*-tests as adapted by Field (2009, p. 192), the difference between the *h - f* correlation and the second highest *cfg* (.833 and .807, respectively) was statistically significant ($t = 3.453$, $df = 452$, $p = .0006$).

Table 3 breaks down the above correlations by false alarm count. The *h - f* formula maintained the highest correlation position for all but zero and one FA counts. At an FA count of one the *cfg* formula had the highest correlation (.841), and at zero FAs the first three correction formulas (*h - f, cfg* and Δm) were tied at .867, while *Isdt* had a correlation of .866.

Table 4 breaks down the residuals for each FA count. Between 1 and 10 FAs *h - f* had the second lowest residuals, with *Δm* having the lowest, likely due to its tendency to produce negative scores when hits are low and FAs are high. The 40 negative predictions

Table 3
Correction Formula Correlations (Pearson Product-Moment) with Passive Recall Scores by FA Count

FA Count	n	FA n*	YN hits	h – f rates	cfg	Δm	Isdt
22	455	1	0.721	**0.833**	0.807	0.739	0.775
20	454	1	0.728	**0.832**	0.805	0.741	0.776
16	453	2	0.731	**0.835**	0.805	0.747	0.780
15	451	4	0.735	**0.836**	0.807	0.749	0.783
14	447	3	0.749	**0.837**	0.812	0.756	0.787
13	444	1	0.757	**0.838**	0.815	0.759	0.791
11	443	5	0.759	**0.837**	0.814	0.759	0.790
10	438	3	0.765	**0.838**	0.815	0.773	0.799
9	435	4	0.767	**0.837**	0.813	0.779	0.801
8	431	4	0.776	**0.838**	0.816	0.780	0.803
7	427	11	0.786	**0.837**	0.819	0.779	0.801
6	416	7	0.797	**0.837**	0.823	0.791	0.807
5	409	10	0.812	**0.841**	0.833	0.793	0.809
4	399	25	0.820	**0.841**	0.837	0.792	0.809
3	374	29	0.827	**0.840**	0.837	0.794	0.810
2	345	76	0.833	**0.839**	0.838	0.798	0.812
1	269	139	0.841	0.838	**0.841**	0.800	0.808
0	130	130	***0.867***	***0.867***	***0.867***	*0.867*	*0.867*

Note: * FA n denotes number of participants with that FA count. Italics denotes highest correlation for that formula (bottom), bold denotes highest correlation for each FA count.

Table 4
Residuals by FA Count

FA Count	n	FA n*	YN hits	h – f rates	cfg	Δm	Isdt
22	455	1	24.81	**17.84**	21.19	20.31	*24.56*
20	454	1	24.67	**17.86**	21.22	19.89	24.58
16	453	2	24.59	**17.87**	21.23	19.69	24.61
15	451	4	24.40	**17.91**	21.12	19.69	24.66
14	447	3	24.03	**17.95**	20.99	19.11	24.73
13	444	1	23.75	**17.99**	20.82	19.15	24.80
11	443	5	23.69	**18.01**	20.84	18.88	24.82
10	438	3	23.51	18.09	20.87	**18.06**	24.95
9	435	4	23.40	18.14	20.87	**17.59**	25.03
8	431	4	23.16	18.16	20.78	**17.61**	25.09
7	427	11	22.92	18.15	20.69	**17.44**	25.14
6	416	7	22.51	18.21	20.54	**16.86**	25.33
5	409	10	22.05	18.09	20.22	**16.82**	25.33
4	399	25	21.64	18.04	19.96	**16.95**	25.43
3	374	29	21.13	18.10	19.76	**16.80**	25.76
2	345	76	20.56	18.06	19.45	**16.73**	26.06
1	269	139	18.81	17.40	18.14	**16.60**	26.53
0	130	130	***17.32***	***17.32***	***17.32***	***17.32***	28.82

Note: * FA n denotes number of participants with that FA count. Italics denotes smallest residual for that formula. Bold denotes smallest residual at that FA count..

were spread throughout all the FA counts except 0, 5, 14, and 16. It can also be seen that *Isdt* had the highest residual for each FA count, especially at zero FAs where the other formula predictions equaled YN hits. Answering the second research question, it does appear as if the ranking of the four *correction for guessing* formula predictions is affected by false alarm counts.

Conclusion

This study set out to determine which of the four *correction for guessing* formulas featured in Huibregtse, et al. (2002) best predicted passive recall test scores from Yes/No real-word (identical items) and pseudoword results. It was found that at all false alarm counts above one, the *h - f* formula had the highest correlations with passive recall test scores. It was also found that this formula had the second smallest residuals, only behind *Δm,* whose small residuals were partially due to its negative score predictions, which in reality are not possible. As *h - f* had lower residuals than the other two correction formulas, and the highest correlations of all, it has been concluded that *h - f* is the best predictor of passive recall translation scores.

This study suffers from a number of weaknesses.

The inter-rater reliability (.92) could have been higher, and may have adversely affected the correction formula predictions. Further, the university classes used in this study were a convenience sampling, as opposed to a random sampling, and so these finding must be treated with caution and cannot be extrapolated beyond the institutions involved. Directions for future research include replicating this study with different university classes to determine if these findings can be replicated, as well as comparing the *h - f* predictions with the regression formula proposed in Stubbe and Stewart (2012).

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Connecting Group Identity to Motivation: A Preliminary Study

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It has been known that belongingness is one of the most important factors in learning and that many different factors are involved in motivating L2 learners. However, the relationship between L2 learners' group identity and motivation to study English seems to have been under-researched. As the first step to investigate this issue, 176 Japanese university students in Tokyo participated in a survey to see the correlation between group identity and L2 motivation. The result indicates that there is a moderate correlation between them, and most of the one-to-one correlations were also statistically significant. Further prospects include incorporating qualitative data, and a longitudinal analysis across time and place.

学習においては集団への帰属意識が重要な要素であり，第二言語習得には多様な要素が働いていることはよく知られている。しかし集団への帰属意識と第二言語習得における意欲の関係については，十分な研究が行われていないように思われる。この問題を探求する端緒として帰属意識と第二言語の学習意欲の相関関係を見るために，東京の176名の大学生が調査に参加した。その結果によれば二者の間には中程度の関係性があり，項目ごとでもほとんどの組み合わせに統計的に有意な相関性が見られた。今後は質的データを組み入れ，時間的にも空間的にも多様なデータを取ることが展望される。

Introduction

This paper is an attempt to analyze the relationship between group identity and motivation. More precisely, what I am trying to examine in this research is how images of groups are related to motivation in the second language (L2) learning. For that purpose, I will review the key concepts behind this research, namely belonging, motivation, and classmates. Then, I will describe the research design and discuss the results of the questionnaire.

Fukuda, T. (2014). Connecting group identity to motivation: A preliminary study. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 79-85). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

It is widely known that the feeling of belonging to a group plays a huge role in learning. In *Communities of Practice* (1998), Etienne Wenger says, "At home, at work, at school, in our hobbies—we belong to several communities of practice at any given time" (p. 6). He also says that there are four "components" that characterize social activities in learning: meaning, practice, community, and identity, and attached to community is a notion of "learning as belonging" (see Figure 1), which I will focus on in this paper.

In terms of motivation, a variety of factors have been reported to be involved in motivating people to learn, including teachers, classrooms, textbooks, and even music. For example, Carpenter, Falout, Fukuda, Trovela, and Murphey (2009) found that teachers played the most important role in motivating and

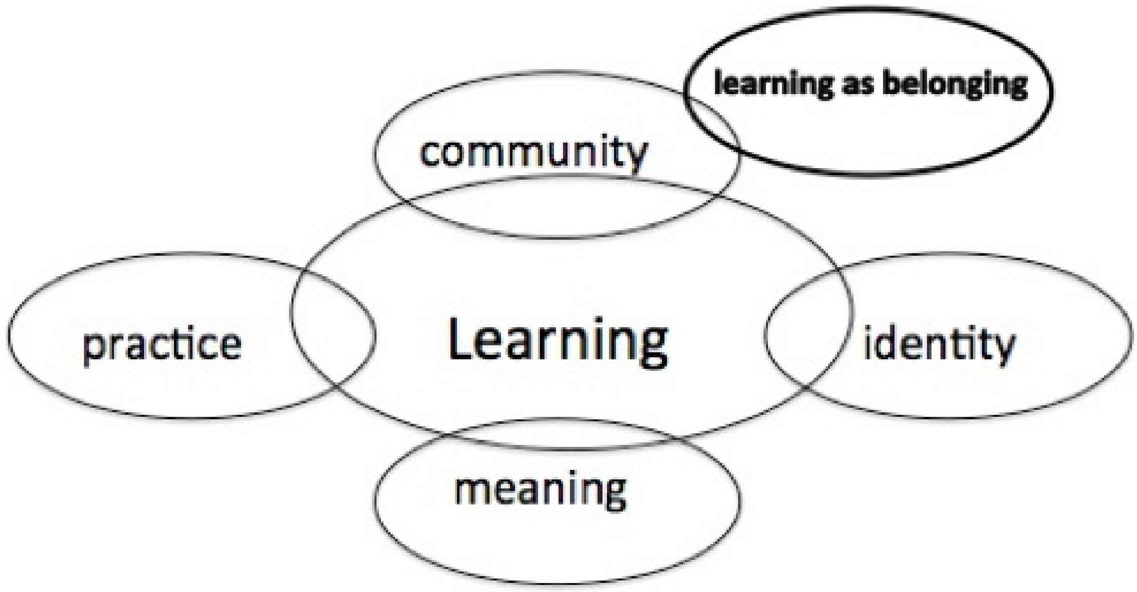

Figure 1. Belongingness in learning, adapted from Wenger (1998, p. 5).

demotivating learners. Their research was innovative in pointing out that learners not only get motivated or lose motivation, but they also regain their motivation, most significantly because of teachers.

Those factors are not limited to physical existence in learners' environment. Recently, attention has been paid to Dörnyei's Ideal L2 Self (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009), which refers to learners' visualized future images. If learners have images of themselves using English in their career and their everyday lives, then they tend to study English harder. *Ideal classmates* proposed by Murphey (2012) is a concept inspired by Ideal L2 Self, conceptualizing the notion that students get motivated or get demotivated depending on with whom they are learning English. It is reported that students' perceptions of general importance of ideal behavior, the actual behavior of their classmates, and the actual behavior of themselves correlate with each other (Murphey, Falout, Fukuda, & Fukada, in progress). Classmates as important players in motivation are also empirically analyzed by Kozaki and Ross (2011). They proposed a three-level model of learning: the unconditional level, where they only see a general growth; learner-level factors (e.g., career aspiration); and contextual factors, such as learners' perceptions of their classmates (Kozaki & Ross, 2011, p. 1334). Their findings suggest that classes play an important role in L2 proficiency development. My own perception of English learning as a learner and a teacher supports the idea that teachers, self-images projected towards the future, and classmates with whom learners are studying are among important factors that influence learners to get motivated.

So far, I have discussed previous literature about belonging in learning and factors in motivation. Here arose my research question. How is group identity connected to motivation? In our everyday life, we often talk about school or university, especially in our setting, Japan. We say, "I want to get into that university," or "I feel I am a part of this university." How does the feeling of belonging affect students' motivation level? How can we use this idea in our classes? These large questions should only be answered after a longitudinal study, and in the present research, the following hypothesis is dealt with:

Research hypothesis

Group identity of students is related to their motivation to study English.

Method

Participants

In order to answer the research question of whether students' group identity is related to motivation to learn English, a survey was conducted in April 2013. A total of 176 students from two well-known universities in Tokyo participated in this study: 120 students from one university and 56 from the other. The participants mostly consisted of freshmen (89.77%, *n*=158), who were taking English courses as compulsory subjects. Most of the participants (67%) were male students. TOEIC scores were obtained from 73.30% (*n*=129) of the participants, and the mean score was 444, which is quite close to the general mean score of university students, 445 (The Institute for International Business Communication, 2012).

Instruments

The data were collected through a questionnaire (see Appendix), which comprised two categories: the group identity set and the motivation set. More precisely, the first set of items tried to measure how much students liked being students of the university, and the second set was intended to examine their general motivation level of studying English. All the items were 6-point Likert scale questions, from 1 (Not at all) to 6 (Yes, very much). The questionnaire was translated into Japanese, so that students with low proficiency levels could answer the questions easily.

Procedures

The questionnaire was administered to five classes at two universities. In four classes, I only gave them instructions in class and asked them to answer them at home. In one class, the students answered the questions in class. In both cases, participants were given ample explanations and could ask questions whenever they had them. The survey was conducted in the beginning of the spring semester, and more than 90 percent of the participants answered them within the first two weeks of the semester, but a few students who were absent in the class when instructions were given or who joined the class later answered them in the third week.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Group Identity Items and Motivation Items.

Item	Mean	SD	N
Group identity			
A. I wanted to get into this university.	4.88	1.31	176
B. I am happy to be studying at this university.	4.93	1.21	176
C. I am happy to be studying English at this university.	4.47	1.33	175
D. I like to be a student of this university.	5.03	1.26	174
E. I feel belongingness to this university.	4.13	1.36	173
Motivation			
1. Generally, I think that I enjoy learning English in class.	4.23	1.19	175
2. Generally, I think that I enjoy learning English out of class.	3.60	1.38	174
3. I like studying English now.	3.89	1.34	173
4. Even if English was not a compulsory subject, I would choose to study it.	4.48	1.55	174

Note: SD = Standard Deviation; N = Number

Data Analysis

After the collection of the data, empirical analysis was conducted with SPSS. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of all the question items. It is easily seen that there were no large differences among the items in each set. In the first set, for example, the means of A and B were almost the same. The mean of E, however, was lower, which will be discussed later. The means of the second set of question items were generally lower than the first set. These are a part of a large questionnaire that has been conducted since 2008 for other research projects (Fukada, Fukuda, Falout, & Murphey, 2011; Murphey, Falout, Fukada, & Fukuda, 2012), and the results from the current research are not very much different from the previous years.

The means of the group identity items were generally high. For example, the mean of Item A (I wanted to get into this university) was 4.88, and considering it was a 6-point Likert scale question item, it was quite high. Table 2 shows that most participants thought they really wanted to get into their present school. However, it may not be common for Japanese university students to answer this way. In the future, it will be interesting to conduct this survey at different universities where more students may have mixed feelings about attending their current school.

Before conducting correlations analysis, the dimensionality of the items was analyzed using maximum likelihood factor analysis. Three criteria were used to determine the number of factors to rotate: the a priori hypothesis that the measure was unidimensional, the scree test, and the interpretability of the factor solution. The scree plot indicated that our initial hypothesis of unidimensionality was incorrect. Based on the plot, two factors were rotated using a Varimax rotation procedure. The rotated solution, as shown in Table 3, yielded two interpretable factors: group identity and motivation. Only one item (C. I am happy to be studying English at this university) loaded on both factors, and it was eliminated from further analysis. After this procedure, four items were left in each category.

Table 2
Frequencies of Item A (I wanted to get into this university.)

	Frequency	Percent
1. Not at all.	6	3.4
2. No.	8	4.5
3. Not very much.	8	4.5
4. Yes, to some extent.	30	17.0
5. Yes.	52	29.5
6. Yes, very much.	72	40.9
Total	176	100.0

Results and Discussion

The overall correlation between the group identity category and the motivation category was moderate (.47) and it was statistically significant ($p < .001$). The correlation was not particularly strong, but it is possible to say that belonging and motivation have something to do with each other. Table 4 shows the one to one correlations between the items in the group identity and the items in the motivation. Most of the pairs are statistically significant, and moderately correlated. However, item B and item D are strongly correlated with item 1, .58 and .53 respectively. Those strong correlations may be because items B and D asked about the enjoyment that students felt. The only statistically insignificant correlation was the one between item E on feeling belonging to school and item 4 on choosing English as a subject.

Conclusion and Future Directions

In this research, a moderate relationship was found between group identity and motivation. However, since this paper is the first report of a longitudinal study, there are several limitations to the present study and implications for future research. One obvious limitation of the present research is that no qualitative data is shown. From the quantitative data already shown, it can be said that learners' feelings of belongingness has certain relationships with their motivation, but why and how it does should be investigated further. In order to do so, qualitative data, such as interviews, should be collected and analyzed. In fact, I have

Table 3

Correlations between the Group Identity Items and the Motivation Factors.

	Factors	
Items	Group Identity	Motivation
Group Identity		
A. I wanted to get into this university.	.79	.17
B. I am happy to be studying at this university.	.86	.30
D. I like to be a student of this university.	.86	.22
E. I feel belongingness to this university.	.58	.17
Motivation		
1. Generally, I think that I enjoy learning English in class.	.41	.69
2. Generally, I think that I enjoy learning English out of class.	.16	.67
3. I like studying English now.	.24	.81
4. Even if English was not a compulsory subject, I would choose to study it.	.12	.69

already collected autobiographies from more than one hundred of the participants of the current study, and I have also interviewed three of them. If I adopt methodological triangulation, involving questionnaire, autobiographies, and interviews, the relationship will be investigated more in depth.

Another future possibility is to compare the data across time. Individuals and institutions do not stay the same. They are changing all the time. Motivation analysis has recently been focusing on this approach, trying to incorporate dynamic systems theory into motivation research (e.g., Dörnyei & Macintyre, 2013). Perceptions of students cannot be thought of as stable, and it is necessary to keep doing research on the same groups and the same participants. For example, as can be seen in Table 1, the mean for item E was lower

Table 4

One to One Correlations among Variables in Group Identity and Motivation.

Item	1	2	3	4
A. I wanted to get into this university.	.41*** (n=175)	.22** (n=174)	.34*** (n=173)	.22** (n=173)
B. I am happy to be studying at this university.	.58*** (n=175)	.34*** (n=174)	.42*** (n=174)	.32*** (n=173)
D. I like to be a student of this university.	.53*** (n=173)	.25** (n=172)	.37*** (n=172)	.27*** (n=172)
E. I feel belongingness to this university.	.45*** (n=172)	.28*** (n=171)	.27*** (n=171)	.09 (n=171)

Note. *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$

than the other items in the group identity category. The question directly asked the learners about their belongingness to the university, and it is understandable that some students felt lack of belongingness only because they were asked about this statement in the first month of their university life. If they are asked the same questions at the end of the semester or at the end of the school year, they may answer differently. Then, we can investigate how the change will affect the relationships between belongingness and motivation.

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Appendix

Motivation Survey 2013 Spring

選択肢は、1 (Not at all), 2 (No), 3 (Not very much), 4 (Yes to some extent), 5 (Yes), 6 (Yes, very much) の6つです。

A. I wanted to get into this university.
私はこの大学に入りたかった。

B. I am happy to be studying at this university.
私はこの大学で学んでいることに幸せを感じる。

C. I am happy to be studying English at this university.
私はこの大学で英語を学んでいることに幸せを感じる。

D. I like to be a student of this university.
私はこの大学の学生であることが好きだ。

E. I feel belongingness to this university.
私はこの大学に帰属意識を感じる。

Generally, I think that I enjoy learning English in class.
私はたいてい、授業中には楽しく英語を学んでいると思う。

Generally, I think that I enjoy learning English out of class.
私はたいてい、授業以外で楽しく英語を学んでいると思う。

I like studying English now.
私は現在、英語学習が好きだ。

Even if English was not a compulsory subject, I would choose to study it.
私は英語が必修科目でなくても、英語を学ぶ選択をするだろう。

Creating a Community in the Writing Class Through Journal Sharing Activities

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Journal writing can positively impact student attitudes toward English as well as create a personalised student-teacher dialogue while helping students build confidence in their writing in a non-threatening context (Yoshihara, 2008). Warm-up activities in which students provide written comments on their classmates' journals broaden the audience while creating a sense of community and autonomy. This frank peer interaction results in a broader range of vocabulary, more detailed journal entries, and a shared sense of purpose for other collaborative activities in the class. The presentation will discuss the implementation and outcome of the activity among students in two academic writing classes.

ジャーナルライティングは、学生へa non-threatening context (Yoshihara, 2008)の文章作成への自信をつけさせ、また学生と先生との独特な対話を生み出すと同時に、必ず学生の英語学習の姿勢に影響を与えます。学生が自分のクラスメイトの記事にコメントを書くというウォームアップアクティビティーは社会性と自律性を築くと同時に、自分の読者を広げることができます。この率直な仲間内での相互関係が、ボキャブラリーの幅を広げ、記事をさらに詳細にし、クラス内の他の共同作業への意欲を分かち合うことに繋がります。このプレゼンテーションにより、二つのアカデミックライティングクラスにおける学生の間でアクティビティーの手段や結果を話し合うことになるでしょう。

Introduction

Journal writing is a type of written interaction between teachers and students that focuses on meaning rather than form and is a means of developing students' linguistic competence through writing. Journals are also useful in the EFL writing class as instructors can support the students' learning as well as gain access to their worlds as individuals (Castellanos, 2008). Journals are typically considered a "private affair" with only the student and teacher having access to the contents. This makes it possible for students to develop a "frank and candid interaction with their teacher" that builds a trusting relationship between student and teacher (Yoshihara, 2008). In my experience with journal writing in EFL classes, the sense of security provided in journals evokes a tendency for many students to write about more personal topics than they might write about in an essay or discuss in a speaking class. When students express and analyze their feelings in their journal and then receive personalized feedback, they often become more confident about themselves and their writing in general. Boud (2001) notes that

Gough, W. (2014). Creating a community in the writing class through journal sharing activities. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 86-90). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

> ...the more journal writing moves into the realm of critical reflection, that is, the questioning of taken-for-granted assumptions about oneself, one's group, or the conditions in which one operates, the more it is necessary to consider the inhibiting gaze of others. (p. 15)

He points out that while journals provide occasions for reflection, the prospect of others reading one's journal can be a primary inhibitor to this reflection. Considering the personalized nature of a journal, students should feel free to write about any topic or explore individual opinions. Yet, it seems that with a limited audience giving feedback, i.e., the instructor, students are not provided with a variety of perspectives on the topics at hand. Therefore, the limited audience can constrain the overall the effectiveness of journal writing as it does little to help students question their assumptions or world views.

The principal goals of my advanced writing classes are to create a community of writers in which students are exposed to other points of view and broaden their perspectives. In lower-level classes, I often find that students tend to have limited points of view, perhaps due to their age (primarily late teens and early twenties) or lack of experience. This creates a situation in which the students have difficulty developing well thought out opinions about topics. With that in mind, I began to contemplate different approaches to community building in these classes. This exploration led to the creation of a journal sharing and commenting project. For the project, the students read and provided written comments on their classmates' journals, then completed an online survey at the end of the year. The idea behind the project was that by reading and reflecting on classmates' journals, the students could find connections between similar ways of thinking or learn to look at issues or topics from other perspectives. I hoped the project would lead to expansion of their world view and create an atmosphere of camaraderie in the writing classroom. In short, I wanted to explore whether reading and commenting on classmates' journals helps students become more engaged with writing, willing to collaborate on other writing activities in the class, and foster trusting relationships within the writing classroom.

The Journal-Sharing Project

The project was done with two writing classes: one intermediate (Eiken level 2) and one higher–intermediate (Ekien level 2 and pre-1, TOEIC 500-600) at a two year college that has an intensive English program in Nagoya, Japan. The total number of participating students was 33, including 25 female and 8 male students. The project was done in weekly 90-minute classes that combined first and second year students and covering the course of one school year.

Students wrote three journal entries per week as homework and then brought their journals to class each week. The students were instructed to write four to five sentences per journal entry, focusing on contents rather than form, at the beginning of the school year and expand the length as they gained competence with writing over the course of the year. They were free to write about any topic, but were given a list of suggested topics to fall back on if they had no ideas. While the topics for the lower-level class included discussing daily activities and opinions, the higher-level class, which focused more on academic writing skills, was given a list of TOEFL writing prompts. Most students chose to write about their own topics, which included (but were not limited to) school life, daily activities, part time jobs, boyfriends or girlfriends, and family or social troubles.

Each week in the first 10 minutes of class the students traded journals with a partner. After reading one or two of the partner's journal entries the students then wrote comments or questions about the contents. They were open to comment on any aspect of the journal entry. The classmates could share their opinion about the topic, add their ideas, or ask a question. While there was no length requirement on the comments, they were typically one to two sentences in length. At the beginning of the year, students were asked to find new partners each week as a way to get to know a broader range of class members. Later on they chose to share with people sitting nearby. As the students read each other's journals, they often began a conversation about the topics. They asked questions about the contents or vocabulary used, as well as sharing their own ideas

Table 1
Student responses to Items 1-7.

Statements	Highly Agree	Agree	No Opinion	Disagree	Highly Disagree
I like writing in my journal.	5	9	0	0	0
I like reading my classmates' journals.	8	6	0	0	0
Reading my classmates' journals helped me become friends with them easily.	2	7	3	1	1
Reading my classmates' journals helped me feel more comfortable sharing ideas when we did other activities (textbook, reading their brainstorming ideas, etc.) in writing class.	2	9	2	1	0
I liked my classmates' opinions about my journals more than Wendy`s comments.	1	1	8	3	2
Reading my classmates' journals made me more interested in journal writing.	2	10	0	2	0
Journal writing helped improve my essay writing skills.	12	2	0	0	0

about the journal entries. When the journal was given back, students tended to immediately check what their partners had written and often continued their discussion for another few minutes. I also collected the journals once a month and added comments on the contents and suggestions about using grammar and sentence structures learned in class.

Results

At the end of the school year, the students were asked to answer an online survey based around the following seven statements and one question about journal writing and the journal-sharing project.

1. I like writing in my journal.
2. I like reading my classmates' journals.
3. Reading my classmates' journals helped me become friends with them easily.
4. Reading my classmates' journals helped me feel more comfortable sharing ideas when we did other activities (textbook, reading their brainstorming ideas, etc.) in writing class.
5. I liked my classmates' opinions about my journals more than Wendy`s comments.
6. Reading my classmates' journals made me more interested in journal writing.
7. Journal writing helped improve my essay writing skills.
8. What did you like or dislike the most about reading your classmates` journals?

The seven items were based on a Likert scale of 1-5, and the final question was in text form asking for an opinion about the journal-sharing project.

Only 14 students, mostly from the lower-level class answered the questionnaire. This could be due to lack of computer access, or the higher-level students being busy finishing final projects for other classes. In the table of responses (See Table 1), we can see positive reactions. With the small number of respondents, however, this cannot be considered definitive evidence of the effectiveness of the project. The students highly agreed or agreed that they liked writing in their journals. They also highly agreed or agreed that they enjoyed reading their classmates' journals. In general,

Table 2
Sample comments from students in response to Item 8.

I liked that because I could know what kind of things classmates were writing in journal. It sometimes could be hint of my idea.
I like knowing classmates' writing style because it is useful to learn how to write.
I liked reading classmates' journals. Because, I could estimate other person's English degree that made me a good ambition.
The point I like journals is that my classmates always check my journals so that I ask them their opinion toward it and errors of my grammers when I want to ask.
My writing skill have been improving since I came that class by journal. I appreciate their idea and advising!
Reading my classmates' journal helped my essay skill I could learn other ideas, opinions and other way of writing.

the students felt that reading their classmates' journals helped them become more interested in journal writing. The students also highly agreed or agreed that journal writing helped them improve their essay writing skills.

As an instructor, these answers made me feel the project was successful. These answers also confirmed my feeling that the students in the lower-level class were more engaged with the class contents than in previous years. They tended to ask more questions about the writing styles we covered and developed more thoughtful insights into the topics than in the past. At the same time, the items about whether the journal sharing activity helped them become friends with classmates and whether reading each others' journals helped them feel more comfortable sharing their ideas in class had mixed reactions. The students' reactions could be due to the fact that most of the lower-level class were first-year students and at first, unused to the Western style of teaching at the college. As a result, we can see that in general the students enjoyed the journal writing process, although the results in Table 1 show that some students did not feel the journal reading and commenting project to be helpful in fostering relationships with their classmates.

Sample responses to the final question are given in Table 2. This question, in which the students were asked to share their opinion in text form, showed the students' feelings about working together, as well as how the journal reading and responding activity helped them improve their own writing skills. The only negative comment about the project was from an older student, relating to the difficulty she had relating to the other students' experiences rather than the project itself. For this reason, it is not given in Table 2.

Conclusion

I feel the journal sharing activity proved effective in opening the students' minds and motivating them to improve the contents of their essays. Through seeing their classmates' candid ideas and opinions in their journals, the students were exposed to different perspectives. At the same time, by comparing writing styles and skills, they gained confidence in their writing. As the students got to know each other they wrote more comments in their partner's journals that reflected their own opinions whether in agreement or disagreement. Sometimes students gave advice about personal issues or suggestions about how to add more details to the entries.

When checking the journals each month, I found that it took the students less time than in previous years to begin to write more detailed entries. I also did not notice any hesitation to express personal feelings or to critically explore issues when the journals were given a broader audience. In fact, understanding that their classmates had similar experiences, ideas, or feelings seemed to help the students become more comfortable writing about various issues. The journal reading and commenting project was designed with the aim to give my writing students a broader audience and open their minds to a variety of world views. While the students' writing mechanics did not improve substantially compared to previous years, there was a noticeable difference in their overall attitude toward journal writing and writing class in general. Overall I feel the project accomplished its goal and I believe journal reading and commenting will prove successful with future writing classes as well.

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Creating A Self-Access Classroom For First Year Non-English Majors

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In recent years English language university teachers in Japan have begun to focus more on student centered activities and autonomous learning. With this upward trend self-access centers at Japanese universities have flourished and teachers are promoting independent learning to students. This article examines how learner autonomy and self-access learning can be incorporated into university classes for first year non-English major students. The paper will also address student needs, curriculum design and development, program implementation, and student assessment for a self-access program.

近年、日本の大学の英語教師は学生の自主性を重んじた活動や学習方法に注目し始めた。こうした機運の高まりとともに日本の多くの大学で自律学習センターが設置されるようになり、教師も学生に自主的な学習を促している。

この記事では、学習者の自主性や自律学習法を英語を主専攻としない大学1年生の授業にいかに取り入れるかを調査する。さらに学生のニーズやカリキュラムの構成や改良、プログラムの導入と自律学習プログラムに対する学生の評価についても論じる。

Introduction

The concepts of self-access and learner autonomy have been gaining recognition within the English language teaching (ELT) community worldwide and, more notably, in Japan. Universities in Japan are taking more of an interest in self-access learning as demonstrated by the recent increase in number of self-access centers already up and running or currently being developed at campuses across the country. While there is a great deal of focus on self-access centers, a growing number of teachers would like their students to take more control of their language learning in the classroom environment, not just in these language centers. How can university teachers in Japan foster growth and development in the classroom while asking students to become more autonomous? This paper focuses on how to start up a self-access classroom and design a curriculum for non-English majors.

What exactly is learner autonomy? Researchers and educators have widely varying opinions on this, and learner autonomy continues to be a topic of debate. Dickinson suggests that autonomy is when learners are totally responsible for all the decisions concerned with their learning and the implementation of those decisions (Dickinson, 1987). Others suggest it is when learners take charge of their education and learning (Benson & Voller, 1997). While definitions differ in degree, most would agree that learner autonomy is about empowering students to take an active role in making decisions about their language learning.

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In the past decade, many universities in Japan have addressed learner autonomy and independent learning by opening self-access centers or having access to graded reading libraries. Unfortunately, there is no national database on the number of self-access centers or graded reading libraries, but judging from word of mouth and the number of presentations by teachers at conferences, such as the 2013 JALT Learner's Development SIG in Tokyo, it seems that these numbers are increasing yearly. There also is not much information available coming out of Japan in terms of research papers and presentations to indicate if and how teachers are addressing the recent interest in self-access within their own classrooms. A lack of research may be hindering the implementation of self-access classrooms and curriculum. While there have been articles written about creating self-access centers in Japan (Ashurova & Ssali, 2008), little has been written on creating self-access classrooms at the university level.

What is a Self-Access Classroom?

A self-access classroom is not a 100% learner autonomous environment and is not the same as a self-access center. In a self-access classroom, the teacher, not students, selects or develops appropriate material and makes most of the decisions with regards to the topics and skills that will be the focus of the curriculum. While this may be contrary to some with regards to what true learner autonomy is, the writer feels that any student empowerment to take charge of their learning is indeed autonomous learning. A self-access classroom does indeed support the notion that students should take control over their learning (Benson, 2011) but it does so in a controlled environment where the teacher is the one who decides what activities are available and how students are assessed. The teacher decides on the textbook, the language focus, curriculum goals, the syllabus, and the assessment criteria to be used for the course. The students have autonomy in deciding which available activities they would like to complete, the speed at which they complete them, the graded readers they select and which essay topics they write about. Sheerin (1989) suggests that teachers play an important role in helping learners become more autonomous; a self-access classroom can be the catalyst that offers that autonomy.

The self-access classroom created by this teacher is an average Japanese university classroom with a traditional classroom layout: the desks are apart, arranged in rows, students are often sitting alone, and the teacher's desk is at the front. When the class begins, students arrange their desks so they are sitting in groups of two or three. Activity sheets for vocabulary and speaking are placed around the room, while graded readers and writing activities are solely decided by the students. Students go to the worksheet locations and pick up their materials and return to their desks to work on the activities either alone or in groups. In a more ideal setting, such as a larger classroom with tables instead of desks, students would be able to sit in areas dedicated to whatever task they are working on, but due to limited space, students use their own desks to complete the tasks.

Getting Started

What kind of activities you select and create will depend on what you want your students to focus on when developing their language skills in the classroom. In most cases, teachers will only know the kind of class they are expected to teach and the students' majors. In any event, teachers should consider the following before designing their self-access classes:

- What kind of class will you be teaching? Reading? Oral communication? Four skills?
- What are the students majoring in and what kind of English will they need in future employment?
- What kind of students are they? Are they likely to be highly motivated?
- Are they streamed or are the classes mixed levels and abilities?
- What are the university's educational goals with regards to English development?
- What are your educational philosophies? Do you usually focus on vocabulary development, graded reading, grammar translation...?

The above questions will help ensure that your students' goals and needs are better met while also adhering to the instructor's personal teaching beliefs and philosophies.

Once you have decided what skill(s) and goals to have your students focus on, you can start to think about the types of activities you will offer your students. This article focuses on a vocabulary-based curriculum because the author feels that students must develop their vocabulary to significantly improve their overall English abilities. Since vocabulary development was identified as the most urgent student need, the majority of self-access activities in my classroom revolve around vocabulary development, usage, and recycling.

There are four main "centers" of activities: vocabulary, speaking, graded reading, and writing. All vocabulary and speaking activities center around "Vocabulary in Use Elementary 2nd Edition" (McCarthy & O'Dell, 2010) by Cambridge University. Each week the class focuses on a different unit and therefore students complete activities focused on a specific selection of vocabulary. Students are free to choose their own graded readers and write about topics they have decided on their own. Other teachers may want to focus on different language skills and should adapt their self-access program to suit those skills and interests.

Four Centers and the Activity Check List

There are four main centers to my self-access class: vocabulary, speaking, graded reading, and writing. Activities for each center are evenly weighted for assessment regardless of the time it takes to complete those activities. The number and types of activities are recorded on the "Activity Checklist" (see Appendix A) and students must complete a minimum number of activities for each center to pass the course. In the case of the writer's class, students are required to complete a minimum of seven activities for each center of the course over a 15-week term. Students are able to decide which activities and centers they will focus on each class, but in order to pass, they must meet the minimum requirement of seven activities successfully completed for each center.

When students have completed an activity, they take their activity sheet and checklist to the teacher. The teacher will then ensure the activity has been completed to satisfaction and will sign the activity check list section for the chosen activity. Activities are either given a signature on the activity checklist or students are asked to improve and resubmit the assignment if what they have done is not satisfactory. Students have the option to not resubmit a task, and in that case would receive no credit for the previous submission.

The "Test" section is included so students can keep track of their weekly test scores. With their weekly vocabulary test scores recorded and the number of signatures clearly visible for each component, the checklist serves both as a record of the tasks completed, and helps raise awareness of their vocabulary development and total mark.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary is the main focus of this instructor's self-access curriculum and the vocabulary activities each week focus on the vocabulary highlighted in units from the textbook. There is a minimum of four activities each week for students to choose from and they must satisfactorily complete at least two of these activities in order to receive a signature for the vocabulary section on their activity checklist. Vocabulary activities (see Appendix B) are corrected and returned to students so they can use the worksheets as a study aid before their final exam.

Speaking

Speaking plays an integral role in the self-access classroom and students are encouraged to use English as much as possible. All speaking activities (see Appendix C) are created by the teacher to ensure that students are speaking to one another and using the vocabulary covered in the textbook. Once students are comfortable with the speaking activity outline, students take a greater role and create their own questions to use in the speaking activities, contributing to question formation and more learner autonomy. If the teacher feels that too much Japanese is being used, students will be reminded to try and keep things in English. If the teacher feels that the students are continuing to use too much Japanese, credit is not given for the activity.

Writing

The writing component requires that students write a single-spaced B5 page about a topic of their choice. If students have large handwriting, the teacher will suggest that such students write more to ensure writing tasks are approximately the same number of words. There is no word count limit and if students would like to write more, they are able to, but receive no extra credit for longer writing submissions. A list of suggested topics is given to students on the first day of class in case they have difficulties in thinking of a topic on their own. If students write less than a full B5 page, they are not given credit and will be asked to resubmit. Writing activities are not corrected for format or small grammatical mistakes, such as articles, since vocabulary is the focus of my self-access course. However, if the teacher is unable to easily understand the writing task, students are asked to redo it. Writing tasks are self-directed and allow for more learning autonomy than other activities.

Reading

Students are required to bring an appropriate level graded reader of their choice to class each week. Teachers need to ensure that students have access to graded readers either through a university library or by setting up a small graded reader library system in the class. It is suggested that teachers spend time with students talking about book selection in the first class. Students are expected to read their selected books and complete short book reports in English (see Appendix D).

A Typical 90-Minute Self-Access Class

At the beginning of every class students are given a short quiz on the vocabulary they covered in their textbook the previous week. While the students are doing their quizzes, the teacher is putting out the day's materials around the classroom. Once the quiz is finished, the students put their desks together in groups of two or three and listen to the worksheet options for the day. The students can either individually or collectively (if doing speaking or vocabulary activities) decide what they would like to do. Then they collect the needed materials and begin working. While the students work, the teacher monitors the class, answers questions, looks over activities, signs activity checklists, and gives assistance where needed. When activities are completed and activity checklists signed, students begin the process again of deciding what they would like to do for the remainder of the class.

Students only have class time to complete and present the vocabulary and speaking activities to the teacher for a checklist signature. Writing and reading activities may be done outside of class. Twenty minutes before the end of the class, the teacher gives them a five-minute warning to complete any unfinished tasks. Fifteen minutes before the class ends, students are instructed to close their books, put away their papers and take out their graded readers for fifteen minutes of Silent Sustained Reading (SSR). As the curriculum focuses on vocabulary development, I included extensive reading to help students learn, retain, and reinforce vocabulary (Waring & Takaki, 2003). Students are not allowed to fill out reading reports or complete unfinished worksheets during SSR time. When class is over, the desks are put back to their original places and the self-access classroom disappears.

Assessment

Assessment for the course is divided into three components. Activities completed from the four centers are worth 40% of the student's mark, weekly vocabulary tests account for 30%, and a final exam at the end of the term is the final 30%. The minimum number of completed activities for each center is seven. Students who finish ten tasks for each component will be given the full value of 40%. Students are responsible for holding onto their checklist and presenting it to the teacher when activities are complete. These sheets are collected at the end of the term and the teacher can calculate their in class mark based on the number of signatures on their checklist.

Material Creation and Development

The most time consuming and difficult component of creating a self-access classroom is material development. If you are focusing on a particular theme, materials need to match this theme, or if you use a textbook, activities need to mirror it. Students also need to have plenty of choice with regards to the number of activities on offer each week so they do not become uninterested in task options. Students choose their reading or writing activities, but vocabulary and speaking activities need to be developed by the teacher. Directions must be clear and concise so that students can successfully complete the tasks on their own. The ultimate role of the teacher in a self-access class is to be a guide and facilitator. If students are unsure of what they need to do, the teacher will spend more time answering questions about activity directions than helping students and facilitating learning. Therefore, when creating materials for your class, it is of the highest importance that students be able to understand and complete the tasks on their own.

The speaking component is always done as pair work (see Appendix C) and activity sheets are designed so that students can record each other's responses in writing. This format helps to keep students on task and assists the teacher in verifying that the speaking activities are being done primarily in English. As the term develops, students are able to create their own questions, making them more autonomous and active in materials development.

With regards to reading, as previously mentioned, students need to have access to graded readers. In addition, teachers need to develop a graded reading report, book review, or worksheets to both reinforce vocabulary development and ensure that students have read the book.

Students are encouraged to write about the themes covered in the textbook but teachers should also provide a list of writing topics that students may feel more confident in writing about. Topics such as family, friends, school, and holidays are highly suggested as students are more likely to write about topics they know well and feel comfortable writing about. Please see Appendix E for resources.

Areas of Concern from Workshop Attendees

During the presentation, many attendees had questions about how well students responded to being "left to their own devices". Self-access classes are not standard teacher-centered classes and this does cause confusion for some students who expect the teacher to direct students in what to do throughout class time. However, after a few weeks, students become more comfortable and confident in selecting activities, taking the initiative in finding a speaking partner and working with other students. In time, most students seem to enjoy the freedom of being able to pick their activities and work at their own pace which hopefully will lead to students taking even more control over their language learning in the future.

Conclusion

The biggest drawback of a self-access curriculum is creating and developing materials. It is time consuming. However, if teachers could collaborate, they could share ideas, create activities, develop materials and the workload could greatly be reduced. It is this instructor's hope that teachers will create and develop more self-access classrooms and that teachers will work together and develop this area of facilitating and develop even greater student autonomy.

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Appendix A

Activity Checklist

Student Name: **Student #:**

Week #	Vocabulary	Speaking	Writing	Reading	Tests
2					X
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
11					
12					
13					
14					
15					
Total					

Appendix B

Unit 25 Countries and Nationalities

Vocabulary 1

Name________________________ Student number ____________________

Instructions

Fill in the blanks with the correct answers.

Country	Nationality	Language/Languages	Continent	Capital City
Japan				
China				
Portugal				
Taiwan				
The USA				
Korea				
Mexico				
India				
South Africa				
Colombia				
Italy				
Germany				
Australia				
Russia				
Canada				
Indonesia				
Brazil				
England				
Spain				
France				
Thailand				
New Zealand				

Appendix C

Unit 25 Countries and Nationalities

Speaking Activity 1

Name________________________ Student number ____________________

Instructions

1. Work with your partner and make three questions using words from Unit 25.
2. Write your answers for all these questions in the "Your Answers" box.
3. Interview you partner and write their answers in the "Partner's Answers" box.

Questions	Your answers	Partner's answers
Have you ever traveled to a different country? If yes, where?		
What country would you like to visit? Why?		
What is your favorite country? Why is it your favorite country?		
What country do you think is beautiful? Why do you think it is beautiful?		
What country do you think has good food? What food do you like from there?		

Appendix D
Example Book Report

Book Report

Name: Student Number:
Class: Day and period:

Book Title:

Level and Publisher:

Main Characters' Names:

Summary of the story (What was the book about?)

Did you like this book? Why or why not? Would you suggest this book to your friends? Why or why not?

Appendix E

Material Resources and Helpful Websites

Developing vocabulary activities has been made much easier with free online activity and game development websites.

- The Discovery Education website (http://www.discoveryeducation.com/free-puzzlemaker/) is excellent with regards to making activities that the students find fun and interesting. Crossword puzzles, word searches and double puzzles (word scrambles) ensure that students have lots of options to chose for their vocabulary component.

- JALT also has a Material Writers SIG that readers may be interested in joining to help create activities for their classes (http://jalt.org/groups/materials-writers)

- JALT also has the Learner's Development SIG that focuses on autonomous and self-access learning. (http://ld-sig.org/)

- "The How's and Why's of Graded Reading" focuses on the benefits of extensive reading programs and how to chose the correct level reader. (http://extensivereading.net/docs/tebiki_GREng.pdf)

- The "Graded Reading Programs: The Experience of Schools and Universities in Japan" looks at all the different types of graded reading programs in Japan and gives many suggestions on how extensive reading can be incorporated into classes and curriculum. (http://www.robwaring.org/er/ER_programs/gradedreadersprograms_en.pdf)

- The Japan Association of Self-Access Learning has a website that contains information about Self-Access Centers (SAC) in Japan and self-access learning. (http://jasalorg.wordpress.com/)

Critical Thinking and TOEIC: Advanced Skills for Teachers and Test-Takers

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A Critical Thinking (CT) approach to the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) can be effective for advanced test-takers; students familiar with the test layout, instructions, and basic strategies commonly taught for each part of the test, and who are ready for further skill development. Four advanced skills for the TOEIC based on CT are introduced in this paper; answering critically, guessing critically, pattern recognition, and time management. However, CT can be time consuming, so methods of addressing this issue are discussed in the paper, including reading ahead, pre-determined guessing, allocating time critically, habitual actions, and automatization. By employing these advanced skills, test-takers can be given a greater chance of scoring well on TOEIC.

TOEICテストの上級受験者にとって、批判的思考法は効果的な方法となりえる。テスト対策として本稿では、批判的思考法に基づく4つのテクニック（批判的解答方法・批判的推測・パターンの認識・時間管理）を紹介する。また、批判的思考法には時間がかかるという側面もあるため、それを軽減するテクニック（設問の先読み・設問の跳び越し・時間配分・設問への慣れなど）も紹介する。これらのテクニックにより、テストで高得点を取る可能性は高まり、キャリアアップにつなげることができるであろう。

Introduction

The Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) is an international standardized test used for determining "English proficiency of non-native English speakers" (www.ets.org) in order to evaluate staff for promotion, transfer overseas, or simply for individuals to gauge their English ability. The test contains both listening and reading components that evaluate English ability in a wide variety of situations and accents, including those from the UK, Australia, and the US. This report introduces four advanced skills based on Critical Thinking (CT) for approaching the test: answering critically, guessing critically, pattern recognition, and time management. As with learning any new skill, initial attempts may be frustrating and time consuming so the paper concludes with implications for teachers for addressing concerns regarding the significant time required by students to implement advanced CT skills during the TOEIC test.

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Literature Review

Critical Thinking (CT) has been given many definitions, but Cottrell (2005) offers a definition that most closely aligns with the skills introduced in this paper, "(CT is) a cognitive activity associated with using the mind. Learning to think in critically analytical and evaluative ways means using mental processes such as attention, categorization, selection, and judgement" (p. 1). For test-takers who have mastered basic skills such as the layout of the test and the question styles, the next step for achieving higher scores is to utilize CT skills (such as judgment) in order to answer questions that require the test-taker to choose the "most appropriate word to fill in the blank", a common instruction given in the TOEIC test (McKinnon, 2012, p. 13).

The purpose of this paper is not to focus on generally taught basic TOEIC test skills and strategies available in most mainstream TOEIC textbooks, but rather advanced skills for students who are sufficiently familiar with the test to handle further instruction and skill development. Each of the skills in this report is closely aligned with the definition of critical thinking (see Cottrell, 2005), specifically employing analysis, evaluation, and judgement when answering the test questions. The rationale behind the introduction of critical thinking skills can be found in Charlin, Boshuizen, Custers, and Feltovich (2007) in their discussion of the development of expertise, which states that

> we use goal-directed knowledge structures adapted to perform tasks efficiently. These integrated networks of prior knowledge lead to expectations, as well as to inferences and actions. Expectations and actions … allow subjects to

Question 1: You will see:

1. You will hear: "1. Look at the picture marked number 1 in your test book."

(A) He's checking his watch.
(B) He's wearing a jacket.
(C) He's adjusting his tie.
(D) He's folding his clothes.

Figure 1. Example item from Section 1.

make predictions ... interpret ... the situation, and to act appropriately. (p. 1178)

Analysis, evaluation, and judgement are established critical thinking skills (see Cottrell, 2005) so to this definition, let us also add *expectation*, *inference*, and *interpretation*. Finally, for the purposes of this report, one further skill is even more critical–*anticipation*. Atherton (2011) states that strategy "involves the anticipation of possibilities and the development of plans to deal with them" (Atherton, 2011 - See "Strategy" section, para. 2) and this seems an apt phrase for a final addition to the definition of CT.

This paper suggests that students approaching the TOEIC test with CT skills in the forefront will significantly improve their chances for higher scores on the TOEIC test. However, according to Ellwood (2000), critical thinking may be an area in which Japanese students are in need of development; ". . . our Japanese students do tend to fit the stereotypes of being passive and non-participatory, with little ability in the type of critical enquiry which is so valued by the western academy" (p. 181). In addition, Howe comments that Japanese people tend to follow instructions very carefully (Howe, 2000), and this can be detrimental in TOEIC, a timed test with no penalty for guessing. For example, instead of listening to the well-known instructions for each section or part, test-takers should be reading ahead and anticipating upcoming questions. Most Japanese test-takers, in this author's experience, tend to consider every answer choice for each question regardless of whether they have already determined an answer to be correct. Instead, students should trust their instincts and use all possible time saved in order to preview future questions and to employ CT to aid in answering more effectively. In short, students should take a CT approach to the TOEIC and "critically" think their way through the test.

The Advanced Skills

Skill 1: Answering Critically

Students must be trained to trust their instincts in recognizing the correct answers when they see (or hear) them, marking the answer immediately, and moving on to the next question. This critical answering approach can generate time necessary for students to employ CT approaches to later questions.

Example: The following question in Figure 1 is an example of how questions can sometimes be answered without considering all of the answer choices.

After hearing statement (B), "He is wearing a jacket", students should be able to recognize the correct answer, mark it quickly and move on to the next picture or section immediately. Alternatively, if the first three answers are incorrect, students should be marking (D), the only available answer, on their answer sheets immediately after hearing Statement (C) and moving on to the next question. Answering critically can and should be employed whenever possible during the test.

Skill 2: Guessing Critically (Primarily Listening Parts 3 & 4 and Reading Part 7)

i. *Students should not guess the first question for each reading in Part 7*

The first question for each reading in Part 7 is usually related to the overall theme of the reading and is often worded "What is the passage about?" or "What is the main idea of the article?" By anticipating these questions, students can be prepared and approach the reading by first skimming the title and key words from each paragraph in order to more effectively answer this predictable first question. Quickly skimming and scanning often provides information sufficient to answer the first question of each reading in this section.

ii. *It's OK to guess the "Which one is <u>not</u> true?" question in Reading Part 7*

In my classroom experience, one of the most difficult reading questions is one that asks which of the answers is NOT correct or NOT true. It is difficult because, unlike other question types where the test-taker must find a single piece of data, for these negative question types the reader must find three pieces of data and then determine which of the answers to the question is "incorrect", "not true " or "not in the story." Should students need to skip questions to make time, these types of questions are the good ones to choose.

71. Where is this announcement being made?
(A) At a train station
(B) At a travel agent's office
(C) At an airport
(D) At a coffee shop

72. What is the weather like in Hong Kong?
(A) It is foggy
(B) It is clear
(C) It is snowing lightly
(D) It is stormy

73. What time of day is this announcement being made?
(A) Morning
(B) Afternoon
(C) Evening
(D) Late night

Figure 2. Example item from Listening Part 3.

iii. Students may use pre-determined guessing to generate time to "invest" elsewhere

Another technique available to test-takers struggling to complete the test in the allotted time is that of pre-planning to guess questions (perhaps every 5th question) in order to create time to read ahead and increase the chance of scoring well on following questions. Alternatively, students may consider skipping an entire set of questions (each conversation in Parts 3 & 4 contains three questions) and guessing those answers in order to generate time available to employ CT skills on subsequent questions. In the Part 3 of the listening section there are 30 questions made up of 10 sets. The time required from the start of the dialogue to the end of the available time for marking the third question in each set is approximately 90 seconds. If the student chooses to skip this set of questions, then 90 seconds could be used to employ CT skills such as pattern recognition on several other questions to enhance the student's chances of scoring well.

Skill 3: Pattern Recognition (Listening Parts 3 & 4 and Reading Part 7)

Finding patterns among the questions and answers can aid students on the test by creating an image of the question situation. Although Listening sections Parts 3 and 4 are among the most difficult for students (Trew, 2007), they also offer the greatest opportunity to prepare before listening since both the questions and answers (three per dialogue) are written in the test book. When reading ahead, test-takers should look for patterns in the set of questions and answers and imagine the situation. Students who approach these sections critically, by anticipating patterns, may be able to answer several, if not all questions, even before listening to the recordings.

Example: Consider the following sample questions (Figure 2.) from Listening Part 3 – Short Conversations:

Students must first skim all of the information (key words only) while looking for patterns. Consider Q. 71, "Where is this announcement?" Most people are familiar with announcements at an airport or train station while announcements at a coffee shop are possible but unlikely. When the information from Q. 72 is also considered, "What is the weather like?" students should start to consider that the answer to Q. 71 is probably "airport" since announcements about weather are common at the airport. Students should also subsequently eliminate Q. 71 (A), since weather announcements of this type are possible but not common at a train station and are unlikely to have a sufficient impact on rail travel to merit an announcement to passengers. Further, if there is an announcement at an airport about weather, one can expect it to be bad weather and probably prefacing a delay announcement about a flight. Therefore, Q. 72 answers (B) and (C) seem unreasonable since clear weather and "light snow" are probably unlikely to delay most flights. Students should then anticipate the answer to Q. 72 to be (A) "foggy" or (D) "stormy".

The results of a pattern analysis on questions 71-73 have been illustrated below in Figure 3. For the purposes of this report, key words are underlined. Single strikethrough (travel agent's) represents obvious answers eliminated after the student's first pass, double strikethrough (train station) represents answers eliminated when critically considering all the data using pattern recognition. The circled answer below indicates an answer that is probably correct while the triangles indicate possible correct answers based on

71. Where is this announcement being made?
~~(A) At a train station~~ – *common – departures?* ***but*** Q. 72 (A) = not train station
~~(B) At a travel agent's~~ office – *announcements uncommon*
(C) At an airport
~~(D) At a coffee shop~~ - *announcements uncommon*

72. What is the weather like in Hong Kong?
(A) It is foggy – *common – related to airport so train station is not correct.*
~~(B) It is clear~~ – *not a reason for an announcement*
~~(C) It is snowing lightly~~ – *snow in Hong Kong?*
(D) It is stormy – *common – related to airport so train station is not correct.*

73. What time of day is this announcement being made?
(A) Morning
(B) Afternoon
(C) Evening
(D) Late night

*** Answers for questions above are 71 (C), 72 (D) and 73 (A)

Figure 3. Results of a pattern analysis on a sample item.

anticipation and inference using pattern recognition. In this example, the students have yet to listen to the announcement and have already found one probable correct answer and have eliminated others simply by thinking critically and finding patterns.

Pattern recognition is time consuming but can be very effective. Therefore it is critical that students carefully manage time and create opportunities to read ahead whenever possible.

Skill 4: Time Management

The test is roughly 120 minutes (45 minutes for listening

Table 1
Critical approach to timing.

Section	Part	Questions	Traditional timing	Recommended timing
Listening Section	1	10	Determined by recording (around 45 minutes)	Determined by recording (around 45 minutes)
	2	30		
	3	30		
	4	30		
Reading Section	5	40	45 sec. each (30 min)	30 sec. each (20 min)
	6	12	45 sec. each (9 min)	30 sec. each (6 min)
	7	48	45 sec. each (36 min)	1 minute each (48 min)
	TOTAL		120 minutes	119 minutes

and 75 minutes for reading) and students must manage time throughout. However, in the reading section, decisions with respect to time allotted per question can be made by students before taking the test. For the reading section, most students divide the number of questions (100) by the available time (75 minutes) and budget 45 seconds per question. However, due to the question styles of Parts 5 and 6, there is little reason to spend 45 seconds for each question in these sections since the answers are grammar or knowledge-based and cannot be found given additional time. Although Part 6 involves a longer text, a maximum of 30 seconds should be sufficient for each question. Remaining time can be better utilized in Part 7, where searching for answers in the longer readings can be more effective. A recommended time plan is listed in Table 1.

Implications for Teachers

Creating time for students to employ these CT skills is a very real concern. In order to address this issue, there are two ways to generate additional time for the application of CT skills during the TOEIC test. The first is to create time during the test. Several time-saving techniques have been outlined in this paper: reading ahead during instructions, pre-determined guessing, and allocating time critically. The second is to encourage automaticity through practice. This will be dealt with next.

Automaticity

There are time advantages to developing habits into automatic actions. Tony Dungy, a championship coach states that "Champions don't do extraordinary things ... they do ordinary things, but they do them without thinking, too fast for the other team to react. They follow the habits they've learned" (from Duhigg, 2012, p. 61). Much like learning any new habit, the first few attempts with any new skill can be awkward and time consuming but with practice, these actions will become automatic. The skills introduced in this paper are no different and will require extensive practice. Once mastered, according to Bargh (1994), students will also benefit from better focus during the test;

> The automatization of routine thought processes frees one's limited attentional resources for non-routine matters, and enables a reduction of the massive amount of stimulation and information bombarding one at any given moment into a more manageable subset of important objects, events and appraisals. (p. 31)

The instructor's role should be to provide opportunities for practicing these routines, offering feedback, timing exercises, and reinforcing the importance of working quickly. Developing critical thinking approaches as good habits and training students to employ them automatically is another key to helping students achieve success in the TOEIC test.

Moving quickly is an important skill required throughout the TOEIC test. Completing the test in time is a challenge for almost every student, so the critical skills for TOEIC (and indeed all TOEIC skills) introduced in this report must become habitual and automatic in order to be applied without the need (and time) for thought. In other words, students should, eventually, not need to tell themselves to read ahead nor to look for patterns; they should be doing so without thinking and doing so quickly. In order to perform these actions quickly, students need to be trained in these habits until the habits become automatic.

Conclusion

Critical thinking involves analysis, evaluation, judgment, and anticipation (see Cottrell, 2005). An advanced approach to TOEIC requires an analysis of questions and answers, of the difficulty of individual sections, judgement of how to approach timing, and an anticipation of patterns in questions and answers. This report recommends CT-based skills, such as answering critically, guessing critically, pattern recognition, and the need for time management as the next step for students who are familiar with the test and seeking improvements in their scores. Critical thinking is an advanced and challenging approach to TOEIC, but with practice and the development of effective habits, it can become an effective tool to assist students in their journey to higher scores on the TOEIC test.

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Cross-Disciplinary Synthesis in Explicating Texts: Combining Literary Themes with Vocabulary

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Literary texts are products of, and negotiated responses to, their cultural communities. Whilst English for academic purposes (EAP) teachers may place primacy on vocabulary acquisition when teaching authentic literature, there also needs to be some focus on scaffolding the important thematic aspects which underpin texts. This paper outlines a coordinated EAP reading course design, which sought to explicate these themes through an interpolated vocabulary and visual media based approach. Classroom practice undertaken by two teachers at two separate institutions is also discussed and assessed with reference to student vocabulary scores and quantitative and collaborative response data gathered from the 2013 academic year.

文学は地域社会の人々によって創造され、そしてまた人々の地域社会に対する文書の反応でもある。文学の教師は語彙を教えることが重要だと考えるかもしれないが、テーマや文学の中の文化に注目することも重要であり必要である。本論文は2名の教師が別々の大学で語彙と視覚媒体からのアプローチを組み合わせ使用し、テーマを教えたリーディングコース案をご紹介する。これらの2クラスより語彙の成績や学生の反応のデータは収集されている。

Literature and its Discontents

Whilst English students can gain many new vocabulary skills and insights when reading authentic literature, they will also face difficulties in progressing from a basic decoding of texts towards appropriate levels of fluency. Such obstacles may include a lack of textual and cultural background knowledge. This knowledge is often glossed over in the English reading classroom, where primacy is placed upon teaching information retrieval skills that "exclude the cultural values and identities, or expressive and aesthetic characteristics… quite simply because these are now seen as surplus to practical requirement" (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, p. 357).

Why Teach Literature?

Reading authentic English literature presents English for academic purposes (EAP) students with the opportunity to understand how the English language is used in a variety of specific contexts. Whereas traditional English teaching classroom practice focuses on repeatedly practicing a number of high frequency words, and whilst materials used for extensive reading such as graded readers contain a number of recycled headwords that can gradually boost students' ability to remember vocabulary, reading authentic literature can afford students valuable examples of how words

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collocate and fit together naturally in lexical chunks, clauses and sentences.

Literature can also convey genuine, authentic cultural enrichment whilst training the mind and sensibility (Parkinson & Reid Thomas, 2000, p. 9-11). Reading literature can open new cultural vistas, affording English language students the chance to understand other cultures at a more profound level. The best literary works possess subtlety, richness and uniqueness (Brumfit, 2001, p. 91) that might not be found in English language textbooks, and classic authentic texts dating from centuries past can often connect old themes with new, and broaden and deepen our students' understanding both of previous ages and of subjects related to the present time.

Approaching Literature

A literary competence syllabus was designed, which placed equal importance on the teaching of textual background in tandem with focus on vocabulary. Our study was inspired by the Content and Language Integrated Learning Approach (CLIL), a methodology that aims to integrate the teaching of content with language teaching skills (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). Language and cultural skills were not taught in isolation, but instead in an integrated way. The students read short selections of poetry on a weekly basis for homework, which they then reviewed and discussed in more detail in the following class. Each piece of poetry chosen was linked with the weekly conversational and vocabulary based thematic demands of each class. For example, romantic poetry, such as selections of Wordsworth's nature sonnets, which criticize the growing industrial materialism of early 19th century Britain, added a deeper historical and critical perspective to discussion classes which centered on modern phenomena such as globalization.

Teaching Poetic Language and Theme

This study therefore applied a culturally centered approach to scaffold underlying textual meanings in short pieces of literature such as poetry. However, to aid their awareness of underlying themes in poetry, students were first taught the mechanics of metaphor and simile and were required to construct their own poetic sentences using these devices before identifying examples in the selections of poetry that they read. Teaching poetic language, however, and the underlying thematical concepts behind it, also required a scaffolded, visual approach. Many types and styles of visual presentation media are useful for the language learner, as Lonergan (1995) argues: "video in the classroom offers exciting possibilities for language teaching and learning" (p. 1). It was hoped that this kind of visual approach, taught in conjunction with vocabulary gap-fill activities and vocabulary reading handouts, would aid English reading students in improving their cultural and linguistic competence.

Characteristics of the Learners

Our learners were second year students enrolled at two private Japanese universities. Group A were English majors , whilst group B were engineering majors . The group A students studied at an institution which employed the TOEFL testing system to decide class groupings, and the students had been placed in their class through achieving an average TOEFL score of 450. In contrast, the group B students studied at an institution that assessed and arranged them according to their TOEIC scores, and these particular students had achieved a mean class score of 400 on the TOEIC scale. ETS reports a reasonably strong relationship between the TOEIC and TOEFL tests (r = .75), (Aberystwyth University International English Centre, 2013) and for the purposes of the present study, the two groups are considered to be of roughly the same level: CEFR B1. Whilst some members of group A had some previous experience of reading literature

Table 1.
An Equivalency Table of TOEIC and TOEFL Score Bands (Aberystwyth University International English Centre, 2013)

TOEIC	TOEFL
500 - 550	450 – 470
450 - 500	430 - 450
400 - 450	410 – 430
350 - 400	390 – 410

before embarking on our course, group B had no prior experience. It was felt that this contrast in student background and study interests would add more depth and contrast to our study, having a bearing on discrete or notable differences in our data sets.

Examples of Poetry Taught in Reading Classes

We chose to teach 18th century Romantic poetry to our students during the first semester of the course, as it was felt that Romanticism would connect with contemporary concerns familiar to our students such as global warming and pollution. Examples are given below of how William Wordsworth's *Daffodils* (1996/1807) and *The world is too much with us* (1996/1807) were taught in this way. Students were first asked to discuss some of the main recurring themes found in STUDIO GHIBLI animated films, such as animals versus humans and science and industry versus nature. They were then shown the J.W.M Turner painting *The Fighting Temeraire* (1839), and were invited to guess and discuss the themes at play within the image (tradition vs. modern industrialisation), and to try and draw parallels with the earlier discussion. Having identified the thematic tension between the elements of the image, the students were then given two different Wordsworth poems that separately addressed these oppositional themes.

Students were required to perform a gap-fill reading activity for Wordsworth's *Daffodils*, (1996/1807) placing a selection of missing descriptive words in the correct empty spaces by consulting a teacher-distributed poetry word list, and then discussing which descriptions were pejorative, such as the simile "lonely as a cloud" (p. 281) and lying upon a couch in "vacant or in pensive mood" (p. 282) and which were positive, such as the metaphorical "host of dancing daffodils" (p. 281) and "that inward eye which is the bliss of solitude" (p. 282). A successive poetry reading exercise then demanded that the students perform a descriptive gap-fill reading exercise for the Wordsworth poem *The world is too much with us* (1996/1807, p274) and this time identify how the growing industrialized world was described in terms such as "lay waste" (p. 274) and "a sordid boon" (p. 274), and then further discuss this in direct relation to the previous poem, which dealt with the theme of encountering nature in solitude and experiencing deep thoughts and sensations.

Research Methods

In order to evaluate the general success of this classroom approach towards scaffolding a critical comprehension of poetry, some statistical research was undertaken. This research incorporated distributing jointly quantitative and qualitative student response questionnaires, whilst also undertaking an examination of student vocabulary results. Poetry pre-reading and post-reading questionnaires were given to a total of 19 students from group A and 20 students from group B. It was hoped that by measuring the students' attitudes towards these poems, and comparing their pre- and post-reading responses, an overall barometer of the effectiveness of the materials used could be established.

Student Quantitative questions

The six quantitative questions were based on the Likert close-ended question model, but with five response options (Dornyei, 2010). Students were asked to answer questions on their impressions of poetry both before reading in class and after reading in class. An example question is given in Table 3.

In the above example, *interesting* was assigned a score of 5 points, and *easy* a score of 4 points. These were the two positive responses. *Okay* was given a midpoint response score of 3, *difficult* was given a score of 2, and *boring* a score of 1. The latter two were the two negative responses. Students were also asked to identify what areas of language poetry helped them with, such as grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, writing

TABLE 2.
An example of one of the six quantitative close-ended questions asked to students in the survey.

What was your opinion of the poetry used?				
a) interesting	b) easy	c) okay	d) difficult	e) boring

and speaking.

Student Qualitative Questions

Both groups of students were asked two qualitative questions during the post-reading section of the research. Whilst it has been noted that such qualitative questions possess inherent limitations, Dornyei (2010) observes that they also enjoy specific merits such as providing greater graphic and illustrative richness to pure quantitative data. Such data was therefore employed to facilitate and potentially deepen our quantitative questionnaire measures, and our students were given qualitative questions which asked if they had changed their minds about poetry after performing the readings in class, and if so, why.

Multiple Choice Vocabulary Test

Students were tested at the end of the semester on adjectival vocabulary from the distributed poetry gap-fill reading handouts. The examination tested the students on their ability to remember the descriptive words by supplying them with a selection choice of four simplified synonyms and requiring them to successfully match the correct synonyms with the authentic words from the poems.

Findings

Quantitative Questionnaire Findings

The pre- and post-reading quantitative data gathered from both groups indicated a rise in attitudes towards poetry. Whilst the data collected from group A saw opinions rise from a pre-reading score of 2.7 to 3.6, group B's data was particularly marked, rising from 2.4 to 3.7. This marked rise may well be attributed to the fact that group B was comprised of mainly engineering students who had no prior exposure to poetry, whilst many in group A had prior experience with literary texts. However, pre-reading and post-reading data also provided evidence of a rise in attitudes towards poetry's use in all the five language categories of grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, writing and speaking (see Table 3).

Our primary interest was in striving to use poetry to aid improvement in student reading comprehension,

Table 3.
Comparison of Pre-Course and Post-Course Student Opinion Data

	Group A		Group B	
	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Grammar	3.3	3.4	2.1	3.0
Vocabulary	3.9	4.1	3.5	4
Reading Comp.	3.8	4.3	2.5	4.1
Writing	2.9	3.5	2.0	3.0
Speaking	3.0	3.1	2.5	2.8

so of particular interest was the students' perception of poetry's ability to aid this specific skill, with both groups allocating it a score in excess of 4 points. However, although this data was very pleasing it is believed that with further improvements to questionnaire design and data collection procedures, such results can be improved in the future.

Qualitative Questionnaire Findings

The qualitative data results illustrated that a significant number of students had changed their minds about poetry thanks to our teaching methods. Sixty-three percent of group A replied in the affirmative, whilst a striking 84% of group B replied that they had changed their minds. When asked more specifically why this was the case the students in both groups gave a number of different reasons. Twenty-one percent of group A wrote that this was due to teaching emphasis on simile and metaphor, whilst 31% wrote that they found the visual experience to be fun, whilst in group B 52% noted that the use of images was interesting and 11% that it was enjoyable. The qualitative percentage differences between Groups A and B in changing attitudes towards poetry (and the fact that more students from Group B were seen to change their mind about poetry) may be symptomatic of their prior exposure to such texts.

Vocabulary Examination Findings

Our students achieved an average vocabulary recognition score of 76%, with group A achieving 78% and group B achieving 74%. This suggested that they had acquired many of the poetry content-specific words taught during our course. Once again, the higher score achieved by group A is likely to be indicative of the more literary-suited nature of the class.

Conclusion and Directions for Future Research

In summary, our triangulated data demonstrated that the overall student response to the poetry taught in our course was very positive. However, future research projects which seek to advance student perception of poetry's ability to improve their language progress should consider Young and Ohata's (2005) observations that student language anxiety can arise through "a lack of self confidence in language proficiency" (Ohata, 2005, p. 14). Student lack of self confidence in the target language is a deeply significant factor when employing student self assessment quantitative and qualitative scores as a measurement of poetry's worth as a tool for improving reading, writing, speaking, grammar and vocabulary acquisition. Subsequent poetry-related research projects should therefore aim to distribute poetry post-reading questionnaires at the beginning of the second semester, after students have already received their semester 1 poetry-related vocabulary results and overall reading grades.

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Appendix

Pre- Reading Poetry Questionnaire

1) What is your opinion of poetry?

For example: a) interesting b) easy c) okay d) difficult e) boring

What areas of language does poetry help with? [**5** = A lot; **1** = Not at all]

2) Grammar [5 = A lot; 1 = Not at all]
3) Vocabulary [5 = A lot; 1 = Not at all]
4) Reading Comprehension [5 = A lot; 1 = Not at all]
5) Writing [5 = A lot; 1 = Not at all]
6) Speaking [5 = A lot; 1 = Not at all]

Post Reading Poetry Questionnaire

1) What is your opinion of poetry?

For example: a) interesting b) easy c) okay d) difficult e) boring

What areas of language does poetry help with? [**5** = A lot; **1** = Not at all]

2) Grammar [5 = A lot; 1 = Not at all]
3) Vocabulary [5 = A lot; 1 = Not at all]
4) Reading Comprehension [5 = A lot; 1 = Not at all]
5) Writing [5 = A lot; 1 = Not at all]
6) Speaking [5 = A lot; 1 = Not at all]

7) **Have you changed your mind about poetry on this course?**

8) If so, why?

CT LiLT SDD Forum: Creativity, critical thinking and language learning

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In this forum shared themes related to all three SIGs were discussed. David Gann talked about how critical thinking and creativity are related within a widely accepted framework of general thinking skills. Jane Nakagawa discussed learner diversity, creativity, and critical thinking in the classroom. Dawn Kobayashi made connections between creativity in language learning and drama. Tara McIlroy talked about selecting poems and short literary texts for discussion and debate in university content-based classes. A discussion on models of critical thinking, creativity and literary texts followed the individual presentations.

このフォーラムでは、上記の3つのテーマに沿っての講義が展開された。デイビッド・ガン氏は、批判する力と創造性は、どのように一般的な思考の技術に関係しているかを講義した。ジェーン・ナカガワ氏は詩、多角的な知能、スピーチ、演劇、そして討論についての紹介をした。ドーン・コバヤシ氏は、演劇を通した言語学習から創造性について関連付けた。タラ・マキロイ氏は、話し合いや討論を大学の授業でするために用いるとよいと思われる詩や短編の文学作品を選ぶことについて講義した。批判的に考える力と創造性と文学のモデルについての話し合いは、個人のプレゼンテーションの後に記されている。

Introduction

In this forum, shared themes related to all three SIGs were discussed. David Gann talked about how critical thinking and creativity are related within a widely accepted framework of general thinking skills. Jane Nakagawa introduced poetry, multiple intelligences, and speech, drama and debate. Dawn Kobayashi made connections between creativity in language learning and drama. Tara McIlroy talked about selecting poems and short literary texts for discussion and debate in university content-based classes. A discussion on models of critical thinking, creativity and literary texts followed the individual presentations.

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Critical Thinking and Creativity in a Framework of General Thinking Skills

David A. Gann

In discussions about critical thinking since CT SIG was established, a common issue has been the boundary between critical and creative thinking. Most

Table 1
Relationships between micro and macro skills (Angeli, 2010, p. 7)

Relationships between Micro and Macro Skill				
	MACRO SKILLS			
	Problem Solving	Decision Making	Critical Thinking	Creative Thinking
MICRO SKILLS				
Causation				
Transformations				
Relationships				
Classifications				
Qualifications				
OUTPUT	Solution to a problem	Response	Sound argument, proof, theory	New meaning, aesthetically pleasing results

teachers are not acquainted with taxonomical models of cognition and so understandably take an inductive approach, examining artifacts (literary texts, works of art, architecture etc.) and inferring observable qualities they believe result from critical thinking and creative thinking. It is sometimes the case that people are concerned with what they perceive as a dichotomy between critical thinking and creative thinking; they understand the need for critical thinking instruction, but are concerned that critical thinking, which they may regard as negative or constraining, can operate at the expense of creative thinking development (Fisher, 2001, p. 13). Perhaps what is needed in education is not only more critical thinking instruction, but course design based on a better understanding of the relationship between critical and creative thinking.

In writing a novel, critical thinking may be thought of as the framework in which creative thinking takes form and which also constrains that creative energy. The convention of cause-and-effect may be stretched, but not past the breaking point. Characters must maintain certain core qualities. They must remain within the categories into which the writer initially places them and into which the reader might reasonably expect them to fall. Composition is a balance between free thinking at one end of the spectrum and goal directed thinking at the other end. Writers must be free to daydream at times and at other times must be able to bear rhetorical norms in mind (Kellogg, R.T., 1994, pp.10-11). In some cases, unraveling and separating the two threads of critical and creative thinking may be quite simple.

Metaphor is frequently invoked as an example of creative thinking. However, under closer scrutiny, the kind of cognition (transformations) required to link two incongruent elements—such as "a lover's smile" and "a spring day"—falls within the boundary shared by both creative thinking and critical thinking (Angeli, 2010, p. 6). Some people consequently reposition to assert that critical and creative thinking are essentially the same thing. This is neither satisfying nor helpful.

The design of wine glasses provides an example of how critical and creative thinking are not so easily unraveled. Most people can appreciate the delicate form of wine glasses and undoubtedly creativity is involved in their design. From the terminology we might guess the form is a kind of metaphor for a flower. Wine is poured into the *bulb* and wine is referred to as

Table 2
Distribution of micro-skills across macro-skills. (Angeli, 2010, p. 6)

A Model of General Thinking Skills

1. Causation
   Establishing cause and effect, assessment:
   Prediction, Inferences, Evaluations, Judgement
2. Transformations
   Relating known to unknown characteristics, creating meanings:
   Analogies, Metaphors, Logical Induction
3. Relationships
   Detecting regular operations:
   Parts and Wholes, Patterns, Analysis and Synthesis,
   Sequences and Order, Logical Deductions
4. Classification
   Determining common qualities:
   Similarities and Differences, Grouping and Sorting, Comparisons,
   Either/Or Distinctions
5. Qualifications
   Finding unique characteristics:
   Units of Basic Identity, Definitions, Facts, Problem/Task Recognition

having a delicate *bouquet*. The form of the wine glass also has a function. A difference in temperature affects flavor and other qualities. For that reason, wine glasses are made with a *stem*, (another flower metaphor) the function of which is to avoid heat transfer from the palm of one's hand to the wine (Billing, 2008, p. 69). Working backwards from the design of the artifact to the cognition of production can lead to guessing about the roles of critical and creative thinking. Rather than work from an artifact back to the cognition, a more effective approach may be to forego talk of artifacts altogether and define critical and creative thinking in terms of skill sets.

Table 1 and Table 2 are based on taxonomies of Bloom (1956) and Guilford (1967) (in Angeli, 2010, pp. 6-7). These provide a good entry point for anyone interested in this issue. How do such taxonomies speak to educators responsible for curriculum and course design? What do they say about improving efficiency in teaching critical thinking to liberal arts students teaching creative writing at a college of science? The first thing to note is that the question regarding the boundary between critical and creative thinking was earlier framed as something of an oversimplification. The question itself contains a false dichotomy that fails to take into account problem solving and decision making. Table 1 also shows that the four major skills are not undifferentiated skills, but rather skill sets composed of micro skills and that, excepting *qualifications*, none of the micro skills is unique to any single macro skill. (Table 2 provides definitions of the terms used in Table 1.) Note also that between any two macro skills there are areas of overlap and non-overlap. This observation can be a significant aid to our curriculum and course design.

In view of students' abilities, this taxonomy can recommend focusing on some micro skills and deemphasizing others. Although transformations and relationships are an important part of critical thinking, many liberal arts students will have likely already developed micro skills in the creative macro skill set. Teachers can then avoid redundancy in their course design. It may also be expected that those students will have not fully developed skills in identifying causation and classification. Accordingly, teachers may wish to provide lessons that focus on these skills. Science students likewise may not need development in transformations and relationships but may benefit from lessons on qualifications and the ability to recognize or form new and novel meanings. Understanding critical and creative thinking in terms of the underlying overlapping and non-overlapping micro skills dismantles the perceived polarity between critical and creative thinking. It can also help educators avoid redundancy in course design and better meet students' domain-specific needs.

Learner differences and multiple intelligences theory

Jane Joritz-Nakagawa

Jane Joritz-Nakagawa discussed the importance of learner (and teacher; see Nakagawa, 2004) differences and the usefulness of Gardner's multiple intelligences (MI) theory (Gardner 1993, 1999 a &b) and Jungian psychological type theory (Jung, 1976) along with transformative learning (Cranton, 1994) in planning courses and lessons with the goal of reaching diverse learners.

Cranton (1994) believes learner personalities affect the way students think and learn, and that these individual characteristics need to be taken into account when teaching critical thinking; Lawrence (1996) and Fairhurst and Fairhurst (1995) link Jungian psychological types to learner preferences for classroom activities and Silver, Strong and Perini (2000) attempt to account for learner diversity by combining the MI and Jungian psychological type models. A chart from Silver, Strong & Perini (2000) distributed by Nakagawa illustrated four artworks, each by a different artist, which represent four distinct types of "cognitive core" in the Jungian sense: sensing/thinking was represented by an Ansel Adams photograph; sensing/feeling by a Norman Rockwell painting, intuitive/feeling by a Picasso painting; and intuitive/thinking by an Escher painting. In this way Silver et al. (2000) attempt to demonstrate that one multiple-intelligence (in this case visual-spatial intelligence) can vary in its expression in accordance with Jungian psychological type theory. Nakagawa commented that all artworks (including poems; Nakagawa teaches poetry among other subjects) could not be so easily categorized but that psychological type theory and multiple intelligences theory, despite well known criticisms of both, have value in reminding teachers that learners will have different preferences in terms of learning materials and strategies which teachers can keep in mind to stimulate, value and challenge diverse learners.

Gardner (1993) suggests that critical thinking should be taught/practiced relative to specific domains because "the kind of thinking required to analyze a fugue is simply different from that involved in observing and categorizing different animal species, or scrutinizing a poem, or debugging a program . . . . " (p. 44). He suggests (1999a) MI can be used by teachers/learners to "introduce topics or provide powerful points of entry" (p. 186); present analogies to link the unfamiliar with the familiar; and to provide "multiple representations of the central or core ideas" (p. 187) of a topic. He also suggests (1993, pp. 42-44) that memory may be tied to the MI vs. a separate ability, citing neuropsychological evidence for this belief.

Cranton (1994) cites a model of personal transformation also discussed in Mezirow et al (2000) that suggests personal transformation begins with a "disorienting dilemma" when a person encounters new information which conflicts with an earlier formed belief. If what provokes critical thinking -- the triggers in trigger events that lead, optimally, to critical thinking -- are different for each person then to provide various kinds of "triggers" (materials and tasks) in a classroom appears wise as a way of promoting critical thinking.

Nakagawa stated that when she made an effort to include a broad range of MI and Jungian type-related materials (e.g. songs, poems, film, academic writings, statistical charts, etc.) and activities and used transformative learning pedagogical ideas in her courses together with cooperative learning (Cranton refers to cooperative learning but for a more detailed overview, see Sharan, 1999) effective learning according to student self-reports and teacher observation, including in challenging content courses such as American History, Gender and Society, and Introduction to American Poetry, as well as in required EFL courses, took place. She also found via course evaluations that these courses were very well-received by students. She further discovered that students began to integrate MI in an unprompted fashion in meaningful ways; for example students would make posters, drawings and placards, or add or compose music or sound effects, for use during their speeches, role plays and debates without being asked to do so or would illustrate their journals etc. in ways that enhanced their meaning and/or aided audience comprehension. In content courses, students were permitted to determine the form of response to weekly themes and readings in their journals (e.g. via writing a poem or dialogue; composing a speech, debate, comic or song; preparing a brief research report, etc.). Responses varied by student but also student responses changed over the term; the results were gratifying for students and teacher. The courses concluded with oral and written research reports; written reports were read only by the teacher except for the sharing of drafts with peers and the oral reports were designed as a way for students to share the knowledge they had gained with other students.

Creativity through Drama in Language Learning

Dawn Kobayashi

Dawn Kobayashi discussed how drama, specifically drama techniques, can be used to develop students' creative thinking. As Pope and Swann argue creativity does not exclusively mean the elite creativity of exceptional artists (2011, pp. 5-7). This selective view of creativity, often called Big C creativity (Craft, Jeffrey & Leibling, 2001), leads people to believe that they are not creative. Research into everyday creativity argues that we are all creative and use language in uniquely creative ways in everyday interactions (see Kaufman and Sternberg, 2010; Carter, 2004). The psychologists Kaufman and Sternberg (2010, p. xiii) state that creativity is: 1. Something new, different, innovative, 2. High quality, and 3. Appropriate. Creativity has also been defined as entailing change or transformation (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996, p. 28) and should create the need to make, create, imagine, produce or design anew (Feldhusen, 2006, p. 137).

Kaufman and Beghetto's (2009) four levels of creativity present creativity as a gaugeable skill. From this model it can be seen that although Big C creativity, the legendary type that people are either born with or not, may not be attainable for all students; there is no reason why through the use of activities such as drama techniques (hereafter DTs) that students may not progress from lower to higher levels of creativity. Beghetto uses the analogy of a jazz pianist to illustrate the distinctions:

1. Big C – legendary creativity, ex. Fats Waller
2. Pro C – professional creativity, ex. Professional jazz pianist
3. Little c – everyday creativity, ex. Accomplished amateur jazz pianist
4. Mini c – interpretive creativity, ex. Young player just discovering jazz riffs

(Adapted from Beghetto, 2010, pp. 455-456)

DTs are activities that were developed in the theater to help actors gain deeper understanding of a play's characters, situation and background story. These activities have been selected and/or adapted for use in the language classroom (see Spolin, 1986; Maley & Duff, 2005). Activities that a teacher could use might include: tableaux, hot-seating, and choral reading. As DTs are not intended for performance, the focus is on the process of developing the drama rather than the finished product. Additionally, DTs often revolve around some conflict or tension that must be resolved. How the 'problem' will be resolved is up to the participants, each problem having multiple possible solutions. This structure is very similar to creative thinking exercises where students are presented with a problem and must produce as many solutions as possible. The Torrance test of creativity (Torrance, 1966) is still one of the most common assessments of creativity, many of the tasks are surprising similar to the theatre games and drama techniques devised by the likes of Spolin, 1986; Maley and Duff, 2005; Swale,

2009. For example: product improvement, unusual uses, and just suppose.

Finally DTs in the language classroom foster creative, cognitive function. Drama techniques act as stimuli for students' creative and interpretative thinking, they function as the starting points from which students may depart to multiple potential end points. Language learning and creativity are synergic: Acquiring knowledge about the rules of language enables creative thought, and thinking creatively helps students make new linguistic connections and test out theories of language. It has been argued that one of the main factors that inhibit creativity in the classroom is the predominance of IRE: initiate, respond, evaluate (Beghetto, 2010, p. 450). Within this framework students soon learn that their role is to answer or respond to the teacher's questions, which the teacher will respond to and evaluate. As the teacher usually has a 'correct' answer in mind, students have few opportunities to explore or express their own ideas, theories and interpretations of language. Drama techniques on the other hand positively encourage this.

A creative process to select texts for EFL classes

Tara McIlroy

In this part of the forum the process of selecting short creative texts for classroom introduces some factors to consider: *usability; readability; ambiguity*. This short talk introduces a process of selecting short creative texts such as poems and song lyrics for the language classroom while explaining that rejection of unsuitable texts is part of the creative process in itself.

Literature, it has been argued, can be useful to motivate and assist in language learning (Oatley, 2011, Pope & Swann, 2011). Here the idea of "literature with a small 'l'" helps moves beyond the traditional view of classic the canonical texts of Literature (with a big 'L') such as Shakespeare or Dickens (MacRae, 1994). Small 'l' literature can mean any creative text. In everyday life, use of puns, alliteration, metaphorical expressions and jokes are all uses of creative language which reduce the narrow view of literary language existing only in novels (see Cook, 2000 or Carter, 2004 for detailed explorations of this). This is important when talking about student responses to texts which may include creative responses such as writing stories and poems themselves. The teacher must draw on various sources to help guide students towards language learning goals. Selecting short creative texts for classroom use is one example of a creative process.

Using a process to select some texts and reject others follows the "creativity is subtraction" mantra (Kleon, 2012), or what Keith Oatley calls "creative construction" (Oatley, 2011, p. 55). Kleon states that it is just as important to decide what to keep as it is to decide what to leave out. This conveniently gives the teacher room to make choices appropriate to the learning goals of students as well as the teaching context.

Pablo Picasso's suggestion that "Art is theft" (quoted in Kleon, preface) is echoed in T.S. Eliot's further explanation that "immature poets imitate; mature poets steal; bad poets deface what they take, and good poets make it into something better, or at least something different" (ibid.). One way of understanding this could be to say that creativity is something that all teachers should do for the improvements that they can bring to any project. As Bruce Springsteen suggested recently, nothing is original, that is to say we are living in a "post-authentic world" (NPR Music, 2012). Particularly in a teaching environment, the idea that originality is key to students' creative work can be prohibitive. An alternative, more inclusive view is required and necessary. Creative work does not need to be 'original', and in many situations it rarely is completely new.

First, the question of *usability* is introduced as part of the process in selecting texts. Is the text convenient and practical to use? Can it be adapted easily? How does it fit in with the needs and goals of the learners? These are all questions to consider when looking at the *usability* of a text. *Usability* is synonymous with the ideas user-friendly and learnability. The teacher should make a judgement about this based on the needs and wants of the learners. Working with students of any age, teachers are often required to make judgements from their understanding of content, appropriate text type, genre, and interest. This is the first step in the creative process of choosing what to select and what to exclude in a course.

Reading research has investigated at length what is meant by *readability* and the complex relationship between texts and readers. One example of this is Stanley Fish's concept of the *interpretative community* which suggests that groups interpret ideas collectively, sometimes independently of the text itself (Fish, 1980). Readability across genres has shown that reading creative texts such as poetry requires more effort than reading transactional texts (Hanauer, 2001). Also, creativity in literary texts should be carefully considered by the teacher (Pope & Swann, 2011). Two simple aspects to *readability* should be considered by the teacher: 1) difficulty at the word level and 2) difficulty at the sentence level. Examples focusing on *readability* would be to conduct analysis at the word level, look closely at unusual grammar constructions at the sentence level or compare text types on similar topics.

The third point in this discussion related to *ambiguity* and its usefulness as a concept in looking for multiple meanings and encouraging original thinking. *Ambiguity* is generally thought as a possibility of the being understood in two or more ways. Discussing the impact of Practical Criticism (Richards, 1929, Empson, 1966) and inspired by the interesting points of *ambiguity* in popular songs and poems brings the understanding that *ambiguity* can encourage language learning because it presents multiple-perspectives. Looking at a text's potential for *ambiguity* can help to answer these questions and confirm the suitability of certain texts for use in EFL classes.

In summary, for those considering various steps in the creative process of selecting texts and rejecting others, a creative process is recommended. Primarily the process of selection itself can be creative. Also *usability, readability* and *ambiguity* are useful concepts to consider in the selection of texts. Doing this in a strategic way encourages development of learner materials, for example through using an online vocabulary profiling website or other source to gauge difficulty level. Finally, by focusing on ambiguity, learners can be surprised and challenged to think about new opinions while introducing multiple perspectives on a text.

Conclusions

The Critical Thinking, Speech, Drama and Debate and Literature in Language Teaching SIGs worked together in this forum for the first time. In exploring a wide range of topics in a short time the speakers and forum participants looked in depth at issues relating to their interests. While at times the speakers had differing opinions about their topics and interpretations, a shared desire for open discussion was evident.

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The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology (MEXT) has raised concerns over the continual decline in the number of Japanese university students electing to study abroad (MEXT, 2011). In an attempt to reverse this decline MEXT is encouraging high schools and universities to establish international partnerships, and to promote international exchange programs. Current research on short-term study abroad programs (STSAP) shows that they can be an effective way to increase the cultural sensitivity and intercultural proficiency of participating students (Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen & Hubbard, 2006). However, to increase students' "cultural sensitivity" and "intercultural proficiency" through STSAP, programs must be "appropriately designed and sequenced" (Jackson, 2008, p. 12). This paper outlines a number of effective measures implemented in a STSAP to promote greater cultural understanding by increasing students' participation and interaction with the host culture and target language.

文部科学省は、海外留学を選択する日本人大学生の数が減少を続けていることに対し、危惧を示している（MEXT，2011)。この減少に歯止めをかけるため、文部科学省は高等学校や大学に対し、文化理解を促進するような国際連携や国際交流プログラムを設立するよう促している。最近の研究では、「短期留学プログラム（STSAP)」が参加学生の「文化的感受性」や「文化間コミュニケーション力」を高める有用な方法の一つであることが示されてきた（Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen & Hubbard, 2006）。しかし、STSAPで学生の「文化的感受性」や「文化間コミュニケーション力」を高めるためには、プログラムは「適切に企画され、継続される」ものでなければならない(Jackson，2008）。本論文では、長期継続されたSTSAPで、学生が訪問国の文化と積極的に関わり、学習言語での交流を活発にすることで、より深い文化理解を促進させる取り組みについて、いくつかの有効な方法を示す。

Enriching Short-term Study Abroad Programs

The effectiveness of short-term study abroad programs

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(STSAP) on a learner's linguistic development is inconclusive: "the linguistic benefits of short-term study abroad programs are unclear" (Amuzie & Winke, 2009, p. 2). Amuzie and Winke's findings correspond with other researchers who found limited improvement in participants' target language after returning home (Allen, 2010a; Bennett, 2011). Other research has pointed out several areas where STSAP have failed to adequately provide opportunities and the environment necessary for participants to effectively use the target language, thereby, minimizing any possible improvement in linguistic or pragmatic competence (Allen, 2010a; Cadd, 2012; Cubillos & Ilvento, 2012; Jackson, 2008; Wang, 2010).

However, there is a growing body of research that strongly suggests that STSAP can have a deep and long-lasting effect on students' intercultural awareness (Amuzie & Winke, 2009; Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen & Hubbard, 2006; Chieffo, 2004; Cubillos & Ilvento, 2012; Salisbury, Umbach, Paulsen, & Pascarella, 2009) and on their motivation to continue study (Cadd, 2012; Chieffo, 2004; Cubillos & Ilvento, 2012). As one of the main aims of STSAP is for participants to develop "intercultural sensitivity" (Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen & Hubbard, 2006, p. 3) and in the belief that participants with these skills will be able to effectively operate in the increasingly intertwined international workplace, then STSAP can be an effective method to culturally acclimatize and motivate young Japanese who have recently been described as "inward-orientated" (Japan Times, 2011, p. 1) and "introverted" (Tanikawa, 2011, p. 1).

Short-term Study Abroad Programs

The interpretation of STSAP greatly varies by researchers and facilitators of STSAP: programs can be as long as one semester, or as short as two weeks (Jackson, 2006; Martinsen, 2010; Mills, 2010). Although specific data on the number of Japanese undertaking STSAP is not readily available, it is clear that like other Asian universities, many Japanese universities are using STSAP as a key component in their institution's courses to increase their students cultural sensitivity (Jackson, 2006). Current research shows that STSAP can have a long lasting impact on the participant's motivation to continue studying the target language and on their cultural sensitivity towards the target culture. (Allen, 2010a; Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen & Hubbard, 2006; Cadd, 2012; Chieffo, 2004; Cubillos & Ilvento, 2012; Jackson, 2006; Mills, 2012). The key caveat for participants to acquire this awareness and knowledge of the target culture is the STSAP has to be "done right" (Fischer, 2009, p. 1). Jackson (2008) believes "appropriately designed and sequenced" programs can provide the participant with the most conducive environment for learning and interaction to take place (p. 12).

The question for facilitators of STSAP is: How can we organize an STSAP that is "appropriately designed and sequenced", and has enough "intensity" to maximize the participants interaction in the target culture using the target language (Jackson, 2008, p. 12)? As Cadd (2012) and other researchers have correctly noted "immersion in another culture cannot guarantee linguistic and cultural gains" (p.230). Kinginger (2011) succinctly outlines the role of the STSAP coordinator as "promoting educationally relevant engagement in the practices of host communities, providing guidance in the interpretation of these practices, and preparing students to take specific advantage of language learning opportunities" (p.10). Therefore, facilitators must take time before, during and after the STSAP to develop strategies that keep the participants involved in the target culture and language. The time overseas is limited but it "offers a different level and type of language input" (Amuzie & Winke, 2009, p. 366) and therefore should be used judiciously so that "the course design and delivery becomes a critical component of student success" (Mills, 2010, p. 3).

Practical Improvements for Intensity

I will now outline a number of suggestions - some commonsense, some introduced after trial-and-error, and others instigated after reading current research on STSAP – for instructors currently involved in organizing STSAP. Although this STSAP is by no means perfect, the preliminary results from my research have shown positive impact on the participants while in the host culture and that this impact remained after their return to Japan (Otlowski, 2009).

Organizing a STSAP

University Courses

In regards to courses, the simplest option for an ELICOS center is to employ a part-time instructor, provide them with a classroom for the length of your stay and ask them to accompany your group on any university planned excursions as a guide/supervisor. For the ELICOS managers this causes the least disruption to the module courses that it usually runs. However, this is not the best option if you want your students to have a wider exposure to students from a variety of cultures and a more linguistically diverse environment. Having classes with only Japanese students, especially ones that they have come with, is merely replicating a Japanese university's English conversation class in a foreign country. There is very little opportunity for students to use English in an authentic situation during their class time. Allen (2010b) points out that this style of program may have your group "integrate into a host institution yet remain in a peer group with others sharing their first language" (p.28). Instead it is more beneficial to have your students placed in classes with other international students. Most universities offer short module courses that last between four and six weeks. These modules run throughout the year and so there are a number of possible starting dates to choose from. To help with processing and class placement many universities will allow the STSAP facilitator to carry out a placement test before departure. This saves time and allows your students to start their courses with their new classmates.

Accommodation

For most students the home-stay is one of the highlights of their time abroad: students have the chance to live with a family, establish friendships, and use their English in an authentic situation on a daily basis. However, from personal experience organizing STSAP, finding home-stays is an ongoing problem for most ELICOS centers in Australia, especially if your tour is coming in the spring or summer break. To cope with the large demand for homes, many centers ask host families if they are willing to accept two, sometimes up to three students. This is good for the host family and the ELICOS center, but it can significantly reduce the students' experience if they are hosted together. Students in this situation naturally tend to converse together in Japanese, thereby, denying themselves of the opportunity to use English in the home environment. Yet, shared home-stays can be a favorable option when the other hosted students are not from Japan. Many students find living with other international students a unique opportunity to establish friendships and exchange ideas and opinions. Some of the most positive feedback I have received concerning home-stay placement has come from students who have shared a home-stay with other international students.

Factoring in 'impact'

There are a number of ways to increase what Fry (Fischer, 2009, p.1) has termed "impact" in STSAP. As students are only overseas for a short time it is necessary to maximize the opportunities they have to interact with a variety of native speakers in multiple situations. Research has shown that it is also important for students to spend time reflecting on and discussing their reactions to the target culture in led discussions with the study group (Allen, 2010a; Allen, 2010b; Cadd, 2012). The following are the adjustments made to my STSAP over the past ten years.

Language Exchange

Although the number of students studying Japanese in Australian schools has declined by 16% since 2000 (de Krester & Spence-Brown, 2010), at university it is still one of the most popular language courses. By setting up a language exchange program with the university's language department, students can meet and have meaningful interaction with students interested in Japan, its language and culture. Students spend half the time speaking English and the remaining half Japanese. The study tour coordinators at the ELICOS center are usually more than willing to help you organize the language exchange if you give them and the university instructor time to coordinate timetables. Do not expect to be able to organize this on arrival.

School Visits

Another way to expose your students to a cultural setting that they are unlikely to find themselves in without prior planning is to organize a school visit. Again ELICOS coordinators are usually very happy to arrange a visit for you, but again you need to request this in the very early stages of your tour's planning. If you have a large group, then you may have to split the group for the visit, or organize the visit as a voluntary activity. School visits are always popular and are very educational for students: they must use their English to interact with students and teachers, and they get the chance to experience a different educational system first-hand. If visits are arranged before departure, you may be able to contact the Japanese language teacher and discuss what your students will do during their visit. Students can prepare for this before their departure.

Weekly Meetings

Research has shown that having students reflect upon their experiences helps them to develop a better understanding and appreciation for the host culture (Jackson, 2006). It can also provide a safe environment for students who have had problems adjusting to the culture, their host family, or difficulties with the language to discuss their problems with the group. The meetings are usually arranged each week, with time put aside in each meeting to discuss issues that may have arisen, and to arrange and report on tasks. This time provides valuable feedback for the STSAP facilitator on how the group is adjusting to their time in the L2 culture and provides time for the facilitator to consult with students who may be struggling to adjust to their new situation.

Local Research

To develop a deeper understanding of the host culture and the local history, I have students carry out and present on simple community-based research projects. Students are assigned a partner or to a small group to research in detail a historically or culturally significant feature in the host city. In many cases students will visit these places in the role of a tourist but having them prepare a report for the weekly group meeting gets them to be more involved in the local culture. Also getting students to interview someone they have met has been a very effective way of deepening the students' knowledge of the host culture (Cadd, 2012). In the past, I have had students interview their host families, their teachers, neighbors, craftspeople and local shop owners.

Journal/Report

All students must prepare a final report about their time abroad. These reports are then collated and published by my university's department. Having the students keep a journal during their stay is an effective way for the students to reflect on what is happening around them (Santanello & Wolff, 2007; Wutrich, 2008) while also providing them with material that they can use in their final reports. All ELICOS centers have well-equipped computer centers that students can use for assignments or email. Getting students to use online word processing applications, such as Google Drive, allows them to leave their laptops at home, thereby saving weight, gives them access to their documents at all times, and allows them to create digital presentations. It also allows the student to share their document with the facilitator, thereby, establishing an alternate method of feedback and communication. However, the document and sharing facility should all be set up before leaving Japan, as well as familiarizing the students with Google Drive functions.

Pre-departure & Debriefing Sessions

An essential element in creating intensity in a STSAP is keeping students actively engaged not only physically but also mentally in the host culture. Providing students with background information on where they are studying, local history, points of interest, and/or current news relating to the host culture or area is the most effective way to start students' involvement. Pre-departure meetings can be used not only to organize travel details but also to have students learn about the host culture before departure. On return, holding debriefing and follow-up sessions also helps students to make more sense of their experience. I usually have students present their reports to the group and follow-up with an open discussion. In the past I held informal photo exchange meetings that were another good way for students to get together in a relaxed environment and discuss their time abroad. However, with the pervasive use of cell phones students now exchange photographs digitally and as a result the sharing experience has changed.

Conclusion

From my experience of organizing STSAP and taking students abroad, I fully agree with the conclusions made by the growing number of researchers that STSAP are beneficial to students as they encourage interaction and reflection on the host culture that cannot be replicated in the home institution. Students return with not only a new understanding of the target culture but also a new perspective and understanding of their own culture. Having to explain about their own culture and discuss world issues with their host-family and fellow international students challenges students to become better communicators of their own culture, and motivates them to study the L2. Although linguistic gains and competency may be nominal, students come away from the program with a greater cultural sensitivity and awareness (Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen & Hubbard, 2006). However, these positive aspects of STSAP will not come about if programs are not organized to maximize input and interaction with the surrounding culture and language. Poorly planned programs may have negative consequences on participants. Rather than being actively engaged in the target culture, students may become withdrawn and unwilling to interact in the target language (Jackson, 2008; Toyokawa & Toyokawa, 2002). The need to plan for "intensity" is paramount.

I hope the suggestions presented in this paper will be of use to those instructors who are involved in, or are contemplating organizing a STSAP. I acknowledge that this not a comprehensive list of ways to engage students in the target culture while overseas, and that there are many other possible measures that could be taken. Hopefully, other facilitators of STSAP will share their experiences and activities so that future STSAP can be furthered improved, thereby, enhancing the educational and cultural value of the STSAP to students.

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Facilitating Learning Shifts through Milton Model Language Patterns

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This paper taps into the fields of hypnotherapy and neuro-linguistic programming (NLP), and more specifically the language patterns of the Milton Model (e.g. Bandler & Grinder, 1975a, 1975b, 1976; Grinder, DeLozier & Bandler, 1977), as tools for stimulating EFL learners' reading and writing speeds. The paper begins and ends with a story that frames the importance of effective communication in the classroom. Next it offers an overview of various Milton Model language patterns, including short explanations of each pattern and contextualized examples as they were used in each study within this paper. Then a brief outline of the two studies, the first on timed reading and the second on timed writing, are included together with their respective results. Finally, various conclusions are provided that support the usage of language patterns as tools to increase students' reading and writing speeds. Ultimately, we will show that language patterns do have a positive impact on student's ability to learn more effectively.

これは，催眠術と神経言語プログラミング(NLP)　の分野の論文です．英語を学ぶ人が，素早く読み書きできるようになるための道具として，とても特殊な，ミルトンモデルの言語パターン(e.g. Bandler & Grinder, 1975a, 1975b, 1976; Grinder, DeLozier & Bandler, 1977)について述べます。始めと終わりには，英語を学ぶ教室内でのコミュニケーションがどれほど大切か，背景を述べます。次に，いくつかのミルトンモデルの言語パターンについて，概要を述べます．それぞれのパターンに対する簡単な説明と，この論文中の各研究事項に，どのように使用されているのか，例を用いて説明します。さらに，二つの研究について，概要を述べます．始めはタイムドリーディングについて，次に，タイムドライティングについてです．それぞれの結果が，影響し合っていることを説明します。そして，読み書きの速度を上げる道具として，言語パターンの使用を推奨するような結論が，多数でる事を述べます。最終的に，次の事が分かります．言語パターンは，生徒の学習能力に良い影響をもたします．言語パターンによって，生徒はより効率的に英語を学習できるのです．

Once upon a time, there was a teacher named John who worked at a big school with many teachers. One day, one of the other teachers, Sally, happened to pass by John's classroom on the way to her own class. She glanced in the window and saw John giving a very dynamic lesson from the front of the room. He was gesturing excitedly with his hands, writing energetically on the board, and talking in a loud and cheerful voice. But when Sally looked a little deeper into the classroom,

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she noticed something a little strange. There were no students in the classroom at all. Naturally, Sally became a little curious! She gently knocked on the door and went inside.

Startled when he heard the knock, John looked around and said, "Sally, I'm teaching right now. Please don't disturb me."

"John," Sally said, "John, I'm sorry. It's just that I can't help noticing that there are no students here."

"Yes, thaaat's riiight," John drawled. "None of the students came this morning."

"Well," Sally continued, "I noticed that too, and yet I saw that you were still teaching." She then waited in stunned amazement for some simple explanation.

***

You might be curious too about John's next words, and it is good to be curious about how language can shape experience because that means you can begin to consider how a teacher's language in the classroom can shape a learning environment. You may even be thinking now of a particular teacher in your past who was a lot more gifted in their classroom communication than John in the story above.

Background

Effective teachers carefully use words and language patterns that influence students positively in their learning, but what kind of language patterns are effective? In this paper, we look to the fields of hypnotherapy and neuro-linguistic programming (NLP), and more specifically the language patterns of the Milton Model (e.g. Bandler & Grinder, 1975a, 1975b, 1976; Grinder, DeLozier & Bandler, 1977) in order to answer this question. NLP postulates that the most effective way to learn how to do a skill or to teach it to others is to model excellent performers of that particular skill. In the 1970s, the founders of NLP, Richard Bandler and John Grinder (1977), began to model excellent communicators. One of the people they chose to model closely was the hypnotherapist, Milton Erickson. Erickson used his knowledge of linguistic skills as a means to motivate people to learn or to change in positive ways by carefully choosing the words that he used. This resulted in the language patterns that we now refer to as the Milton Model. As users and teachers of language, we believe that there is much that we can learn from this modelling of excellence in communication.

Milton Model patterns are widely used in sales (O'Connor, 2001) and therapy (McDermott & Jago, 2001), and have come to be used in various other areas including education (Dilts, 1983; Cullen & Mulvey 2012; Cullen, Deacon, Backwell & Mulvey, 2013). Although these language patterns originated in the field of hypnotherapy, they should not be confused with therapeutic tools or as a means to put students to sleep. On the contrary, hypnosis simply means the ability to create facilitative states in ourselves and in others through using language patterns that suggest useful internal representations. Hammerman (1979) concluded that light hypnosis can be a valuable tool for educational purposes in general and for language learning in particular. In addition, Revell & Norman (1997) showed that the power of language patterns can impact students' learning states and positively affect their learning outcomes.

However, there still appears to be a shortage of empirical research investigating the effect of language patterns on students' ability to perform more effectively. In this paper, we introduce some examples of Milton Model language patterns as they can be used in the classroom. We then discuss two research studies which examined the effectiveness of language patterns as an intervention for stimulating the reading and writing speeds of university freshman students using a control and experimental group over a longitudinal time frame. Finally, we conclude with a variety of salient points that support the usage of language patterns as powerful tools for enhancing student performance.

Sample Scripts Based on Milton Model

In this section, we offer brief explanations followed by practical examples of the Milton Model language patterns that were used in the reading and writing studies in this article (see Cullen & Mulvey, 2012 for a teacher-friendly version of these and other patterns for practical classroom usage).

Lost Performatives

With *lost performatives* it is not clear who made a judgement, yet it is generally easy for a listener to accept it.

- "It's good to read quickly, isn't it."
- "It's interesting that people who write faster actually understand more."

Cause-Effect

We make an implied *cause-effect* relationship between two statements even though this relationship may not necessarily be true.

- "You've been studying and reading English for a long time, so you can use that experience to begin to read faster and faster now."
- "People who write more quickly get higher scores on tests such as TOEIC, and that will lead to better job possibilities for you in the future."

Complex Equivalence

Complex Equivalence is very similar to a cause-effect relationship (i.e. A causes B), but in a *complex equivalence* we imply that one thing means another thing (i.e. A means B) even if it is not necessarily true.

- "This is the second time you are reading this text, and that means that you can easily read much more quickly and even relax as you read more quickly."
- "It's a lovely day today…and that means you can just relax and begin thinking about all the things you would like to write about now."

Modal Operators

Modal operators (e.g., can, should, might, will, must, have to, etc.) can seem to create a choice for the students. Sometimes, of course, that choice is an illusory choice. In other words, we are really only pretending to give our students a choice by using the options that satisfy our learning goals and objectives. Another benefit to using modal operators is that they make it easy to embed suggestions for our students. Below, we have underlined some of the embedded suggestions.

- "You shouldn't read quickly just because your teacher says so... you can read more quickly because you know it is good for you, don't you?"
- "You may like to read more quickly by letting your eyes dance across the page. You could read faster by relaxing, or you could simply read faster by focusing your attention in whatever way is best for you. It is really your choice."
- "Before you write as many words as possible, you don't have to think of all the interesting things that you have done this week. You might just remember some of the things that you saw perhaps at school, at home, or somewhere else. You may even remember some of the things that you heard such as what people said, a TV show you watched, or maybe even some music that you listened to."
- "You could begin to enjoy writing English in this course, or perhaps you have always been able to enjoy writing English, and you might start to enjoy writing English even more."

Comparative Deletion

In a *comparative deletion*, we use a comparative adjective such as "faster" or "better", but we do not specify what it is being compared to. In the examples below, the listener can understand the comparisons as being to last year, or to their current ability, or to someone else. All of these are valid and useful interpretations that match the learning objective of developing a faster reading/writing ability.

- "This time, you can just read faster, be better, easily … now."
- "You are able to write more quickly and enjoyably at this time."

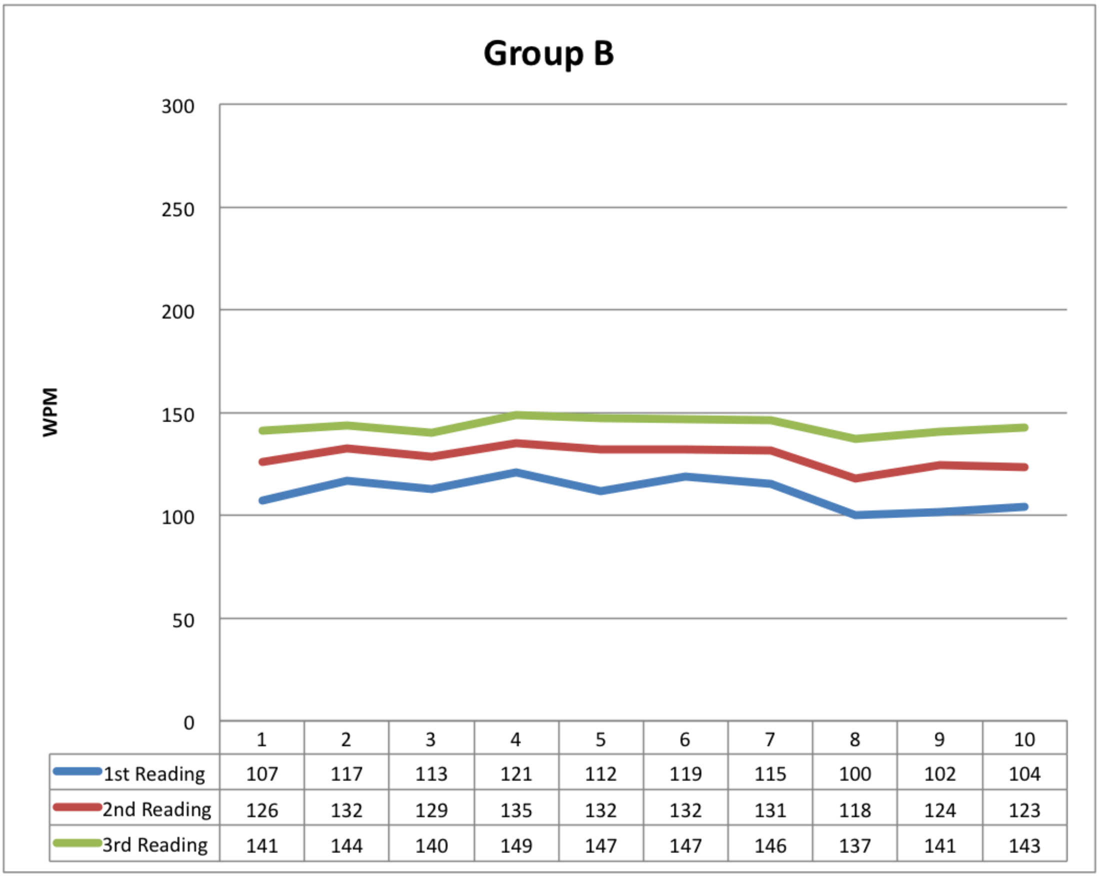
Yes-Sets

A *Yes-Set* consists of several truisms or pacing statements, such as statements that are easy to agree with, followed by a leading statement that we want the learners to accept. The leading statements are italicized below.

- "So, you're sitting at your desk and we are here again together this afternoon. You can remember that at the beginning of the class we started with timed reading. I can see that you have your book with you today. *And that means you can begin reading as much as you can within the next 10 minutes starting now.*"

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1st Reading	148	147	169	168	163	162	190	175	184	183
2nd Reading	176	166	188	186	192	186	218	207	209	209
3rd Reading	193	186	206	205	212	211	244	235	241	246

Figure 1. Group A over ten weeks



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1st Reading	107	117	113	121	112	119	115	100	102	104
2nd Reading	126	132	129	135	132	132	131	118	124	123
3rd Reading	141	144	140	149	147	147	146	137	141	143

Figure 2. Group B over ten weeks

- "So, we are all here together again in class this Friday. And it's another beautiful sunny day outside this morning. I can see that you have put your bags in the back of the room and that you have your materials for today ready on your desks. You can see that today's topic, 'this week', is on the board. *And that means we can write as much as possible about 'this week' now.*"

Tag Questions

Tag questions are a little more difficult to disagree with, aren't they? And we can use them in the classroom to help students to learn more effectively, can't we?

- "You want to read faster, don't you?"
- "It's good to be able to write English quickly, isn't it?"

Delivering Suggestions

Of course, how you say something is just as important as what you say. In earlier work (Cullen et al., 2013), we explained how to use analogue marking to embed important messages. Analogue marking involves using verbal and non-verbal cues to highlight specific words or phrases of a sentence. This marking or highlighting of specific words is to facilitate an attentive state which can act as a catalyst for increased learning and allow the embedded suggestions to be more easily accepted.

Language Patterns in Action

Below, we present condensed summaries of the results from one study on timed reading (Cullen, 2013) and another on timed writing (Deacon, 2013 in progress), both of which involved the teacher making deliberate use of Milton Model language patterns over a semester.

Table 1
Change in reading speed (%) over ten weeks

	Group A	Group B
1st Reading	+24%	-3%
2nd Reading	+19%	-2%
3rd Reading	+27%	+1%

Study 1: Timed Reading

Repeated reading and timed reading have both been shown to help develop the eye movements and cognitive patterns required for faster reading (Taguchi et al., 2004). Accordingly, a timed-reading study was carried out in a semester-long weekly English class with two groups of students: Group A (experimental group; *n*=38) and Group B (control group; *n*=38). Each week, students read a text of about 800 words three times (for 3 minutes, 2 minutes, and 1 minute, respectively). Students then calculated and recorded their reading speed in words per minute (wpm).

Figures 1 and 2 show the change in average reading speed for Group A and B over the ten weeks of the study. Table 1 shows the percentage changes.

While Group A had a steady and substantial increase over the semester, Group B showed little change and even a slight decrease. This difference between the two groups correlates with the controlled use of teacher language patterns. In addition to the quantitative gains, Group A (the experimental group) also showed more motivation in reading as demonstrated by the students' enjoyment in comparing their speeds, and competing both with each other and with their own previous results.

Table 2
Difference between baseline (pre-test) and final timed-writing (post-test) writing speed changes measured by words, and group differences

Group	Baseline (pre-test)	Post-test	Pre-test to post-test
Experimental n = 16	141.47	208.56	+67.09
Control n = 20	114.79	130.05	+15.26
Differences	+26.68	+78.51	+51.83

Study 2: Timed Writing

In order to develop greater writing fluency, a 13-week timed-writing activity was introduced into a coordinated curriculum at a four-year private Japanese university. The participants included 36 freshman university students who were attending required first-year writing classes for non-English majors.

The students were randomly divided into an experimental group and a control group. These groups became the experimental (n=16) and control groups (n=20), respectively. A baseline pre-test was given to determine initial writing speeds for both groups before the experiment was conducted. The baseline (pre-test) scores were compared with the final timed writing (post-test). The dependent variable was the students' writing speed taken at these two different times. The independent variables were group division (the experimental group and the control group) and the time measured (pre-test and post test results). The following research questions were explored:

> RQ1: Did the timed-writing intervention have an impact on the experimental group's ability to increase their writing speed?
>
> RQ2: What were the differences, if any, in the number of words written between the experimental and control group?

Table 2 provides the results taken from the pre-test and post-test. The results show that the experimental group, while ahead on the baseline test by an average of 26.68 words initially, shot up by a difference of 78.51 average words on the post-test compared to the control group. The experimental group increased their writing speed by 67.09 average words from the pre-test to post-test, while the control group increased by only 15.26 average words. Over the same time period, the experimental group improved by 51.83 average words compared to the control group. Clearly, the answer to the research questions above are that the experimental group benefited from the intervention as the numbers reported herein indicate.

Conclusions

Based on the results in the two studies above it is clear that language patterns do, in fact, have an impact on student's ability to read and write faster. First, careful use of language patterns by teachers does help students to get into appropriate learning states that allow them to more fully focus on the goals (such as reading and writing faster) of their lessons. Second, students can achieve more when they are guided to first imagine what it is that we want them to do via the stimulus and the suggested beliefs to achieve more that are suggested through language patterns, resulting in an enhanced ability to achieve what it is that we actually want them to do. Reading and writing are solitary endeavors and students often struggle beforehand to get into a focused state prior to engaging in these activities. Language patterns can help students to achieve a more focused state of mind through their power of suggestion. On the other hand, the absence of such stimulus can limit a student's ability to both begin the process of reading and writing and sustain it during a timed period. Third, simply leading students to our desired outcomes is not enough; rather, they can achieve more when they are adequately paced beforehand. Teachers have an impact on their students' success through the language they use to structure classroom activities. Thus, it is not only crucial that we become more aware of the language patterns that we are actually using with our students now, but also that we structure our language to facilitate greater learning. In doing so, we can create more empowering messages for our students which, in turn, will support their learning potential.

John & Sally Story: Part 2

So, Sally stood dumbfounded and was waiting curiously for John to explain why he had been teaching to an empty classroom. John, as confident as could be, then boasted, "Yes, thaaat's riiight. Well, they pay me to teach, and that's what I was doing."

"It's at moments like these," Sally told me, "that you realize that teaching and learning are two separate things."

We also can't help being aware of this significant difference between teaching and learning. Moreover, we wonder how John and his students might benefit from exposure to Milton Model language patterns and the differences they could make to their teaching and learning experiences likewise. Thaaat's riiight... .

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Foregrounding Learner Research for TBL Activities

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This paper describes how through a semester-long program, a task-based course was designed and implemented where learners conducted fortnightly research assignments on several culturally orientated topics, before engaging in a cycle of sharing and exchanging these materials with other class members. Informed by previous studies, a framework was developed to guide the construction of the course and also to evaluate the success of the course. The paper demonstrates how foregrounding learner-generated information contributes positively towards collaborative and cooperative learning in class, raises accountability, and encourages greater learner autonomy by giving learners the motivation and impetus to share research and use the research of others in order to achieve an end goal. This paper also details an approach that reduces bias amongst cultural lesson content, particularly by removing English "target cultures" as a central focus, while contributing towards the desired outcomes of the course.

本稿は1学期間のプログラムを通して、タスクベーストの授業をいかにデザインし実践したかを記述する。この授業は2週間毎に様々な文化に関するリサーチ課題を学生が行い、その後学生間で課題の共有や交換を繰り返すというものである。本稿は学習者が作り出した情報を前景化することが、クラス内での協働学習および協同学習にどのような効果をもたらすか、アカウンタビリティーをいかに向上させられるのか、授業目標到達のために課題を共有したり他の学習者の課題を使うという刺激や動機付けを学習者に与えることが、自律学習にいかにプラスに働くかという点を論ずる。また授業内容として、特別に英語圏の文化を文化の中心としない、文化に対する公平な姿勢がいかに授業の望ましい結果をもたらすかを詳述する。

Foregrounding Learner Research for TBL Activities

This paper describes the development and piloting of a culturally-oriented, task-based EFL course taught over two years at a Japanese university. With a view to increasing student autonomy and accountability on the course, as well as fostering co-operative and collaborative learning, student-generated research was favoured and foregrounded in place of professionally produced materials. In this paper we will first provide a review of the literature investigating co-operative learning, student autonomy, and approaches to culture in the classroom, before providing a framework for course design based on this literature. Following this, the paper describes the structure of the course, and finally discusses how well the course met the criteria specified in the framework. Finally, the paper suggests some ways that the course could be improved in the future.

Turner, M., & Lowe, R. (2014). Foregrounding learner research for TBL activities. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 138-144). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

Literature Review

Nunan (2004) defines a task as "a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form" (p.10). When designing the course described in this paper, there were two key areas that were taken into consideration in relation to tasks; cooperative and collaborative learning, and student autonomy and accountability. In addition, as this was intended to be a culturally-oriented course, we wanted to investigate approaches to culture in the classroom. The literature for each of these topics will briefly be reviewed below, and reasons given for why these were felt to be appropriate focuses for the course. Due to space constraints, this literature review will be limited only to the particular literature which was taken into account when designing the course.

Culture in the Classroom

The appropriate teaching of culture has long been a concern of ELT practitioners. Culture is ever-present in classroom practices and exchanges, and the best approach to take to the teaching of culture, and to the model of culture taught, has been questioned and examined by several authors (see Kramsch, 1998; Guest, 2002; Nault 2006; Baker, 2011 for an overview). The teaching of culture has often been aspirational in nature, as the language is associated with a particular "target culture" – a community with which the learners are presumed to wish to interact. English has primarily been associated with the "target cultures" of Britain and North America, however one can no longer necessarily equate English to these countries. Since Kachru's (1992) descriptions of world Englishes and Graddol's (2006) commentary on language development and change, the belief that the English language can be fixed to one culture and community alone is neither warranted nor realistic (Nault, 2006), and this changing understanding needs to be reflected in classroom practice.

This has presented a challenge for material writers designing texts, who have been forced to consider the appropriate encoding of culture into language content, imagery and exercises. Writers such as Gray (2010) have discussed these challenges in detail, while Meddings and Thornbury (2009) have called largely for the sidelining of published materials, instead favouring learner-found or authentic texts over culturally-laden published materials. These concerns were taken into consideration by the designers of the course described in this paper.

Cooperative and Collaborative Learning in Relation to Tasks

Cooperative learning is considered to be an important and effective element of second language acquisition, and a review of the major literature by Liang, Mohan, and Early (1998) into its use in EFL contexts found that "cooperative learning offers second language learners more opportunities for interaction in their L2 and helps them improve second language proficiency" (p.14). More recent research has supported this view (see Oxford 2011;Sachs, Candlin, & Rose 2003), and cooperative learning has also come to be recognized as an important aspect of task-based approaches. Jacobs (1998) provides a list of possible advantages of group-based tasks, including increasing learner motivation and increasing the variety and quantity of speech acts. In confirmation of these potential benefits, Storch (2001) found that students gained many advantages from engaging collaboratively in tasks, including scaffolding each other's constructions, and the co-construction of texts and knowledge.

The existing literature strongly suggests that cooperative and collaborative learning hold many benefits for students, and if engaged in during task-based approaches, can increase opportunities for using a variety of language, co-constructing knowledge, increasing motivation, and increasing independence. For these reasons, cooperative and collaborative learning were a major focus in designing this course.

Student Autonomy and Accountability in Relation to Tasks

Student autonomy is another area that has been well researched (see Murray, Gao, & Lamb 2011; Yang 1998), and a focus has been put on autonomy in the theory and formulation of task-based approaches to learning (Cotterall, 1995). Synthesizing some of this previous research, Little (2007) provides a list of desirable traits for the autonomous classroom, which are given below:

- The target language is the preferred medium of communication.
- The teacher supports the learners in looking for "good learning activities".
- Within the curriculum, learners set their own goals and choose their own learning activities.
- Individual learning goals are pursued partly via collaborative group work.
- All learners keep an individual written record of their learning – facilitating a focus on form, and encouraging memorization.
- Learning is regularly evaluated in the target language.

(Adapted from Little, 2007)

Student autonomy is, then, a central component of task-based approaches, and should be a major focus for teachers and curriculum designers. In the course discussed in this paper, autonomy was encouraged, and this was attempted though the development of student accountability.

In relation to tasks, student accountability is crucial because, as Nunan (2004) explains, "outcomes will…be affected by learner's perceptions about what they should contribute to task completion" (p.15). Holding students accountable for their work will give them a level of focus and personal connection with the task, driving them from a passive "survival orientation" towards the task to a more active "achievement orientation" (Breen, 1987). For this reason, in designing this course it was decided that building in student accountability would help to foster autonomy and motivation among the students.

Framework for Course Construction

Building on the literature discussed in the previous section, we decided to develop a course that held to the following criteria:

- Reduce bias towards any particular target culture and promote diversity.
- Maximize communication in the target language.
- Contain collaborative group work.
- Maximize student autonomy and accountability.
- Contain regular assessment in the target language.
- Involve learners keeping a record of their learning.

In the next section we will describe the course which was constructed with these criteria in mind.

Course Description

This section provides a description of the course that was designed. This section also covers the context of the course, the structure of the course, and the task-cycle model which was created.

Course Context

The course with which this study is concerned was named "Comparing Cultures", and was delivered and administered to female, pre-intermediate, tertiary-level learners at a private university in Tokyo, Japan. The course was a compulsory component of study for students of the English communication department, all of whom were in their second-year of study. Classes consisted of no more than twenty students, and each class was taught in a unified, team-teaching environment; in that all teachers associated with this program followed a mutually agreed upon course structure, shared groups and assessments, and kept on pacing with one another. The course designers were tasked with designing a culturally-oriented course of study, however all other planning decisions such as curriculum building, content, and modes of assessment were the responsibility of the course designers and teachers.

Course Structure

The course took place over a 15 week-long semester, starting with a week of orientation and culminating in a final week of assessment. Following this, the course was organized into "task-cycles", each focusing on a different topic area, and each lasting two weeks. These were as follows:

Weeks 2-3 'Clothing'
Weeks 4-5 'Festivals'
Weeks 6-7 'Food'
Weeks 8-9 'Crafts'
Weeks 10-11 'Famous Places'
Weeks 12-13 'People and History'
Weeks 14-15 'Tourism'

The course content was based on student research into different countries, and in the first week the students selected a country to study in small groups of two or three. This country would remain the focus of their research during the course, with all groups researching different countries. The students could choose their preferred country from a limited selection of countries, and were expected to keep concise research assignments in notebooks.

Course Task-Cycle

This section will detail more about how the previously mentioned task-cycles were organized and taught. Each task-cycle took two weeks to complete, in which the students received four 90-minute lessons. The first week of the two focused on pre-teaching some useful language, for example during the "food" task-cycle, language items such as phrasal verbs related to cooking were taught and practiced. The students were then set "fact finding tasks" (Willis & Willis, 2007), which took the form of research assignments based on each topic area. The students were required to complete these before the commencement of the second week of each task-cycle. A typical example of a research assignment on the same topic consisted of the learners finding some information about famous food from their country of research, and then producing a written record of the information they found. In order to keep learner research consistent (which would help to facilitate later stages of the cycle), the students were given pre-specified pieces of information to find. For example, on the same topic, students researched a local recipe and the method of preparation.

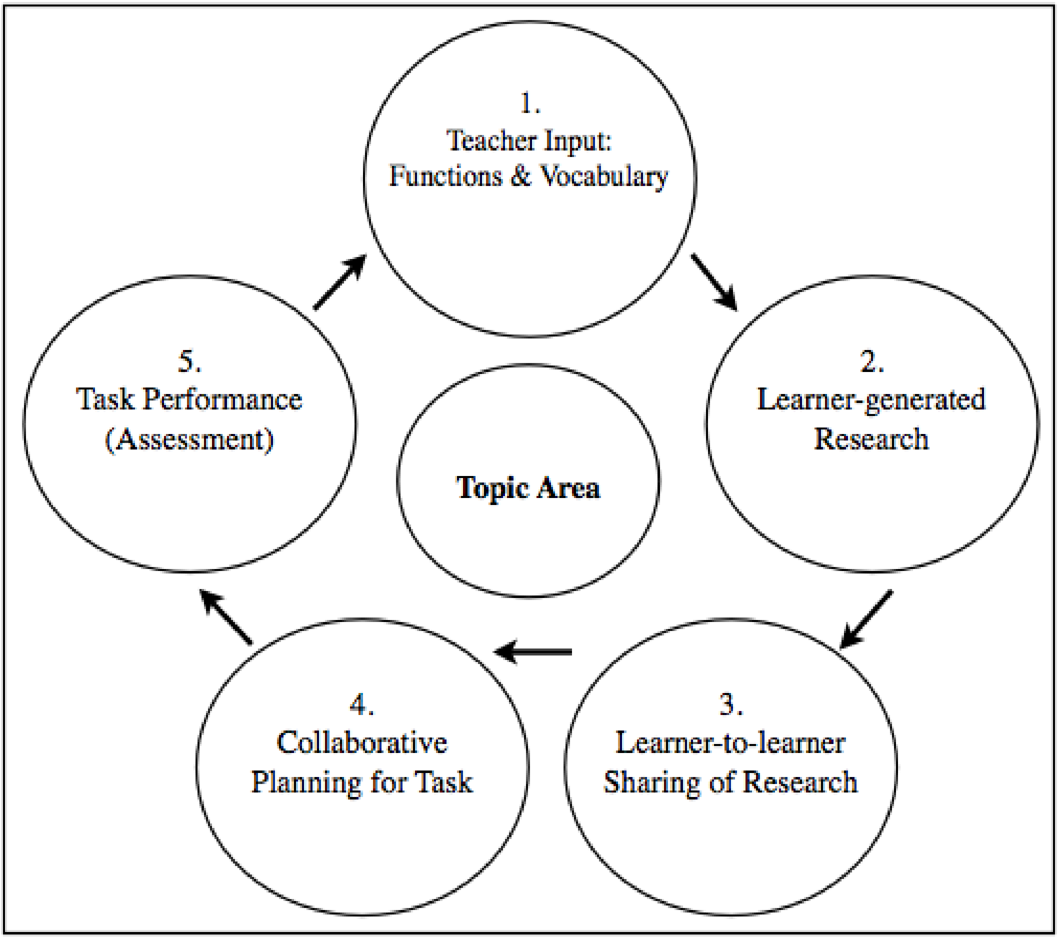

Figure 1. Course Task-Cycle

In the second week these findings were used as content and stimuli for a variety of tasks involving the students collaborating with others from different research groups, using the information they had gathered during their homework assignment. The first part of this collaborative process was a "sharing" task, in which learners assumed roles and described their research findings to each other. This was then followed by a planning and presentation task; for example, during the "festivals" topic the students designed a festival on campus, which included exhibits and events from their researched countries. Once planning was completed, the students were then formally assessed on a presentation of their festival plan, with assessment criterion concerning the use of the target language, the quality of their research, and accuracy. This task-cycle is illustrated by Figure 1.

Evaluation Against the Framework

Earlier we provided a framework for course construction. This section now evaluates the course described above against each of the points specified in that framework.

Reduce Bias Towards any Particular Target Culture and Promote Diversity

The course involved the students engaging in research about a particular country. The available countries were all selected from the outer and expanding circle of English use (Kachru, 1992); a decision made intentionally so that students could use English with reference to countries other than those traditionally considered as "target cultures" of English learners. Furthermore, as the students engaged in information sharing using their research, they were not focused solely on one country during their tasks, but were rather considering aspects of culture from a variety of perspectives. In this way, bias was reduced towards any particular target culture and diversity amongst a variety of cultures was promoted.

Maximize Communication in the Target Language

During the task-cycle, the students were engaged initially in language work which would aid them in the completion of each task. In the second week of each task-cycle, students were not only engaged in communicative activities, but were also required to participate in extended tasks (e.g. planning a festival), which required negotiation and genuine communication. This culminated in an assessed task in which the students were again required to communicate their ideas to a larger group of people. Throughout each task-cycle, the students were engaged in meaning-focused and communicative tasks, all of which allowed for extensive communication in the target language.

Contain Collaborative Group Work

As the students were placed into research groups, research was often collaborative. More crucially, in the second week of each task-cycle, the students would engage in a "planning" task, in which they were required to work collaboratively with members of other research groups to complete a task which involved planning and negotiation (e.g. organizing a fashion show). These tasks were largely group-based and collaborative, and occurred in each task-cycle.

Maximize Learner Autonomy and Accountability

The fact-finding tasks, in the form of learner research, were crucial in fostering learner autonomy and accountability throughout the course. The students were held accountable for completing the research by both the teacher and their classmates, who would be inconvenienced by a group member failing to complete the task. Further to this, the majority of students showed pride and satisfaction in their work, often producing elaborately decorated notebooks of their research findings and engaging enthusiastically in the tasks. It therefore seems that the course was successful in maximizing learner autonomy and accountability.

Contain Regular Assessment in the Target Language

During the task-cycle, the learners received constant feedback on their task performance. This feedback was informal and un-assessed, but was designed to encourage learners in their work and to help guide their completion of the tasks. Each cycle ended on an assessed task. The students were assessed on the success of their communication during the task, the use of the function language, the quality of their research, and language accuracy.

Learners Keep a Record of Learning

During the course, the learners were engaged in "fact-finding" tasks which took the form of research assignments. This research was written up in a notebook, and marked by the teachers. This helped the students to focus on their language development, as well as keep a record of their progression through the course, both in terms of content and language.

Problems and Further Developments

Overall, the course largely met the criteria specified in the earlier framework, however there was one issue which would need to be addressed in the future.

As the course was intended to foreground learner research, it is notable that there were no explicitly-taught research skills during the course. In future, a research-skills based component should be incorporated. While the majority of students completed their research assignments as expected, there were several incidents of plagiarism and machine-translation. While obvious to the markers, the students were cautioned after any initial instances, with more severe penalties such as reduced grades being introduced as the course progressed. Simple awareness-raising at the start of the course would have prevented this from being an issue, however we understand this to be one of the drawbacks of relying on learner-generated research.

Conclusion

As described earlier, the course was designed with a framework of goals in mind which were largely met. This program took a unique approach to task formulation in its prominent use of learner research to provide class content and support for tasks. Arguably this resulted in raised learner autonomy and accountability, and ample opportunities for collaborative group work during tasks in which target language communication could be utilised. As desired, biases towards specific target cultures were reduced, with the students instead being invited to discuss a range of topic areas from a variety of diverse cultural perspectives. While factors such as research skills would need to be better integrated in any future incarnations of this program, this study has provided an example of a successful attempt to create a course in which the foregrounding of learner research encouraged learner autonomy, collaborative group work, and increased levels of motivation.

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Educational Manga Textbook Activity Preferences

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This article reports on an analysis of tasks which accompany manga in an educational manga textbook. Student preferences for each type of activity was determined by a completion-rate analysis of activity groups that included: dialogue completion, sentence writing, list making, partial business document writing, chart completion, checklist creation, blank filling, sentence completion, quiz or matching activities, listening comprehension, name writing or signing, and journal writing tasks. Task types with particularly high completion rates were: listening comprehension, partial business document writing, name writing or signing, and chart completion. Those with particularly low completion rates were: checklist creation and list making. Although generalization of these results may not be appropriate, they do provide evidence that students do have preferences for some types of tasks over others.

この論文では、教育マンガのタスクの分析結果を報告する。学生のタスクについての優先順位を調べるため、タスクをグループに分け、それぞれのグループの完成率を計算した：対話の完成、文章の作成、リスト作り、履歴書などの一部分の作成、チャートの完成、チェックリストの作成、穴埋め問題、文章の完成、クイズや答え合わせ、リスニング、名前やサインの書き方、ジャーナル・ライティング。特に完成率の高かったタスク・グループは、リスニング、履歴書などの一部分の作成、名前やサインの書き方、チャートの完成。特に完成率が低かったタスク・グループは、リスト作りとチェックリストの作成。この結果の一般化が適切でない場合があるが、学生は好みのタスクのタイプがあるという証拠になる。

Introduction

One challenge of being a teacher is to provide engaging tasks to facilitate student learning. Many teachers would agree that choosing appropriate learning materials is an important facet of meeting this challenge. In order to provide students with an engaging textbook, this teacher/researcher turned to educational manga, the visual stimuli of which appeal to the majority of the body's sensory receptors (since 70% are located in the eyes - according to Wolfe, 2010). Since attention is invoked by emotion and encourages learning (Cary, 2004), the emotional intimacy often found in manga can also facilitate learning. Further, manga provides a visual representation of conversation, which can also be useful for language learning: "When we learn another language, we often, if not always, use images to assist us. In fact, many literacy scholars would state that the use of image literacies in language learning is much more than an established pedagogical practice" (Monnin, 2010, p. 123).

Therefore, there is no reason to dismiss the option of using educational manga in the English language classroom just because it is not the traditional way of teaching and learning. As Johnston (2005) explains,

Ogawa, E. (2014). Educational manga textbook activity preferences. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 145-154). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

"Imagine an alternate world to ours save one techno-historical change: video games were invented and popularized *before* books. In this parallel universe, kids have been playing games for centuries – and then these page-bound texts come along and suddenly they're all the rage. What would the teachers, the parents, and the cultural authorities have to say about this frenzy of reading?" (p. 19). Indeed, it is important that educators seek effective teaching materials and learning tasks without prejudice.

This may include the acceptance of learning tasks provided by educational manga and the like in our classrooms. While the term *educational manga* is used to refer to the particular textbook used in this study (partially because of the inclusion of many educational tasks), similar materials are sometimes referred to as graphic novels. Since Mouly (2010) equates the term *graphic novels* with *comics*, it is appropriate to look at a definition of *comics* to better understand what an *educational manga* is. One such definition is that comics are "juxtaposed pictorial and other images in deliberate sequence, intended to convey information and/or to produce an aesthetic response in the viewer" (McCloud, 1993, p. 9). Monnin (2010) explains that graphic novels and comics can be used to develop reading and writing skills at various stages of the language learning process. She identifies learning tasks for each level, such as discussing the elements of the story, identifying sequences, and writing readers' theatres. Meanwhile, improved student understanding and classroom discussion activities due to the visual scaffolding of manga is documented by Uchida, Orita, Kunigami, Terano, and Yoshikawa (2012) with their study of "manga textbooks" (p. 1).

The above examples show that educational manga lends itself to useful and meaningful learning activities. In order to provide improved content and language support for their students, the author and a colleague developed an educational manga for university English language classrooms (Ogawa, 2013a). With this textbook, besides reading and participating in the story, students also complete a variety of tasks. As a teacher, a materials writer, and a researcher, the author wondered which types of tasks were the most engaging for her students. Therefore, she examined the completion rates of different activity types by 71 students in two of her classes in order to determine student preferences for these various types of tasks. This article reports on this analysis while aiming to answer the following research question: Which types of activities were preferred by these students? And conversely: Which were not?

Methodology

A specifically-designed educational manga named *At the Riverside Café* (see Appendix A for a sample page) was used by the author with two class groups, each for fourteen 90-minute class periods in the second half of the autumn semester of 2012. The students in these two English classes were high-beginner or low-intermediate Business-major Japanese university students. This English-language educational manga was designed to teach English as a Foreign Language students how to write an English resume, prepare for an interview in English, and prepare other job-hunting documents in English. It also discusses issues related to work and provides a context of an English working business environment. On the last day of each class, and during the few days following, 71 textbooks were collected for analysis. This number equals the total number of students who completed the course in the two classes in which the author used the textbook in that semester.

To analyze the completion rates of each task, first the author categorized each task and grouped them into the 12 task types presented in this paper: dialogue completion, journal writing, listening comprehension, partial business document writing, checklist creation, quiz or matching activities, chart completion, list making, blank filling, sentence completion, sentence writing, and name writing or signing. Examples of these 12 different types of activities are provided in Appendix B. Next, the author tediously went through every textbook noting whether each activity was completed satisfactorily, attempted but not completed, or not even attempted. This analysis took several full days of work and was completed over a period of a few weeks. Due to the subjective nature of such an analysis, ideally this would have also been done by an independent reviewer. However, this was not possible due to the time-consuming nature of this type of analysis.

Results

Table 1 shows the completion rates of each of the 12 task types, listed down the far left column. The textbook has six units. Some of these task types were included once in each unit, for a total of six times in the textbook. Others were not included in every unit. The number of times each task type appears in the textbook is listed in the column "Number of Tasks". This number is multiplied by 71 (the number of textbooks analyzed) to provide the numbers in the next column, "Total". These are then separated into the three columns on the right, which show the percentages of those tasks which were "Completed", "Semi-Done", and "Not Attempted". "Completed" refers to a task which a student completed satisfactorily, according to what was expected of them. "Semi-Done" refers to a task which a student attempted but only partially completed. "Not Attempted" refers to a task for which a student did not write anything.

Looking down the Completed column, it is clear that dialogue completion, listening comprehension, partial business document writing, quiz or matching activities, chart completion, and name writing or signing activity types had comparatively high completion rates. On the other hand, looking down the Not Attempted column, journal writing, checklist creation, list making, and sentence writing activity types were more likely to have not even been attempted. Task types with particularly high completion rates (more than two-thirds completed) were: listening comprehension, partial business document writing, name writing or signing, and chart completion. Those with particularly low completion rates (more than two-thirds not attempted) were: checklist creation and list making.

It should be noted that the students who provided their textbooks for this analysis are part of a larger group who completed a questionnaire survey distributed in class at the end of the course (an analysis of which is reported in Ogawa, 2013b). In the comments section of that survey, 28 of the 71 students whose textbooks were analyzed for this paper wrote comments about the textbook tasks, as per below. One question asked respondents to write (or list) which tasks they were glad they did, such as practicing their signature or typing their cover letter on the computer. In response to this question, 14 students wrote that writing a resume in English was the best activity, with three of these students clarifying that actually writing an English resume on the computer was what was the most worthwhile. Seven other students wrote that writing a cover letter was best, with four specifying that writing a cover letter on a computer was what

Table 1
Task Completion Rates

Tasks Type	Number of Tasks	Total	Completed	Semi-Done	Not Attempted
Dialogue	6	426	62.9%	27.9%	09.2%
Journal	6	426	30.8%	10.8%	58.5%
Listening	4	284	68.3%	09.2%	22.5%
Documents	6	426	69.0%	11.3%	19.7%
Checklist	6	426	29.8%	00.5%	69.7%
Quiz/Matching	5	355	58.9%	01.7%	39.4%
Chart Completion	6	426	73.0%	08.9%	18.1%
List Making	2	142	22.5%	02.1%	75.4%
Blank Filling	5	355	47.3%	08.7%	43.9%
Sentence Completion	3	213	37.6%	20.7%	41.8%
Sentence Writing	2	142	38.0%	04.9%	57.0%
Write/Sign Name	3	213	66.9%	14.1%	19.0%

was important. Another two students wrote that making both a resume and a cover letter was the best. Four more students wrote comments that did not answer the question directly: two wrote that they had fun learning English, one just wrote the name of the textbook, and one commented that it was easier to understand than a normal textbook. Perhaps the most revealing comment (translated from Japanese) was: "having the opportunity, which I probably would not have ever had, to be able to write a resume in English and to understand how to do it".

Discussions and Conclusions

The above results indicate that these particular students believe writing a resume in English to be a very worthwhile activity. In fact, despite being given examples of specific smaller tasks, most students' comments focused on the main activity of the textbook – that of writing a resume in English. Perhaps this explains the reason for the very high completion rates for document-related tasks. Chart completion tasks also had high completion rates, suggesting that students also found this type of activity engaging.

Conversely, list making, journal writing, checklist making, and sentence writing tasks had low completion rates. In general, these activities required students to produce more language than the other activity types. Whereas many other tasks involved merely filling information into blanks, these four types required students to write in sentences or to answer questions that were likely to be more difficult (or to be perceived to be more difficult) than one-word answers common in the activity types which had high completion rates.

Therefore, we can conclude that these students preferred highly scaffolded activities and tasks which were directly related to the main goal of writing a resume in English. Whether a different group of students (particularly those with higher proficiency levels in English) would also prefer highly scaffolded activities is unknown. Likewise, other students (for example, a group of Literature majors) may not have been as focused on the goal of writing a resume and could in fact have been more engaged in journal writing or other tasks more common in the field of literature. Nevertheless, the results presented in this paper may increase awareness that, as far as student preferences are concerned, not all learning tasks are created equal.

Acknowledgment

The author wishes to acknowledge Helen Hanae as co-author of *At the Riverside Café*, the educational manga used in this study.

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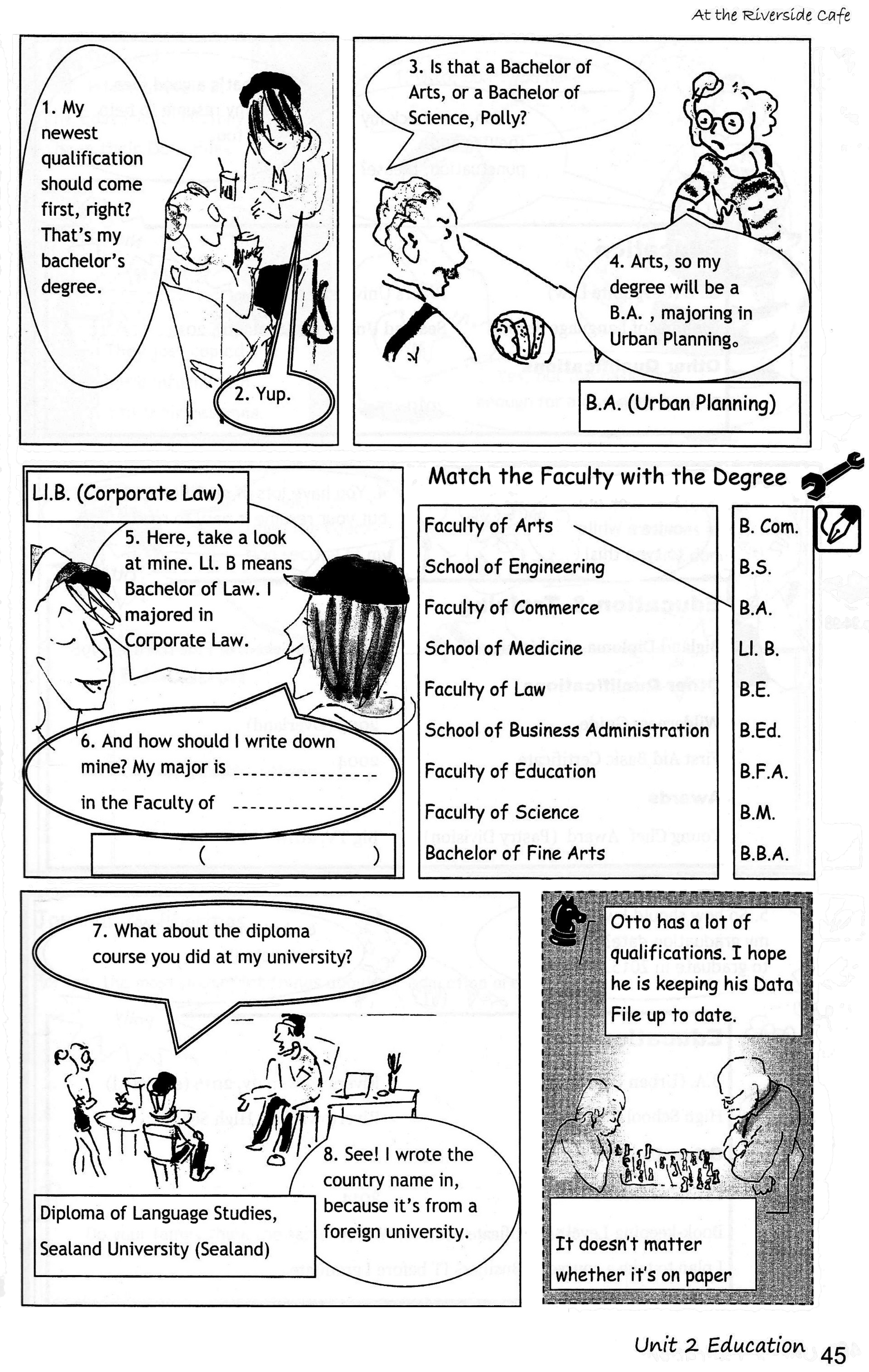
Author's Biography:

Erina Ogawa teaches English at Toyo University. Besides researching the use of educational manga, one of her recent projects investigates the effects of the Great East Japan Earthquake on students' cultural identities, and another examines relationships between student learning beliefs, strategies and confidence.

Appendix A:

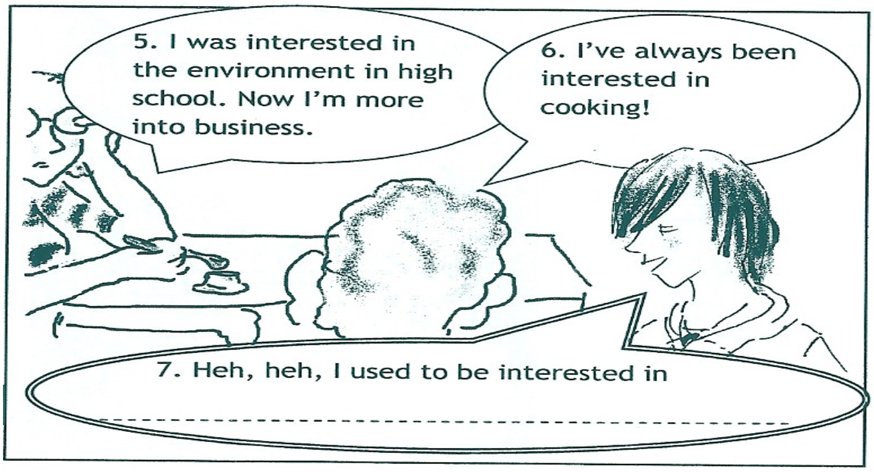
Sample page of educational manga textbook used in this study.



Appendix B:

Samples of Different Activity Types

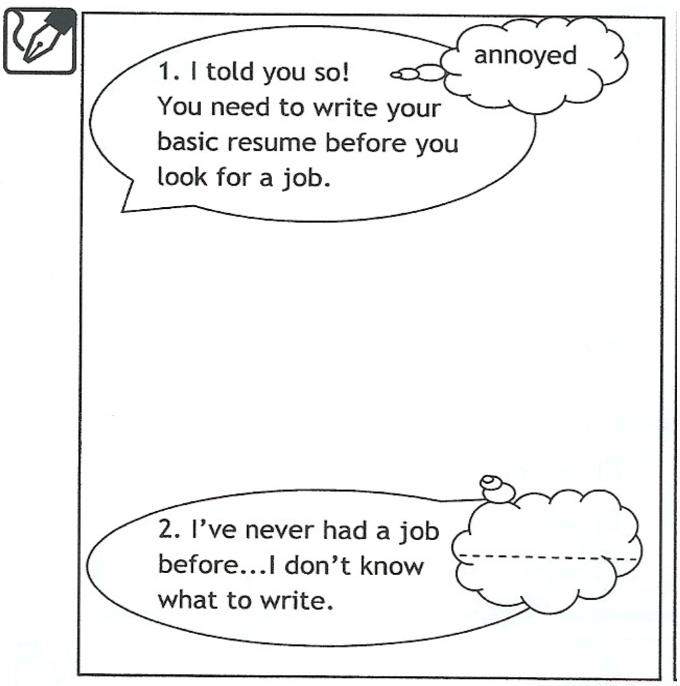
Dialogue Completion



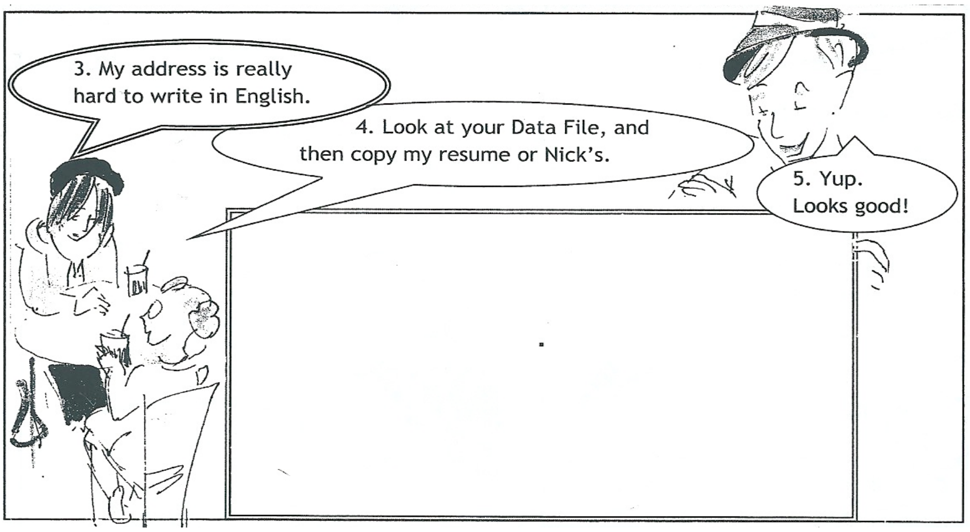
Journal Writing

Journal: If you had a lot of money, would you work? Apart from money, why do people work? How do people who don't work take part in society?

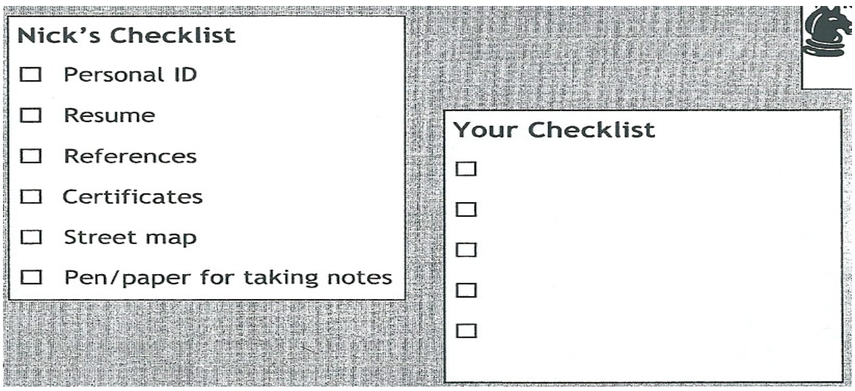
Listening Comprehension



Partial Business Document Writing



Checklist Creation



Quiz or Matching Activities

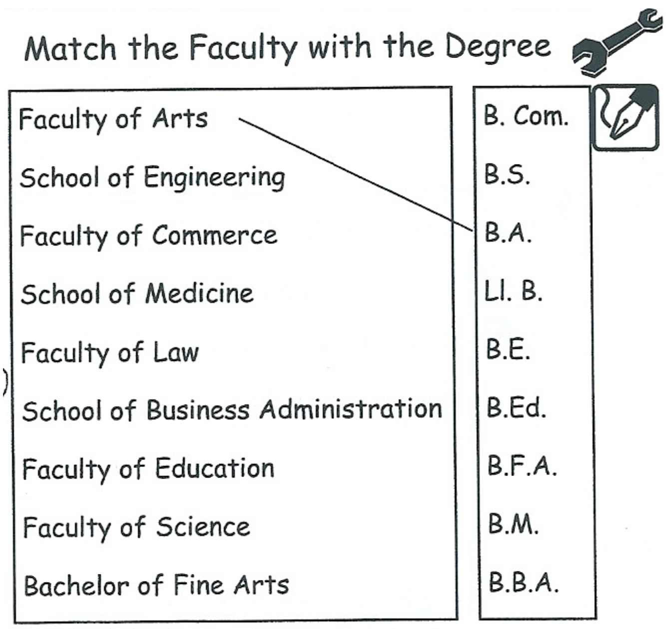
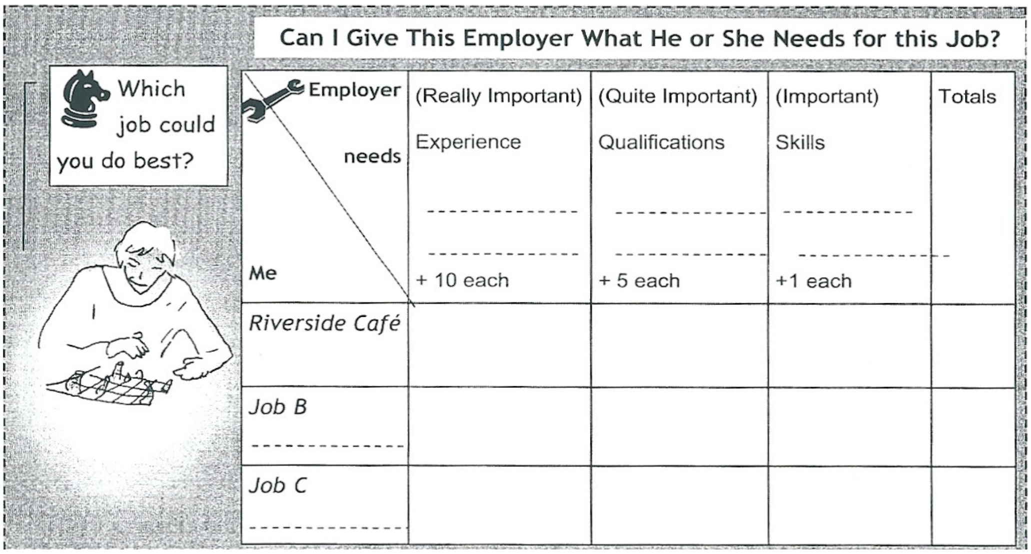
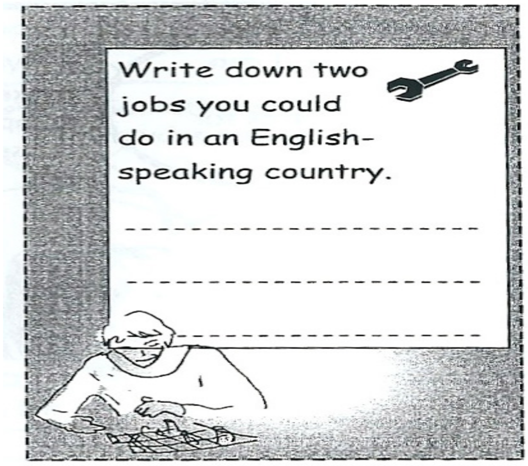


Chart Completion

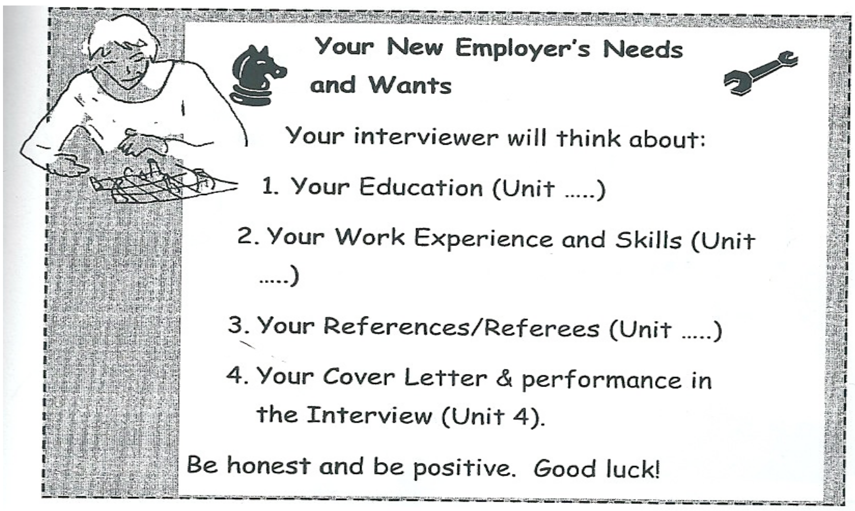


Employer needs / Me	(Really Important) Experience + 10 each	(Quite Important) Qualifications + 5 each	(Important) Skills +1 each	Totals
Riverside Café				
Job B				
Job C				

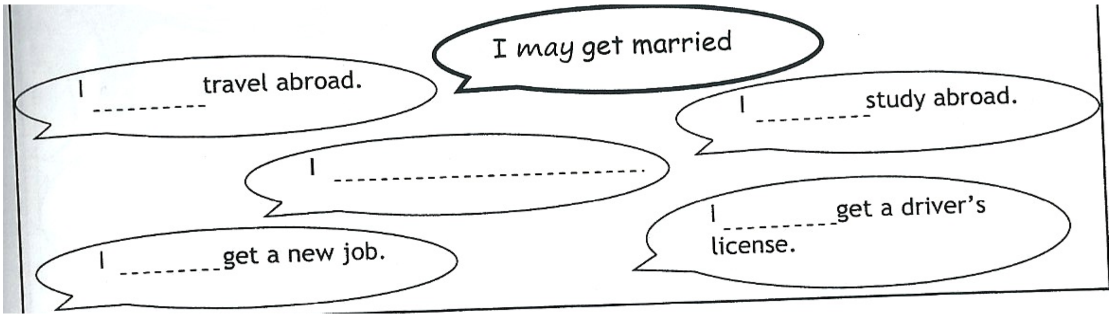
List Making



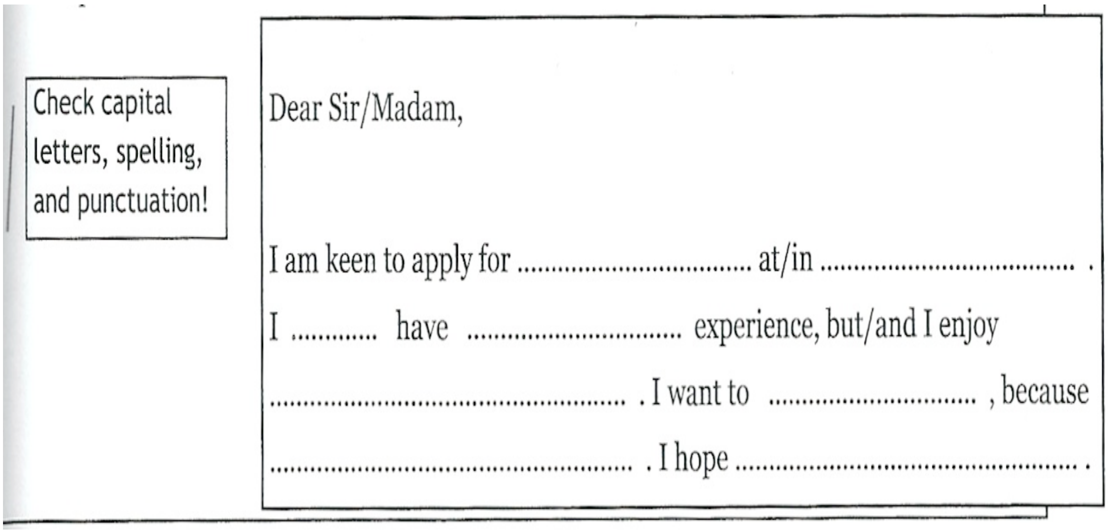
Blank Filling



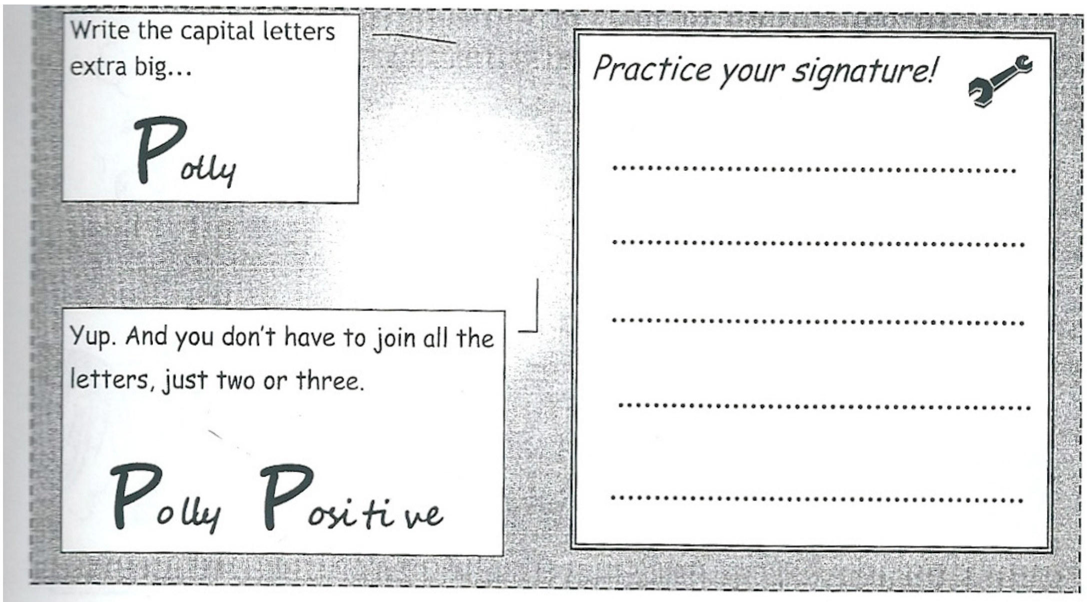
Sentence Completion



Sentence Writing



Name Writing or Signing



Identity in Intercultural Interaction: How Categories Do Things

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Although identity has become a key topic in second language research, it is a problematic notion to research when considered to exist only in the individual's head. By operationalizing identity as the social display of self in relation to others, discourse analytic approaches such as Conversation Analysis (CA) and Membership Categorization Analysis (MCA) instead locate identity in interaction. Thus, this makes identity observable through the sequential details of talk. This paper (1) introduces the CA/MCA approach to identity as a social accomplishment and then (2) applies it to identity ascriptions in a study abroad context and an online English-speaking practice chat room. The analysis initially focuses on the role of epistemics and how discursive displays of knowledge help accomplish identity. It then goes on to demonstrate some of the ways that participants use identity categories as an interactional resource.

アイデンティティーの概念は第二言語研究においても近年その重要性を増しているが、内在的で不可視な存在であるため研究対象としては疑義的なものであった。この研究は、社会的表象としてのアイデンティティーを相互行為の中に突き止めるのではなく、会話分析や成員カテゴリー化分析等の談話分析的手法を用いて会話記録の詳細からアイデンティティーを解明する。まず会話分析と成員カテゴリー化分析の方法論を検証し、それらの分析方法を用いて短期留学とオンライン英会話チャットルームの環境下での帰属意識の表示と機能を分析する。本稿では成員関係の認識的機能と、またその推論的な知識の表示が参加者自らのアイデンティティー完遂にどう機能しているかに焦点を合わせる。そして実際に参加者が成員カテゴリーを会話方策としてどう使用しているか論証する。

Ever since the increase in post-structural approaches to research such as those of Bonnie Norton (2000) and David Block (2003), identity has become a major focus within Applied Linguistics. Teachers and learners alike are interested in the effect that acquiring a second language (L2) can have on the way we see ourselves, and conversely, how we express who we are in another language.

Greer, T., Brandt A., Ogawa, Y. (2014). Identity in intercultural interaction: How categories do things. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 155-164). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

However, one of the problems with much of the research on identity to date has been that it is difficult to make robust claims about a construct that is understood to exist within the individual's head. Such findings are usually based on participant accounts, such as through interviews or diary entries, which ultimately provide insight into people's *reflections* on their identity rather than real-time evidence from actual instances of identity negotiation.

The position that this paper takes, on the other hand, is that the only aspects of our identities that are relevant for other people are those that we make available through interaction, and that we as researchers can track them through the careful analysis of actual instances of talk, just as interactants do in real-time. As such, we treat identity not as an in-the-head phenomenon, but as Bucholtz and Hall have defined it, as “the social positioning of self and other” (2005, p.587).

First and foremost, identity is to be found in sociality; it takes two or more people to *do* identity. It is “talked into being” through the co-constructed meanings that interactants make relevant on a turn-by-turn basis. Using the related micro-discourse analytic approaches of Conversation Analysis (CA) and Membership Categorization Analysis (MCA), this paper focuses on the role of epistemics in accomplishing intercultural identity and demonstrates some of the ways that identity categories can be used as an interactional resource.

How Do We Get at Identity Methodologically?

Before we consider some specific instances of identity in interaction, it is worth outlining the broad methodological stance that CA/MCA adopts with regard to this topic. The approach to identity presented here has developed from the pioneering work of Harvey Sacks during the 1960s (collected as Sacks, 1992). Sacks was arguably the first sociologist to highlight that participants in interaction have multiple potential identity labels; which identity is relevant to any ongoing interaction is not objectively defined, but is a matter for the speaker and his or her interlocutor(s) to decide. Therefore, it is not that talk is used for showing identity, but that identity becomes an interactional resource for getting things done.

Antaki and Widdicombe (1998) put forward a number of key points when considering identity in interaction from a CA/MCA viewpoint. Firstly, once a participant’s identity is made relevant during an instance of interaction, he or she is cast into an identity category with associated characteristics or features. This happens whether he or she is the person speaking, being spoken to, being spoken about, or even acting as an in/out-group member. A group of members is often team-labelled as having the same characteristics or linked to certain category-bound activities (e.g. ‘Punk-Rocker’ associated with ‘acting rough’). Those categorization expressions are based on local, here-and-now understandings determined through *indexicality* (who or what an identity category points to in this instance) and *occasionedness* (how it is brought about in this particular sequence of talk). This means the implications of having any given identity depend greatly on the conversational context. The work that an identity category is doing in any given instance is accessible to participants (and researchers) via its *procedural consequentiality*, the interactional influence it has on the ongoing talk. Finally, any identity that is relevant for the co-participants is made visible in the conversational structure of the talk.

In one sense, CA is people-watching taken to its analytical extremes; through a process of careful observation and meticulous transcription, researchers collect instances of particular conversation patterns within and across data samples and seek to distinguish between different interactional methods in order to describe and account for a range of interactional phenomena (Sidnell, 2010). Similarly, MCA is built on collections of cases, but here the emphasis is more squarely on identity or *membership*. Stokoe (2012) notes that in MCA, collections are of categorial instances of three main sorts: explicit mentions of categories (e.g. Japanese, student, female); membership categorization devices (e.g. family, band member); and category-resonant descriptions (categories that are not explicitly stated but are nonetheless implied). The analyst locates the sequential position of each categorial instance within the ongoing interaction and analyses the design of the turn and the action it accomplishes in order to look for evidence of how recipients orient to those categorial instances. Such research highlights the interactional consequences of a category’s use, co-occurring component features of categorial formulation, and the way speakers build and resist categorization within and between turns.

Finally, it is worth pointing out some of the potential pitfalls of this sort of research. First of all, the notions of membership and identity always belong to the participants, not the researcher. Successful CA/MCA research does not analyze identity from the researcher's subjective viewpoint, but instead aims to address its findings primarily as a demonstrable participant's concern. Researchers must look at how participants act in mundane talk, not pre-arranged situations created solely for research purposes. Furthermore, it should be noted that multiple identity/membership devices are often used spontaneously in talk. In addition, we cannot necessarily generalize features to other interactions, and we should not essentialize the notion of identity/membership (e.g. "S/he used the identity because s/he is Japanese").

This section has summarized the CA/MCA approach to researching identity/membership in interaction. By carrying out brief analyses of actual interaction, the next two sections will go on to discuss some features of intercultural identity categories and the interactional work they help to accomplish.

Epistemics and Intercultural Identity in Interaction

In recent years there has been a growing body of research into interculturality as a topic worth exploring in itself, rather than as an underlying reason to explain the motives behind a given instance of interaction (Mori, 2003; Nishizaka, 1999). A major thread that underpins such research is that intercultural identities are co-constructed in and through interaction and consequently become communicative resources for speakers.

While it could be argued that CA is ultimately about the turn-by-turn co-construction of identity (Heritage & Clayman, 2010), that does not necessarily mean the speakers' intercultural identities will be omnirelevant. This section will examine identity in interaction, particularly in relation to interculturality, by analysing some ways it becomes relevant in actual instances of conversation between a Japanese student and an American family. Pivotal to this analysis will be epistemics, the interactional display of participant claims to knowledge.

Consider Excerpt 1, taken from a dinner table conversation; a Japanese student, Shin, has been staying with an American homestay family in Seattle.

It is difficult to hear anything particularly intercultural going on in this segment; Dad initiates

```
01 Dad:   Did you wan- You brought your camera out.
02        (.)
03 Shin:  Well I- Yes yes
04 Dad:   Did you want to use it, or?
05 Shin:  Yeah, I wanted to use it- ah use that but ah the:
06        battery is run- run [out.
07 Jeni:                      [Do you
08        want ice cream?
09 Shin:  Yes, yes of course.
10 Jeni:  Okay.
```

Figure 1. Excerpt 1: Camera.

an inquiry about Shin's camera and Jeni offers him some ice cream. We do not hear this as intercultural communication because the participants themselves are not orienting to the talk as intercultural at this point. That is not to say there is no identity work happening – it is quite possible to see ways that these inquiries and offers work to socially locate the co-participants within other identity categories, such as *Host* and *Guest*, but these are not intercultural identity categories *per se*.

On the other hand, consider the segment in Excerpt 2 from a few minutes earlier in the same conversation. This time Mom is serving some rice crackers that she has bought.

Here it seems there is a lot more going on in terms of intercultural identities. Mom does not simply put the crackers out. She also invites Shin to comment on them by asking him if he recognizes them, a turn that is formulated in such a way that we can hear Mom expects he will. In other words, she is affording him some level of epistemic status. However, in line 3 Shin gives a minimal response that demonstrates he is unfamiliar with the crackers. Mori (2006) has shown

```
01 Mom:    Do you recognize these crackers?
02 Shin:   ((leans forward, looks at package))
03         He::h
04 Mom:    Feng Shui (('Fung Shway'))
05         (.)
06 Shin:   Feng Shui?
07 Jeni:   Heh-heh-heh-heh ha
08 Mom:    They're Chinese.
09 Shin:   He:::h.
10 Mom:    But the crackers are,
11         (1.3)/((places crackers in bowl))
12 Shin:   Hu:::h
13 Mom:    familiar.
14         (0.7)
15 Mom:    No:?
16         (0.4)
17 Mom:    Do they not look like (.)
16 Shin:   a[: : : h   Yes,  ye]s
17 Mom:     [Japanese crackers?]
18 Shin:   Yes, yes, yes.
19 Mom:    So, you can take the rest on the airplane with
20         you.
```

Figure 2. Excerpt 2: Crackers.

that the Japanese token *hee* treats the prior turn as new information. Mom then explicitly names the crackers (line 4), and Shin again treats this as news by initiating repair, repeating the name with upwards intonation (line 6). Finally Mom uses a category to explicitly identify the snack as Chinese.

When Shin again responds with the news-receipt token *hee* (line 9), Mom reformulates her initial assumption by asking Shin whether they are familiar to him. When he does not respond immediately, she further downgrades her assumption by asking "no?" and reformulates her original turn as a negative question, "Do they not look like Japanese crackers?" Notice how this turn contains a second category which becomes linked to the earlier category, Chinese, as it becomes clear that Mom believes Chinese and Japanese snacks to be sufficiently similar to be classed as the same.

However, Mom is also linking the crackers to Shin's identity, in designing her turn in a way that hearably attributes Shin with some cultural knowledge of the snack and of the word that is used to describe it. The interactants use cultural artifacts and the epistemic rights that go along with them to accomplish interculturality by foregrounding aspects of each other's relative cultural identities through talk.

A similar argument stands in terms of gender. When people meet someone for the first time, they are usually sure whether that person is male or female. That may become relevant to the conversation, or it may not. However, the category is always there and available potentially ready to be invoked through talk by either speaker, as are many other identity categories related to visual attributes like age, size or physical appearance. In the same way, interculturality is just one possible path any given conversation could head. As Antaki and Widdicombe (1998) note, it is not that people:

> passively or latently have this or that identity which then causes feelings and actions, but that they work up and work to this or that identity, for themselves and others, there and then, either as an end in itself or towards some other end. (p.2)

In short, CA views identity not as something we *are*, but as something we *do*. We have seen that participants make relevant cultural difference by orienting to identity categories in talk and through privileging themselves or others with various epistemic statuses, or what Heritage (2012) has called territories of knowledge. Mom makes it public through her actions that she believes Shin should be more knowledgeable about the rice crackers than she is. This in turn impacts on recipient design, the way speakers construct their talk based on what they know about the audience, and so tells us as analysts where and how interculturality becomes relevant for speakers.

The next example will provide further consideration of this relationship between interaction, epistemic rights and identity.

Identity Categories as Interactional Resources

The example in this section is taken from a corpus of Skypecasts— online, multiparty, voice-based chat rooms—in which participants gather to (ostensibly) practice or improve their English. This second language setting has been discussed in more detail elsewhere (Brandt & Jenks, 2013; Jenks, 2009, 2014; Jenks & Firth, 2012), but a couple of observations are particularly germane to the following analysis: (1) participants in these chat rooms tend to be unacquainted, and subsequently spend a lot of time "doing getting acquainted" (Jenks, 2009); (2) since this is an international setting, much of the talk that is involved in getting acquainted pertains to differences in national cultural artifacts, often food (Brandt & Jenks, 2011). The example presented and analysed analysed in Excerpts 3a and 3b is one such case in point.

In this exchange, Mick and Neelz have been discussing topics such as sports and food. As the excerpt begins, the chat room host, Swaroop (represented in the transcript as "Swar") rejoins the room, having earlier left to eat a meal. As stated earlier, the participants' respective national and lingua-cultural identities are not of relevance to the analysis until they become demonstrably relevant to the participants. And as will be seen, some such identities do become relevant, implicitly and, later, explicitly.

After Swaroop announces to the room that he

```
01 Mick:  What was your ↑tea (0.6) what was
02        ↓lunch
03        (4.5)
04 Swar:  I think I'm- if I say you can't
05        understand what I'm had (.)
06        som:e=er chapatti and all
07        (1.3)
08 Mick:  Alright=
09 Swar:  =It's er (0.2) different (now) so
10        you don't know how=what is
11        $tha(hh)t$
12        (2.1)
13 Swar:  (Isn't that)
14        (1.2)
15 Mick:  (*) I don't
16        [know that- I've ↑heard the word ]
17 Neelz: [  I  think h:e knows what  chapa]tti [is ]
18 Mick:                                        [wo-]
```

Figure 3. Excerpt 3a: Chapatti.

has returned, Mick initiates a new topic with him (lines 1-2). At lines 4-6, after a lengthy delay, Swaroop precedes his answer by stating an assumption that Mick will not know what it is that he has eaten. Mick provides a minimal response to this (line 8). After which, Swaroop elaborates by explaining that the food item in question – chapattis – are "different," which is why Mick does not know what it is. Notice that Swaroop has upgraded the certainty of his statement from "I think" (line 4) to a stronger "you don't know... what is that," perhaps in part because Mick's response (line 8) was neutral, minimal, and did nothing to display any knowledge of the item in question. Indeed, a few lines later, Mick aligns with Swaroop's position by confirming that he does not know it (lines 15-16). However, this statement is produced in part in overlap with Neelz who disagress with Swaroop indicating her belief that Mick will know what chapattis are (lines 17-18).

This sequence has much in common with Excerpt

```
19 Swar:  You know ↑that ↓chapatti
20        (0.8)
21 Neelz: .hhhh (.) Yeah w- er- Mick that's
22        like a <tortilla> er wrap kinda
23        thing
24        (1.4)
25 Swar:  Yah
26        (1.9)
27 Neelz: Ye- u- (0.2) erm (0.4) it's like
28        naan bread isn't it
29        (8.4)
30 Swar:  Sorry how can- how come you know
31        that
32        (3.1)
33 Neelz: Because [i'm aysh]e:an ((Asian))that's=
34 Swar:          [ (****) ]
35 Neelz: =why=hehehehh
```

Figure 4. Excerpt 3b: Chapatti.

2, in that participants in this interaction are seen to be displaying their assumptions about others' territories of knowledge. However, unlike in the rice crackers example, here we see a more direct contestation of a participant's epistemic status pertaining to a specific cultural artifact. It might be said then that, here, the relevance of interculturality is being constituted, but subsequently contested. Although no direct mention has been made of any of the participants' identities, Swaroop's assumption suggests to us that some kind of implicit identity work is being done. We can see that identity work is not incontrovertible, but in fact potentially open to being debated.

Swaroop's response to Neelz does continue the debate on Mick's knowledge, or otherwise, of chapattis. Instead, Swaroop displays his surprise that Neelz herself appears to know the item in question (line 20). Neelz confirms that this is the case (line 21), before continuing to describe chapattis to Mick (lines 21-22). She does so by likening it to another food item – tortilla wraps – at lines 22-23. Swaroop agrees with the description (line 25) before Neelz continues by making another comparison, this time to naan bread (line 27-28).

Neelz's descriptions-by-comparison not only serve to aid Mick in his identification of what chapattis are, but also explicitly demonstrate her knowledge. Neelz ends her description with "isn't it?" (line 28) which displays the strength of her epistemic status.

After a particularly lengthy pause (line 29), Swaroop again displays his surprise at Neelz's displayed knowledge, asking directly how she knows about chapattis (lines 30-31). Neelz explains this by invoking an identity category, her ethnicity; she knows chapattis, she says, because she's Asian (lines 33-35).

What is particularly interesting about Neelz's reference to her ethnicity is that she had just previously contested an assumption regarding the relationship between identity categories and epistemic rights. The implication by Swaroop is that Mick's territory of knowledge will not extend to chapattis, presumably because of his ethno-cultural identity, but this is a position which Neelz refuses to accept. And yet here, when asked how she herself is knowledgeable of chapattis, she uses her own ethno-cultural identity of "Asian" as explanation. Here we can see how this "grand identity" of ethnicity can be used as a rhetorical device, a means of achieving an interactional goal.

All readers can surely imagine, and have probably experienced first-hand, how other identities – such as nationality, gender, profession, etc. – might similarly be used by the identity incumbent, or an interlocutor, in order to explain how s/he knows (or does not know) something, or is able (or unable) to perform some action. Of course, the accuracy or appropriateness of these rhetorical uses of identities can be contested. Using identity in such ways is a common feature of spoken interaction in a wide variety of social settings, and when scrutinized in fine detail, provides us with insight into how identity can be used as an interactional resource.

Concluding Discussion

Since the "social turn" in SLA and applied linguistics research (Block, 2003), it has become widely accepted that identity is a fluid, dynamic phenomena, which is neither fixed nor measurable. However, even from this position, there are a number of different approaches for the study of identity. In this paper, we have presented one such way.

Our analysis has argued that identities are locally occasioned in ongoing interaction, and shown how participants themselves work up (and potentially contest) such categories. It has also been shown that such "working up" of, or orientation to, identity category/ies is not done in a social vacuum, but in the service of some other social action or goal. The approach presented here is particularly powerful because of its empirically-grounded nature, which requires analysts to follow the participants' demonstrable orientations.

It is worth remembering that when and whether these varying identities actually matter changes on a moment-by-moment basis, depending upon the context in which the identity incumbents find themselves, and the actions they are undertaking. As seen in the first example, the interaction was not treated as intercultural as Dad, Shin and Jeni discussed ice cream and taking photographs.

While the participants in these interactions are treating some identity categories as relevant to their ongoing social activities, they are also *not* treating many other potential identity categories – for example, their gender, profession or linguistic background – as the most relevant thing about themselves at that moment. This is a particularly important point for SLA and Applied Linguistics research: In their influential critique of SLA research, Firth and Wagner pointed out that second language speakers have "a multitude of social identities, many of which can be relevant simultaneously, and all of which are motile", and lamented that "for the SLA researcher, only one identity *really matters,* and it matters constantly and in equal measure throughout the duration of the encounter being studied" (1997, p. 282). This presumption of the higher relevance of certain factors over others is clearly a problematic position for any researcher to take.

This paper has highlighted how identities can be *seen* to really matter, in specific contexts at particular moments, to the participants *themselves*, through the interactional consequences of the identity being foregrounded. In so doing, we hope to have contributed to a growing body of research which gives the right to determine which identities are relevant to those participants in interaction who are the object of our research.

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Improving Students' Conversational Competence with the Rules of Improvisation

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The rules of improvisation, which are derived from improvised drama, have been gaining attention for their transferability to other fields such as business and education. This paper reports on the results of a study into the effects of learning the rules of improvisation to develop Japanese university students' conversational competence. The students at the center of the study were 275 first year general English students. This paper firstly argues for the applicability of the rules of improvisation in EFL classrooms and proceeds to discuss the results of a preliminary analysis of a sample of the whole study's data.

最近、即興演劇の規則はビジネス、教育など他分野への注意を集めています。

本稿は、日本の大学生の会話能力を開発する即興の規則学習の効果に調査の結果について報告します。研究所の学生は、総合英語 1年生275名でした。本稿はまず英語教育でドラマの適用性と主張し、全体研究データのサンプルの予備的な分析の結果について説明します。

Introduction

Recently there has been increased support for the use drama in language education (Anderson, Hughes and Manuel, 2008; Podlozny, 2000; Winston, 2007); however, for many teachers the impracticalities of implementing such an approach are educational requirements, the classroom environment including factors such as student numbers and noise and the teacher's lack of confidence in utilizing what may be unfamiliar drama approaches. Although there have been attempts to introduce drama techniques by language educators (Kawakami, 2012; Kobayashi, 2012; Malay and Duff, 2005; Miccoli, 2003; Wilson, 2008) there is still a long way to go before drama becomes standard accepted practice in the language classroom. This paper suggests how teachers can use the rules of improvisation as a framework for developing conversational competence in their language classrooms.

Much of the speaking practice that occurs in the language classroom consists of artificial language exchanges happening after preparation and practice (Thornbury, 2008). It may involve students reading scripted role-plays or engaging in question and answer exchanges with the teacher that conforms to initiate, respond, and evaluate (Beghetto, 2010 p.450) formula. In this environment students cannot be said to be engaging their creative mind nor stretching their linguistic ability. Additionally, such interactions do not reflect real world language exchanges where interlocutors do not know how their co-interlocutor will respond in advance, nor does natural conversation

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usually adhere to a neat question and answer flow. There will be hesitations, restarts, misunderstandings, rejection of topics and requests for repetition and clarification. Furthermore, classroom exchanges based on textbook conversations are often formulaic; lacking in originality, excitement and the unexpected. Teachers often find that although students need help in managing conversations, merely practicing role-plays more or learning conversational gambits do not result in the students engaging in naturally sounding exchanges. The teaching of explicit strategies and techniques that provide students with a guide or framework could result in more positive results. The rules of improvisation can help to bring these elements back into the classroom and give students the confidence to become successful communicators and engage in spontaneous conversations. This paper reports the results of a preliminary analysis of a sample data set taken from an ongoing larger study to investigate whether the deliberate teaching of rules of improvisation has an effect on students' ability to engage in small talk.

Improvisation

The rules of improvisation come from a type of theatre performance called improvised drama, which is often, but not always comedy based. They have developed from the work of many theater practitioners including but not restricted to Spolin (1999), Maley and Duff (2005) and Wilson (2008). The purpose of the rules of improvisation is to provide actors with guidelines on how to initiate, manage and maintain language exchanges in a cooperative and productive way. The rules of improvisation are of interest to language educators because they can also be applied to conversations in the classroom. In improvisation actors utilize the rules to cooperate with each other, working together to develop a flowing, coherent conversation; the rules act as a framework that facilitates spontaneity and creativity. Since there is no time for preparation, actors have to rely on their instincts and impulse, skills that language educators strive to nurture and develop in students. Additionally, improvisation depends on the actors creating an atmosphere of trust and support; the rules of improvisation also facilitate the development of this. Recently they have been drawing attention for their applicability to a number of other fields that require effective communication such as business, consulting as well as language education.

Implementation

The students at the center of the study were 275 first year undergraduate students at Onomichi City University in Hiroshima prefecture. Their majors were Economics and Fine Art, and they were all required to complete a one-year General English course as part of their studies. It was decided to conduct the study in the second semester, as this would reduce the effects of factors such as unfamiliarity with other students and the teacher, and the university environment. After one semester of lessons with the teacher and the same classmates it was believed that the students would feel relatively secure in the educational setting. A set of rules were selected that had the most relevance to language teaching and learning (see table 1 below). These rules were then actively taught and practiced by students over a period of ten weeks. The rules were introduced as an initial warm-up section of regular lessons with each activity lasting around ten minutes.

At the beginning of the semester a pretest was administered to establish where the students were in terms of conversational competence prior to learning the rules of improvisation. At the end of the second semester, a posttest was administered to see if any changes could be observed in students' conversational competence. Both the pretest and posttest were conducted with the following framework. The students were to 'chat' about a topic for one minute (see table 1).The teacher assigned the topic randomly to students just before the conversation. A ten second pause would mean the conversation was over. The test was videotaped and the teacher neither made notes nor gave feedback on the conversation, the teacher did not participate in the conversation and acted as an observer only.

The Rules of Improvisation

As mentioned above the rules of improvisation are the means by which actors initiate, manage, and maintain improvised drama. Although the exact rules

Table 1
List of conversation topic

Topics
Food
Music
Friends
Family
Favorite animal
Hobbies
Books
Sports
Movies
Famous person

may differ slightly depending on the theater group and practitioner, Alger (2013) provides some good examples. As some of the rules are to do with dramatic setting and establishing character they have varying degrees of practicality for the language classroom. For the purposes of this study the following nine rules were selected to be explicitly taught to students as a means for developing conversational competence. The tenth rule; 'establish a location' was not included as it was considered to have limited relevance to the language classroom.

1. Yes and
2. Don't block or deny
3. Avoid questions
4. Bring something
5. Let yourself fail
6. Play, relax have fun
7. Listen, listen, listen, respond
8. Work to the top of your intelligence
9. Make your partner look good

(Adapted from David Alger's first ten rules of Improv)

Rule 1: 'Yes and...'

This is perhaps the guiding principle of improvisation to agree and build on your partner's ideas and suggestions. It builds a positive atmosphere and allows the forward movement of conversation and interaction. Responding to someone's suggestion with a negative comment not only shuts down conversation; but also creates neuro-physical stress in the brain, adversely affecting interpersonal relationships between the interlocutors (Newberg & Waldman, 2010).

Rule 2: 'Don't Block or Deny'

This rule is linked to the 'say yes and' principle, however there are more ways to block someone's ideas or attempts at conversation other than just saying no. For example a speaker could change the topic completely. For example if speaker A opened with 'Wasn't the tennis match yesterday exciting!' And speaker B responded with 'I think tennis is boring.' then speaker B has effectively blocked the conversational start that A has initiated. In improvisation the goal is to work and build on what your partner has said. So even if speaker B has not seen the tennis a preferable response would be 'Oh I didn't get to see it did Murray win?' In this way speaker A can continue the conversation topic of tennis and the positive, forward motion of the conversation is maintained.

Rule 3:'Avoid questions'

This rule is very challenging, textbook exchanges are often based around 3 or 4 question and answer exchanges. However in authentic conversations nearly half of questions are in fact elliptical: Have you? Don't you?; or question tags :Yes? Right? Don't you think? (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan, 1999)

In improvisation questions are usually avoided for a number of reasons. If the question is a (yes/no) one, then the dialogue becomes monotonous 'Are you hungry?'-'Yes', 'Would you like something to eat?'-'Yes', 'Do you like ham sandwiches?'-'Yes'. And if the questions are open ones 'What do you think of...?','What's your favorite...?' then the questioner is automatically in the controlling role, through which they steer the conversation with questions which are often formulaic. Therefore the questioner makes the answerer do all the work and provide all the detail and information. By removing questions, the interaction becomes much more equal and balanced.

Rule 4: 'Bring something to the conversation'

The fourth rule that was taught to students was 'Bring something to the conversation'. This relates to the first rule of 'say yes and'. If the conversation is to develop, sufficient material must be provided to allow for the natural progression of the language exchange. The more information that is provided, the easier it is for students to respond. Consider the following exchange from the pretest data:

A: 'My hobby is listening to music'
B: ' ahh'

In this extract, 'A' provided limited information for B to respond to, consequently B soon completes their turn without providing any information for the conversation to progress. Compare with the following from the post test:

A:'I like climb a mountain…so mountain view so beautiful…do you like?'
B: ' Ahh I don't like but I like …'

In the second exchange A gives their opinion and then invites B to respond. By adding more detail, colour and information to the initiating turn, student A has made it much easier for their partner to respond in a meaningful way even though they do not agree with student A's statement.

Rule 5: 'Let Yourself Fail', Rule 6: 'Play, Relax and Have Fun'

The fifth and sixth rules are more to do with students' attitude to communication. They are 'Let yourself fail' and 'Play relax and have fun' both related to adopting a positive attitude to conversation, which is essential to the language classroom. There is the obvious disparity of attempting to teach authentic conversation in the artificial setting of the language classroom. This causes the difficulties of creating a relaxed, friendly atmosphere within a formal, institutional setting. The mere fact that it is a classroom and the teacher is watching can make students become nervous and self-conscious. It is therefore useful to explicitly teach students that failure is not a problem and that native speakers' speech is marked by restarts, mistakes and ungrammatical statements. Additionally, it is helpful to remind students that conversations are held for fun and enjoyment and to find out more about friends and associates.

Rule 7: 'Listen, Listen, Listen, Respond'

The seventh rule was 'Listen, listen, listen, respond'. This is an important issue in conversation classes and students should be encouraged to listen carefully and process what is said to them before responding. It is often tempting for students to interject with their own opinions before fully understanding what has been said. Encouraging students to listen attentively to their partner's utterances before responding is a valuable communication skill.

Rule 8: 'Work to the Top of your Intelligence'

The eighth rule was 'Work to the top of your intelligence'. For improvisation, it is important to be original and interesting; even if there is no audience it is still a performance. It is also important in conversation, and we hope that our conversation partner will be interested in what we have to say. Therefore it is essential to remind students to make their contributions original and interesting and to take the difficult option, to stretch themselves, to make longer, more detailed and stimulating answers. The more students give, the easier it becomes for their partner to make a fitting response.

Rule 9: 'Make your Partner Look Good'

The final rule was 'Make your partner look good'. In improvisation, it can be quite daunting to perform with no script. For the actors to perform effectively it is essential that they know that their partner will support and assist them. The same is true in the classroom; students should be encouraged to assist and above all make their partner look and feel good!

Discussion of Results

After the post-tests, the recordings from one class of 35 students were transcribed and analyzed for the emergence of possible points of interest for further study. The table below describes the results of this preliminary analysis (table 2). The first column in each set refers to the pretest, the second to the post-

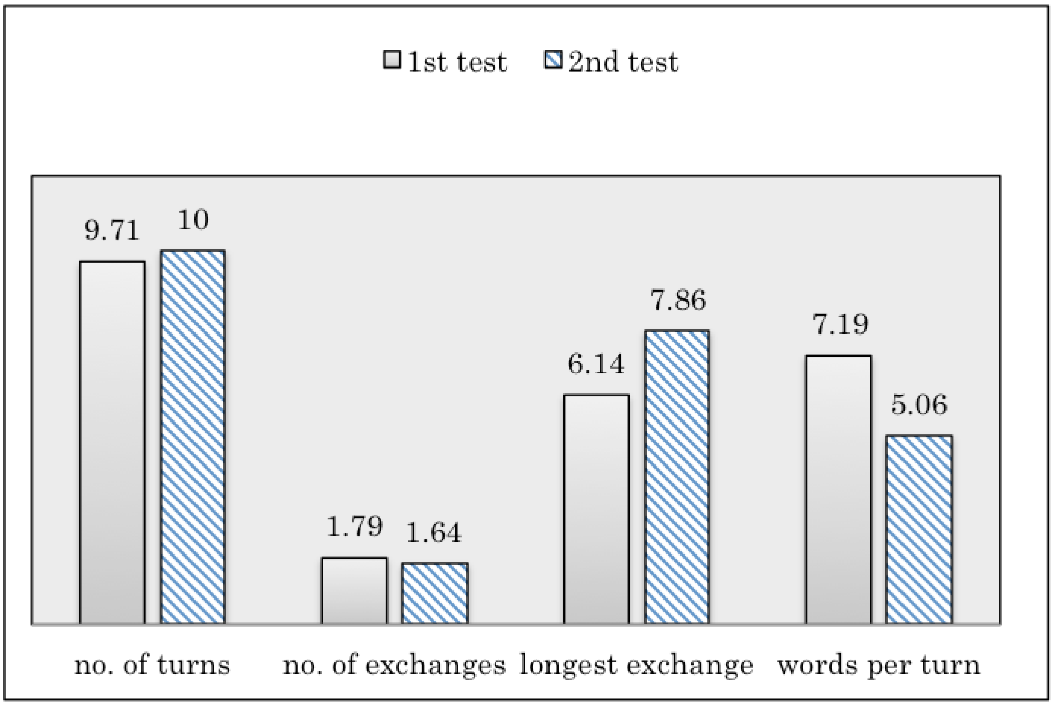

Figure 1. Comparison of pretest and post-test

test. The first set refers to the average number of conversational turns taken within each conversation. The second set denotes the number of exchanges within each conversation; by this I mean the number of discrete topics that were discussed. The third set describes the longest exchange; this means the number of conversational turns within the longest exchange of the conversation. The final set denotes the average number of words spoken within each turn.

The results for the pretest revealed some common issues such as students not helping each other to communicate. For example, no rephrasing comments, no using gestures and displaying unfriendly body language. There were also frequent pauses and attempts by students to directly assign turns to their partner. In addition, unnatural conversational techniques were observed. For example some students decided to make a short speech with first one student giving their thoughts on the designated topic and then the second student giving their opinion. Another frequent technique was for one student to take the role of interviewer and the other student to reply to their questions. This resulted in a power imbalance with the 'interviewer' having control of the conversation and the other student being forced to provide all the information.

When the results of the pretest and post-test were compared some interesting findings were revealed. The number of turns that were taken in the conversation showed little change with just a slight increase observed (see figure 1), moving from an average of 9.71 in the first test to 10 in the second. Additionally, the number of exchanges or sub-topics (a topic within the topic) that were discussed showed no real change, a slight decrease from 1.79 to 1.64. The first main difference was in the number of turns within the longest exchange; this showed an increase from 6.41 to 7.86. This means that once both students had settled on the sub-topic, they used an increased number of turns to discuss that topic. Also the number of actual words that students used within each turn decreased from 7.19 in the first conversation to 5.06 in the second. There were also differences in the openings of the conversations with fewer pairs beginning conversations with questions, choosing to provide information instead of requesting it.

Conclusions

From this initial analysis of a small sample of the data, it can be seen that once students had decided on a sub-topic, they could maintain that sub-topic for longer. For example, if the main topic was famous people then the sub-topic might be talking about Ichiro. Additionally, students actually spoke less within their own turn; this means that they dominated the conversation less and were more ready to switch turns back and forth in a much more balanced conversational style.

There are many possible areas to study in these data sets such as the repetition of phrases, how students designate turns, students use of body language and gestures, the function of laughter in the conversation and also the comments that students made for evaluating their own performance after the tests. However, it is the two factors that define the choppiness of the conversation, i.e. the number of turns in the sub-topic and the number of words within each turn in that sub-topic, that the author intends to focus on for the remaining data sets.

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Instructional Design for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

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Many educators are tasked with developing courses and instructional materials, but few have had formal training in the field of instructional design (ID). One critical step in the ID process is to conduct a thorough front-end analysis of the learning site, the students, and the resources available. Only then can proper instruction, and materials be developed. This paper is an introduction to ID with special emphasis given to analysis. An example of an English training course for office workers at a private university, which was developed by the author, will be used to illustrate the ID process.

多くの講師が教室での講義だけでなく授業準備や教材の作成を行っているが、そのうちどれくらいの講師がインストラクショナルデザイン（ID）の知識を活用しているだろうか。IDの重要なプロセスの一つに授業計画作成前に行う教育環境、生徒、そして教材の分析がある。この分析をもってこそ生徒に最も適切な教授を行い、教材を作成することができる。この論文ではID、特に分析プロセスについて紹介する。参考に筆者が行った私立大学職員に向けた英語レッスンの作成の過程を例として用いる。

Introduction

For university teachers of English, there is usually very little time to prepare instruction that properly considers students' needs, characteristics, knowledge and attitude. Also, course evaluation takes time to conduct. However, the information generated form these processes would help instructors to form a clearer understanding of their students and would positively affect the instruction method or strategy. For this reason, it is important for teachers to have at least a basic understanding of instructional design principles and to apply these principles to their instruction. For many teachers, the instructional design process can seem too cumbersome for classroom use, and too complicated to learn and apply. However, there is no requirement that teachers must follow every step of a proposed model to benefit from it. By choosing the correct model to suit an individual instructor's needs, and adapting that model to their particular situation, knowledge of instructional design principles can prove beneficial to almost any teacher.

Kohyama, M. (2014). Instructional design for teachers of English as a foreign language. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 171-176). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

Literature Review

Instructional Design

The most important aspect of instructional design is that it provides teachers and course designers with a systematic method to design and evaluate instruction. Smith and Ragan (2005) define instructional design as "the systematic and reflective process of translating principles of learning and instruction into plans for instructional materials, activities, information resource, and evaluation" (p. 4). By systematizing instruction, teachers are able to identify important teaching and learning points and to understand how to present these points most effectively to specific learners (Dick, Cary, & Cary, 2001/2009). Despite the benefits of applying systematic instructional design to one's teaching, it takes time to learn and apply. However, in the long-term, by applying instructional design principles to one's practice, teachers can make their instruction more sophisticated and provide a better service to their students.

The ADDIE Model

There are many instructional design models; some are designed for general education and others for instruction in specific fields of study. One of the most well-known models which is used for a wide range of educational situations is the ADDIE model. ADDIE is an acronym, which stands for the five steps of the model; analyze, design, develop, implement and evaluate. (Gagné, Wager, Golas, & Keller, 2005/2012) One characteristic of this model is that it includes the five core steps of analysis, which are commonly used in other instructional models (Reiser & Dempsey, 2007). Also, the ADDIE model is highly adaptable to many contexts, so teachers of a variety of disciplines in any environment can use it.

Figure 1. ADDIE Model .

Of particular importance is the first stage of the instructional design called the analysis stage. This is where the instructor seeks to understand the learners' goals, characteristics, and educational environment. This is important because without this knowledge the instructor cannot truly understand the needs of the learners and the limitations of the learning environment. To analyze these elements, it is necessary to collect data. Data collection can be conducted by interview, survey or pre-test. Based on this information the teacher will design and develop instruction. Through each stage of the design process,

Table 1
Outline of the needs analysis conducted for an English course for office workers at a Japanese university.

Needs	The purpose of this instruction	The university is internationalized but the workers do not have the ability to communicate in English.
Context	Classroom and facility characteristics	The workers are allowed to use classrooms and facilities.
	Organizational characteristics	The workers position and period of contract is varied. Willingness of self-learning is low.
Learners	Learner's characteristics	They have positive attitudes towards leaning English. They are aware of the weakness of their English skills.
	Prerequisite skills	They have bachelor's degrees and have studied English for at least 8 years.
Goal	Objectives	Identify English questions. Answering the question in English..
	Required outcome	Answer frequently asked questions in English appropriately and with correct pronunciation.

the instructor should conduct an evaluation and make changes when necessary. Frequent evaluation enables teachers to fix problems before they become serious and to enhance the effectiveness of future teaching and learning. (Gagné, Wager, Golas,& Keller, 2005/2012)

Methodology

In order to illustrate how the steps of the ADDIE Model can be applied to a real instructional situation, I have provided a description of a course that I designed at my workplace at a private university in Japan. The learners were administrators and the goal of the course was to provide them with the necessary English skills to communicate with foreign students and teachers – a skill becoming more and more important due to the internationalization of the university. The following table provides an outline of the analysis and the questions I asked in order to conduct my analysis:

Needs Assessment

Problem summary

The university changed their strategy regarding international students to increase enrollment and create an international environment. Because of this strategy, the ratio of international students and the number of courses provided only in English increased. As foreign students and teachers increased, the faculty offices at the university struggled to provide effective and efficient service due to a lack of English speakers. There are two reasons for this; first, the university had not hired enough people who could speak English. This is because in the past, most of the foreign students could speak Japanese because they had to take class in Japanese, so English skill was not vitally important for administrators. Second, the current office worker's English ability is not enough to communicate with foreign students and teachers in English. English language skills are not required for being hired as an administrator at the university. However, since most of the workers are required to have at least an undergraduate degree, most workers have studied English at least eight years from middle school to university. Yet, even with several years of instruction, their English proficiency level was very low.

After examining the situation in the university and the result of interviews with the office administrators and foreign teachers and students, I decided that the university needed workers who could speak conversational English with special attention given to vocabulary commonly used in university administration. Hiring new workers or train existing workers will meet this need. However, since the hiring process takes time and is costly, training existing worker is the first logical step to solve this problem.

Context Analysis

Classroom and facility characteristics

The available classrooms and facilities for this instruction are listed in Table 2.

Organizational characteristics

The staff in the university office consists of part-time workers, contract workers and full-time workers. The part-time worker and contract workers have contracts limited to 3 to 5 years, therefore, the staff members change frequently. Part-time and contract workers mainly talk with teachers and students in all the offices and many of them have experienced misunderstanding with foreign teachers and students because of language barrier. However, the results of my analysis showed that even though these workers saw a need to study English, many of them were not willing to do so.

Learner Analysis

To analyze characteristics and prerequisite skills of the learners in this instruction, I decided to conduct an interview and pre-test with them. The interview questions were about the learners' attitude towards

Table 2
List of available classrooms and facilities for instruction

Classrooms	More than 100 classrooms are available Mostly 20 to 300 seats in the classroom Tables and chairs are movable in some classroom
Facilities	Projector and screen are equipped in all the classrooms PC is not equipped but faculty office lend laptop PC

learning English, their learning style, and the balance in their lives between study and work. The pre-test was a fill-in-the-blank test based on frequently asked question from foreign teachers and students in the office and common vocabulary used in a university administration setting.

Background

The researcher picked three workers from an office that are engaged in teacher and student services. This office is the first place that teachers and students go when they have questions. Therefore, these workers have an important role to answer teachers' and students' their questions or guide them to the people who can answer their questions. The learners were from 25 to 33 years of age and were all female. They worked as part-time workers or on a five-year contract and they had been working in the office for one to two and half years. One of the learners was a receptionist and others helped had the task of helping the receptionist when the office was busy. They all graduated university and had degrees in a variety of majors including economics, social studies and English literature. They studied English for at least eight years from middle school until their second year of university. One of them had been taking English lessons once a week for a year at a private English conversation school.

Characteristics

The participants liked talking with coworkers, teachers and students and they were interested in their work. They had adequate communication skills and could explain university systems and processes as well as have the ability to make small talk with customers in their native language. One of the learners said that she was shy to talk with people until she got to know them well. However, her anxiety increased when she had to speak English because she was afraid of making grammatical mistakes or having misunderstanding. The other two learners were not afraid of speaking English; when they had to speak English, they tried to speak and even if they did not know certain vocabulary, they explained what they wanted to say with single words and body language. All the learners assessed their English speaking skill as poor, however; they believed their reading and listening skill were better than their speaking skills. They thought the reason why they were not good at speaking English is because they did not practice speaking in the English courses they had taken. This is common in Japan, especially in high school where the goal of English classes is to prepare students for college entrance exams, not improve practical communication skills. They learned high-level grammar and/or reading skills in these classes but they didn't have enough opportunity to actually speak in English. They believed that they could increase their English speaking skill if they got used to speaking English and were able to build their vocabulary.

Prerequisite skill

All participants had studied English for at least eight years from middle school to the second year of university. From these eight years, it can be assumed that they have enough English skill to speak basic English and understand basic English spoken to them. The result of the pre-test showed that they have enough skill to make simple English sentences with subjects and verbs. Two of them completed all of the answers on the pre-test using full sentences and one of them answered with full sentences or in some cases, a single word. All of them seemed to not to have enough specialized vocabulary knowledge (words frequently used in university administrative offices). Some vocabulary that they struggled with was the name of each faculty at the university, and the words "graduate student" and "scholarship".

Motivation

From the interview, the researcher learned that all the learners had a positive attitude for studying English. The learners were motivated to learn English because with this skill they could:

- Provide better service to the teachers and students in their workplace.
- Be seen as more valuable employees in their current job and in future jobs.
- Enrich their life by communicating with a wide range of people

Unfortunately, this dose not means that they were motivated to study English. One learner had to take care of an elderly family member after work, so she did not have the time to study even though she wanted to.

Another learner said that she was more interested in using her spare time to study other subjects. The last learner said that she was willing to study English after work if someone would make her a study plan and teach her what to do.

Learning style

All the learners preferred to be taught by someone rather than to study by themselves. The reason was because they could not motivate themselves without direction. Also, they said they could not discipline themselves to study if they did not have a teacher to watch over them. One of the reasons why they might have had this attitude is because Japanese education tends to be teacher-centered and students are not required to be actively involved in the course; they are only required to listen to lectures and take notes. Even though they have similar preference for learning style, they have different style when they study by themselves. For example, one learner preferred to write the words on paper to memorize vocabulary, while the other learner preferred to read the words out loud while she was writing them. Another learner preferred to memorize the words used in a sentence.

Goals

After completing the assessment of needs and learner analysis, the following goal of instruction was written:

At the completion of four one-hour lessons, the learners will be able to respond to frequently asked question appropriately and with correct pronunciation when asked each English question by a native English speaker in a controlled setting.

In the process of accomplishing the goal, the learners were able to get knowledge or skill needed for their work. Objectives are a detailed description of what the learners are able to do when the instruction is finished. The objectives of this instruction are listed below:

Objectives

1. The learners will be able to identify the main idea of an English dialogue presented through a video and locate English words and phrases in the dialogue which they already know.
2. After looking at a written list of vocabulary words from the dialogue, the learners will be able to identify the definition of the words that they do not know and discover the correct usage of words with multiple meanings in the context of the presented dialogue.
3. While reading the vocabulary list the learners will identify words with which they are not familiar, look up these words in an electronic dictionary and write the Japanese translations of these words next to the English – the learners should ask the instructor for clarification if there are multiple meanings to a word.

Discussion

A thorough front-end analysis identifies what the learners want to learn and the resources available to have efficient and effective instruction. By clarifying the needs and goals of the learners, the instructor is able to eliminate content from instruction that is not important for them. Also, specific goals and objectives can motivate learners by showing them what demonstrable skills they will possess after the period of instruction. In my case, the instructional design process contributed to my ability to develop an effective training program at my office, because I could understand the learners' characteristics and their needs clearly. For this reason, the instruction was rewarding for both the instructor and the learners. I believe the instructional design process is a bridge between the instructor and learners that not only contributes to the creation of more effective and efficient instruction, but also helps both parties to better understand the other.

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Interactional Language and Head-Held Camcorders

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After 2 years of employing head-held camcorders to explore and develop classroom interactional language in a variety of classroom activities, the author has begun the construction of a video archive, called the Database of English Learner Interaction (DELI). This practice-oriented paper provides a brief description of head-held camcorders and their introduction to and use with students. It also includes a selection of interactional language from the DELI used to create classroom activities focusing on pragmatic development which include: 1) understanding explanations in teacher-student interaction, 2) using strategies in pair work during collaborative dialogues, and 3) focusing on greeting, small talk, and leave-taking in role plays. The paper concludes with a discussion of some of the benefits and limitations of head-held video for increasing pragmatic skills.

頭部装着ビデオカメラを用いてさまざまな授業アクティビティにおいて対話言語の調査と開発を2年間実施し、Database of English Learner Interaction (DELI)という授業での対話言語のビデオ記録データを作り上げた。この実践志向型の研究論文では、頭部装着ビデオカメラに関する簡単な説明と概要、学生が使用する方法について述べられている。更に、1)教員・学生間相互の説明理解、2)協同して行う対話ペアワークでの手法の使用、3)挨拶、雑談、分かれ際の会話のロールプレイ　、の3つを含む語用論的な発展に焦点をおいた、授業でのアクティビティを行うのに使用されたDELIの対話言語の選集も含まれる。論文は、語用論的な技術の向上に向けた頭部装着ビデオの利点と制限等についての議論にて総括される。

Introduction

The importance of interaction in the development of human communication and language skills is firmly established. Studies in the related fields of sociolinguistics (Hymes, 1972), pragmatics (Levinson, 1983), and interactional competence (Kramsch, 1986) show that these are "founded on innate universal skills" (Atkinson, 2013, p. 1), which can be targeted for development in instructional settings (Kasper & Rose, 2001). Building on the concept of sociolinguistic competence introduced by Canale and Swain (1980), applied linguists and language educators have studied methods to effectively prepare students for L2 encounters either at home or abroad (see, for example, Carletta & Mellish, 1996; Taguchi, 2008).

My interest in targeting pragmatic skills in the classroom comes from a desire to increase students' classroom interactional competence (CIC) (Walsh, 2011). From oral communication (OC) classroom observation, it was readily apparent that some students, as Swain (2000) notes, are more comfortable than others when interacting during collaborative dialogues (CDs). Walsh (2012) reports that while skills in CIC are "highly context specific," there are certain features

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of CIC which can be encouraged and promoted in any setting (p. 12). Among the skills I had hoped to promote, at least initially, were purposeful and appropriate use of language to achieve certain outcomes in classroom dialogues in a variety of situations and for a variety of pragmatic purposes (Kindt, 2011).

Modern, compact camcorders are a popular tool for exploring aspects of classroom interaction including the effectiveness of teacher instruction (Nunan, 1990), learner's perceptions of interactional feedback (Mackey, 2002), and the evaluation of communicative language learning (Klapper, 1991). They have also been used in language classrooms to research, for example, student affect (Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001), interaction in dyads (Nabei & Swain, 2002), and classroom dynamics (DuFon, 2002). Johnson, Sullivan, and Williams (2009), however, point out that a limitation in these studies is that stationary and hand-held camcorders provide only a static, non-participant view of classroom events (p. 35). Even when using several stationary or hand-held camcorders (Fitzgerald, Hackling, & Dawson, 2013), there is still an obtrusive, observer's distance (Gredler, 1995).

This situation changed in 2005, when reasonably priced head-held or point of view (POV) camcorders came on the market (Berra, 2010). The current interest in using these powerful, lightweight POV camcorders in educational settings (Hargis & Marotta, 2011; Rowell, 2009) is partially due to their ability to record a closer approximation of what the wearer actually sees and hears while participating in events. Considering these unique benefits, this paper presents a selection of classroom language captured with POV camcorders that were used to support student development of pragmatic competence.

The GoPro Hero 2 and Its Introduction to Students

I selected the GoPro Hero 2 (GoPro®, 2012) for classroom trials due, in large part, to its central, head-held position, the best among POV camcorders for capturing participant interaction. Furthermore, the Hero 2 records in 1080p high-definition (HD) with a wide, 170° field-of-capture in mp4 format. It uses a memory card up to 32GB that provides approximately four hours of video. A fully charged battery records for up to 2.5 hours. I should note here that as of December 2012, the next generation, the GoPro Hero 3 doubles the capability of the Hero 2 but has half its size and weight. An upgrade, the Hero 3+, was released in October 2013.

I introduced the GoPro camcorder to students at the beginning of the second semester of a yearlong OC course. Preparing to talk about summer events, we brainstormed some activities that might be interesting to do while wearing a head-held camcorder. Suggestions were "climbing a mountain," "cooking something," "riding a roller coaster," and the like. Then, I suggested "language learning," and showed students the camcorder, explaining that "I would like to be able to see the class through their eyes," (Kindt, 2011). Finally, I asked for permission to use the camcorder—emphasizing that the recordings would be for the class or research purposes and anyone could ask not to participate at any time either verbally or via email. Once general permission was given, I asked for a volunteer. In all four classes in the trials, the first volunteer came quickly.

Capturing and Using Head-Held Video for Pragmatic Development

Capturing classroom language, however, has many challenges (Fitzgerald et al., 2013). When first using POV camcorders, I soon realized that the natural noise of an interactive classroom can diminish the intelligibility of the POV dyad's conversation (Kindt, 2013c). To minimize this problem, wireless transmitters and receivers have been employed, the receiver attached to the camcorder and a lavalier microphone for the cameraperson and the transmitter attached to a second lavaliere microphone for the partner (Kindt, 2013a). Unfortunately, this solution was not found until halfway through the second year of trials.

From these recordings, I choose two- to three-minute clips to use in creating materials for use with the same students, predominantly, in subsequent class meetings. I had targeted POV footage I believed would provide a rich source of data that focused on particular pragmatic goals. Here, I present 3 examples of POV-derived materials focused on: 1) understanding explanations in teacher-student interactions, 2) reviewing strategies for effective pair work, and 3) greeting, small talk, and leave-taking in role plays. For each of the 3 examples mentioned above, and following Nguyen, Pham and Pham (2012), I first focused on building students' pragmatic awareness by pointing out instances that are likely to afford opportunities for improvement. To achieve this, I chose clips that showed evidence of not only students' successful use of the focus of the materials but also examples where interactions could be improved.

1) Understanding Explanations

One important area of classroom pragmatic development is appropriately asking for and understanding explanations. In the first example (Appendix A), two students are working on a task in their textbook, Impact Issues 2 (Day & Yamanaka, 2009), designed to generate discussion by exploring opinions about the nature of happiness (p. 72). During their discussion, the students come across the word "worthy." Unsure of its meaning, they asked me for explanation. Later, when viewing the video, I found that both students and I used a number of useful expressions for understanding explanations, but there were also a number of instances where the exchange of meaning could have been enhanced. Thus, I transcribed the section and created a worksheet to return to students in the following class.

When presenting the POV clip and materials to students in the following class, I first had them view the clip, watching for "useful expressions," "alternative expressions," and "improvements." After the first viewing, I gave students the handout and asked them to listen again. Then students worked together to fill in the blanks representing useful expressions. After listening a third time, students again collaborated in clarifying the useful expressions and also trying to brainstorm possible alternatives. We finished using the handout by discussing alternatives and improvements. I offered suggestions for those expressions that presented difficulties, such as "Okay, so you're saying people won't be happy until they go to heaven?" Following this procedure, students were able to not only understand the situation and what needed to be communicated, but also came up with alternative responses, which I clarified, improved, or suggested.

2) Pair Work

According to Swain (2000), it is reasonable to assume that students skilled in participating in effective pair work can also increase the likelihood of acquisition. In the second example, students talk in pairs about free time (see Kenny & Woo, 2012, unit 6). In the conversation, a higher-ability student takes the lead in helping her partner to describe what he does in his free time (Appendix B). Though of lower-ability, the partner also uses a number of effective strategies to make appropriate contributions to the negotiation of meaning. Because of this, and because students were preparing for a final group conversation evaluation with a strategic competence component, I decided to make a handout reviewing strategies.

For this handout (Appendix B), I underlined some conversation strategies, and noted the errors. I began by asking students to watch the clip, this time listening for strategies. Then referring to the handout, they watched again, this time trying to fill in the blanks with names of strategies used in the double-underlined dialogue. After allowing students time to compare with partners, I wrote the strategies on the board in alphabetical order. Students watched a final time before trying to fill them in and compare their responses. It may appear that there are too many strategies for a single lesson, but since this was for a strategies review, students had already been shown and practiced these strategies in previous classes. After filling in the blanks with the appropriate strategies, I asked students to try speaking again about the topic, putting a mark by the strategies whenever they used one. In this case, I was able to hear instances of strategy use, indicating that students are likely familiarizing themselves with their use.

3) Role Play

Since classrooms can only simulate the outside world, role plays are often employed to support pragmatic skills development (Bray, 2010). To help students to be better able to communicate effectively in this situations, a role play was developed in which students were given the chance to talk in front of the class in a simulated chance meeting, imagining they had just met after the summer break and had only a couple of minutes to chat before taking leave.

Relying on the few minutes captured by the volunteer cameraperson during her role-play, I was able to pinpoint a number of pragmatic points related to greeting, small talk, and leave-taking (Appendix C). In this case, students watched the scene simply to see if the actors are effective in these pragmatic points. Once I had elicited some reactions, I distributed the handout and showed the clip again, asking students to correct the grammar points. Then we looked more closely at the blanks, indicating a place for writing improvements, such as "Did I miss something?" rather than "Mm?" and "Well, I better let you go," rather than the ubiquitous "See ya."

In this case, some students were able to collaborate to correct grammatical forms and indicate improvements. For instances that required pragmatic skills beyond the ability of any students in the class, however, I offered suggestions. I believe this was an effective procedure for allowing students to tap into their linguistic knowledge but also allow for new pragmatic structures that were taught within a clear interactional context.

Benefits and Limitations of Head-Held Camcorders

Though analysis of events captured with established tools like stationary or hand-held camcorders can increase our understandings of language classrooms, head-held camcorders can provide a more accurate representation of the participant experience. The clear benefit is that they capture what students actually say and do (Kindt, 2013c). While is it true that head-held camcorders are intrusive, participants not only become more spontaneous with time, but it appears they are more playful and carefree with POV devices than traditional video.

When comparing head-held camcorders to stationary laboratory webcams, some limitations were apparent: 1) the audio was inferior, 2) there were numerous interruptions and distractions, 3) there was relatively less focus on interactive tasks, and 4) only a single dyad could be recorded. POV recordings are, however, less constrained as, being in a language classroom, there were: 1) more artifact affordances, "[properties] of the environment that [are] relevant... to an active, perceiving organism in that environment" (van Lier, 2000, p. 252), 2) markedly different learning alignments, the "processes through which human beings effect coordinated interaction" (Atkinson, Churchill, Nishino, & Okada, 2007, p. 169), and 3) variance of nonverbal aspects, such as gesture, facial expression and body positioning (Barraja-Rohan, 2011, p. 9). Furthermore, in laboratory-style video conversations, students were well-aware that their partners and teacher will subsequently view the recording and would be required to complete a follow-up transcription (Kindt, 2013b), possibly limiting the naturalness of their production.

Even though POV camcorders are intrusive, students appeared to use them more playfully, like an entertainment tool rather than a study tool. In fact, in preliminary feedback from volunteers, some noted that they had "seen the camera used by comedians in stunts, and they find it interesting and unique" (Kindt, 2011, p. 185). The novelty of the camcorder gradually diminishes, but because the majority of volunteers over the course of a semester are using the camcorder for the first time, a sense of lightheartedness and uniqueness remained.

Discussion and future directions

Though it impossible at this stage to confidently claim that the use of POV clips in creating materials for classes is effective for helping students to develop pragmatic competence, looking at the clips I have collected indicates a number of promising outcomes: 1) in all the footage, students appeared quite comfortable and often playful, 2) they were increasingly at ease offering suggestions, corrections, and brainstorming improvements on handouts, and 3) some of the suggestions have, indeed, appeared in subsequent practice conversations and language lab recordings.

There are a number of encouraging avenues for both pedagogy and research related to head-held camcorders, authentic classroom interaction, and pragmatic competence. As various pragmatic aspects appear in POV footage, new ways of bringing these foci to students' attention and helping them to develop those skills will need to be designed. As classroom data become easier to capture, both practitioner and research databases, like the DELI, will emerge and contribute to our understanding of learner language and pragmatic development. Someday, we may be able to conduct studies that involve all participants simultaneously wired for video. Though not yet practical, we can begin to narrow the divide between what we think we know and what we can know about classroom interaction by using the POV camcorder.

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Author's Biography:

Duane Kindt's doctoral work explored the complex, dynamic nature of student engagement propensities. He is currently interested in using innovative technologies to explore pragmatic competence.

Appendix A

1) Understanding explanations *(teacher-student interaction)*

Prof. Kindt (PK) is trying to answer Ayana (wearing the GoPro camcorder) and Sayaka's questions about happiness. Listen and fill in the blanks with their useful expressions. Then we'll add alternatives Ⓐ and improvements Ⓘ

1.	Sayaka	HOW ABOUT, "HUMAN BEINGS ARE NOT WORTHY OF BEING HAPPY?" <checks her dictionary> Hm?
2.	Ayana	<laughs>
3.	Sayaka	Human beings are not worthy of being happy." I DON'T...
4.	Ayana	I CAN'T UNDERSTAND. <laughs>
5.	Sayaka	...UNDERSTAND . So I didn't check THAT ONE Ⓘ. <looks at book>
6.	Ayana	You are unsure.
7.	Sayaka	<raises hand> Prof. Kindt.
8.	Ayana	<raises hand> <points> WE CAN'T UNDERSTAND THE MEANING OF "HUMAN BEINGS ARE NOT WORTHY OF BEING HAPPY."
9.	PK	Yeah, that question is maybe about someone that believes in heaven...
10.	Ayana	Mm.
11.	PK	...um, and thinking that life on earth is like a test, something that we have to work hard at to get to heaven, and that person might say that, you know, our purpose as humans is not to be happy, it's to work hard and, and make it to heaven.
12.	Ayana	Mm. OKAY, I SEE. Ⓐ
13.	PK	So, then they'll say, "human beings are not worthy," that they haven't earned happiness. They haven't worked to become happy. They'll be happy if they go to heaven.
14.	Ayana	Ah.
15.	Sayaka	Sayaka <turns to Ayana> I'M SORRY, COULD YOU EXPLAIN THAT AGAIN? Ⓐ
16.	PK	<gives more explanation> Do you know... "Worthy" means you've earned something. For example, um, your TOEFL score needs to be 450 or higher to graduate...
17.	Ayana	Mm. UH-HUH. / GO ON. Ⓐ
18.	PK	...so if you have a higher TOEFL score that 450, you're "worthy" to graduate. You've earned your graduation right...
19.	Ayana	Mm. OKAY, I SEE. / AH, I GET IT NOW. Ⓐ
20.	PK	...though some people believe human beings don't have a right to be happy
21.	Ayana	REALLY?
22.	PK	They have to suffer.
23.	Ayana	HA HA.
24.	PK	And be miserable. And because of those bad experiences you become able to enter heaven, "worthy" to enter heaven...
25.	Ayana	Mm. OKAY, SO YOU'RE SAYING PEOPLE WON'T BE HAPPY UNTIL THEY GO TO HEAVEN? Ⓐ

26.	PK	So… That's just somebody's opinion that "human beings aren't worthy of being happy." I think, my opinion is, life *is* to be happy.
27.	Ayana	Oh.
28.	Sayaka	We're living so that we can enjoy our lives, I think. But that's just another personal opinion.
29.	Ayana	Mm. So, two different opinions. / So, you don't agree. Ⓐ
30.	Sayaka	Does that make sense ?
31.	Ayana	Mm. Thank you.

Appendix B

2) Pair work in collaborative dialogues (*strategies review*)

Shota (wearing the Contour camcorder) and Yuki are talking about free time. What strategies do they use? Write the name of the strategy next to where it's used.

1.	Shota	And I, how can I say <uses Japanese> the lyrics?
2.	Yuki	Ah, okay, okay.
3.	Shota	Yeah.
4.	Yuki	It's, like, kind of singing...
5.	Shota	<u>Do you know wha, what I mean?</u> CHECKING PARTNER'S UNDERSTANDING
6.	Yuki	What do you want to say? <u>Just say it in Japanese</u>. REQUESTING JAPANESE
7.	Shota	Ah, <<u>uses Japanese</u>>. USING JAPANESE
8.	Yuki	Ah, it is, like, humming. OFFERING A TRANSLATION
9.	Shota	Humming?
10.	Yuki	Humming. Humming. Hmm. <u>I think that's what you mean.</u>
11.	Shota	Yeah. GUESSING WHAT YOUR PARTNER MEANS
12.	Yuki	Humming.
13.	Shota	Humming spell...? How do you spell that ? asking for spelling
14.	Yuki	Uh, okay. I'll write it down. Uh, I think it's this. H-u-m-m... Yeah. Ca, <u>do you have a dictionary?</u> REQUESTING A DICTIONARY
15.	Shota	Yeah.
16.	Yuki	Oh, just, no, no, no. Use this one, use this one.
17.	Shota	Okay. USING A DICTIONARY
18.	Yuki	Thank you. How do you turn it on? Humming... <u>Ah, wait. See? Hum</u>.
19.	Shota	Yeah. <u>Yes, that's right</u>. CLARIFYING

Appendix C

3) Role Play (*greeting, small talk, and leave-taking*)

Sakie (wearing the GoPro camcorder) and Izumi are role-playing a chance meeting after the summer break. Use the blanks to add corrections. Later, we'll think of some useful expressions Ⓔ.

1	Prof. Kindt	Okay? Go!
2	Sakie	<laughter> Hi.
3	Izumi	Hey!
4	Sakie	Hey! Hi. How are you today?
5	Izumi	I'm fine.
6	Sakie	Oh, really?
7	Izumi	What are you doing here? [I'm surprised to see you here. Ⓔ]
8	Sakie	Hm? Just walking. [Yeah, I had to come into school to register. Ⓔ]
9	Both	<laughter>
10	Sakie	"Ah, so, what, what did you do last night? [What have you been up to lately? Ⓔ]"
11	Izumi	Last night?
12	Sakie	Yeah.
13	Izumi	Uh, I drank with my boyfriend.
14	Sakie	<laughter> Oh, really?
15	Izumi	Yeah, I got a hangover.
16	Sakie	Ah-ha. That's too bad.
17	Both	<laughter>
18	Sakie	Mm-mm. Mm? [I'm sorry. / Did I miss something? Ⓔ]
19	Izumi	I made...
20	Sakie	Mm.
21	Izumi	...dinner...
22	Sakie	Ah, really?
23	Izumi	...with my boyfriend.
24	Sakie	What kind of food did you cook?
25	Izumi	Um, Italian food.
26	Sakie	Oh, that sounds delicious. <laughter>
27	Izumi	But the taste was not so good.
28	Sakie	Eh? [What? Ⓔ] Really? <laughter> Why?
29	Izumi	Mm... Because my boyfriend cooked.
30	Sakie	Uh, ah, really? <laughter> Mm.
31	Izumi	What did you do last night?
32	Sakie	Mm, last night? Mm, nothing special. Mm, yeah.
33	Izumi	How's your boyfriend?

34	Sakie	Mm, my boyfriend? <laughter> Ah, during summer vacation, uh, I went to watch ~~the~~ some ~~game~~ games because my boyfriend is rugby player and, and…
35	Izumi	And he earns money?
36	Sakie	Yeah. <laughter> And, mm, he… Oh, when I met him, I didn't know that but, so, mm, he, he is always, mm, funny, so, and ~~say~~ tells a lot of ~~joke~~ jokes, so, I, I, it's unbelievable, for me, <laughter> uh, that he ~~play~~ plays …
37	Izumi	He's different.
38	Sakie	Mm?
39	Izumi	Ⓔ How he is on and off the field are different.
40	Sakie	Yeah, yeah, yeah, yeah, yeah. Ah…
41	Izumi	Oh! A phone ~~calling~~ call! It's my boyfriend.
42	Sakie	"Boyfriend? See you. <laughter> [Well, I better let you go. / Well, talk to you later. Ⓔ]

Introducing Student Developed Low-Level Listening Materials into the EFL Classroom

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There are a plethora of ready-made materials available on-line, all of which can be utilized by educators and students that can help learners to hone their listening skills. Student input into designing their own listening activities can not only help to enliven these sometimes neglected important skills, but can also help lead the way for constructive discussion to take place in the classroom. This paper will first try to summarize what is known about the processes of listening and how these views have changed over the years. Second, some of the other considerations in selecting activities for a collaborative dedicated EFL listening course will also be listed. This includes showing an example of a student created authentic listening activity from the Internet site YouTube, and then talking about its classroom implementation. Finally, results of a recent student survey relating to students' interest in this approach will also be posted and discussed.

インターネット上には、教育者や学習者がリスニングスキルを高めるために使用可能な教材が溢れている。学習者自身がリスニング活動を作成することは、重要で忘れられがちなそのようなスキルを活性化するだけでなく、教室での建設的なディスカッションにも有用である。本稿は、その理解を深めるため、まずリスニングの過程として知られていることと、その過程が歴史的にどのように見られてきたかを要約する。次に協同的で献身的なEFLリスニングクラスのための活動選びにおいて考慮すべき点を挙げる。それには例として、'YouTube'というインターネットサイトを使って生徒が作ったリスニング活動を紹介しまた教室でその使用を話し合ったことを紹介する。最後にこのアプローチに対する学生の興味に関する調査結果を報告し、考察する。

Background

It wasn't all that long ago when listening practices in language classes were viewed simply as a way of introducing new grammar. Students who undertook the study of a second language tended to center their energies on being able to translate written texts, rather than focus on oral communication. The prevailing thought at the time was that by employing this method of Grammar-Translation, learners would be able to understand the structure and grammar of the target language; thus, the rest of the comprehension would naturally follow. This led to other skills, such as listening and speaking, to be sometimes neglected or relegated by some educators to being only secondary skills or merely as a "means to other ends, rather than ends in themselves" (Nunan, 1997, p. 1).

However, attitudes did start to change with the popularity of the Audio-lingual Method in the late

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1960's. Although it was criticized for being rather restrictive in its drills and application, it did however, highlight and renew interest in the role that oral communication could play in the field of second language learning. In particular, the sometimes forgotten, but important role that listening plays in second language learning and acquisition. Interest in this field was again further expanded in the 1980's with Krashen's (1982), (as cited in Nunan, 1997) ideas of comprehensible input. Subsequently, over the years, both researchers and educators alike have dedicated an increasing amount of time in trying to develop this skill in the classroom. As Rost (1994), (as cited in Nunan, 1997) explains, listening is "vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin. Listening is thus fundamental to speaking" (p.1).

Cognitive Processes in Listening Comprehension

Despite its early misgivings, the importance of listening is now becoming more widely accepted in many language programs as a core component (Richards, 2005). However, for many instructors, little thought is still given to the actual listening processes itself. As Underwood (1989) explains, like most people in this field, no one is quite sure how "listening works or how people learn to listen and understand" (p. 1). Seo (2002) further expands by making the statement that listening is, "after all, a covert activity, and the processes involved have not yet been the subject of intensive or extensive research" (p. 57).

What is known though, is that when we listen there are two major processes occurring. They are the processes of perception involved in which the brain makes upon receiving an acoustic signal through the ear and then decoding it into language sounds, and the processes at work, which make the aural input meaningful to the listener.

Within these processes lie a number of sub-processes that teachers may not be aware of. According to Peterson (2001) and Van Duzer (1997), some of these include being able to:

1. Realize the relevant context of the message
2. Recall the relevant schemata or background information
3. Assign meaning
4. Predict possible outcomes of the intended message
5. Decide on what information is to be transferred between short-term and long-term memory
6. Recognize and match key words to the "semantic structure of the text" (Peterson, 2001, p. 90).

It should be stated that this list does not follow any particular order and it is in no way exhaustive. It is merely an indication of how people's perception of listening has changed over the years. Previously regarded mainly as a passive skill, or a skill "taken for granted" (Hedge, 2005, p. 229), listening is now regarded more of an active process of "selecting and interpreting information from auditory and visual clues" (Van Duzer, 1997, p. 2).

In addition to the processes and sub-processes already discussed, researchers also believe that at the same time we listen, two major cognitive processes are in play: *bottom-up processing* (data driven) and *top-down processing* (conceptually-driven).

In the first of these, bottom-up processing, the brain acts as a form of a data entry recorder (Nunan, 1997). Listening data enters the brain and this in turn is transformed into sounds. The listener then attempts to decode these sounds into words. Grammatical relationships are developed as these words are linked to form phrases, which lead to the formation of sentence constructions, eventually ending up as meaning for the listener (Van Duzer, 1997, p. 3).

On the other hand, top-down processing, works from the other end. The premise being that the listener re-constructs meaning using the incoming sounds as clues. To achieve this, the listener relies on his or hers prior *schemata* or background knowledge to anticipate the meaning of what the speaker might be trying to say. The context is important in this situation. Things such as situational awareness, topic at hand, relationship of the speaker, and knowledge of prior events are just some of the important factors required for meaning to occur (Nunan, 1997).

However, it is worth noting that recent studies tend to indicate that both processes tend to work in tandem when we listen. As Peterson (2001) explains, "In proficient listeners, top-down and bottom-up processes interact, so that a lack of information at one level can be compensated for by checking against information at another level" (p. 89). For teachers, Van Duzer (1997) warns, "learners need to be aware that both of these processes affect their listening comprehension, and they need to be given opportunities to practice employing each of them" (p.3).

Classroom Listening Activities

As already discussed, there are a number of cognitive processes and sub-processes taking part while we listen. For a native listener, these are skills that occur simultaneously and sub-consciously, but for non-native listeners there will be times when these processes may break down. Listening then becomes more of a conscious effort rather than just being a passive act, with the listener becoming "aware of the need for repair" by seeking, "an appropriate strategy for comprehension" (Peterson, 2001, p. 90). Therefore, it is important that teachers take care when selecting strategies and listening activities for their classes. Some ideas in how to achieve these are discussed in the following paragraphs.

First of all, it is important that tasks remain relevant and hopefully useful for students in their everyday life. Motivation is an important factor here. As Grognet and Van Duzer (2003) explain, "to keep motivation high, listeners must have a purpose for listening" (p.3). If the task is not of particular interest, there maybe a possibility of students shutting down or not gaining any substantial benefit.

Second, activities should try to teach not test. A lot of the time, both students and teachers alike, tend to link a listening task to some form of challenge or test. Efforts should be made in designing lessons, which promote and encourage learning rather than just reinforcing knowledge already gained. This could be achieved through such activities as listening games or role-playing rather than focusing on simple true and false or multiple-choice tasks.

Whenever possible, the development of different styles of listening strategies should also be encouraged. The use of authentic materials has long been argued as one effective way in which to achieve this (Grognet & Van Duzer, 2003). Teachers now have at their disposal quite a number of free supplemental materials that are able be accessed on-line; all of which can provide unique authentic listening opportunities for students. These include all sorts of audio and visual bytes such as DVDs, vodcasts, podcasts, radio and television streaming broadcasts just to mention a few.

When using authentic materials, the tasks themselves should not be modified, but kept as natural as possible by including such things as pauses, rephrasing and various accents. The level of difficulty can be controlled through the selection of tasks (Van Duzer, 1997). By keeping the listening tasks authentic, learners can also keep up to date with current language trends, such as slang words, sayings and idioms, by allowing them to experience language in a more practical way.

Classroom Application

Example Lesson

This paper so far has discussed only a small number of the processes and sub-processes that can occur during a listening task. Armed with this knowledge, I have attempted to engage the students to think more critically about their listening capabilities by exposing them to some of the authentic sound and visual bytes readily available from the Internet. To achieve this, I have actively tried to get the students to be more actively involved through discussion and collaborative group work and by allowing them a greater degree of control over the content of the lesson. The following is a description of one such task.

Participants

This particular task was developed and taught to university students who were undertaking a dedicated intermediate listening-theme course as an elective. Being an elective, the age of the students ranged from 1st year to 4th year. Classes met once a week over a 15-week period. Class sizes were limited to 20 students. There were two classes in all.

Objectives

As part of their ongoing assessment, students in turn were required before class to find a short (3 min) video from the Internet relating to a pre-determined theme. Students were also required to prepare a worksheet in advance to be distributed and then discussed in class (Appendix 1). The allotted task time to achieve this task was set at twenty-five minutes.

Procedure

Step 1- Before Class

Presenters are assigned the previous week, and at this time the theme is also set. The students are required to search for a video from the Internet. While not restricted to, most videos are sourced from YouTube due to its wide range of choice and ease of access (Figure 1).

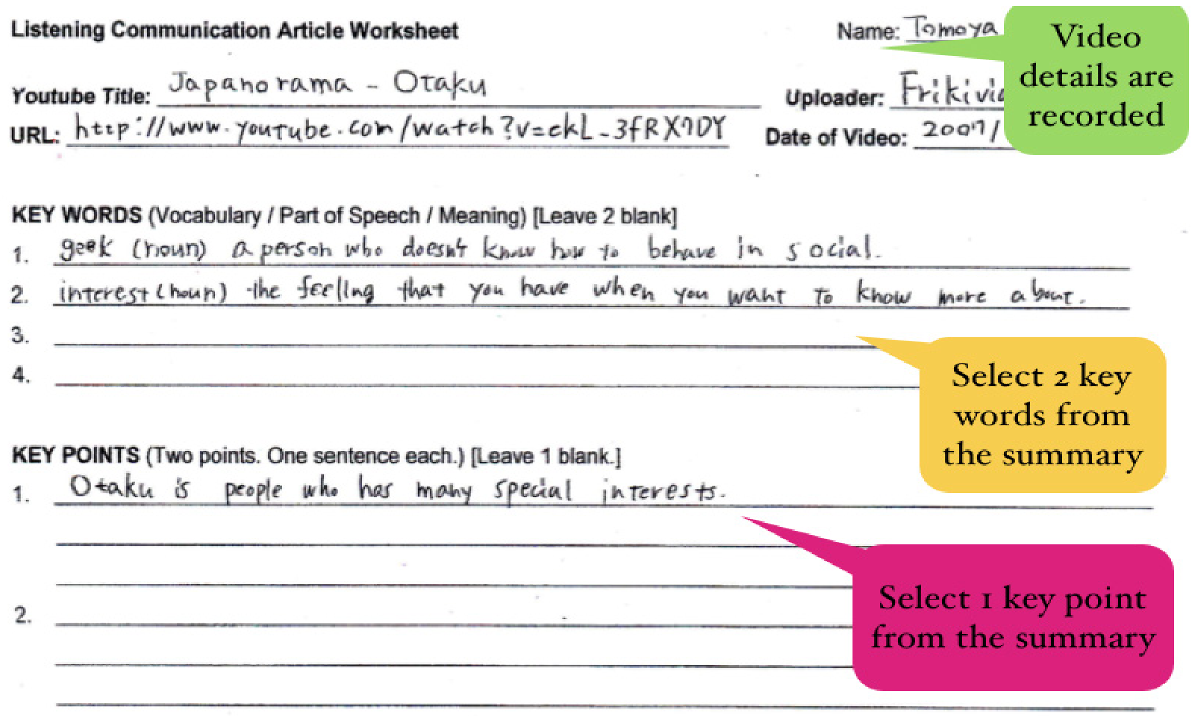
Students are also given a worksheet to complete before class. On this the students write a brief summary of the video they have found including any other further information they feel is relevant to the topic (Figure 2). The students are also required to record the details of the YouTube video, including the title, URL and up-loader. In addition, two key words from the summary are listed and explained as well as one key point is selected (Figure 3). Finally questions that relate to the video are listed for discussion (Figure 4). The following figures are taken from a student example.

Figure 1. Video selection – student sample (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ekL_sfRX7DY)

YOUTUBE SUMMARY (50 to 100 words)

Japanorama is one of BBC's news program corner. At this corner, Japanese culture has been explained widely. In this time, the geek in Japan are introduced. Otaku is people who has many special interests. For example, comicbooks, animation, etc ... Otaku stays at home and often use computer. But Otaku is become an important social group in the twenty-first century Japan.

Figure 2. Video summary – student sample.



Listening Communication Article Worksheet

Name: Tomoya

Youtube Title: Japanorama - Otaku

Uploader: Frikivi

URL: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ckL-3fRX7DY

Date of Video: 2007/

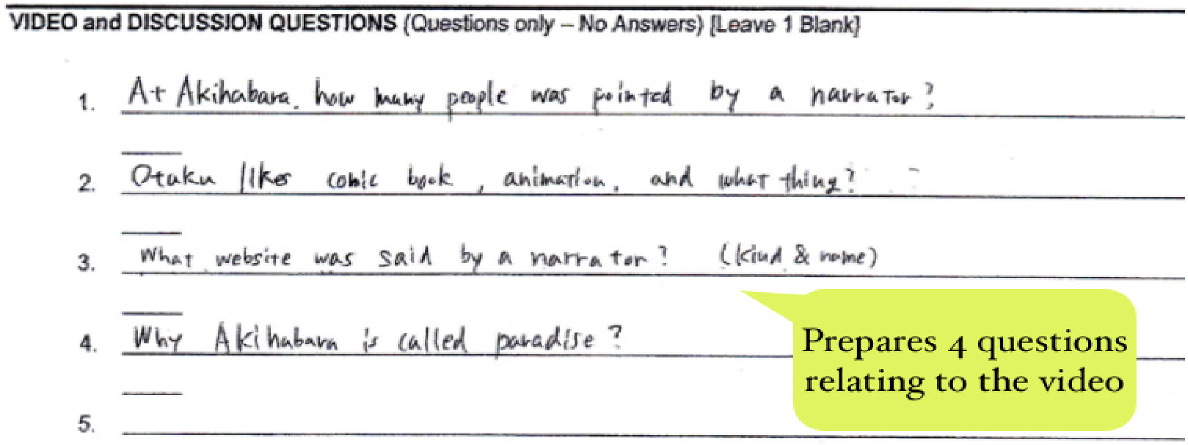
KEY WORDS (Vocabulary / Part of Speech / Meaning) [Leave 2 blank]

1. geek (noun) a person who doesn't know how to behave in social.
2. interest (noun) the feeling that you have when you want to know more about.
3.
4.

KEY POINTS (Two points. One sentence each.) [Leave 1 blank.]

1. Otaku is people who has many special interests.
2.

Figure 3. Previewing details, keywords and key points – student sample.



VIDEO and DISCUSSION QUESTIONS (Questions only – No Answers) [Leave 1 Blank]

1. At Akihabara, how many people was pointed by a narrator?
2. Otaku likes comic book, animation, and what thing?
3. What website was said by a narrator? (kind & name)
4. Why Akihabara is called paradise?
5.

Figure 4. Questions – student sample

Step 3 – In Class

The following week in class, the presenter distributes the worksheet (Appendix 1) to the other class members. Students are placed into groups and work together through the summary, key words and key points. Groups are also encouraged to come up with their own keywords and key points. All this time, the presenter is rotating from group to group, facilitating ideas and discussion.

Step 4

The presenter then goes onto play the selected video three times. Between each viewing, students discuss their answers in groups. Finally, the presenter brings the whole class together to hear the replies from the various groups and to offer his own input.

Advantages

There are a number of advantages to this style of listening task. First of all, it allows the students to practice their researching skills. By sorting through the enormous amount of content available, presenters are faced with the challenge of not only trying to find a video which is relevant and that fits the week's predetermined theme, but more importantly, find one that is of interest to other students. Second, it also allows the students some amount of control over the content of the lesson. As Nunan (1997) states, a challenge for any teacher in the listening classroom is to allow learners to "bring something of themselves to the task" (p. 2). In addition, students also have the opportunity to be exposed to authentic listening texts. Finally, it gives the presenters experience in speaking and to build on their self-confidence by delivering their materials in front of a class. Their work is subject to peer review in the group; it provides a platform for students to feel more positive about their own learning, especially when a challenging task has been successfully achieved in English (Ebata, 2008).

Copyright Concerns

It should be noted that all attempts are made to ensure that there are no breaches of copyright. Article 35(1) of the Japanese Copyright Act allows for educational institutions to reproduce work already made public, as long as it is for non-profit and for educational purposes (CRIC, 2012).

Student Feedback

To gauge student interest and to work on improvements, a short survey was conducted at the end of the semester. For ease of analysis, a 5-point Linkert scale, from strongly disagree to strongly agree, was employed to gather data. The survey consisted of 16 questions and was preceded by 2 open-ended questions and was administered in both Japanese and English.

Survey Results

The number of students who use English outside of the classroom was of particular interest (Table 1). A great number of students indicated that they wanted to improve their English communication and listening skills in order to participate on global social media sites such as Facebook or Twitter. This is despite the fact that 88% of the respondents have never visited an English-speaking country (Table 2).

Table 1
Use of English outside of class

Responses	Percentage
Internet & E-mail	57%
None	31%
Talking with Native English Speakers	12%

Table 2
Have visited an English-speaking country

Responses	Percentage
Never	88%
Less than 1 week	9%
More than 1 year	3%

Most encouraging was that most students chose to employ an English search engine (Table 3) rather than rely on just using Japanese, with the majority spending one hour or more on researching and preparing for the task (Table 4).

A detailed summary of the rest of the survey results, are provided below (Table 5). Results were balanced in whether or not it was the first video found. However most students (73%) thought their video would be interesting for other class members with 71% finding the other students' videos interesting.

Table 3
Q.1-Which language search engine did you use?

Responses	Percentage
English	66%
Japanese	30%
Don't remember	4%

Table 4
Q.2-How long did it take to find your video on-line?

Responses	Percentage
More than 1 hour	30%
About 1 hour	28%
Less than 1 hour	23%
Don't remember	19%

Table 5
Survey Percentage Results

		SD	D	UD	A	SA
Video/Topic Interest						
3.	It was the first video I found	9	30	26	33	2
4.	I thought it would be interesting for the other class members	0	6	21	60	13
5.	The other student videos were interesting	2	7	20	66	5
6.	I was interested in this topic before finding my video	2	9	30	54	5
7.	I was more interested in my topic after presenting	0	5	0	72	23
Listening Exercises						
8.	The questions relating to the video were too difficult	3	40	6	38	13
9.	The presenter should play the video more times	0	33	13	37	17
Discussing the Answers						
10.	I like discussing the answers in groups	3	14	36	39	8
11.	There should be no discussion; the presenter should tell the answers only	11	31	32	17	9
12.	In our groups, I found it is easier to understand the answers	6	17	27	44	6
General Comments						
13.	Each video/presentation was a challenge for me	0	26	37	34	3
14.	I learnt more about the topic after each unit	0	6	35	43	16
15.	I like watching and listening to authentic materials made for native English speakers	3	6	34	40	17
16.	I believe my listening skills have improved	0	6	20	63	11

SD = Strongly Disagree; D = Disagree; UD = Undecided; A = Agree; SA = Strongly Agree

Again results were fairly balanced in regards to the difficulty level of the videos and the number of times they should be played. This was encouraging, as it would suggest that the level of activity was appropriate for the class. There is always the fear that students could experience anxiety when faced with materials that are authentic. The type of listening that can occur through real-life can be quite different to those that are scripted. Despite the number of respondents who did experience difficulty, the case for introducing authentic materials is still valid and should be encouraged. Field (2002) agrees, suggesting that authentic listening materials should be introduced as early as possible as recordings of "spontaneous speech expose learners to the rhythms of natural everyday English in a way scripted materials cannot, however, good the actors" (p.244).

Most students also indicated that they liked discussing the answers in groups with 50% finding it easier to understand the answers that way. This was perhaps not so surprising, as group work can according to (Jacobs & Farrell, 2001), provide a solid forum for students to employ their "collaborative skills to bring out and value the ideas of all group members" (p.10).

Finally, the survey indicated that the majority of respondents appeared to have enjoyed the activity with 59% indicating that they had learnt more about the topic. A majority (74%) reported that they believed that their English listening skills had improved. Whether this is actually the case or not, 57% did however, indicate that they enjoyed being exposed to authentic listening materials in the classroom.

Conclusion

While in the past, listening may have been somewhat neglected as an important skill, it would appear by some of the points discussed in this paper, that this trend now appears to be changing. Recent research does tend to suggest that listening entails a combination of processes as well as sub-processes, all of which work in tandem without following any particular order. This opens up the possibilities to both educators and students alike to try different ideas in their listening classrooms. The lesson plan discussed in this paper is only just one example of how this may be achieved. The survey, while showing the lesson to be well received by a majority of students, is in no way conclusive and demonstrates the need for further research and discussion in this area. It is hoped that by having a better understanding of the processes and other factors discussed in this paper, can help us as educators to plan and deliver more effective listening strategies for our students to enjoy.

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Appendix

Student Worksheet

Listening Communication Article Worksheet Name: ___________________

Video Title: ____ Uploader: ____________________

URL: ____ Date of Video: ___________________

YOUTUBE SUMMARY (50 to 100 words)

KEY WORDS (Vocabulary / Part of Speech / Meaning) [Leave 2 blank]

1. ____ ________________________
2. ____
3. ____
4. ______________________________________ _____________________________________

KEY POINTS (Two points. One sentence each.) [Leave 1 blank.]

1. ____
   ____________________________________ ______________________________
   ____
2. ____
   ____________________ ____
   ____

VIDEO and DISCUSSION QUESTIONS (Questions only – No Answers) [Leave 1 Blank]

1. ____________ _________________________________ ____________________
2. ____ ____________________
3. ____ ____________________
4. ____ ____________________
5. ____

Japanese University Classroom Behavior and Teacher Expectations: Non-Cooperative Behavior in Context

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Non-cooperative behavior in Japanese university classes is quite often distinct from misbehavior both in form and motivation. This research began by treating non-compliance as a set of learning/interaction habits rather than expressions of a student's character or moral identity. Qualitative and quantitative data were gathered on: (a) student views on their place in the classroom community, (b) student opinions on certain behaviors, and (c) teachers' reflections on their relationships with their classes. Participants were then asked to reflect on which learning habits might be open to change.

日本の大学の授業における学生の授業に対する非協力な行動は、それらがどのような行動か、またどのような心理状態かという程度から、しばしばそれぞれは区別される。本研究では、授業にきちんと従うかどうかという点において、学生の性格や、彼らが道徳的であるかというこということより、学習や話し方の習慣として扱うこととした。定性的および定量的なデータは、(a)学生自身の授業における自分たちの行動について、(b)授業にきちんと参加していない行動について、(c)他の教師からの彼らの授業での学生について、を収集した。このデータ作成に伴って協力してくれた教師と学生からは、これらのデータがこれからの授業行動に反映されるのかと問うた。

Japanese university classes have a natural mix of students: some are outgoing and others are more reticent. Teachers sometimes comment that academic or practical ability does not necessarily predict how smoothly a class will run; moreover, it is sometimes the "shy" students who appear to engage in the class more than their "extrovert" peers (Anderson, 1993). There seems to be a set of behaviors (or strategies) which is employed by many students which hinders a group in proceeding through their lesson. Typically these behaviors are seen when students do not wish to answer a question from the teacher, complete an assigned task, or when they express low levels of motivation.

A small-scale survey of 58 students (taught by the author, at two universities in Tokyo) and 15 teachers was conducted, initially involving one interview with the teachers, and two rounds of recorded, unscripted interviews with the students in small groups of up to six as part of their regular teacher-student feedback meetings. As a result of the responses, a series of lesson plans was created which included activity types which suggested themselves based on the data collected. Several weeks later in the semester, the classes were run, and afterward, one final interview was conducted with the participating students. The basic themes of the interviews are listed in Table 1.

In the first interview, when the teachers were

Conway, N. (2014). Japanese university classroom behavior and teacher expectations: Non-cooperative behavior in context. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 197-202). Nagoya: JALT.

Table 1
Interview Themes

	Target Group	Theme	
1	Teachers	Types of non-compliant behavior	n = 15
2	Students	Attitudes to non-compliant behavior	n = 58
3	Students	Attitudes to non-compliant behavior	n = 58
4	Students	Post-lessons feedback	n = 58

asked about the types of student behavior which most often disrupted their class, "sleeping in class" was the most commonly-cited. Aside from this, the next most common behaviors were:

1. *Talking* when other students/ the teacher "have the floor"
2. *Avoiding eye contact* in order to avoid answering a question
3. *Consulting other students* (often in L1, and often at length) when asked a direct question
4. *Using "props"* (like eye drops/ dictionary/ searching for something in a bag) to provide a legitimate reason to be unable to answer (and therefore avoid) a question

The respondents were asked to comment on what might be the cause of these behaviors. With the exception of "sleeping" the consensus among the teachers was that while these behaviors were disruptive, they were not intended as a challenge to the teacher's authority, as a way to obstruct other students' learning, or as deliberate attempts to derail the class; rather they were usually simple, "one off" techniques to avoid active participation in the class which might result in their embarrassment, rather than an indication of the students' attitudes to the course, or class, as a whole.

It should be mentioned that "sleeping in class" elicited the greatest variety of interpretations from the teacher respondents (especially in the freer, unscripted and more open discussion parts of the research): some believed that it does in fact indicate a negative attitude toward the teacher or class, while others believed that it is a consequence of extra-curricular pressures on students such as heavy homework-load, long and difficult commutes to university, or long hours spent working at a part-time job. For these reasons, this study did not focus on "sleeping;" instead, it focused on behaviors which most teachers felt were clearly avoidance strategies.

A Broad Working Definition

The kinds of behavior discussed above (1-4) are considered here as something more than shyness, "misbehavior," or malicious obstructiveness. They certainly do disrupt the class to a lesser or greater extent, and shyness might be a component, but the focus of this paper are the strategies used by students to avoid complying with (usually) the teacher's instructions. O'Donnell (2001) points out that ". . . no student is likely to be keen to do a task . . . that puts them in a situation where they are made to look small in front of their contemporaries" (p. 98). Even when students feel fairly sure that they are able to actively participate, they will often prefer not to. Herein, O'Donnell's set of behaviors is referred to as "non-compliance," "non-compliant behavior," "non-cooperation," or "non-cooperative behavior." Much discussion could be had regarding the power relationships that this terminology implies: it is evocative of Nunan's "high-structure teaching" (1999, p. 75), for example, and the opportunities (or lack thereof) for students to legitimately challenge these (Hofstede, 1986). At a future point in this research, a more appropriate term may suggest itself; however, the present discussion is rooted in the university teacher's roles as classroom manager and participant in an evolving process which is dependent on mutual participation on the part of teacher and each student, and these terms are intended to reflect this. The term "non-compliance," and its collocates above, is intended here to signify behavior which disrupts learning, but which is not deliberately intended to do so; its purpose is avoidance, and unfortunately students do not recognize the fact that it affects the lesson, the class, and potential for fun and learning for everyone.

Teacher and Student Attitudes Toward Non-Compliant Behavior

A second, open-question discussion was conducted

Table 2
Most Common Teacher Responses to Non-compliant Behaviors

	Behavior	Teacher's suggestions	
1	Talking	Call the student's name and ask them to be quiet	8
2	Avoiding Eye-Contact	Walk over to the student and force them to "see" me	3
3	Consulting Other Students	Call the student's name and make it clear that the question was directed only to them	2
4	Using "props"	Wait, making it clear that the student is expected to eventually answer	1
		Remove/ confiscate the object	1
			n = 15

Table 3
Student Attitudes to Non-compliant Behavior

Behavior	Students' attitudes				
	1: Not a problem		3: Somewhat of a problem		5: Serious problem
Talking	12	31	13	2	
Avoiding eye-contact	14	22	14	8	
Consulting other students	3	36	19		
Using "props"	16	28	14		
					n = 58

with the same 15 university teachers, and another similar interview (with Japanese translation) was conducted with 58 university students and included one question which asked all the participants to suggest ways that a teacher should react to specified non-compliant behaviors. The students' suggestions often reflected a non-confrontational approach: only a few (5 of 58) of their responses required immediate action from the teacher, mostly in the form of the teacher raising his or her voice, clapping his or her hands, or asking the question again. By far the most common student suggestion was "the teacher should wait/ be patient" (51 of 58). The teachers' responses were more indicative of their desire alternatively to "make sure that [students] don't get away with it", or to "get things moving again," as several respondents wrote.

It is striking that none of the teacher responses involved a long-term solution (beyond, in some cases, explaining that they "always" reacted in the same way). Any longer-term strategy was in essence just to maintain the consistency (or "fairness") with which they dealt with non-compliance, utilizing the same strategy each time. Just as they suspected that the students were not intending to disrupt the class, and that the behavior was "one-off" and designed to "avoid the spotlight," so their own reaction was short-term and often specific to each type of instance, and usually designed to keep the "spotlight" on the student involved because of a sense of fairness: a "reflection of what they know and believe" (Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

It is also noteworthy that the students' responses to the question of whether non-compliant behavior is a serious or minimal disruption to the class are all characterized by the belief that it is not.

Students appear to see a disrupted class as proceeding fairly normally even if both (a) another student's behavior is annoying for them *and* (b) the teacher seems to be at that moment focused on dealing with the interruption. This may be interpreted as a sign that the students are behaving as if they are not part of the class, or as one teacher-respondent put it: "it's like they're watching me on television rather than actually doing a lesson."

Distance

There seems to be a circular pattern to both positive and negative classroom interaction: with greater awareness of others, comes a greater sense of participation and desire to "own" the lesson, this is a centripetal force which brings the locus of control *towards* students, which in turn requires a greater awareness of others and interest in engaging, which in turn affects locus of control, and so on. A lack of awareness of others implies that participants are less involved, which centrifugal force pushes the locus of control *away* (for everyone: most of the class start to "watch television" while the teacher deals with the problem), and the desire to engage recedes.

A Longer-Term Approach

This research focuses on one part of the cycle of positive classroom interaction above: awareness of others. In order to raise and extend students' awareness of the value of engaging with others, it was decided that some new (to these classes) approaches would be used. These approaches were intended to encourage students to recognize their role as important participants, and to recognize their peers' equally important participant roles. In order that students would not become overly distracted by the idea of non-compliant behavior, the initial series of discussions had been conducted at the start of the semester and couched in terms of the theme of the lessons at the time: "Big City Manners: Are People in Tokyo Polite?" and were treated as a peripheral exercise to give students some more opportunities to talk about the lesson theme. When, mid-term, the students were asked (as part of the normal feedback process) to suggest ways in which the lessons could be improved, most responded that they were happy, and also requested that they be given more "real" vocabulary to help with upcoming TOEFL IP tests mandated by the two universities, while some (12) students requested some explicit help with developing their accents to avoid "sounding Japanese." Fulfilling these requests allowed for an exploration of activity types which might increase class participation, and reduce non-compliant behavior, and four approaches were decided upon: (1) Imparting a more rigorous structure to lessons; (2) Having students adopt different roles in the classroom; (3) Using drama training activities and (4) Introducing an extensive reading component to the course.

Class Roles

Students often "tune out" in lessons because there are few opportunities to empathize with other participants (usually the teacher or "nominated" students) whose goals are different, and more complicated than simply sitting through a class. This approach had the author give successive groups of students a lesson plan for an upcoming lesson component of 45 minutes and over the three or four days prior to the next class, they worked together and, with guidance from the author at lunchtimes, devised activities which would help the class practice the language point. When each groups' teaching day arrived, they were invariably met with rapt attention as they instructed their peers and delivered their lesson component.

Extensive Reading

Since the classes met twice a week, the students were asked to read two graded readers (based on novels from the 19th and 20th Centuries) per week, and a twenty-minute slot of each subsequent class was used to discuss the main characters' motivations, and specifically how those characters' attitudes, feelings, and desires shaped the story. By the end of the course, students were clearly more able to discuss the motivations and feelings of both the characters in the novels, and paid greater attention to their peers during these discussions than shown in similar activities before.

Structure

The author designed lesson plans which involved short five- to ten- minute parts which had a heavy, teacher-centered element, and which (perhaps most importantly) were clearly signposted as requiring the students' full engagement. This meant that simple keywords such as "Listen" were not used at all (as instructions) in the other parts of the lesson. Instead they had a specific meaning in the teacher-led lesson parts, and the students fairly quickly became used to actively listening to a Socratic style of discourse where they were told the content of the interaction and reminded of what they had been doing with the teacher afterward, before being given pair/ small-group work which required each student to play an active and autonomous role: tasks involving the negotiation toward an outcome were used (role-plays with hard-to-reconcile positions/ group tasks which depended on all members of the team working together)The most crucial points were brevity, clarity and the elimination of display questions. In place of these (and rather at odds with common teaching practice), the students were simply asked if they had any questions.

Drama Training Activities

The activities used were not drama activities in the sense that students would adopt a role and then negotiate toward an outcome by reading or inventing a script. Instead, the author used drama training activities much along the lines of Gaulier's (*Le Gegeneur*, 1996) ideas on very minimalistic technique-specific training ideas. John Wright (1996) also has engaging and adaptable ideas which force participants to recognize and explore the dialogic nature of experiential learning (Vygotsky, 2012). In other words, the students were required to focus on their partners' thoughts and intentions, and above all else (although these ideas were not explicitly discussed): *being in the moment*; and *complicité*. One very successful activity has students work in pairs sitting face to face beside a table with each student placing their hand (nearest the table) palm-down with their fingertips about 20 centimeters away from their partner's. The teacher places a book between the students' hands. Each student takes it in turn to narrate a story of whatever type (any kind of coherent story will do and the teacher can specify vocabulary or grammar which must be used, but fluent, extended discourse is key). The goal is to slap the book three times, thus winning the game. Both partners must maintain eye-contact: if it is broken by one, the other gains a point. The narrator's job is to distract the listener (with whatever linguistic, meta-linguistic or narrative device she might use) as she quickly tries to slap the book before the other partner realizes that she is about to try for a point, and is then allowed to try to best her (moving before the narrator incurs a penalty point). The object of the game is to have students concentrate on each other's eyes and facial expressions. When the students become used to the procedure, time-limits should be introduced. This very simple game had the author's students making more eye contact in ten minutes than in all the previous classes combined, but more importantly, it created a lasting impression on the students, and led to much discussion at the end of the course.

Final Interview Data and Conclusions

For this piece of research, of course exploratory, the preliminary results are rather positive, with all participating students appearing in the author's classes to be stronger participants (and incidentally, delivering higher scores on their end-of-semester feedback forms compared to other comparable classes). Typical post-lesson student comments were: "I didn't think I'd enjoy talking and looking into her eyes for so long, but I'm happy and I think that you should do that every class!", "I think reading about peoples' feelings is good because it helps when I discuss in class." and "Let's do this more, especially drama!" The author is aware of the effect of simple novelty on these feedback forms; however, the anecdotal results seem to indicate progress. Instances of the non-compliant behaviors discussed above were markedly reduced.

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L1 in the EFL Class: Student Preferences and Teacher Beliefs

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This study focused on student preferences for, and teacher beliefs regarding, teachers` use of the students` L1 (Japanese) in the EFL class. Mismatching attitudes could have pedagogical repercussions. The research questions were: 1) Do student preferences for teachers` use of students` L1 differ according to their L2 (English) proficiency? 2) Do Japanese teachers` (JTEs) and native English speaking teachers` (NESTs) pedagogical beliefs differ regarding Japanese use? 3) Do student preferences and teacher beliefs match? The participants in this study were 305 Japanese students, and 13 JTEs and NESTs in English Communication courses in a university in Western Japan. Participants completed identical bilingual questionnaires. Their responses supported the hypothesis that student preferences for teacher use of Japanese differs at varying student L2 proficiency levels. Mismatches between students and teachers occurred regarding Japanese support used by JTEs and NESTs. Pedagogical implications and recommendations are explored.

本論文は、英語授業で教師が学習者（大学生）の第一言語（日本語）を使用することへの学生の希望、および教師の信条について調査することを目的とする。学生と教師の態度が異なる場合、教育面への影響が考えられる。本研究の研究課題は次の3つである。学習者が自分たちの第一言語を使った指導を教師に求める傾向は、第二言語（英語）の運用能力と共に変化するか。日本人英語教師と英語母語とする英語教師の日本語使用に関する教育信条は異なるか。学習者の要望と教師の信条とは合致するか。以上を明らかにするためアンケート調査を実施した。調査対象は、日本の大学の「コミュニケーション」関係の英語クラスの日本人受講者305名、この科目を担当する日本人教師（NT）と英語母語教師（NEST）計13名である。対象者は英語と日本語のに言語の表記による同一質問紙に回答した。回答を分析した結果、教師の授業での日本語の要望は、英語の熟達度により異なっていた。また日本人教師と英語母語教師による日本語使用に関する評価は、学習者と教師間で異なっていた。本稿は以上の結果に基づき、研究面及び教育面の示唆を得ようとするものである。

Support for the use of the first language (the L1) in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom has burgeoned in the past 15 - 20 years (Şenel, 2010). While common sense suggests that proficiency in a target language (TL) may affect student preferences for L1 support, this relationship could be clarified. Furthermore, the relationship between teacher beliefs and student preferences for L1 support has not

Carson, E. (2014). L1 in the EFL class: Student preferences and teacher beliefs. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 203-213). Nagoya: JALT.

received much attention in the medium of instruction (MOI) literature. The researcher aims to clarify student preferences and teacher beliefs regarding teacher use of the L1 in the EFL classroom. To understand teacher motives better, EFL classroom language policy will be examined.

Background

It is a commonly held tenet that maximizing L2 exposure and use in the EFL classroom results in a better learning outcome (Polio & Duff, 1994; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). Teaching English in English (TEE), an educational policy promoted and/or accepted by many government agencies, teaching administrators, teachers, and parents (Auerbach, 1993; Butzkamm, 2003; Cook, 2001), should create optimal conditions for student learning (Duff & Polio, 1990; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). While TEE seems like common sense, it has been criticized for lacking theoretical, pedagogical, and/or empirical support (Auerbach, 1993).

On the other hand, maximizing use of the L2 is not incompatible with use of the L1 to aid in the acquisition of the L2 (Cook, 2012). It is not the maximizing of the L2 that is at issue in this paper, but the possibilities of using the L1 as a classroom resource.

EFL students generally begin L2 study after acquiring their L1. Thus, they can use their L1 to assist in learning the L2, particularly during early vocabulary acquisition. L1 support is not only beneficial but also essential to the acquisition of the L2 (Kroll & Tokowicz, 2001).

Several studies have attempted to elucidate the pedagogical uses to which L1 support can be applied to maximize L2 acquisition (e.g., Burden, 2000; Prodromou, 2002), but results differ even among studies using similar instruments. The researcher will focus on a comparison of studies by Schweers (1999), Burden (2001), and Tang (2002). Since these studies used similar surveys and had participants of varying L2 proficiency levels, it is hoped that research that examines the data from the perspective of proficiency may contribute some clarity.

In a study comparing non-English major Spanish-speaking students and ESL teachers in Puerto Rico, Schweers (1999) found that teachers believed that the L1 should be used even more (100%) than the students (86.2%). The only pedagogical use for the L1 clearly favored by the students was explaining difficult concepts (86.2%), mismatching with teacher perceptions (22.0%). Few students saw a need for L1 support for helping students to feel comfortable (13.4%) or less tense (18.3%); their strongest emotional desire for L1 support was to help when they feel lost (68.3%). The high desire for some Spanish support, mainly for difficult concepts and to help students when they feel lost, and the otherwise low response rates for all other pedagogical L1 uses, may be due to the status of English as an official second language. Elucidation could result by examining a similar study, using a similar instrument, conducted under EFL conditions.

Next, in a study comparing non-English major Japanese student expectations and EFL teacher beliefs, Burden (2001) found that students (87%) and teachers (86%) agreed that Japanese should be used in the classroom, and that students (61%) and teachers (78%) valued L1 use for telling jokes, an area in which Schweers` participants did not find the L1 to be helpful. He also found several areas of mismatching attitudes between students and teachers. Teachers believed that L1 support should be used for grammar (63%), giving instruction (65%), explaining classroom rules (63%) and creating human contact (73%), while students disagreed (37%, 30%, 25% and 38% respectively). Burden reasoned that students preferred the opportunity to hear “real English” to learning grammar, were indifferent to communicative approaches and were waiting for an activity to fulfill their more traditional expectations, and were not interested in creating human contact with teachers. Burden believed that these numbers might reflect the low proficiency levels of his students, which could explain why student preferences in his study were higher than in Schweers` ESL study.

In an EFL study with English majors, Tang (2002) found that Chinese students (70%) and EFL teachers (72%) agreed that Chinese should be used in the classroom. Unlike with Schweers and Burden, students preferred more L1 support for difficult grammar (72%) than teachers (39%), for learning new words (69%), mismatching with teachers (39%), and less than half of the Chinese students (48%) preferred L1 support for difficult concepts or ideas, on a par with their teachers (44%). Chinese students did not feel that teachers` use of their L1 helped them feel more comfortable or less stressed (8%) or lost (6%). It would appear that, having chosen to be English majors, these students felt less need for emotional L1 support than in Burden`s study.

An area left unexplored in Schweers`, Burden`s and Tang`s studies above is the issue of teacher linguistic origin. The last issue being considered is the comparison of NESTs with non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs), which includes teachers from all nationalities. Most students appreciate both types of teachers for different reasons (Pacek, 2005). In the context of Japan, it is beneficial to elucidate how NEST and JTE beliefs translate into L1 usage in the EFL class. If teacher use of the L1 does not match student preferences, an unhappy and counter-productive classroom could develop.

Research Questions

1. Does EFL learner proficiency affect their preferences for teacher use of their L1?
2. Do NEST and JTE beliefs in their use of the student L1 to support L2 learning differ?
3. Do student preferences, NEST and JTE beliefs coincide?

Method

Participants

The participants were 305 first- and second-year non-English major university students enrolled in communication English courses offered to students in humanity and science areas in a university in Western Japan. Identical bilingual questionnaires were given to thirteen EFL teachers who taught at the same university. Seven were native English speakers, whereas six were native Japanese speakers. To avoid confusion regarding which language "L1" refers to, in this paper, the "L1" will refer to the students` L1, or Japanese, and "L2" to the students` L2, or English.

Questionnaire

The researcher adapted a questionnaire from Schweers (1999) by adding a question asking if teachers should know the students` L1 (Burden, 2001), adding a question about students` English and teachers` Japanese proficiency, and providing a bilingual version to all participants to avoid misunderstandings. Student TOEIC scores were used to determine students` proficiency, and JLPT scores or teachers` estimation of it determined NESTs` Japanese proficiency. Later, the low number of teacher respondents necessitated reorganizing them into NESTs and JTEs. Participation was anonymous and voluntary.

Procedure

Student participants took an average of 15 minutes in class to answer the 9 yes/no and multiple-choice questions. Teachers answered their questionnaires on the same day.

Analysis

The researcher divided the students into 4 proficiency groups according to their TOEIC scores: Group 1 (Beginner, <299, n=63), Group 2 (Lower Intermediate, 300-399, n=96), Group 3 (Intermediate, 400-599, n=110), and Group 4 (Advanced, ≥ 600, n=36). The teachers were categorized into NEST (n=7) and JTE (n=6) groups. The researcher compared the student preferences and teacher beliefs regarding a variety of classroom situations.

Results

To find answers to the three research questions (RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3), the readers are invited to refer to the relevant questions in the survey (Q2, Q3, Q4, and Q5a-Q5j) (please see the actual survey form in the Appendix), before examining the responses.

Research Question 1

The following analysis focuses on general student preferences regarding Japanese use in the EFL classroom (see Figure 1). Responses to the questionnaire items Q2: Should the instructor know the L1? Q3: Should the L1 be used in class? And Q4: Should the instructor use the L1? are compared to answer the first Research Question (RQ1): Does EFL learner proficiency affect

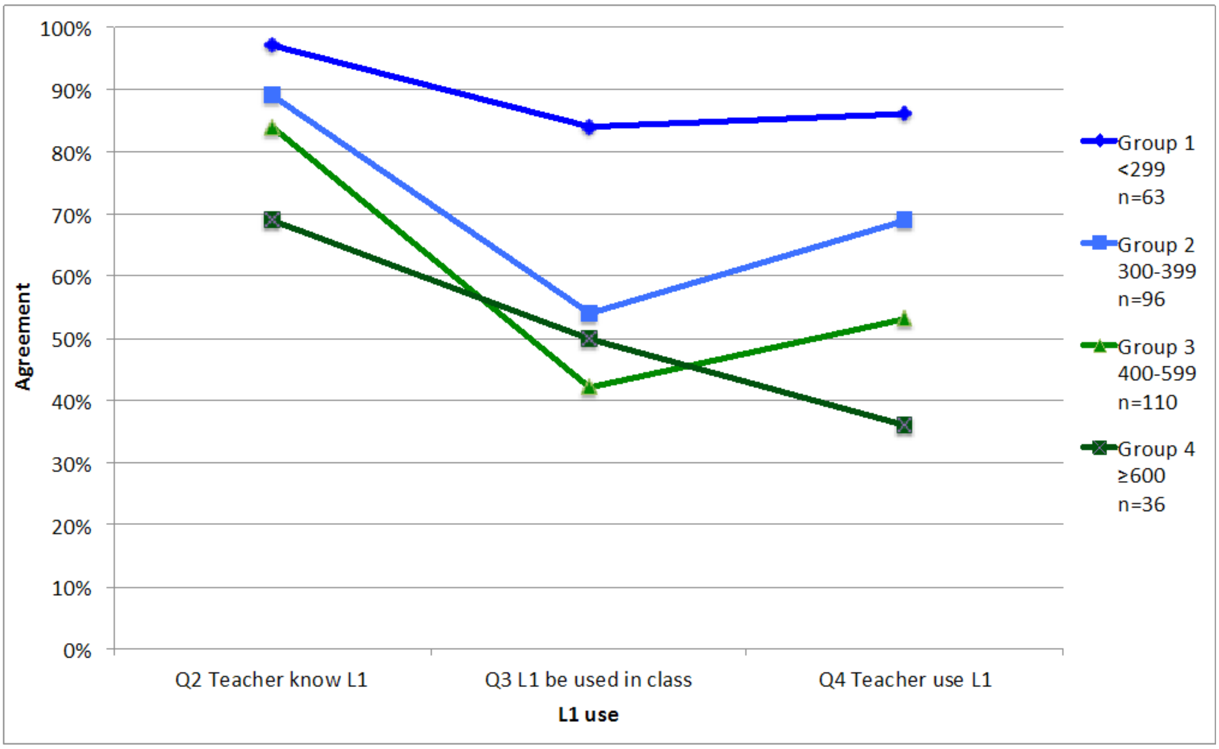

Figure 1. Student preferences for using the L1 in class.

their preferences for teacher use of their L1?

For Q2, 97% of Group 1 (Beginner) students prefer that the instructor know the L1, with student preferences decreasing to 50% of Group 4 (Advanced). Regarding Q3, 86% of Group 1 students prefer that the L1 be used in class (by students), with preferences declining to 42% for Group 3, and then rising to 50% of Group 4. Finally, for Q4, 86% of Group 1, falling to 36% of Group 4, prefers the instructors to use the L1 in class. As students` proficiency increases, fewer students prefer their teachers` use of Japanese in class, a relationship that the researcher calls The Proficiency Effect.

Research Question 2

To answer Research Question 2 (RQ2), "Do NEST and JTE beliefs in teacher use of the student L1 to support L2 learning differ?" NESTs` and JTEs` responses to the same questions are compared: Should the teacher know the L1? (Q2); Should the L1 be used in class (by the students)? (Q3); and Should the teachers use the L1 in class? (Q4).

For all three of these questions (see Figure 2), most teachers believe that teachers should know the L1 (NESTs 71%, JTEs 100%, Q2) and the L1 can be used in class (by the students) (NESTs 86%, JTEs 83%, Q4), but half or less of the teachers responded that teachers should use the L1 (NESTs 43%, JTEs 50%, Q3), figures which fell below all but the advanced student responses.

Research Question 3

To answer the third research question (RQ3), "Do student preferences, JT and NEST beliefs coincide," the researcher will compare the student responses to questions 5a,b,d,e,f,g,i and j.

Instruction: mixed results

To compare student preferences (see Figure 3) and with corresponding JTE and NEST beliefs (see Figure 4) regarding instructive aspects of EFL lessons, the researcher compared responses to the relevant parts of question 5 from the questionnaire: Q5a Explaining difficult concepts; Q5b Introducing new material; Q5d Testing; Q5g checking comprehension; Q5i comparing the L1 and L2; and Q5j defining new vocabulary.

Most students prefer Japanese support for

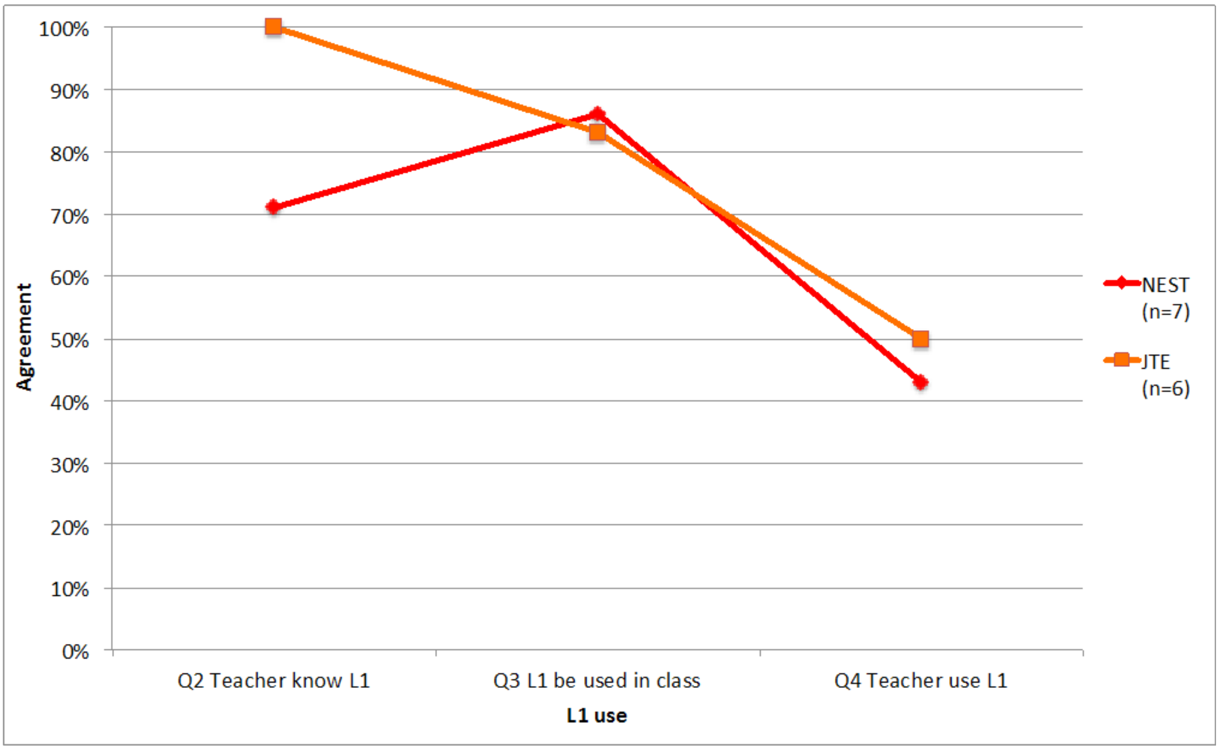

Figure 2. Teacher beliefs about using the L1 in class.

explaining difficult concepts (Q5a), from Group 1 (79%), increasing to Group 2 (91%), and then declining to Group 4 students (61%). Most NESTs (86%) and JTEs (100%) agree that Japanese is useful.

Regarding introducing new material (Q5b), a U-shaped pattern is observed for students. Group scores decrease and then increase with higher proficiency: Group 1 (29%), decreasing with Group 2 (16%) to Group 3 (20%), and then rising again for Group 4 (33%). NESTs (57%) differ from JTEs (17%), with JTEs matching student preferences.

Concerning testing (Q5d), few students regard L1 support as necessary. Only 30% of Group 1, rising slightly to 33% of Group 2, and then falling steadily to 8% of Group 4, prefer L1 support. More NESTs (57%), compared to JTEs (33%), believe that L1 support was needed, with JTEs being closer to student preferences.

About 50% of Group 1, rising to 52% of Group 2, and then declining to Group 4 (42%) prefers L1 support for checking comprehension (Q5g). Teacher beliefs differ: 71% of NESTs compared to 33% of JTEs believe that L1 support would be helpful, with JTEs being closer to student preferences.

When comparing the L1 and L2 (Q5i), 52% of Group 1 prefers L1 support, rising to 63% of Group 2, and then decreasing to Group 3 (54%) and Group 4 (47%). More JTEs (83%), than NESTs (57%) believe that L1 use was helpful, with NESTs matching student preferences.

Student preferences for L1 support for defining new vocabulary (Q5j) decrease from Group 1 (65%) to Group 4 (25%). More NESTs (71%) than JTEs (50%) believe that Japanese should be used.

The results suggest that more students prefer their teachers` L1 support for difficult concepts, L1 and L2 comparison, new vocabulary, and comprehension than for other aspects of instruction. Preferences are linked with student proficiency in their L2.

Emotional Factors

Only 35% of Group 1 prefers L1 support with jokes, with responses declining through Group 2 (26%) and being almost the same with Group 3 (18%) and Group 4 (19%). NESTs (29%) matched students compared to JTEs (100%).

Regarding L1 support for confidence and comfort in class (Q5f), 37% of Group, 1 falling to 17% of Group 3 prefers L1 support, with an increase for Group

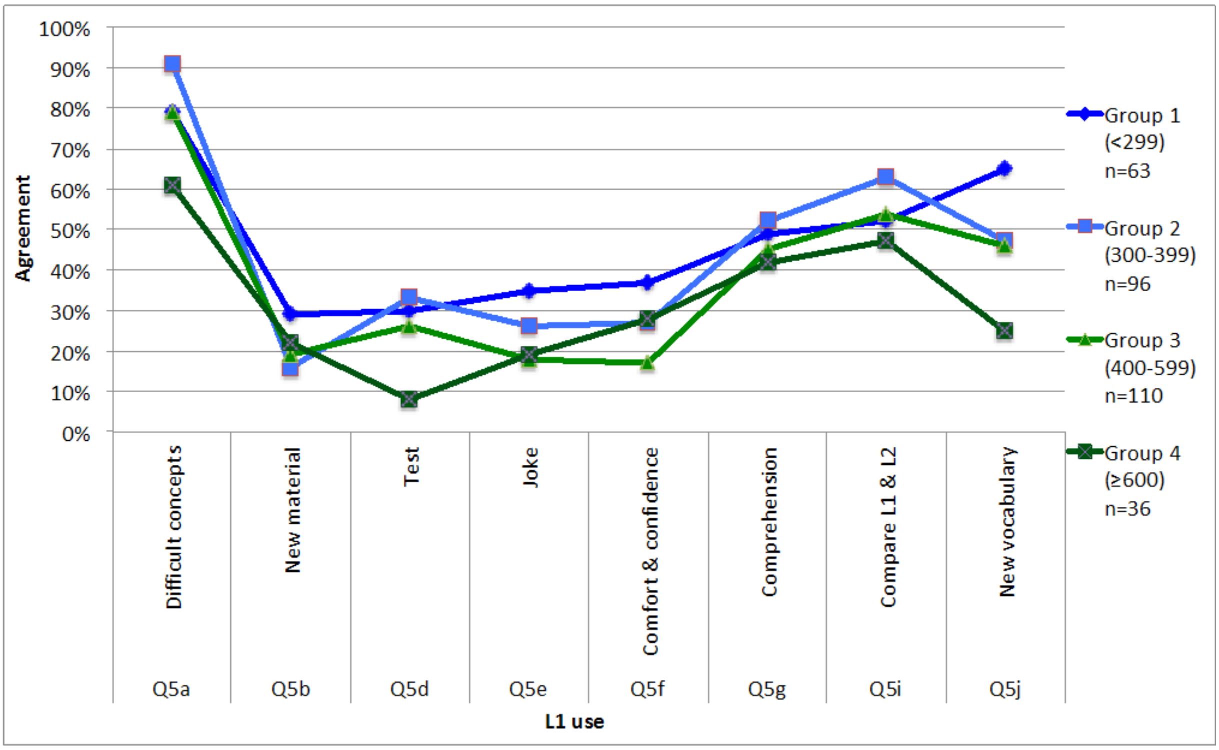

Figure 3. Student preferences regarding L1 pedagogical uses.

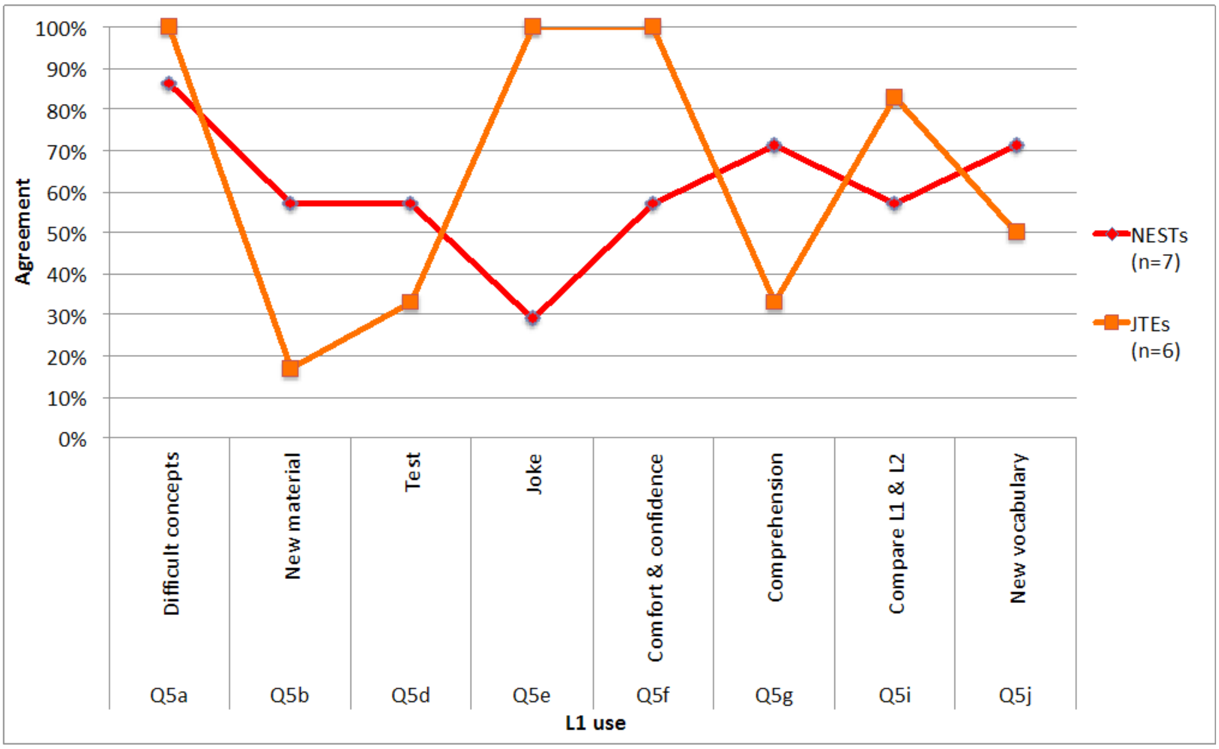

Figure 4. NEST and JTE beliefs regarding L1 pedagogical uses.

4 (28%). More JTEs (100%) than NESTs (57%) believe that Japanese could help students feel more comfortable and confidant, with NEST responses being closer to student preferences.

The results suggest that more students prefer their teachers` L1 support for difficult concepts, L1 and L2 comparison, comprehension, and except for Group 4, new vocabulary, than for other aspects of instruction. Preferences are linked with student proficiency in their L2.

Discussion

Research results support The Proficiency Effect pattern. L1 preferences decrease from Group 1 (Beginner) to Group 5 (Advanced) students for general preferences. Students and teachers agreed that the L1 should be known and used by teachers, and used in the classroom, supporting similar results by Schweers` ESL study (1999), Burden`s EFL study (2001) and Tang` EFL study (2002). The discussion will refer to these three studies.

Results regarding L1 support for instructive aspects in EFL classes are mixed. Students in Groups 1 to 4 prefer Japanese support for difficult concepts, as in Schweers but contrary to Burden and Tang. However, for comparing the L1 and L2, results were moderate and similar to Burden. For comprehension, preferences were similar to Burden and Tang, but higher than Schweers, suggesting a difference between the EFL and ESL contexts.

Responses concerning L1 emotional support for students indicate mismatches between students and teachers. Students prefer less L1 support for comfort and confidence than NESTs and especially JTEs believe is helpful, generally supporting Schweers, Burden and Tang about students, and Schweers but not Burden about teachers. Furthermore, while student responses were similar to NESTs about jokes, they were much lower than JTE responses. Schweers reported an agreement at low levels for students and teachers, while Burden reported an agreement between students and teachers at high levels. Furthermore, more JTEs and low-proficiency students than NESTs and high-proficiency students believed that emotional support in the L1 was beneficial. It is possible that having experienced learning the L2, possibly in EFL conditions, JTEs` beliefs differ from those of NESTs.

Differences were observed between NESTs` and JTEs` pedagogical beliefs. NESTs believed in providing less L1 support for joking, and students` comfort and confidence, than JTEs (see Figure 2), which matched student preferences. On the other hand, NESTs felt that more L1 support was needed than JTEs for learning new material, comprehension, testing, and new vocabulary. NESTs mismatched with students on these variables, while JTEs matched with students.

Limitations

Four limitations exist in the present research. First, a low number of teachers participated. Second, self-reported proficiency scores were used to group student participants. Third, the researcher did not consider factors such as student study major, experience overseas, or experience with language learning outside of school. Finally, teacher proficiency levels in both of the languages were not examined. These issues could be the focus for future study.

Conclusions and Pedagogical Recommendations

From the findings reported above, the researcher has concluded that student proficiency levels influence their L1 preferences. From their higher responses to Q2 than to Q4, more students prefer that teachers can understand and use their L1, than students prefer teachers to speak it. Students prefer having the *option* of L1 support. Most students preferred L1 support for difficult concepts and for comparing the L1 with the L2. Despite teacher beliefs that students need emotional L1 support, most students do not prefer such L1 support. Finally, although both NESTs and JTEs agree that teachers should know the L1 and students should use the L1 in class, they disagreed about teachers using the L1.

Suggestions to support students in L1: Encourage the use of L1/L2 dictionaries. Provide bilingual vocabulary lists, grammar handouts and textbooks. Have students translate difficult L2 to L1 to each other or for the class. Allow student L1 discussion while students prepare for difficult tasks. Begin the year using more L1 than at the end. Finally, encouragement should be in the L2.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix

Questionnaire on the Use of Japanese in the ESL/EFL Classroom (For the EFL Students/Teachers)

Please note that all the results obtained from this survey will be treated as confidential and anonymous information, and shall be used for academic research purposes only.
「本アンケートで回収した結果は、学術研究目的のみに使用され、すべて極秘情報および匿名情報として扱われます。」

1. [Instructors only]「英語教師のみ回答してください」

Where does your perceived Japanese ability lie in the following scale? (If you choose to report your ability, please circle the appropriate bracket below. You may skip this question if you do not wish to answer.)
「あなたの日本語能力は、以下のどの段階に相当すると思いますか。」（この質問に答えることにした場合、以下の該当する段階を〇で囲んでください。答えたくない場合は、この質問に答える必要はありません。）

Beginner = JLPT 4, Low-Intermediate = JLPT Level 3, Upper-Intermediate JLPT 2, Advanced = JLPT Level 1*JLPT=Japanese-Language Proficiency Test

[Students only]「学生のみ回答してください」

Where does your latest TOEIC score stand in the following scale? (If you choose to report your ability, please circle the appropriate bracket below. You may skip this question if you do not wish to answer.)
「もっとも最近に受けたTOEIC試験のスコアーは、以下のどの段階に相当しますか。」（この質問に答えることにした場合、以下の該当する段階を〇で囲んでください。答えたくない場合は、この質問に答える必要はありません。）

a) Below 299「299点以下」, b) 300-399「300点～399点」, c) 400-599「400点～599点」, d) 600-799「600点～799点」, e) Above 800「800点以上」

2. Should the instructor know the L1?
「英語教師は、日本語の知識を持っているべきでしょうか。」

Yes/No

3. Should Japanese be used in the classroom?
「教室内で日本語を使うべきでしょうか。」

Yes/No

4. Do you like or would you like your teacher to use Japanese in class?
「授業中、先生に日本語を使って欲しいですか。」
Yes/No

5. When do you think it's appropriate to use Japanese in English class? (Please circle all the relevant items below.)
「英語の授業で、どのような場合に日本語を使うのが適切だと思いますか。」(以下から該当するものをすべて○で囲んでください。)

a) To explain difficult concepts
「難しい概念を説明するとき」

b) To introduce new material
「新しい教材を導入するとき」

c) To summarize material already covered
「既に学習した教材の内容を復習するとき」

d) To Test (e.g. translating from English into Japanese in a test)
「英語力をテストするとき(例ーテストで英語から日本語に訳すときなど)」

e) To joke around with students
「生徒に冗談を言うとき」

f) To help students feel more comfortable and confident
「生徒の居心地をより良くし、より自信を付けさせるとき」

g) To check for comprehension
「内容を理解しているか確認するとき」

h) To carry out small-group work
「小グループで活動をするとき」

i) To explain the relationship between English and Japanese
「英語と日本語の関係を説明するとき」

j) To define new vocabulary items
「新しい語いの説明をするとき」

6. What percent of the time do you think Japanese should be used? (Please circle the relevant percentage.)
「日本語の使用は、授業全体のどれ位の割合を占めるべきだと思いますか」(以下の該当する割合を○で囲んでください)

割合: 0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90%

7. How often do you think Japanese should be used in the English classroom? (Please circle the relevant item.)
「英語の授業中、どの程度の頻度で日本語を使うべきだと思いますか。」(以下の該当する割合を○で囲んでください)

a) never 「一切使うべきでない」

b) very rarely「滅多に使うべきでない」

c) sometimes「ときどき使うべき」

d) fairly frequently to aid comprehension 「授業内容の把握につながるため、ある程度頻繁に使うべき」

8. If you prefer the use of Japanese in your class, why? (Please circle the relevant item.)
「授業中に日本語を使用することを好む場合、その理由は何ですか。」(以下の該当する割合を〇で囲んでください)

a) It's more comfortable「よりくつろいだ気分になるから」
b) I am less tense「緊張感が下がるから」
c) I feel less lost「授業に戸惑う割合が減るから」

9. Do you believe using Japanese in your English class helps you learn this language? (Please circle the relevant item.)
「授業中に日本語を使うことで、英語の理解が進むと思いますか。」

a) no「いいえ」
b) a little「少し進む」
c) fairly much「やや進む」
d) a lot「大いに進む」

Learning as Meaning-making in Communities of Practice

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Two fundamental ideas from the social theory of language learning form the basis of this research. First, the concept of Communities of Practice (CoP), introduced by Lave and Wenger (1991), emphasizes that learning occurs through the participation of community members as part of social practices in relationships (Wenger, 1998). Second, to understand the communities of social practice, newcomers are required to familiarize themselves with the appropriate use of different semiotic community resources (Halliday, 1978; Mickan, 2006). This study investigates the community accustomization process as Japanese students join different academic learning communities in Australia. Classroom discourse analysis, semi-structured interviews, and register analysis along with rhetorical activities from participants' interactions are utilized to examine their evolving roles during the semester. One implication of this research is that the language-learning model should shift from knowledge transmission attribution to participant attribution to better account for how learning occurs within classroom CoP.

本研究は以下の2つの理論を基軸とする。(1)コミュニティー内の新人は社会的実践に参加し、他のメンバーと持続的相互関係を繰返すことで徐々に一人前になっていく過程を「学習」と定義する(Lave & Wenger, 1991)。(2)技巧・知識習得可能な環境を実践共同体と呼び、新人は実践共同体内の一員と成る為に適切な記号論的資源を学び社会活動に参加する(Halliday, 1978; Mickan, 2006)。研究目的は、日本人大学生が豪国内のESLクラス・大学院の授業に参加し、新人から経験豊かな英語学習者へ移行する過程を記録する。調査参加者は、日本人大学生及びそのクラスメート20名。分析方法は、授業観察（週1回約90分を4か月間）・クラスルーム談話分析・インタビュー分析により学習者の学習経過を継続的に記録した。結果、(1) 知識や技術の変化、(2) 学習者とメンバー間の人間関係の変化、(3) 学習者自身のアイデンティティーの変化を記録し 、学習者が周辺的参加から中心的参加へ移行する為の記号論的資源を提示した。

This study examines the process in which Japanese students, as English as a Second Language (ESL) learners, join different academic learning communities in Australia. By utilizing a sociocultural lens and Lave and Wenger's (1991) Communities of Practice (CoP) model, this research investigates how these newcomers evolve into experienced learners by documenting their engagement and participation in peer and classroom discussions. In particular, two fundamental ideas

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from the social theory of language learning form the basis of this investigation. First, the concept of CoP, introduced by Lave and Wenger (1991), emphasizes that learning occurs through the participation of community members as part of social practices in relationships (Mickan, 2006; Wenger, 1998). Second, in order to comprehend the communities of social practice, newcomers are required to familiarize themselves with the appropriate use of different semiotic community resources (Halliday, 1978; Mickan, 2006). This study investigates the community accustomization process by primarily focusing on two Japanese students (J1 and J2) in regard to how they interact with their classmates, develop relationships, and access community resources.

Literature Review

The perspective taken in this paper is that learning occurs through participation in communities that the participants belong to, which is described as CoP (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Such participation is essential not only for learning but also for community development. The degree of participation in a community falls into one of the three groups: peripheral, active, and core (Wenger, 2002). Over time, newcomers can move from the periphery toward the core, thus constructing an identity based on their experiences and relationships developed within the CoP, which in turn can transform the community itself. This accommodation and transformation of CoP through changes in membership is referred to as "legitimate peripheral participation (LPP)" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29). By utilizing Lave and Wenger's model, learning occurs by engaging in social practices within CoP (Guzdial & Tew, 2006). To become community members, newcomers need to observe models of accepted community discourses and receive scaffolding and coaching from more experienced members. The learning process is located in particular social contexts; therefore, it involves becoming a part of the culture of the learning community (Oxford, 1997). Newcomers can gradually move from peripheral roles to more central ones, thereby becoming more core, experienced learners who demonstrate three overall characteristics: (1) improved and expanded knowledge and skills; (2) improved relationships between themselves and other community members; and (3) enhanced ability to make community resources accessible to newer participants (Takagi, 1999).

Research Focus

This paper proposes the concept of core, active, and peripheral community membership that can be applied to ESL classrooms to exemplify how newcomers evolve into more experienced learners through effective interaction with their classmates.

Methodology

Participants

This research focuses primarily on two Japanese students (J1 and J2) and how they interact with their CoP (approximately 20 students from two different classrooms) over the course of a semester in Australia. At the start of data collection, J1 had begun his academic study in the Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics program. The data showed that eventually approximately 10 local and international students interacted with him. While J1 may have had sufficient English proficiency from previous experience, he was new to applied linguistics as an academic course of study. In regard to J2, she had prior experience in an English Language Centre at an Australian university. Although J2 may have had sufficient English proficiency from this experience, she was new to this particular English-focused learning environment.

Data Collection

This study employs a series of classroom observations and semi-structured participant interviews. J1 and J2's classroom interactions with their peers and teachers were observed and recorded over a period of one semester between 2007 and 2008. For each participant, classroom conversations included 90 minutes per class every week and all of the in-class participant interactions with their peers were recorded and transcribed. Interviews with J1 and J2 were also conducted immediately after the classroom observations. Two discussions (at the beginning and

Table 1
Summary of Field, Tenor & Mode: Text 1 and Text 2 (J1)

	Text 1 (J1)	Text 2 (J1)
Data	August 16, 2007 (The beginning of the semester)	October 5, 2007 (The end of the semester)
Field	Lecture: informal dyadic discussions concerning transcript analysis	Study meeting: informal group discussions regarding functional grammar analysis
Tenor	Unequal Social distance	Equal Less social distance
Mode	Spoken	Spoken

Table 2
Summary of Field, Tenor & Mode: Text 3 and Text 4 (J2)

	Text 3 (J2)	Text 4 (J2)
Data	December 10, 2007 (The beginning of the semester)	January 15, 2008 (The end of the semester)
Field	A formal classroom discussion in regard to writing a summary on the topic of surrogacy	A group discussion in regard to writing a summary on the topic of art museums
Tenor	Equal relationship; a fairly close relationship among group members	Newcomers just joined the class; building relationships among group members
Mode	Spoken	Spoken

end of the semester), in which J1 and J2 participated, were selected for detailed analysis along with interview data from the beginning, middle, and end of the semester.

Results

Register Analysis: Field, Tenor, and Mode

The registers of J1 and J2's conversations are examined here by analyzing their interactions from the beginning and end of their semesters. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the register analysis for each text by considering the field, tenor, and mode.

Classroom Discourse Analysis

First, J1 and J2's application of progressive and punctuative messages are examined. Progressive messages include a complete clause that can further expand the conversation and demonstrate access to a full range of lexicogrammar (Wake, 2006). Punctuative messages are typically minor clauses, which include formulaic minor clauses such as minimal feedback that do not further the discussion (Wake, 2006). All of J1 and J2's utterances during the discussions were categorized as either progressive or punctuative based on the hypothesis that differences in frequency between the two categories over time represents relevant criterion for assessing language improvement.

Table 3 presents differences in J1's contribution to discussions between the beginning of the semester (Text 1) and the end (Text 2). According to Text 1, 78% of his messages were punctuative and only 22% were progressive, thus showing that J1 contributed from the outset; although, the majority of his messages consisted of minor clauses with minimal feedback that were largely limited to formulaic expressions. As a result, his utterances did not expand the conversations. Conversely, J1's contributions in Text 2 show a dramatic increase in vocabulary range and complexity. The number of punctuative messages decreased to 44%, while progressive messages increased to 56%. With respect to J2's use of language features, Table 3 shows that at the beginning of the semester, 56% of J2's speech acts in Text 3 were punctuative while 44% were progressive, thus indicating minimal contribution to the discussion. As a result, many of her utterances included minor clauses with minimal feedback and

Table 3
J1 and J2's Progressive and Punctuative Messages

Texts	Participant	Total turns (message)	Total messages/ Turns of J1and J2	%	Progressive messages	%	Punctuative messages	%
1	J1	472	189	40	34	22	155	78
2	J1	786	165	21	93	56	72	44
3	J2	420	18	4	8	44	10	56
4	J2	552	71	13	40	56	31	44

incomplete expressions. In Text 4, J2's punctuative messages decreased to 44% and her progressive messages increased to 56%, indicating a higher number of thoroughly expressed messages with more clauses.

Interview Analysis: J2's Self-reflection

A macro analysis was conducted regarding J2's self-reflections on the unit of work over the 6-month period in order to obtain a better understanding of learners' development within communities of practice. J2's self-reflection provided a narrative account of her progress in developing writing and speaking skills through writing an essay about surrogacy and by using authentic reading materials. In addition, J2's interview analysis allowed us to discover her strategies of meaning-making as she engaged in literacy practices and a variety of roles that helped her become an experienced learner within the CoP.

Proofreaders

One of J2's new methods of organizing the meaning-making process in the target language was to work with a proofreader:

> I asked my host sister to check my English in the essay before I submitted it. She said she tried to keep my writing and changed only my grammatical mistakes. But when she started to correct my grammar mistakes she sometimes changed my entire sentence. I found many grammatical and word choice's mistakes in my writing. To talk with her is very helpful for me because she taught me proper language choice (November 27, 2007).

Asking someone to proofread one's work can be a social practice since "the proofreading process [is] a constant conformation with one reader's meaning making operation" (Teramoto & Mickan 2008, p. 52). J2's "host sister" (proofreader) attempted to respect J2's lexical and grammatical choices. However, the choices were, at times, incorrect. Therefore, the proofreader modified and paraphrased some of the sentences in her essay to improve overall comprehension. J2 was satisfied with her written sentences, which had become more like those of a native English speaker. After J2 discussed the changes, she realized that the majority of her notes were written verbatim from the article and it was necessary to rewrite them in her own words. She understood the benefits of recontextualizing the formal written language of the article into everyday speech that was more accessible to her classroom peers. Moreover, applying everyday speech, rather than technical language, proved to be a better approach to helping her classmates understand the article, which can be referred to as social semiotic.

Peer Discussions

One of the classroom tasks involved a discussion of authentic texts. There were a total of eight students in each group and an additional student acted as the chairperson to ensure that the discussion was kept within the allotted time. This student-centered teaching approach was maintained during the entire lesson. The teacher's role was to provide as much scaffolding as possible by asking open-ended questions as well as monitoring the time for the chairperson. The classroom discussion was based on four articles regarding surrogacy. All students were asked to read one of the articles in advance. J2 was in charge of the fourth text, a web article titled "Fact Sheet: Surrogacy–the Issues." The students were given the task sheet at the beginning of the lesson, which included questions about the author's profession, opinions, intentions, perspectives on surrogacy, and the presented data. J2's reflection concerning this class discussion is as follows:

> I could not speak up when my classmates were discussing article one, two, and three. This is because the first article was too difficult to understand for me; therefore I decided to become a listener. It was hard for me to understand because of the speaker's pronunciation. During the discussion about the second and third articles, I was also unable to participate in the discussion but I wanted to say something because I understood both articles. However, when the chairperson introduced the explanation on the fourth article, I participated with my classmates. I thought I knew the article better than the other students and therefore, I pushed myself to speak. I might have confidence to interact with others by asking questions spontaneously. (November 27, 2007)

J2's challenge was to interact with others by taking turns and expressing her opinions verbally. During the discussion on the first article, she listened, acknowledged her peer's comments, and took notes. These activities could be considered as passive learning and be categorized as minor roles in peer discussion. Engaging in verbal discussion is considered as an important role of the core group of participants. However, smaller tasks such as listening and nodding are also an essential part of participating as a member of a community (Lave & Wenger 1991). New students are not usually asked to assume core duties; instead, they are expected to take on less critical responsibilities as they develop their skills. In addition, newcomers can enhance their confidence and satisfaction by fulfilling less important roles (Lave & Wenger 1991). J2 was not aware of the importance of listening and taking notes during her discussion and she regretted not being able to participate verbally. At times, J2 participated on both peripheral and active levels and she became an active student who took turns and expressed her opinions regarding the topic at hand. In other moments, she was a peripheral participant who observed the students' interactions. This suggests that she may have had difficulty distinguishing whether a person's participation was active or peripheral. Some students take on both roles and change from one to the other, depending on their interests, English proficiency, and knowledge of the topic. Therefore, J2 assumed different roles according to the situation, which enabled her to become an experienced learner within the community.

Discussion

J1 and J2's classroom discourses from the end of the semester exhibited a significant number of progressive messages that contained elements that expanded the conversation with their peers; this did not occur as frequently at the beginning of the semester. This implies that J1 and J2 gained the ability to employ patterns of interaction under practical situations, which helped them become core participants in their classroom CoP.

Furthermore, J2 required the necessary skills to use the appropriate types of social practices to make sense of what she was learning through interactions with other group members. J2's self-reflections indicate that she applied the hypothetical process to become an experienced learner as a result of being exposed to a variety of social practices. Initially, J2 became self-aware of her role as a peripheral participant when first joining the community. As a new member, she felt the need to be accepted by the other members during verbal interactions and she followed the same procedures that the majority of the students adopted to complete tasks, such as reading authentic articles. However, this learning process proved to be insufficient for J2. As a result, she discovered her own strategy by asking the other members to help her complete the reading assignment. J2's overall ability to guess unknown words and add additional words improved through the reading assignments. Furthermore, she attempted to discover appropriate learning processes to enhance her language learning, which is considered a social practice.

Conclusion

One implication of this research is that the model of language learning should shift from knowledge transmission attribution to participant attribution in order to better account for how learning occurs within classroom CoP. Learning occurs when students participate in ongoing communication tasks by utilizing the target language to improve meaning-making. The social perspective of language acquisition maintains that through their interactions, learners negotiate not only meaning but also their roles in their relationships as well as their cultural and social identities within the community (Ellis, 1999). J1 and J2, as newcomers, gradually moved from peripheral roles to more central ones that demonstrated three overall characteristics: (1) improved and expanded knowledge and skills; (2) improved relationships between themselves and other community members; and (3) enhanced ability to make community resources accessible to newer participants.

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The Quality of Life in the English as a Foreign Language University Classroom: A Case Study of Two Departments of Kwansei Gakuin University

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At Kwansei Gakuin University, a private university in Kansai, Japan, not all students actually need or require English study, which may be contentious. But Bainbridge (2002), and Beale (2002) point out that one of the most pressing issues involving English education in Japan is the lack of public airing of why and who needs English study. In the language classroom, the notion that there may be serious social problems or puzzles seems to be rarely if at all acknowledged by students or teachers who go out of their way to pretend that all is well socially. Our research project, a combined qualitative-quantitative study utilizing informal interview and more formal survey methodology, seeks to unpack as much as is possible, those underlying social puzzles that may exist in class and which may go unnoticed.

日本の私立大学である関西学院大学では、議論を呼ぶかもしれませんが、英語学習がすべての学生に必要なものであるとは言えないのが実際のところです。Bainbridge (2002) とBeale (2002) が指摘していますが、日本の英語教育で最も差し迫った課題の1つは、なぜ、誰が、英語学習を必要とするのか、一般の周知に欠けているという点です。言語学習の教室では、その言語学習に関する切実な社会問題や困惑が存在するかもしれないという考えは、学生や教師にはほとんどないかのごとくで、あったとしても社会的に全てがうまくいっているという具合にふるまわれています。本研究は、非公式なインタビューとより公式な調査方法を用いた定性的・定量的研究であり、教室内に存在しうるが、気づかれないでいるそれらの潜在的社会問題をできるだけわかりやすく説明します。

It is the purpose of this paper to report on a classroom research project in its planning stage(s), and which is to be further carried out with student surveys in the very near future (i.e. in early 2014). This research aims to investigate the quality of classroom life of students as they experience their university English language study and learning at one university in Japan. In the course of this research, we hope to "find" some evidence of factors that either inhibit and/or enhance student satisfaction of their English language learning in class.

During our investigation of issues that impact either negatively or positively on the quality of life in the English language learning classroom at university, we also aim to gain validated insights into the overall conception and practice of university English language education, as exemplified at one such institution, and in

Brady, A. & Aaloe, P. (2014). The quality of life in the English as a foreign language university classroom: A case study of two departments of Kwansei Gakuin University. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 221-226). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

particular within two departments of that institution.

We are hopeful that we can use data obtained in student surveys, and possibly to include interviews of selected students at some later point, that might give a more clear picture and make some greater sense of the presence of English language learning at one university. At this point we aim solely for clearer understanding of what may be problematical with English language university study from the students' perspective. We do not yet wish to or aim to attempt to "solve" any such problems.

Understanding, Allwright (2003) believes, can in itself help dispose of a problem or puzzle, or at least provide the seeds of, a possible solution or solutions. Allwright and others recognize we classroom English language practitioners need a way of doing the research that does not, in any significant manner, interrupt the pedagogy and learning, but which actually helps it along. This requires a redefinition or reinvention of the notion of practitioner research so that it becomes part and parcel of the pedagogy and learning and not as an activity that is parasitic upon class study.

The criteria for exploratory practitioner research is:

1. understanding before trial-and-error problem solving
2. promotion rather than disruption of language teaching and learning
3. taking classroom life itself as a prime source of topics or issues or puzzles
4. having the research agenda be a part of the class study and learning
5. asking students themselves to "act" as observers of what is happening
6. ensuring that there is sustainability and collegiality in the project
7. focusing on the development of people and the learning.

English for everyone in Japan, and for all university students?

Mike Guest, an Associate Professor of English at Miyazaki University, wonders whether English is the correct choice for everyone in Japan. He suggests a streamlining of the English study system where only those people who want or need to should study (in) English. He argues,

> Those entering fields in which English communication will be necessary or advantageous should. This will mean better motivation, more goal-directed teaching and learning, and better teachers – both Japanese and non-Japanese – since the subject will no longer be monolithic and all-encompassing, but specialized and localized. (Guest, 2006:15)

At Kwansei Gakuin University, a private university in Kansai, Japan, not all students actually want or require English study. Beale (2002) and Bainbridge (2002) point out one of the most pressing issues involving English language education in Japan is the lack of public airing of why and who exactly needs English study. McVeigh (2002) maintains that English study is a veiled way in which Japan can compare and contrast its national identity with "others." Both Beale (2002) and Bainbridge (2002) contend that it has never been made sufficiently clear, beyond sloganeering such as, "English is necessary for globalization," why English study is carried out in Japan.

In the Japanese print media in 2007 an op-ed entitled, "Japan's Ambivalent English" in the *Japan Times* argued that the system of teaching and learning English is conflicted. The op-ed states,

> Japan's future standing in the world rests in large part on its ability to speak other languages. Too much really can be lost in translation. Countries with the best language ability will prosper most as globalization seeps more fully into everyday life... Japan must learn other languages, then, not only to understand other ways of thinking feeling, but also to understand itself.

Reconsidering EFL motivation within the general context of university study in Japan

According to Kaneko (2012) English has become a truly global language necessitating serious reconsideration of students' second language (L2) learning motivation.

In the L2 (second language) Motivational Self System researched by Dornyei (2009), Kaneko (2012) reports that integrative (i.e. identifying with the target group users), and instrumental (i.e. studying and learning for purposes other than integration) are reformulated as a single and inseparable concept. Kaneko's 2012 study examined how the motivation of Japanese EFL (English as a foreign language) university learners can be influenced by opportunities to listen to lectures given by possible Japanese role models as students reflect upon their present and future self-images (2012:3).

Her study indicated it is possible for the university, and its English language teachers, to help students form a clearer image of their ideal L2 selves. This they can do by leading students to recognize the importance usefulness of English and English study as an instrument for achieving something more practical or purposeful than, for example, doing translation from or to English, to or from Japanese, or analyzing English in order to do translation. It is students themselves, Kaneko maintains, who can best make the decision whether or not to (want to) belong to a global society, worldwide or more regional. With concrete and clear images of their present and future selves as members of a widespread target community of global English, it can be expected, she argues, that English instruction and learning may become more effective for Japanese university students who might otherwise not perceive any immediate need for studying and/or using English language.

The two researcher-writers of this paper, Alan Brady, a full-time English Sociology professor, and Paul Aaloe, a part-time instructor in a number of Kwansei Gakuin University departments (but not Sociology), have hypothesized possible institutional inhibitors of student English learning as follows:

1. teachers' use or non-use of English in teaching
2. focus on study about the English language as opposed to study that uses English as a medium of learning and communication
3. English classes offered only in the first two years of university which may be perceived as a kind of "hurdle" on to graduation rather than as an integral component of graduation success
4. large numbers of students in language classes making it difficult for a quality interactive socio-cultural and socio-educational relationship between teacher and students, and between students themselves
5. too much focus on testing, grades, and texts as opposed to teaching and learning
6. insufficiently challenging and demanding classes
7. lack of choice for students in language studies
8. little institutional support for outside-class use of English on campus, including non-visibility and lack of use of English speech publically
9. no explicit connections made between English language and discipline-area study
10. continued (over-)reliance and dependence on "Inner Circle" English teachers, which gives the impression that the institution may or does not (want to) recognize the pluralistic realities of English language use in Asia or in the world
11. teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the study and use of English, which can influence how students study and want to or do not want to use English.

What is it about the environment of study and learning at Kwansei Gakuin University, and three of its departments in particular, that influences student anxiety about studying English, and also student willingness to want to and actually use English language, and take its study and use as seriously as they do study in their native L1, Japanese? The researchers are concerned with how Kwansei Gakuin University English teachers can enable students to want to, if they choose, join one or another global English community.

University students have already developed beliefs and attitudes about English study by the time they arrive at university. What shapes learner beliefs about learning? Breen (2001), and Arnold (1999), argue pedagogy can provide opportunities and conditions within which learner contributions are found to have a positive effect upon learning, and also how learners can be more positively engaged in their learning. Thomas & Harri-Augstein (1983) conclude that beliefs about learner capacity and personal models (i.e. personal "myths") of their own learning processes are more central to understanding individuals' learning performances than theories of learning.

There are three approaches to research on language learner beliefs. The first approach is **normative**—Likert-scale questionnaires (Horwitz, 1987)—where it was found that (a) learners underestimated difficulty of language learning, (b) learners held misconceptions about how to learn foreign language and (c) learners gave more value to accent (pronunciation) than teachers. The second approach is **metacognitive** which says that learners hold prescriptive beliefs which stress: (a) the importance of using language in a natural way practicing as often as possible, thinking in the L2, living and studying in an environment where the L2 was used, (b) learning about the language, such as grammar and vocabulary, taking a formal course, learning from mistakes and being mentally active, and (c) the importance of personal factors like emotional aspect, self-concept, and learning aptitude (role of culture).

The third approach to research on language learner beliefs is **contextual** where beliefs are viewed as embedded in students' (study) contexts. Benson & Lor (1999) discovered that in order to modify beliefs, the learner must also (first) modify those underlying conceptions on which the beliefs are based and must also pay attention to the context in which the beliefs function. Teachers need to know if students' beliefs are functional or dysfunctional, and how dysfunctional beliefs might be changed.

Stevick (1980) argued that success in learning depends less on materials and teaching techniques than it does on what goes on inside (the head and the heart of) the learner. Bassano (1986) recognizes that students have differing needs, preferences, beliefs, learning styles, educational backgrounds. The imposition of change(s) upon all these factors can lead to negative reactions. There are six steps, she says, towards dealing with student beliefs:

1. become aware of students' past classroom learning experiences and assumptions about language learning
2. build students' confidence
3. begin where students are and move cautiously
4. show students their achievement
5. allow for free choice(s) as much as is possible
6. become aware of students' interests, concerns, goals, and objectives.

Understanding first; problem solving, if at all, later

Allwright (2003) believes there are two ways of dealing with a problem, or as he labels it, a puzzle. One way is to conclude that we have only dealt with it when we have "solved" the puzzle or problem, or made it go away by finding a possible solution or solutions. This is what Action Research in English as a second language (ESL) or EFL offers—a way of trying out possible solutions to a problem. This strongly implies, Allwright maintains, that solving a problem is more important than understanding it, or knowing better why it is a problem, and for whom it is a problem. Nunan (1992) summarizes the goals of Action Research (AR) pioneers Kemmis and McTaggert:

> A piece of descriptive research carried out by a teacher in his or her own classroom (e. g. a survey or discussion that can inform a survey) which aims at increasing or understanding rather than changing the phenomenon under investigation, would (our italics) *not be considered to be action research*.

Following Allwright, we can take action for understanding at least as seriously as we take any subsequent action for change. The impetus for the present research is to generate hypotheses about possible causes for a puzzle or problem, all of which Allwright says, can provide a "rich spread of ideas so that it immediately becomes clear that some serious action for understanding is required before taking matters any further, and certainly before trying out any possible change" (2003: 18).

The researchers in this project are interested primarily in the whole idea of life in the classroom, and what it is like for students and teachers to be there. Do people feel let down by their language study or learning and by their educational experience(s)? The language classroom, which may depend to a greater extent on interaction and communication than the L1 (first language) or L2 lecture or seminar, represents a socially stressful environment that, says Allwright (1998: 7),

> is painfully real ... the language classroom does not need to be brought to life; it is already too often too real. What it needs is an improvement in the quality of life, and to do so requires us to better understand what it is that happens before, during, and after study to make language classrooms socially stressful places and events.

In the language classroom, Allwright maintains, the notion that there might be social problems seems to be rarely explicitly acknowledged by either students or teachers. There is too little or no discussion of such matters. Students and teachers go out of their way(s) to pretend to themselves and one another that all is well socially. This is, claims Allwright (and we agree), a sort of covert conspiracy which seems to revolve around the idea all must be pedagogically well if all is or seems to be well socially. Learners and teachers give each other excuses so as to believe that all is well socially (even if it is not!) to justify the supposed success of the teaching and learning. Our research seeks to unpack as much as possible, the underlying social problems that may exist in class, which can give the appearance of successful teaching and learning, but which may not actually be successful either socially or pedagogically.

The research design and preliminary considerations

Weaknesses of survey research can result from (1) researcher(s) asking respondents questions which the respondents may not invest in or wish to be asked or answered, and/or (2) possible answers to said questions not being relevant (enough) to the respondents. The questions that are asked of students about their present university foreign/additional/other than L1 language learning experience (FAO experience) therefore should, from the initial stage(s) of survey planning, come from the students themselves as much as is possible to ensure they are the questions the respondents actually wish/hope to be asked, and which they (students) believe are most relevant in order for them to have a greater and more clear understanding of the language learning experience.

The researchers are presently at the stage now of having edited a number of student-made questions many of which we will ask those being surveyed to choose to better understand their experience of studying and learning English at Kwansei Gakuin University. Though any survey should, and does to some extent, take into account what those being surveyed think ought to be asked (i.e. the actual questions on the final survey), we believe this may be the first attempt ever to actually base a survey on explicitly and intentionally asking those being surveyed to comprehensively determine which questions most need to be asked and then answered.

The next stage of this research will be to narrow down on the finished survey to a manageable set of questions. Students will also from now be informally surveyed in a more qualitative framework what they think ought to be possible choice answers to the questions that will appear on the final survey version. We will then make answer selections to survey questions using the input we get from students on what they think may be possible answers to questions they themselves have posed. It is hoped that by adopting this combined quantitative-qualitative methodology (1) respondents will be fully engaged and invested in the questions being asked of them, and (2) also fully invested and engaged in responding to those questions with possible answers that make sense to the students themselves. It is further hoped that by adopting this methodology, respondents will more fully invest in the successful completion of the questionnaire.

In posing questions that now need to be sorted out and also narrowed down, we must be careful not to ask questions first posed by students themselves that are (1) double-barreled, (2) leading or biased, or (3) loaded. We also recognize that we should give students the choice of doing this survey or not, and if they choose to do so, they can respond in either their L1, Japanese, or in the L2, English, as they please. Thus, the survey that we will draw up will be bilingual. Hypothesizing what needs to be done after we administer the survey, we need to analyze how students' responses give insight into the actual lived experience of their language classroom life. Thus, we must carefully choose from the questions we now have those that meet the above criteria. We also intend to continue more qualitative routes to this research by discussing with students their lived experiences in language classrooms, thru interviewing and other less formal discussion means.

In conclusion, let us quote from Davies (2006) in regards to finding out what students really want from their language coursework,

> It is impossible to overestimate the value of what learners can teach us about themselves via class-specific questionnaire surveys. Of course questionnaires are not infallible instruments and the potential for teacher bias in item creation and learner misinterpretation of the intended meaning of items clearly exists...... But the fact remains that what is gained from the use of class-specific surveys is what is generally most often sought by teachers in their classrooms – a greater and more uniquely personal understanding of our learners, and an additional and reliable means of assessing and effecting change where it is needed most. (Davies, 2006: 10)

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Literature Circles: Collaboration and Community

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Literature Circles are ideal for students to acquire and retain language. They create discussion, language awareness, and collaboration among participants. Additionally, students involve themselves in the lives and stories of characters, which they examine and discuss in detail. In literature circles, each student is given a role. These include Word Wizard, Summarizer, Graphic Organizer, Culture Collector, Real-Life Connector, Group Leader, Passage Person, Character Creator, and the 'IF' Person, among others. Each student is responsible for typed 'rolework' to be given to the instructor for assessment. They contribute and collaborate by discussing the required readings through their pre-prepared rolework. A shared community of learners develops through analyzing the assigned text together. In addition to rolework and literature circles, students are given other tasks to enhance their awareness of the text. These include teacher-generated idiom quizzes, discussion questions, inference questions, and literature skits. These will be discussed in further detail.

リテラチャーサークルは学生にとって言語の習得や、またそれを維持するのに理想的だといえるだろう。なぜならそこで彼らは議論や言語意識、そして参加者間の共同作業を生み出すからである。加えて、彼らが事細かに調べ、話し合ったその本のストーリーやキャラクターそのものにおいて自分自身を関与させるようになるのだ。リテラチャーサークルでは学生一人一人にそれぞれ役割が与えられる。その役割は語彙担当者、要約者、カルチャーコレクター、グループリーダー、登場人物担当者など様々だ。各学生は評価を得るために、それぞれの役割作業を講師に提出する。そして彼らは事前に用意したその役割作業をもとに、リーディングにおける必要性を議論しながら、共に協力そして貢献し合うのである。割り当てられた本を共同で解析していくことによって、学習者にとっての共有のコミュニティーの場が自ずと生まれてくる。このリテラチャーサークルや役割作業に加え、学生は本に対する意識をさらに高めるために、講師によって作成されたイディオムクイズや討議質問、推論質問や文学寸劇など他の課題も与えられることになる。これらの課題についての詳細は本論文でよりいっそう深く触れていく。

Studying literature in the L2 doesn't have to be a solo activity. A shared experience through various structured teacher-generated activities can lead to greater literature interest, increased awareness of the target language culture, and a sense of community among participants. The following will discuss the collaborative nature of literature circles, as well as how to organize one.

Maher, K. M. (2014). Literature Circles: Collaboration and Community. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 227-234). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

The Background of Literature Circles

Literature circles are a great place for students to collectively discuss and get deeper into the text, than might be possible through other methods of study. The experience is communicative, community-based, bonding, and collaborative. This first section will discuss the pedagogy of literature circles.

The Brief History of Literature Circles

Daniels (2002), a book author on literature circles, discusses their recent past. They have been around as long as publishing, but exploded in popularity in the 1990s. They have only continued to increase in popularity since then. Daniels' book focused on the usage of literature circles in the Chicago school system; however, the book is well-referenced as influential in applying the same system to the EFL world as well.

Furr (2004) states how students uninterested in reading, once exposed to literature circles, were more eager to share the stories they had read, refer to text passages to support arguments, and ask insightful questions of each other. This ties in well with the prophetic statement that Daniels received from a Chinese educator, who stated that, "It has been five thousand years that we have been taught to respect an expert's opinions and accept them with no doubt" (Daniels, 2002: 2). Then the Chinese educator, according to Daniels, stated that literature circles will challenge that to make Chinese students open their mouths and discuss literature instead of simply respecting it as is.

The Collaborative Nature of Literature Circles

Williams, an educator in Japan, discusses the collaborative nature of literature circles. As each member of the group has a unique role in the overall task, they collectively guide what will be the content, the direction, the lexical complexity, and the pace to their own needs, as opposed to that of the instructor (Williams, 2010). Once they become engaged in the reading, they refer to texts in the reading, support arguments, and question each other on the deeper meaning of the texts (Furr, 2007). This collaboration bonds the students to the story and gives them a shared experience.

In this way, the principles of Vygotsky's (1978) "Zone of Proximal Development" can be realized in the EFL Classroom through the use of literature circles. Students assist each other in learning by a step-by-step process in a way that they might not have been able to do on their own. Additionally, Krashen who is an enormous proponent of students studying novels for language acquisition purposes (1985), also states that this type of content-based discussion creates a focus on authentic and meaningful input, as opposed to simply grammatical form (1982). For this reason, studying collaboratively, allows students to set their own pace, and digest the literature in deeper ways collectively.

Collaboration Into Higher Awareness

Brown (2009) discusses how students analyze the text, connect the reading to the real world, assess their cultural assumptions, and ultimately apply critical thinking to the text. Critical thinking affects how students can discuss these topics on higher levels: how they look at emotional conflicts and social dilemmas, and how they demand a response and value judgment. As students get involved in the reading, they link personal experiences to the contents, which in turn assist personal development (Lin, 2004). With this type of awareness, Brown (2009) states, it is not unusual that through student discussion, they change their opinions on various topics, simply by reading and discussing the novel. Kim (2003) stresses the importance of this, as many EFL students majoring in English, are not familiar with critical ways of reading, analyzing and questioning texts. Students therefore reflect on a deeper level with the reading through discussion and collaboration.

Another aspect of literature circles which occurs is that students become introduced to the social norms and practices of their target L2 culture (Allington & Swann, 2009). The literature becomes a portal for sociocultural features of the society from where the literature takes place. It reinforces the vocabulary, grammar, and culture within the authentic text (Iida, 2013). In this way, literature becomes a way to understand the culture language. It becomes a prism in which to view the events of the time (Bibby, 2012). For EFL students targeting a language and culture, it allows a deeper insight into that L2's world.

Setting up a Literature Circle

This section will examine how to setup a literature circle. Each researcher and teacher has their own way to set up a literature circle. I will discuss my own methods and style accordingly.

At the time of this research, I was teaching Sophomore-year students at a university in Japan. The students were in a special program with the hope to study abroad in a foreign country. The classroom size consisted of approximately 18-25 students. I believe that the assigned roles could be applied to much lower ability students; however the other goals would need to be modified according to an instructor's discretion.

Pre-Reading and 'Rolework'

Each week, my students read approximately 18-25 pages a week from a literature book. Each student was assigned one role. Furr (2004) used a Group Discussion Leader, Summarizer, Connector, Word Master, Passage Person, and Culture Collector. These were modified from Furr with the following additions created, they included Visualizer, Idiom King/Queen, the 'IF' Person, Graphic Organizer, Character Organizer, and Character Creator. I also changed the names of Furr's 'Connector' to 'Real Life Connector', and Furr's 'Word Master' to the title of 'Word Wizard'.

Each student had 'rolework' that they had to do before class. Each student prepared specific tasks, to hand in to the teacher, and to pass out among their group members. This rolework was assessed in comparison to other rolework by other class members with the same role. Therefore, only one 'Visualizer', for example, would get the highest marks for best Visualizer within the class. The scoring system consisted of marks 1-10, where the student with the best work was given maximum points and possibly extra credit points. The second and third students couldn't get the maximum points, but were given marks between 7-9 points. The lowest quality work, could only receive a maximum of 7 points total. It was a system designed to reward the hardest worker, as opposed to all students attempting only the minimum work required of them.

Next, in regards to the rolework that was assigned to the students. There were only five roles given at any one time, due to the fact that each group consisted of only five members. During a five week run, each group member would experience each set role. Afterwards, the class collectively agreed on exchanging some of the roles for brand new roles, which would then be used for the following run of five weeks. Additionally, students were asked to consider creating new roles, which were then set into rotation for their upcoming literature circle run.

Once students had their selected assigned roles, they submitted new 'rolework' prior to the beginning of each weekly literature circle. Additionally, all rolework was typed. This ensured students planned and set aside time outside of class, and they were not handwriting their work at the beginning of class. The following were roles assigned and what they were to submit:

Discussion of Literature Circle's Roles

The Discussion Leader

This person prepared questions for their group members. They were required to type 10-12 discussion questions to submit as rolework. This person was also responsible for time management during the literature circle. Ensuring that each other group member was given ample time to present their role and that everyone participated. Assessment was centered on the quality of questions, and how thought-provoking and interesting they were for their group.

Vocabulary Wizard

This person created a vocabulary quiz for the other group members. It was to be at least 10-12 words or phrases, generally structured in the form of multiple choice questions. The student also included the answers when handing in their rolework. Grading was based on the accuracy of their definitions.

Idiom King/Queen

This person was basically the same as the Vocabulary Wizard, however they focused on idioms instead. They were only required to research 6-8, and only half of them could be phrasal verbs.

This was an extremely challenging role for most EFL students. They had difficulty recognizing or understanding them. Another variation was that the teacher generated the idiom lists, and gave a study list and administered a quiz before their assigned reading.

Real Life Connector

This person was to connect three events from the reading to their personal life. If it didn't happen to them personally, they could connect it with someone else they have known in their life. For example, if a character had an experience with a police officer in the story, perhaps the real life connection would be about their own encounter with a police officer. They submitted three real life connections for their rolework.

Passage Person

This person had to identify at least six important passages. This could be of several different natures. Anything that they thought was crucial or event-changing in the story satisfied this requirement. Another option was to identify confusing passages or text, so that students could generate discussion on the meaning of those passages. It was a fairly liberal category, of the student's discretion.

Visualizer

This person took visual images from the internet and shared them with the group members. They were often unusual vocabulary words that could be difficult to explain with words, often cultural in nature. Examples included maple trees, coalminers, fajitas, and so forth. A minimum of 10-12 images was required for their submitted rolework.

Graphic Organizer

The student in this role generated a timeline of events. They could hand draw scenes, or discuss them with key words in some organized manner of their choosing. The clearer and better organized, the more points were given.

Culture Connector

This person identified cultural differences from their own culture with that of the story, including time and place. They were required to submit at least five different cultural differences.

Summarizer

This person wrote out in paragraph form, a summary of all events from the assigned reading for that week.

The IF Person

This person created 'if' scenarios. For example, if you were the character who was in the social dilemma depicted in the text, what would you do? Students created five 'if' scenarios, from any character's perspective, and discussed it.

Character Creator

This role created a character and wrote them into the story. Their rolework was to create a timeline that matched other events in the story with what this newly created character might do. The new character could be someone as simple as Mickey Mouse or someone completely new and unusual. The goal was to have them interact with the text. Generally, I allowed this role near the end of the literature circle, and never at the beginning. It was a confusing role for students before they became familiar with the characters in the literature.

Character Organizer

This was a role given when there were many characters in a story. The purpose was to refresh everyone's memory of who was who, and their relationships to other people. For rolework, students submitted a list of new and minor characters, and continually added further details about them

Time Structure

On the day of the literature circle, the Discussion Leader was responsible for time management. The person had to allot time fully and sufficiently so that each other member spoke and contributed. If any group finished their circle too early, the Discussion Leader was held responsible for creating new questions, new topics, and to continue to generate discussion.

The literature circles were designed for a college semester, which was approximately 12-15 weeks, nearly the full semester. In their respective circles, each group discussed the text for a minimum of 40 minutes per week. However, if good discussion was being generated, it was occasionally allowed to continue for up to an hour of class time.

Prior to their literature circles, students were given five to ten minutes with 'clarification' partners. This was a one-on-one partnership where two students simply discussed confusing passages within the text. It was the teacher's role to monitor and collect information on difficult topics during this time, to examine and discuss more fully before the literature circle began.

Additional Non-Literature Circle Tasks to Enhance Classroom Community and Collaboration

In addition to the literature circle, there were other tasks of a community-based nature. These were designed to enhance the students understanding of the text.

Comprehension and Inference Questions and Quizzes

I created somewhere between 18-25 questions from the weekly assigned reading. This was generally done after the literature circle had already commenced. The idea was that all students should have shared awareness of all important details within the reading. Later, I assessed them with a quiz based on that exact set of discussion questions. It was also a last opportunity for them to discuss important details of the text that they might not have realized were critical to the story plot.

"Lit Skits"

"Lit Skits" mean essentially acting out parts of the literature story. Each week, one group of students had to prepare and act a scene of their choice. They practiced it outside of class, and their score was based on creativity, fluency, and usage of characters' original lines.

Weekly Idiom Quizzes

While occasionally a student had the role of 'Idiom King/Idiom Queen', at other times I pre-read the literature and collected those idioms myself. I gave them the definition in context to the story. They were tested on those idioms prior to be given their assigned reading. See Appendix II for an example of the Idiom List issued to students.

Conclusion

In conclusion, literature circles can be utilized to deepen students' extensive reading skills, their critical thinking skills, and their understanding of the text. This is very collaborative in nature, set to the students' own interests, needs, and pace. I highly recommend any EFL teacher to assign this type of extensive reading to their students.

Additionally it can be a very bonding social experience for the students. One that they will continue to mention to their teacher and fellow students well after the literature circle finished.

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Appendix A

Kansai Gaidai University – Kevin Maher's Class
Literature Circles for The Glass Castle

Within your group, each of you will have a ROLE in the discussion. You will need to produce written work for each role.

1. Group Leader
   - Facilitator in the group. Keep the discussion flowing, and ensure everyone is participating equally.
   - You'll prepare QUESTIONS to ask the other students in the group. Anything related to the story. Must be thought-provoking and create interesting discussion.
   - GIVE TO THE TEACHER: 1) Approximately 10-12 discussion questions that you think your group should discuss.
2. Graphic Organizer
   - Using drawings or timelines, you will explain the basics of the story to your group.
   - You should bring copies for everyone.
   - This can be you copying pictures off the internet that show a timeline of events. It can also be you drawing visually the sequence of events.
   - GIVE TO THE TEACHER: 1) Copy of drawings or timelines. Anything you used.
3. Real Life Connector
   - This role is to find connections between the text and the real world.
   - You can make connections between story characters and real people – friends, family, or classmates.
   - You'll also make a list of questions. These questions you can ask your group. Perhaps, "Have you ever___________?" These will be used to generate conversation.
   - GIVE TO THE TEACHER: 1) Written connections + 2) Your connection questions you asked to your group members. Must be typed.
4. Culture Collector
   - One student focuses on cultural DIFFERENCES.
   - Looks at the story for differences and similarities between the culture of the story and Japanese culture.
   - Make a note of things that are very different in the foreign culture, that are not so common in Japan.
   - GIVE TO THE TEACHER: 1) List of Cultural differences + 2) Cultural types of questions you decide to ask your group. Must be typed.
5. Character Creator
   - You'll write a new character into the story. Give the character a name, a history, and tell us how and where he interacts with the story. Be creative, and have fun!
   - GIVE TO THE TEACHER: 1) Character name. + 2) The character's history + 3) How does the character interact in the story? Must be typed.

Appendix B

Idiom List for The Glass Castle p. 81-101

IDIOMS

Day in day out	Every day is the same ol' routine.
Act high-and-Mighty	Behaving as if you are more important than everyone else.
Pipe up	Speak up and say something!
Peter out	To gradually come to an end
Make fun of	To tease or laugh at
Roll up one's sleeve	To prepare to work or fight
Make a mockery of	Make something seem foolish or absurd
Be carried away	Lose self-control
Shoot your mouth off	To talk about something that is secret or private
Burst into Tears	Suddenly start crying
Blessing in disguise	Something looks bad, but it's actually good
Move up in the world	To become successful
Plot something out	To make details for a plan
Polish off	To finish something
Get down to	Get serious about
It doesn't always carry the day	It's not realistic
Broke into a run	Started running immediately

Motivating Students by Talking about Novels: On Character-driven Novels and Plot-driven Novels

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Experts say that students read more graded readers if teachers talk about books with enthusiasm. In this paper, we will explicate about two types of stories that are useful for teachers when they talk about literature in the classrooms: character-driven novels and plot-driven novels. Generally things happen inwardly in character-driven novels and outwardly in plot-driven novels. With many concrete illustrations, the readers will learn the different patterns of development in these two types of novels. The knowledge of these two types will promote better classroom guidance for extensive reading.

専門家によれば、教師が熱心に本について語るほど学生はグレーディドリーダーを読むとのことである。本稿において私たちは、教師が文学について教室で語るのに役立つ、二種類のストーリーの型について説明を行う。それらは人物中心小説と筋中心小説である。一般的に言って、人物中心の小説では物事は内面的な出来事として起るのに対し、筋中心の小説では物事は外面的な出来事として起る。読者は、具体的な例と共にこの二種類の小説の型の展開の仕方の違いを知ることになる。これらの二種類の型に関する知識は、教室における多読指導の促進に役立つことになろう。

We have students who complain that they have no idea which book to choose for their reading assignment. In an effort to remedy this situation, we inform them that, in general, there are two kinds of novels. One is serious literature and the other is popular literature. There is no rigorous distinction between the two, but in serious literature it is more likely that the character is the engine that moves the novel forward and in popular literature it is the plot. The author of the book *Writing Fiction* describes it like this:

> Literary fiction differs from genre fiction fundamentally in the fact that the former is character-driven, the latter plot-driven. There is a strong tendency—though it is not a binding rule—of genre fiction to imply that life is fair, and to let the hero or heroine, after great struggle, win out in the end; and of literary fiction to posit that life is not fair, that triumph is partial, happiness tentative, and that the heroine or hero are subject to mortality. (Burroway, 2011, p.397)

This paper discusses some of the key characteristics of these two types of novels from a novelist's viewpoint in order to show the structure of novels clearly.

In a character-driven novel, external action and excitement is limited, though the protagonists' daily lives are usually described in excruciating detail. On the homepage of goodread.com, a social website

Shucart, S. A. & Takahashi, M. (2014). Motivating Students by Talking about Novels: On Character-driven Novels and Plot-driven Novels. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 235-239). Nagoya: JALT.

devoted to reading, they give examples of typical character-driven novels. In a plot-driven novel the action is more frenetic, and the plot more of a complex web of interlocking events designed to trap the readers' attention and engage them in a duel of wits in a race to solve the core quandary before the titular protagonist. This type of story is most commonly found in genre fiction, such as the SF story, historical adventure, the fantasy novel, and the crime novel. For the purpose of this paper's plot-driven section, three types of crime fiction are examined: the classic mystery, the thriller, and the general crime novel.

This paper is divided into two major sections. The first section discusses the attributes of a character-driven novel. Some of the points covered will include the knot, initial conditions, the inciting incident, and the moment of truth, with pertinent examples to illustrate them. The second section of this paper focuses on the genre of crime fiction, and compare and contrast the three different types of novels to be found in this genre – the mystery, the thriller, the crime novel. In addition, tips will be offered on how a teacher may best utilize this information. The conclusion will point out how raising awareness of these differences can be used to increase student's motivation.

Character-Driven Novels

Hints to reading can be found in directions to writers of fiction.

Writing Notes for the Main Character

There is good news and bad news on this topic. The bad news is that the first stage of writing a character-driven novel is boring. The good news is there is a simple formula to create a character-driven novel. This formula involves the initial condition, the inciting event, knot, escalation, the moment of truth, and the final stage. Writers can learn how to best employ this formula by reading Jeff Gerke's book *Plot versus Character*. The book teaches how to create this important structure for a novel.

Gerke shows writers how to create unique characters. First, he creates the core personality, and to do this he employs ideas from a popular psychology book called *Please Understand Me II*. First he recommends deciding on a personality type. Second, he suggests building layers onto the core personality. He recommends that writers should make a lot of notes that will elucidate the character's behavior in a variety of different situations. Naturally, this is easier said than done. This note-taking process is quite exhausting, but writers must persevere during this first stage.

To write an appealing novel, writers should choose a theme that is related to the dramatic personality of the main character. When and where to delineate the main characters in the novel is a matter of technique and creative imagination.

Knots

According to Gerke, a writer has to make notes about the characters' actions, what they talk about, the way they talk, and show these things at the very beginning of the book. Then a writer continues to build the inner personality of a character. The knot is a word that Jeff Gerke uses to describe the problem at the center of the hero's personality. In this interpretation, a knot means a weakness. For example, fear is a knot. Gerke says that the most important element is in understanding why the character has this particular fear. By explaining the cause of the fear together with the character's emotional suffering, readers will have a deeper understanding of that fear.

A character will eventually realize that he has a knot. Then he or she will have to choose from several alternatives: whether to continue to hold on to the knot or to abandon it. The moment of decision is called the moment of truth. Truth in Greek is *aletheia*, which means something uncovered. Truth is hidden. At the moment of truth, the main character realizes his or her hidden knot.

The Initial Condition

Gerke says, "at the beginning of your story, 'allow the knot to hurt her, but don't let it consume her,'" and "your hero has to be likeable at the beginning of your story." (p. 110) Therefore, at the beginning of a book, a hero is supposed to be in a difficult condition.

Gerke says authors should write 30 to 40 pages about the initial condition of the hero, who the hero is, and should draw attention to the hero. Only then should an author write about the hero's knot, and use it to apply pressure.

Inciting Event

There should always be an inciting event between the initial condition and the moment of truth. The inciting event directs the hero toward the destination. The inciting event is "a radical turn in a new direction. The inciting event is related to the hero's knot and it pushes the hero towards the climactic event.

Escalation

Though Gerke does not explain the explicit relationship between knot and escalation, he does say that escalation is a process in which the hero gradually realizes that past actions are in some way old and outmoded. Gerke says, "a character has to be convinced that his current way of doing things is no good. That's what the escalation phase is all about." (p. 139) In a character-driven novel, the hero must choose between the old way and the new. The hero compares the two and makes a decision.

Here is an interesting quotation, "Hero wants to stay as he is. New way comes in and tries to knock him out of the old way. Hero fights back, digs in deeper to the old way, goes more extreme."(p. 133) This is an example of escalation and the manner in which the hero understands the merits of change. "Finally, he understands what the new way is offering and how the old way is hurting." (p. 133)

The Moment of Truth

The hero must make a decision at the moment of truth. Love is invisible, so the hero is usually awakened to love at the moment of truth. However, the hero does not always choose the right way.

The hero needs to experience a lot of pain and hardship before he is awakened to love and spiritual change. This means the author can pile hardship upon hardship on the long-suffering hero until he abandons his folly and chooses the right way. When the hero finally discovers the correct path, this is the moment of truth. After the climactic scene of the moment of truth, there comes the final stage of the story: "The last stage of the story tells the reader what happened to the hero after the moment of truth." (p. 152)

Summary of a Character-driven Novel

So far the stages of writing a character-driven hero have been described: the initial condition, the knot, and the moment of truth. When the pain of staying the same is not enough to change the hero, the hero fails.

In order to write a character-driven novel, the author has to make a lot of detailed notes. There is the arc to the hero's conflict in which the old negative actions clash with each other and the hero is forced to choose from the alternatives. In a character-driven novel, the hero returns with a treasure from his battle with inner demons and that treasure is his character transformation.

Plot-Driven Novels

Genres

Plot-driven stories most often occur in genre novels. This section of the paper focuses on the three main sub-classifications of the general genre known as crime fiction. By raising students' awareness of the profound differences within a specific genre of plot-driven novels, teachers will be able to make a more well informed choice and thus to provide greater motivation for increasing their English fluency with graded readers. This same process can be applied to any genre. The first section starts by defining mystery novels, then moves to thrillers, and finally discusses crime novels.

Mystery Novels

The classic mystery novel is probably the oldest form of crime fiction. Stories featuring the Tang Dynasty detective, Judge Dee, were written in the Yuan and Ming Dynasties, and what might well be the earliest detective story—*The Three Apples*—appeared in *Kitāb alf laylah wa-laylah* (*The One Thousand and One Arabian Nights*). The modern scientific detective can be traced to Edgar Allan Poe's *The Murders in the Rue Morgue*, 1841, the story in which he introduced the detective C. Auguste Dupin. Other famous detectives in this genre include Sherlock Holmes, Hercule Poirot, Perry Mason, and Nero Wolfe. The classic "whodunit" plot can be summed up as a variation on the board game CLUE: "Colonel Mustard—with a Candlestick—in the Library." The stories usually consist of a veritable crossword puzzle's worth of clues, alibis, red herrings, and the detective often reveals the name of the killer in the final scene.

Thrillers

The thriller is quite a modern invention, an outgrowth of the spy novel. The website goodreads.com has this to say:

> Thrillers are characterized by fast pacing, frequent action, and resourceful heroes who must thwart the plans of more-powerful and better-equipped villains. Thrillers often overlap with mystery stories, but are distinguished by the structure of their plots. In a thriller, the hero must thwart the plans of an enemy, rather than uncover a crime that has already happened. Thrillers also occur on a much grander scale: the crimes that must be prevented are mass murder, terrorism, assassination, or the overthrow of governments. While a mystery climaxes when the mystery is solved, a thriller climaxes when the hero finally defeats the villain, saving his own life and often the lives of others.

Another commonality to thrillers is the reoccurring hero of the series. Some of the most popular heroes are James Bond, Jack Reacher, Jason Bourne, or John Rain. As can be easily seen, if a person wants to write a series of thrillers, it is a good idea to have the character's first name begin with a "J."

Crime Fiction

The third type of crime novel could be labeled crime fiction, and some of the ablest practitioners of this sub-genre were Donald E. Westlake, George Pelecanos, John D. McDonald, and Elmore Leonard. One of the key characteristics of this type of novel is the fact that the main character is often just a regular person, not an eccentric genius, amateur detective, or a superhuman, suave, *kung fu* killing machine in a tuxedo, but just an average Joe or Jill who becomes caught up in a series of extraordinary events. The crime and criminal are often known from the very beginning, and the story usually relates how the protagonist resolves the situation. This genre is more of a "howdunit" than a "whodunit" and the details of how the protagonist outsmarts the villain, or how a complicated caper is pulled off becomes the central component of the plot.

Application

Now that the difference between a Plot-driven and a Character-driven novel has been explicated, as well as having given a detailed explanation of the what constitutes the various sub-categories of the genre known as Crime Fiction, it now behooves us to give several examples of how this information can be utilized by a teacher of Extensive Reading.

One way would be to hand out a reading survey during the first class to ascertain each student's interests and reading habits in their native language. After the survey has been analyzed to determine the specific motivation patterns, then the teacher could present Graded Reader examples of the key genres and make recommendations for the whole class in general.

Another possible way for teachers to utilize the character vs. plot continuum would be for the book report form that the students will use to have a simple 7-point Likart Scale with "Plot-Driven" at one end of the spectrum and "Character-Driven" as the other. That way the students can evaluate the books themselves, and thus add their own opinions and recommendations for any of their peers who may be tempted to read the same book.

An on-going genre-awareness raising activity could be done as a pair- or group-work activity in which students are given excerpts from graded readers and they have to classify them into genres and evaluate them according to whether they are more character-driven or plot-driven, then defend their opinions in a discussion with their peers. This, of course, would be an activity for more advanced students.

In addition to the reading activities, it is possible to use the common pattern of novels as a resource for writing activities. In our integrated skills class, students are required to make an oral presentation. After they learned the common pattern of novels: the initial condition, the knot, and the moment of truth, they are strongly encouraged to use the pattern of development to write and tell their own stories.

Conclusion

Plot-driven novels and character-driven novels should be considered as a continuum, and it is unlikely that any work of literature will fall at either extreme of the spectrum. Still, a general pattern emerges when a novel is classified according to this criteria, with both classical novels and those considered to be exemplars of modern literature, such as books short-listed for the Man Booker Prize, generally falling at the character-driven end of the spectrum and those novels classified as belonging to such popular genres as horror, science fiction, romance, westerns, or crime fiction falling more at the plot-driven end of the spectrum. By teachers raising their student's awareness of this pattern they allow them to make a more informed choice of which graded reader to choose to read. Boredom is anathema to motivation, and nothing can be less motivating than seeking out a fast-paced adventure, such as is found in a Jack Reacher novel, and ending up with a story on the order of *Bleak House* instead. It is hoped that teachers can utilize the information in this paper to strangle such travesties in their cribs. Which action, by the by, could be the opening scene in either a plot-driven or a character-driven novel. It is up to teachers to steer their students in the proper direction.

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N/NEST Collaboration: A pipe dream or a possibility?

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The concept of the idealized native speaker has been critiqued in various dialogues and applied to a multitude of debates. However, little research has examined its implications vis-à-vis non-native English speaking teacher and native English speaking teacher (NNEST-NEST) collaboration in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environments. This article aims to explore how the construction of the terms native and non-native can (positively and or negatively) influence collaboration between foreign and Japanese teachers in Japan. My personal experience as an American often misperceived as having different ethnicities, such as Chinese, Korean, and Japanese, has led to this exploration of how certain cultural beliefs underpin the native speaker benchmark and hinder teacher collaboration among both Japanese and non-Japanese alike at the university level. The paper will also argue how Cook's (1991, 1999) notion of multicompetence offers one step towards unifying two disparate groups to promote foreign and Japanese teacher collaboration.

ネイティブ・スピーカという考えは様々な研究グループで妥当性が疑問視されている。しかし、EFLの日本の大学環境でネイティブ、ノン・ネイティブの教師への影響を及ぼす研究は少なそうです。本研究は、そのネイティブ・スピーカの考えと個人的な経験で日本文化的な信条がネイティブとノン・ネイティブの教師のコラボレーションはどのような影響があるかを見極めることを目的している。本研究では、外国人教師と日本人教師のコラボレーションを応援のためにmulticompetenceとのその二つの格差のグループを縮めることも論じている。

Many scholars have challenged and critiqued the native speaker benchmark across a wide range of discussions and through a variety of lenses. For instance, Pennycook (1994) and Phillipson (1992) critically examined the native speaker fallacy via linguistic imperialism. On the other hand, Braine's (1999) and Llurda's (2005) collected volumes investigated the perceived advantages and disadvantages of N/NESTs while also advocating for the legitimacy and empowerment of NNESTs. Although the concept of the idealized native speaker serves as a thread through these dialogues, little research has examined its implications vis-à-vis NNEST-NEST collaboration in EFL environments. This article aims to explore how the construction of the terms *native* and *non-native* can (positively and or negatively) influence collaboration between foreign and Japanese teachers in Japan. Drawing from theory interwoven with my personal experience, I will discuss the role race, ethnicity, and native speaker status has played in teacher collaboration at University K, a private Japanese university. As such, this paper will concentrate on the context of language learning and collaboration at the university level in Japan, where English is taught as a foreign language.

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Background

Until quite recently, a deficit model represented a dominant method to evaluate teachers based on what qualifications and skills they possessed or did not possess. When this notion was applied to Non-Native Speakers (NNS) and Native Speakers (NS), it created a dichotomous relationship in which the term *non-native*, emphasized that a teacher was not a member of the other group, i.e., *not* a *native* speaker. Although the scholarship and research of educators (e.g. Braine, 1999; Llurda, 2005; Mahboob, 2010) have helped establish NNESTs as legitimate teachers and have helped curb the use of a deficit model, parts of a native speaker benchmark continue to linger. Specifically, a stereotypical set of characteristics highlighting the strengths and weaknesses associated with NNESTs and NESTs seems to have been applied as a sweeping generalization to each group at some EFL institutions.

At these schools, for example, NNESTs are generally valued by students, administrators and colleagues for their insights into grammar and as role models of successful language learners and users. On the other hand, positive opinions and traits associated with NESTs commonly include good pronunciation and breadth of vocabulary, particularly idioms and slang.

There are also negative qualities associated with each group, such as some NESTs' lack of corrective feedback or insufficient knowledge of students' L1. Likewise, some NNESTs come under criticism for their poor pronunciation and overemphasis on grammar. While these variables can potentially hinder NNEST-NEST collaboration and reinforce misleading stereotypes, they reflect characteristics manifested in a deeper cultural ideology of self-Orientalism, which emphasizes a romanticized image of the *West* to define and promotes a unique Japanese identity (see e.g., Iwabuchi, 1994; Kubota, 2002; Lie, 2001)

The appropriation of the idealized speaker paradigm represents a medium to sustain and propagate self-Orientalism. As a result, the adoption of native-speakerism (Houghton & Rivers, 2013) in Japan influences not only NNESTs, but also NESTs who face discrimination, prejudice, and inequality due to native speaker policies. Ironically, the same stereotypes and policies that elevate the status of native speakers are also used to condemn them. I argue that self-Orientalism is one major reason which deters many groups of qualified teachers with experience in Japan from collaborating despite having coordinated texts, syllabi and courses.

The Western Other

As others have written, the terms *native* and *non-native* encompass and refer to much more than their face values denoting language acquisition order (Amin, 2004; Houghton & Rivers, 2013). In the case of many Japanese institutions, these terms have been "re-made" (Tobin, 1992) to fit common Japanese cultural categories surrounding the perceived identity of foreigners and Japanese nationals. In addition to the cultural classification, the label of NEST is generally attached to foreigners, while Japanese are sometimes identified as NNESTs. Unique qualities spanning physical attributes to proficiency in Japanese are also associated with foreigners and Japanese (see e.g. Dale, 1986; Kubota, 1999; Kubota & Lin, 2009; Lie, 2001). For example, the slightly derogatory term, *gaijin,* generally defines foreigners in terms of what they are not. As a result, foreigners often occupy a subaltern position to their Japanese counterparts. Hayes (2013) study regarding faculty at Japanese universities seems to corroborate this notion, revealing that Japanese NNESTs "were never referred to as non-native speakers of English but rather simply as Japanese" (p.136).

A commonly essentialized image the word *gaijin* depicts is that of a blonde haired, blue eyed Caucasian. Interestingly, Caucasians, or perhaps more broadly, *Westerners,* are generally not referred to as individuals, but rather by the umbrella term, *gaijin*. This shares similarities with the way Chinese, Japanese and Koreans are referenced as *Asians* by some people in the US. Conversely, the same Chinese or Korean citizen in Japan, though technically a foreigner, would most likely be labeled as a Chinese (*chugokujin*) or a Korean (*kankokujin*) as opposed to a *gaijin*. This kind of classification emphasizes a binary relationship which highlights foreigners as *non-Japanese*.

Although a detailed dialogue is beyond the scope of this paper, there also exists a hierarchy among foreigners regarding which country they are from (i.e., what type of *gaijin* one is). *Westerners* are generally "imagined as superior, enlightened and civilized entities to be emulated" (Iwabuchi, 1994), while other East Asian countries like China and Korea are seen as inferiors (Lie, 2001). In my experience, being misidentified as a Chinese person has yielded the worst treatment and service at stores and restaurants, with the same situation drastically improving when people thought I was a Japanese-American.

The prestigious image of the West and the supposed mediocrity of neighboring East Asian countries are not to be taken as static entities; in fact they are quite ephemeral archetypes dependent on a context which serves to benefit and essentialize Japan while silencing opposing views. Alternatively put, "both positive and negative images coexist as two sides of the same coin," with the side of emphasis being dictated by circumstances (Iwabuchi, 1994).

Native-speakerism at the workplace

In the workplace, this labeling and 'othering,' i.e., the unequal classification separating of Japanese and foreign citizens, can be expressed in many ways from pay inequality to assigned courses and workload (Houghton, 2013; Kubota & Fujimoto, 2013). Although the way English classes are divided among foreigners and Japanese teachers can represent one aspect of a native speaker benchmark, I will argue here how it is really an extension of self-Orientalism. While University K has no explicit account of what defines a native speaker, the division of required English courses between foreign and Japanese faculty seems to shed light on a possible rationale. Specifically, University K seems to classify its faculty on a native speaker benchmark, assuming all foreign faculty members are NESTs and Japanese faculty are NNESTs. Consequently, it appears that there is little or no consideration of one's field of expertise or qualifications when assigning a teacher to a course.

A quick survey of University K's open-access online syllabus and research database appears to corroborate this hypothesis. The online syllabus reveals that nearly all general requirement English productive skills courses (writing, speaking and presentation) are taught by foreign faculty who are NESTs. On the other hand, Japanese NNESTs conduct all remaining receptive skills courses (reading and listening) as well as TOEIC preparation classes. Moreover, other foreign languages, such as French, follow this pattern but perhaps due to a lack of native teachers, utilize Japanese teachers for some productive classes.

On the surface, the online syllabus provides some evidence that suggests University K has bought into the native speaker fallacy. While the delegation of particular skills based on native speaker status alone may not negatively influence teacher collaboration, the *us* versus *them* division among foreigners and Japanese may impede it. When applied at the workplace, this binary relationship in conjunction with the idealized native speaker model allows Japanese to strengthen their national identity while enjoying the cultural capital of the West. For instance, a large number of native speakers at an institution can provide a hefty amount of cultural capital (e.g., via physical appearance, accent, and or native speaker status), with any teachers holding advanced qualifications and publications increasing it even more. However, due to their status as foreigners, biases and sweeping generalizations, such as only a Japanese can perform this task, can be used to exploit, exclude, and discriminate against the same group of people (Houghton, 2013, pp. pp.67-68). As such, the various characteristics and qualities associated with the native speaker benchmark provide fuel to the self-Orientalism fire.

An Imposter in the Middle

As an Inner Circle native speaker of English from the US with lower N1 proficiency across the four skills in Japanese and a degree in TESOL, I thought I would be a good match for many universities in Japan. Although my previous education in Asian Studies and experience as an exchange student in Kyoto, helped prepare me for my next chapter in Japan, I quickly realized how naïve I had been. While my native speaker status may have aided in securing my job and consequently used to promote University K, it was also a misperception. I speak a variety of English which does not match the stereotype of my physical appearance. These misunderstandings also occur in the classroom.

It never ceases to shock new students that I am not a Japanese national. When I do roll call at the beginning of class, my Japanese accent generally goes unnoticed by students. However, when I begin a self-introduction in English, jaws drop to the floor, and the subsequent facial expression, "how could a Japanese possibly speak English like that?!" is quite common. When I tell students that I am American, the ambiance of the class tends to change over time.

Interestingly, when students discover my background, some try to capitalize on it by employing the foreigner/NEST and Japanese/NNEST stereotypes. For instance, a few students complained that my classes were really boring and wished that I would make them *fun*. Upon further discussion, I discovered their notion of *fun* referred to edutainment, a type of teaching they associated with foreign native speakers. Apparently, my goal and passion to help my students learn did not match the image some students had of me as a *native speaker* whose objective was to make them laugh and passively watch movies. It later occurred to me that for some, learning English and developing proficiency in it may come at the price of their Japanese identity. Just as othering of foreign faculty can result in unfairness with administration, it can also encourage *apriori* knowledge in students.

Collaboration

Informational conversations with teachers who work at universities across Japan, seemed to suggest that teacher collaboration, even among Japanese or foreign faculty members is not common practice. Apparently, many Japanese nationals at universities also have administrative duties in addition to their normal schedules, while the number of foreign faculty with administrative roles is seemingly small. Stephanie Hirsch articulates that not many schools have "a culture that encourages teachers and administrators to work together on a regular basis, to consult each other more often on matters of teaching and learning...that address both their needs and their students'" (2010). One way to foster NNEST-NEST collaboration is by tackling the notion of self-Orientalism with Cook's (1991, 1999, 2005) notion of multicompetence.

Most universities seem to split receptive and productive instruction between Japanese and foreign faculty. Providing a chance for Japanese faculty members to teach speaking classes could have a myriad of benefits. For example, it would serve as evidence against the self-Orientalism of the native speaker fallacy to both students and teachers. Moreover, it would offer teachers a way to gain experience in teaching different macro skills. For instance, a Japanese NNEST at a local university was seen by students conversing with a native speaker for five minutes in between classes. Following this event, he observed a positive change in his students' perceptions of him as a legitimate teacher. Perhaps this case can inspire other institutions to experiment with how classes are assigned.

Suggestions

General requirement English courses may best lend themselves to this approach, as the curriculum, books and syllabi are generally coordinated by a larger entity, such as a language center. By employing a shift in what courses the faculty teaches, in tandem with a theoretical framework to contest the current hegemony of othering, the result may be the mitigation of self-Orientalism in Japanese institutions. Cook's (1991, 1999) notion of multicompetence and the idea of the L2 user bypass the native speaker benchmark by embracing difference, not deficit. Multicompetence represents one outlook on SLA which views all languages as well as interlanguage by an individual as one interdependent system. Moreover, it does not intrinsically use the native speaker as an ultimate measure of attainment, but instead encourages language learners to become L2 users. Cook (2002) refers to an L2 user as "a person who uses another language for any purpose at whatever level" (p.47).

Under the multicompetence lens and L2 user lens, previously contentious topics like native speakers as the sole proprietors of English (the ideal native speaker), codeswitching, and first language in the classroom become moot points. This approach attempts to make the native speaker fallacy an inaccessible vehicle for the notion of self-Orientalism. For example, Houghton (2013) described how a rigid division of languages, rooted in the self-Orientalism and driven through the idealized native speaker, reflected the disparity between the tenured Japanese faculty and the non-tenured foreign faculty (i.e., native English speakers) at University X. The application of a multicompetence and L2 user based framework could help impede a language divide and its potential backlashes driven by the native speaker fallacy, as it takes away a means to support the core ideology, in this case the uniqueness of Japanese (self-Orientalism). At other institutions, this framework used in combination with the rotation of teachers across productive and receptive skill classes, could perhaps aide in refocusing our goals on students while providing a chance to develop different skills.

Conclusion

Although I tried to present that teacher collaboration in Japan is quite different from its counterpart in ESL situations and even other EFL situations, it is not to say that collaboration is impossible. However, it is difficult to encourage collaboration between two seemingly disparate groups when collaboration among Japanese and foreigners in itself appears quite rare. Difficulties synchronizing schedules while balancing personal research, departmental meetings, as well as a full course load (perhaps across different schools) present problems; however the first step in the solution lies in changing *apriori* perceptions. Li's (1998) article regarding some incongruities between grammar-translation based methodologies in CLT classrooms mentioned, "a conflict apparently exists between what the CLT demands and what the EFL situation in many countries, such as South Korea, allows. This conflict must be resolved before EFL teaching in these countries can benefit from CLT" (p. 695). The notion of discrepancy above shares some parallels concerning the teacher collaboration situation in Japan. Specifically, a conflict apparently exists between what teacher collaboration requires and what the EFL situation in many countries, like Japan, allows. One step towards bridging the NNEST-NEST collaboration gap in Japan is to address the notion of self-Orientalism as expressed through native-speakerism and its generalizations regarding the foreigner/NEST and Japanese/NNEST groups in Japan. No longer can the notion of a native speaker carry the image of an exotic Caucasian *Westerners*, nor can the ideology dictate that Japanese teachers, even Japanese English teachers, cannot speak English.

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Online Language Learning Opportunities and Pitfalls: Content Development for Synchronous Online Learning

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Online learning has existed for years in several different formats. Today, it is indispensable to instructors and learners for language learning. In terms of efficiency and effectiveness, "learners pick up language knowledge or skills faster, … retain language knowledge or skills longer, make deeper associations, and/or learn more of what they need" (Hubbard, 2009, p. 2). However, language instructors and content developers may question the benefits of synchronous (face-to-face) online instruction and be unaware of existing issues. This paper outlines issues in synchronous online content development and instruction. It introduces guidelines and explores pitfalls that e-learning content developers may encounter, including technological constraints that impact language courseware development, implementation, and instruction. It also discusses opportunities that exist for those producing or delivering online content. These opportunities include developing relevant e-learning materials to motivate and engage learners, and differentiating content to attract specific learner groups and establish subject matter credibility.

オンライン学習は、いくつかの異なる形式をとりながら長年にわたり存在しており、現在では言語習得をめざす学習者や指導者にとって、不可欠な存在となっている。学習者は言語の知識や技術をより早く習得し、より長く維持し、より深く関連付け必要な情報を得ることが可能であり、オンライン学習は効果的で効率的であるといえる。この論文はオンライン上での対面学習におけるコンテンツや指導における問題点を述べる。さらにガイドラインを紹介し、e-ラーニングのコンテンツ開発者が直面するであろう問題（オンラインでの言語コース開発や実施、指導上において起こり得る技術的な面も含む）について掘り下げる。また、オンラインコンテンツを作ったり教えたりする際に存在するチャンス（学習者の動機づけに役立つe-ラーニング教材の開発や、学習者を引き付けるユニークなコンテンツ作り、当該科目を指導するにあたっての信頼性の確立）についても議論する。

In the world of computer-mediated communication (CMC), there has been a continuous progression of technological platforms and tools available to language teachers and students to address their instruction and learning needs. However, according to Furstenberg (1997) despite the benefits that technology provides, it is not "a panacea for language learning and teaching" (p. 22). Instructional technologies, such as those used for synchronous (face-to-face) online language learning, often accomplish little more than deliver traditional classroom content through a new channel.

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Developers often do not adapt their content to this new environment. Language content instructors and developers primarily focus on creating and delivering level-appropriate task-based learning materials with no focus on the learner's learning context. However, the contextual relevance of these materials and how they are delivered will affect how appealing and effective they are.

Today, "networked, internet-based applications not only present learners with information in various modes (visual, audio, and verbal/textual), but also require learners to engage in productive tasks and activities" (Hampel, 2006, p. 106). These tasks should not only address learner communication levels and task-based goals, but should also target learners' individual interests and needs. They should also match the various technological platforms, applications, and devices learners will use to interact with the content.

This paper will examine the issues facing content development for synchronous online instruction, specifically task-based English for specific purposes (ESP) content targeting learners that require English for their business or corporate environment. It will discuss issues related to technology and how they relate to content development and delivery. Finally, it will explore opportunities related to targeted instructional content, including defining a client/learner base, developing appropriate content for those learners and establishing a unique selling proposition (USP) to differentiate one's content from that of other developers.

Online Learning Issues

Due to the interactive nature of CMC, task-based content is increasingly being employed in online synchronous language instruction. Skehan (2003) acknowledged the benefits that task-based teaching brings to online instruction. These benefits have arisen because "groups of learners can engage in real-time communication, so that the feasibility of exchange arrangements grow[s] exponentially, and 'twinning' of learners and native speakers become[s] common place" (p. 403).

However, although task-based teaching may complement CMC and synchronous online instruction, content based instruction (CBI) courseware targeting specific English learner groups has been successfully used primarily with science and technology subjects, "possibly due to the technology-related abilities of instructors in these fields, who have competent skills and knowledge of multimedia software and programming, and are able to convert lecture notes into interactive multimedia courseware" (Tsai, 2013, p. 112).

Beyond the fields of science and technology, most English language courseware developed for business or commerce could do more to effectively prepare learners for their actual language needs in the workplace. This may be due, in large part, to instructional content being developed by language teachers and not industry subject matter experts. As a result, business English learning materials and courseware do little to address specific business sector needs and are often simply business-themed textbooks applied to online synchronous lessons. Svensson refers to this as "the 'you do what you did before' approach where traditional classrooms are often virtualized, with their 'old' structures" (2004, p. 12).

Targeted ESP content, such as industry-specific business English instructional materials, could better address learner needs if courseware was prepared by industry subject-matter experts, together with language content developers with online instruction expertise. In this way, the content would be more relevant, practical, and better suited to the technology and platforms that learners use when engaging in synchronous learning with their language instructor.

In the next section, we will explore some of the pitfalls content developers encounter when preparing courseware for synchronous language lessons. This involves the efficacy of online technology and how its use can impact successful content implementation and instruction.

Synchronous Content Development Pitfalls

In this section, for instructors and developers considering or presently involved in synchronous language e-learning content creation, we begin with some thoughts on online learning technology and its effectiveness, then introduce guidelines from the U.N. Food and Agriculture Organization's e-learning methodologies report on developing and implementing e-learning courseware. Following this, we will explore technological pitfalls that can prevent or inhibit successful implementation of synchronous language e-learning content.

First of all, regarding the effectiveness of technology for online language instruction, Zhao (2003) points out that it is not the technological tools that should be regarded as effective or ineffective, but rather the ways in which technology is used that have the greatest impact on the efficacy of online language learning. Furthermore, to deliver effective online instruction, content developers should also be aware of the time and effort that are required to create engaging online language learning content. As MacDonald and Thompson (2005) note, "quality e-learning comes with a cost: significant investments in time and energy" (2005, MacDonald and Thompson, Conclusions section, para. 1). Therefore, before developers consider developing synchronous e-learning content, they must consider not only the technology, but how learners will use it to engage with their instructor, and the amount of time and effort required to build successful e-learning language courseware.

We begin with a guide to online content development that can be used to effectively plan language learning instruction. Online instructional content implementation guidelines are provided by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization in their instructions for e-learning course development. Their guide begins with an analysis of the needs, audience, and tasks that should take place prior to e-learning content development. It outlines design stages, including how content should be organized and what to consider when choosing platforms or applications to deliver instruction. In the development stage, content and courseware development takes place, which includes consideration of the target audience, instructional approach, as well as delivery and assessment rubrics to evaluate acquisition of learning content.

Prior to program implementation, developers should examine: platforms or systems such as Apple OS, Windows and Android; software applications, such as Skype, Adobe Connect, MS Live Meeting, etc.; and devices such as notebooks, tablets, smart phones, etc., that will support the instructional process once the program content is implemented and distributed to learners. Developers should determine how these different technologies will affect content once it is delivered to the end user in order to ensure that the instructional experience is uniform for all learners and, as much as possible, free of disruptions. Potential technological pitfalls include content that is corrupted on different software versions, illegible or unreadable text or images on user screens, or video and audio problems that may arise due to user device or network connection issues.

A final pitfall to consider when implementing a synchronous e-learning program relates to learners' familiarity with, or affinity for, the technologies used in online lessons. Though many learners may be familiar with online communication software applications such as Skype, other issues related to the technology used in the lesson may negatively affect the instructional experience. These issues include user-friendliness or simplicity of the learner management system (LMS), learner technological aptitude or know-how, and instructor familiarity with the technology, which allows them to assist learners during the lesson, among others. Of course, once learners and instructors become familiar with the technology, the overall learning experience can combine "traditional language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing with electronic literacy skills such as learning to interact with others through the use of a variety of technological tools as an integral part of language teaching" (Hauck & Stickler, 2006, p. 464).

Even if developers adopt and apply the guidelines above and understand the issues and concerns related to technology and how it is used, they may still experience disruptions and impediments to online instruction. However, by anticipating and preparing for potential pitfalls, course content developers can minimize the impact of synchronous e-learning issues. Developers can then focus on creating relevant language courseware and content to create a successful e-learning experience for the instructors and learners involved.

In the final section, we will explore the opportunities that synchronous content development and instruction offer. These opportunities include: creating relevant, synchronous content that increases learner motivation; targeting appropriate learner groups with ESP content based on the developer's expertise and knowledge; and developing a USP to differentiate one's materials from other content available, and establish credibility in a specialized language e-learning content area.

Synchronous Content Development Opportunities

In the final section, we examine the ways that synchronous learning content producers can develop e-learning courseware that: meets learner needs, attracts learners who have a genuine interest in their content, and differentiates their content based on their subject matter expertise. In terms of determining learner needs, curriculum developers commonly perform a needs analysis prior to developing a course syllabus and content. In ESP curriculum development, needs analysis is a critical step in the instructional content planning process. Learner needs are defined by Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991) as the "identifiable elements [of] students' target English situations" (p. 299) and commonly involve interviewing learners about their situational language needs and goals.

However, a learner needs assessment should go beyond a simple determination of the language the learner will need. The content developer must understand the learner's actual contexts and needs when the learner communicates in the L2. When language content developers lack industry-specific knowledge, subject matter experts and industry professionals should be brought in to collaborate on content. In their ESP aviation discourse analysis, Girginer and Sullivan (2002) used pilots and air traffic controllers to build ESP–based content with industry-specific language for L2 speakers employed in aviation. In this way, subject matter experts and e-learning language content developers can produce content that addresses learner workplace needs and meets their specific language requirements.

But what if a synchronous language content developer does not have access to, or is unable to collaborate with a subject matter expert? How can a potential online courseware developer produce content that will attract the attention of a specific target learner group? One option is to explore an interest area that the developer has experience with or knowledge about, then determine what the particular communicative language and discourse needs are. For example, if a language developer has an interest in animation or comics, they could develop online language learning content to help interested L2 animation fans acquire discourse skills and engage in discussions on themes related to their mutual interest area. However, CMC content developers focusing on specific ESP areas must also take note of issues of register and genre. As Kern (2006) points out, "many observers note that CMC language is often less correct, less complex, less coherent than other forms of language use" (p. 194). This lack of complexity and coherence may result in gaps or discrepancies in the learners linguistic and discourse competence when discussing subjects outside of the target subject area.

By determining a synchronous content area that appeals to an L2 learner group with a mutual interest, content developers can establish their expertise in an area and connect to learners who possess the willingness and motivation to acquire competence in that subject interest area. As Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) note, motivation increases when the knowledge that learners acquire is perceived to be relevant to their needs, and when task engagement leads to clear, achievable goals that meet those needs. Therefore by developing content that is relevant and interesting to a target L2 group, with goals perceived to be attainable that meet those learners' needs, content creators can attract and retain learners who are motivated and interested in engaging in communicative interaction using their subject matter content.

The final point in this paper relates to a marketing strategy called a USP, used to differentiate a product or service from competitors and establish a dominant position in a particular market. The concept, credited to Rosser Reeves, a U.S. television advertising pioneer in the 1940's, can be applied to any situation where an advantage is necessary in order to achieve a distinct market position. In language learning content development, this strategy allows a courseware or content creator to establish their knowledge or expertise and be recognized as a leader in a particular language learning area.

The opportunity that exists in CBI for online language developers relates to the overwhelming prevalence of "commercially produced materials [that] focus on informing their users about language features and on guiding them to practice these features" (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 143). This situation presents an opportunity for innovative developers to create content that fills in niche language learning areas and to produce online materials that respond to language learners' subject matter discourse needs. How content creators can take advantage of this opportunity is to determine what content areas are in demand and which of those areas they have the requisite knowledge of or experience with to produce content. Once they determine which subject matter areas they want to create materials for, they can begin the content design and development process and establish their USP in that language learning area.

Conclusion

This review of the issues, pitfalls, and opportunities that exist in online ESP content creation presents a broad overview of the current situation facing materials developers seeking to expand into or currently engaged in CMC synchronous content production. With the increased expansion of CMC synchronous instruction and the continual improvements and expansion of technologies that facilitate this form of language learning, language instructors and content developers can take advantage of the benefits this medium has to offer. One important point to bear in mind is that language learning courseware requires a significant amount of time and energy to produce. However, if appropriate steps are taken and content is carefully planned and implemented, developers can position themselves as a subject matter instruction specialist in an ESP content area they are knowledgeable in.

As Tomlinson asserts, instructors can now "think about how best to facilitate language acquisition and development, to gain self-esteem and confidence and to develop personally and professionally in ways which help them to help others" (2012, p. 170). This push towards autonomous material creation, coupled with rapid developments in technology, is allowing language professionals to develop courseware that targets the specific needs and interests of niche learner segments. The potential is rapidly expanding for language courseware developers to establish themselves as ESP subject matter experts and create content that better addresses the needs of individual learner groups. So long as they remain aware of the pitfalls and focus on learner interests and needs, language courseware developers will have increasing opportunities to establish themselves and receive benefits from CMC instruction.

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Performance, Literature, and Critical Thinking

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Drama and oral interpretation (readers theater) are often considered to be extraneous activities in a curriculum. Speech and debate are often considered to be elitist activities reserved for the very best students. This paper shows these activities to be valuable because they expose students to the target culture in the form of literature, and help activate critical thinking. In addition, they are fun and motivating activities. This paper explains the value of doing creative activities like drama and oral interpretation in an EFL curriculum, and also gives examples of how to make speech and debate activities accessible for all students.

ドラマやオーラル・インタープリテーション（またはリーダーズ・シアター）は、カリキュラムには適さないアクティビティとよく考えられる。また、スピーチとディベートは、大変優秀な学生のためのアクティビティだと思われることが多い。本論文では、これらのアクティビティが、大変有意義であるということを紹介する。なぜなら、学生は文学を通して第二言語の文化に触れられるとともに、批判的に考える能力を高めることができるからだ。さらに、これらは、大変面白く、興味を与えるアクティビティである。本論文では、外国語教育の中で、ドラマやオーラル・インタープリテーションのようなクリエイティブなアクティビティを実施する意義を説明するとともに、すべての学生を対象にできるスピーチやディベートのアクティビティの例を紹介する。

"How can one possibly do a presentation or write an article which includes such disparate activities as speech, drama, and debate?" This question sometimes comes up in reference to such presentations as this one, and indeed, regarding the scope of the Speech, Drama, and Debate SIG. In fact, all of these activities, and more, are covered under the term *forensics,* from the Latin word *forensis,* meaning "of the forum." Forensics is defined as "the art and study of argumentation and formal debate" (TheFreeDictionary). It is an activity that is practiced in many high schools and universities in the United States. The National Forensic League is one of four national organizations which sponsors high school speech and debate events in the United States (along with the National Catholic Forensic Association, the National Christian Forensics and Communications Association, and Stoa USA), in addition to many state forensic organizations. The National Forensic League (NFL) and the Wisconsin High School Forensic Association (WHSFA), both based in Wisconsin and two of the oldest organizations of their kind, are good examples to show what activities are included under the rubric of forensics.

Listed in Table 1 are the various activities included in the NFL and in Table 2 the activities included in the WHSFA. As can be seen by the activities in Tables 1 and 2, it is appropriate to discuss debate, speech, oral interpretation, and drama in one paper

Kluge, D. E. (2014). Performance, literature, and critical thinking. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 252-259). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

Table 1
NFL Activities

Debate	Speech	Oral Interpretation	Drama
policy debate Lincoln-Douglas debate public forum debate congressional debate supplemental debate	international extemporaneous speaking U.S. extemporaneous speaking original oratory expository speaking extemporaneous commentary impromptu speaking	prose poetry dramatic interpretation humorous interpretation duo interpretation storytelling	NO ACTIVITY

Table 2
WHSFA Activities

Debate	Speech	Oral Interpretation	Drama
NO ACTIVITY	demonstration extemporaneous four minute speech moments in history oratory public address special occasion radio speaking	Farrago (melding 2 or more pieces together) group interpretative reading prose poetry storytelling	play acting solo acting serious solo acting humorous

or presentation. However, why should activities such as drama, interpretive prose, or interpretive poetry be done in language classes? Valdes (1986) answers:

> It is simply accepted as given that literature is a viable component of second language programs at the appropriate level and that one of the major functions of literature is to serve as a medium to transmit the culture of the people who speak the language in which it is written. (p. 137)

Language teachers are expected to teach culture in addition to language, and part of culture is the literature of a country. Forensics helps in the teaching of literature and culture.

The teaching of critical thinking skills is also the domain of language teachers. Dewar (2011) explains the connection of critical thinking skills and debate:

> *Lessons in debate improve critical thinking skills*
> Ask students to argue a case, and they might be pretty good at naming a few reasons in support of their argument. But they rarely consider counterarguments, disconfirming evidence, or the merits of the opposing view. . . And that's where debate comes into it. Not the silly, sloppy, emotional exchanges that pass for debate on TV and the internet. But the real thing: Disciplined, logical, responsive, evidence-based argumentation with another person.

It is clear that the teaching of speech, drama, oral interpretation, and debate are good activities for the language classroom. This paper explains in detail how to do a speech activity, an oral interpretation activity, and a debate activity for the language classroom.

Table 3
How To Do My Monologue

Step	Activity	Description
1	Selection of theme	Select a theme—can be the theme of the textbook
2	Creation of Monologue Template	Create a template for the monologue (see below) with blanks for students to add their personal information.
3	Monologue Writing	Have students write out the entire monologue in class or as homework.
4	Monologue Checking	Have students hand in monologues. Check them for grammar/spelling problems. Return monologues to students.
5	Second Draft Writing	Have students write a second draft based on the teacher's corrections/ suggested changes.
6	Practice/Rehearsal	Have students practice their monologues by themselves, and then in small groups. Have them record their monologues using their own digital cameras or cell phones. Students can do self-evaluations based on the video they recorded.
7	Performance	Students perform their monologues without script to whole class. Students in the audience can ask questions. Have them record their monologues using their own digital cameras or cell phones. Students can do self-evaluations based on the video they recorded so they can compare before and after performances.

My Monologue Speech Activity

Many teachers know that speech contests are positive experiences for students. Bury, Sellick, and Yamamoto (2012, p. 17) summarize these positive points:

> Entering a speech contest has many benefits for students, and incorporates the four English skills as the students write their own speeches, negotiate the topic and structure of the speech with their tutor, research their speeches independently, and then deliver the speech. It also provides the students with an opportunity to function in an autonomous context, further developing their confidence and empowering them to use English in a fulfilling and rewarding way.

With all these benefits, it seems a shame that not all students can share them. Kluge (2012) makes this exact point and shows how to do speeches in language classes on a regular basis, doing what he calls My Monologue. This activity can be done with any textbook or any topic and takes two class periods to complete. The procedure for My Monologue is listed in Table 3.

For example if the topic of the textbook is sports, the teacher can write on the board the following sample monologue template:

> Hello everybody! Let me tell you about sports and me. When I was in junior high school I used to _____, but now I ____.My best memory doing ____ is ________. I really enjoy _____ because __________. I _____ ____ times a _______. I usually ______ with _______. In the future I would like to try ______ because ______.Thank you.

The students rewrite the monologue filling in the blanks with their own answers. The teacher collects the monologues at the end of class, corrects them, and returns the corrected monologues during the next class. The students rewrite the monologue incorporating the suggested changes. They then practice the monologues by themselves, and then perform the speeches in small groups. This activity can also be used for oral exams. With My Monologue, students can experience regularly the benefits of a speech contest mentioned

Table 4
Steps for Oral Interpretation and Readers Theater

Step	Activity	Description
1	Selection of material	Select a piece of literature (poem, song lyric, short story, speech, essay, novel, news story, biography, etc.) to be performed, considering the number of performers, performers' interests, language proficiency, & maturity level of performers and audience
2	Script making	Get the material scripted for RT (Who reads what?)
3	Interpretation	Understand both implicit and explicit messages of the text *Explicit: What do the words mean? *Implicit: What does the piece mean (Theme)?
4	Reading aloud	Learn prosodic features such as pronunciation, intonation, rhythm, pitch, rapidity, style, and loudness that can match the interpretation.
5	Staging	To convey the message to the audience, learn how to better employ paralinguistic aspects of English : facial expression, posture, gestures, movement, GROUPING
6	Practice/ Rehearsal	Make arrangements so that everyone involved can get together for practice and cooperate with group members
7	Performance	Learn how to overcome stage fright (physical warm-up, voice warm-up, deep breath before performance)

above by Bury, Sellick, and Yamamoto (2012).

Oral Interpretation Activity

As Valdes (1986) stated, if a teacher wants to teach culture in class, a good way is to use literature. A good way to study literature is through oral interpretation. What is oral interpretation?

> Oral Interpretation is the expression and sharing of literature with an audience. The function of the interpreter is to establish oneself as a liaison between the author who created the literature and the audience which responds to it. The goal of the interpreter should be influenced by the author's intention which can be discovered by investigation into the author's background, viewpoint and the time and conditions under which the selection was written. (Parker & Bradley, 2012, para. 1)

It is true that there are people who have studied oral interpretation and use it regularly in class, but this does not mean that they are the only people who can use it. In Table 4 are the steps that any teacher can follow to do oral interpretation in the language classroom.

This activity can be done by individuals, small groups, or by the whole class. One thing that can make the activity more interesting is using popular songs. Students can find the song on the Internet anytime and then practice pronunciation and intonation as homework.

A Physical Debate Activity

Debate is seen by many, teachers and students alike, as an elite activity, and in many ways it is, but that does not mean that all students cannot try it and learn important critical thinking skills. The challenge is to overcome the impression that debate is complicated and difficult. One way to do that is to use physical activity to learn debate moves. There are really only a few moves in debate: build (a case), attack (a position), guard (your position) and review (the flow of the debate). This method of teaching debate uses two main metaphors to teach the moves: laying bricks and boxing. The first step is to teach the physical movements:

Brick laying move

Build: place one brick next to another and build a wall

Boxing moves

Attack: (jab, cross, uppercut-jaw, uppercut-body blow, hook, roundhouse)

Small Victory: clasp hands and move them forward and back

Rocky Pose: raise fists over head

Guard: hold fists up in front of face

Other move

Review: move arms in large circles on either side of body

Optional Moves

Bring it on!: palm up, fingers together, move fingers forward and back (can be done with one hand or both)

Glove Tap: tap each other's gloves

After practicing these movements, then it is time to learn the order of the debate, which can be found in Appendix 1. The students are divided into groups of four. Each group of four is divided into two groups of two, Affirmative team and Negative team. The teacher calls out the speech name. The appropriate person stands up and repeats the speech name. The next step is to do the same procedure, but this time the students add the movements, found in the Actions column of Appendix 1. The third time the teacher teaches students the language of debate found in the Language column of Appendix 1. The purpose of this procedure is to learn the moves of a debate, the order of speeches, and the basic set phrases used in debate.

The next step is to decide on a topic. The topic has to be in this form: *Resolved: That __ (a body, like the government)__ should __ (action, like stop or prohibit something)__* . There should be two sides to the topic and it should be a topic that is easy for students to research and find enough information. Here is an example of such a topic (or resolution): *Resolved: That the Japanese government should actively explore alternative energy sources.*

By using the physical movements or actions, it makes debate fun to learn and easy to understand for the students.

Conclusion

Teachers who see forensics as an interesting way to expose students to the target language culture through literature and a way for students to learn and practice critical thinking skills should not shy away from teaching speech, oral interpretation, or debate because they think it is too difficult. Using these easy step-by-step descriptions of these three activities will will make it easy to introduce the benefits of these activities to all students in the language classrooms.

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Appendix A

Speech	Time	Actions	Langauge
(before debate)		Bring it on! Glove bump	Bring it on!
1. First Affirmative Constructive	3 min	Begin Attack Support Build End	Good afternoon. Because __ we are resolved: ___ Point 1: "__." Point 1: "__." According to ____, Plan Point 1: "_." Plan Point 1: "_." Thank you. I am now ready for cross examination.
2. Second Negative Cross-X	1 min.	Jab/Guard	Who? What? When? Where? Why? How much?
3. First Negative Constructive	3 min.	Begin Build Support Attack Support End	We believe the present system is fine. Point 1: The present system is fine because ___. Point 1: The present system is fine because ___. According to ____, Point 1: The proposed system is not good because ___. Point 1: The proposed system is not good because __. According to ____, Thank you. I am now ready for cross examination.
4. First Affirmative Cross-X	1 min.	Jab/Guard	Who? What? When? Where? Why? How much?
5. Second Affirmative Constructive	3 min.	Begin Build Support Attack End	 Point 1: "__." Point 1: "__." According to ____, Plan Point 1: "_." Plan Point 1: "_." Thank you. I am now ready for cross examination.
6. First Negative Cross-X	1 min.	Jab/Guard	Who? What? When? Where? Why? How much?
7. Second Negative Constructive	3 min.	Begin Build Support Attack	Our position is the present system is fine because ___. Point 1: The present system is fine because ___. According to ____, Our position is the proposed system is not good because ___.The proposed system is not good because __.

7. Second Negative Constructive			
		Support End	According to ____, Thank you. I am now ready for cross examination.
8. Second Affirmative Cross-X	1 min.	Jab/Guard	Who? What? When? Where? Why? How much?
9. First Negative Rebuttal	2 min.	Review Small Victory Conclusion	They said __, we said __ Clearly the Negatives won this point. Clearly the Negatives won this debate.
10. First Affirmative Rebuttal	2 min.	Review Small Victory Conclusion	They said __, we said __ Clearly the Affirmatives won this point. Clearly the Affirmatives won this debate.
11. Second Negative Rebuttal	2 min.	Review Small Victory Conclusion	They said __, we said __ Clearly the Negatives won this point. In conclusion, because of _____, clearly the Negatives won this debate.
12. Second Affirmative Rebuttal	2 min.	Review Small Victory Conclusion	They said __, we said __ Clearly the Affirmatives won this point. In conclusion, because of _____, clearly the Affirmatives won this debate.
(after debate when judge/s announce the winner		Rocky pose	

Pragmatic Appropriateness of English Learners' Refusals

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This study was designed to identify problems of Japanese EFL learners' refusals which might hinder their appropriateness and comprehensibility. Two American raters evaluated Japanese high school students' English refusals of a higher-, an equal-, and a lower-status interlocutor's invitation to a party. Similarly, two Japanese raters evaluated Japanese equivalents to see whether the problems of the Japanese students' English refusals were caused by a lack of the students' English linguistic and pragmatic ability or their immature pragmatic ability in their native language. Major problems found in the students' English refusals include their abruptness and a lack of or unconvincing excuses. Regarding the difference in interlocutor's social status, American raters judged the refusals given to a lower-status interlocutor as most inappropriate. They evaluated two-thirds of them as abrupt and four-fifth of them as lack of reasons or need of more compelling reasons.

本研究の目的は、日本人学習者の英語の「断り」の妥当性を損なう問題点を特定すること、また、話し相手の社会的な立場の違いがその問題点にどのように影響するのかについて調べることである。談話完成タスクを使い、日本人高校生がアルバイト先の上司、親しい友人、部活動の後輩の招待に対する「断り」を英語と日本語で書いたものを集め、まず、英語のものをアメリカ人2人が評価した。さらに、1回目の評価における評価者のコメントを基に5つの規準を選び、この5項目についてアメリカ人が英語の「断り」を、日本人が日本語の「断り」を評価した。結果は、説得力のない言い訳、言い訳の欠如、また、表現が短くぶっきらぼうであることが、アメリカ人・日本人共に評価者達が表現が妥当性に欠けると判断する主な理由であることが分かった。また、アメリカ人の評価者達が失礼だと判断したものは、社会的な立場が下の話し相手に対するものに最も多かった。

Appropriateness is generally used as a criterion to assess pragmatic aspects of language performances (Kasper, 1997; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). From her comparative study, Koseki (2013) found *inappropriateness* in her Japanese students' refusals. Research has indicated that native speakers tend to interpret pragmatic failure negatively as offensive (Thomas, 1983), arrogant, or rude (Nelson, Carson, Al Batal, & El Bakary, 2002). Additionally, acquisition of pragmatic competence seems to be difficult specifically in EFL environments (Takahashi & Beebe, 1987). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to identify what pragmalinguistic and sociocultural features of Japanese EFL learners' refusals could be inappropriate from the native speakers' perspective and/or could hinder communication of the speaker's intention.

Koseki, K. (2014). Pragmatic appropriateness of english learners' refusals. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 260-268). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

Refusals were chosen because they were a face-threatening act, must be instantly produced since they

Table 1
The Results of Grading.

G	Situation 1				Situation 2				Situation 3			
	Refusals	U	M	L	Refusals	U	M	L	Refusals	U	M	L
5	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	1	1	0	0
4.5	2	1	0	1	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
4	4	2	1	1	6	3	1	2	3	1	1	1
3.5	6	2	3	1	10	5	5	0	6	3	3	0
3	9	3	4	2	3	0	0	3	8	2	2	4
2.5	5	0	2	3	5	1	1	3	9	3	2	4
2	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
1.5	4	2	0	2	1	0	0	1	3	0	2	1

G=Grade; Refusals (N=30); U=Upper-level students (N=10); M=Middle-level students (N=10); L=Lower-level students (N=10).

were a response to other speech acts, and could vary cross-culturally (Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Nelson et al., 2002, Chang, 2009; Allami & Naeimi, 2011; Bella, 2011). Therefore, the research questions are:

1. What aspects of the Japanese students' refusals may hinder their appropriateness in each situation?
2. How could a difference in interlocutors' social status impact appropriateness of Japanese students' refusals?

Methods

Participants

First, 56 Japanese students were engaged in three discourse completion tasks (DCTs) in class. Then, to investigate impact of their English proficiency on their performance,10 upper-level, 10 middle-level, and 10 lower-level students were determined based on their four exam scores for the course, and their refusals were used for evaluation. The students are all female and are in their second year of senior high school in Tokyo. Their English competency varies (approximately TOEIC 350-850). Three students lived abroad (two in the U.S.A. and one in Thailand) for several years when they were in elementary school, but most students had never used English outside of classroom except when they traveled abroad.

DCTs

English and Japanese refusals were collected with three DCTs (see Appendix A) which intended to elicit a polite refusal of an invitation to a party given to a higher- (Situation 1), an equal-, (Situation 2), and a lower-social status interlocutor than the refuser (Situation 3).

Procedure

Evaluation was implemented twice. Two American raters, a male and a female, conducted the first evaluation. They graded the Japanese students' English refusals on the scale of 1-5 in terms of their appropriateness and comprehensibility (see Appendix B). However, the first evaluation did not provide enough information to identify problems of the Japanese students' refusals. Therefore, the second evaluation was necessary. For the second evaluation, American raters assessed the same English refusals again on the five criteria which were developed based on the findings from the first evaluation (see Appendix C). Similarly, Japanese raters,

Table 2
Raters' Comments at the First Rating (Rater 1 + Rater 2)

Raters' Comments	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 3
Unclear Meaning, confusing, strange language	15	11	12
Incorrect language	3	1	1
Rude	1	2	7
Vague reason	7	10	8
Weak reason, not compelling enough for the boss	10	0	0
Not appropriate language for the boss	2	0	0
No reason	5	6	9
Abrupt	0	1	4
Misunderstanding	2	0	0

a male and a female, assessed Japanese equivalents on the same criteria to ascertain whether the students' problems were caused by a lack of their English ability or their immature pragmatic ability in their native language. All raters, both Americans and Japanese, are college English instructors who have a master's degree in TESOL.

Table 3
The Number of Semantic Formulas Used in Each Situation: Japanese Students' Refusals

Adjuncts & Semantic Formulas	Total N=90	S1 N=30	S2 N=30	S3 N=30	S2 (Americans) N=10	Flat Refusals (Americans) N=10
Statement of Positive Opinion	31	11	10	10	5	1
Pause Fillers	1	0	0	1	2	0
Gratitude/Appreciation	24	8	10	6	5	0
"No"	1	0	0	1	0	1
Negative Willingness/Ability	55	20	17	18	2	9
Statement of Regret	81	28	28	25	3	6
Wish	1	1	0	0	0	0
Excuse/Reason/Explanation	64	26	23	15	7	0
Statement of Alternative	0	0	0	0	0	2
Promise of Future Acceptance	21	6	7	8	0	0

N=Number; S=Situation. Examined in the Present Study & American Refusals (Koseki, 2013).

Results

First Evaluation

As you see in Table 1, against the author's expectation, the students' English competency did not seem to impact their performances so much. The average of the grades supported this finding. Most average grades are 3, which means that most Americans can probably get a general idea of what the student wants to say but their refusals are not very comprehensive and/or not very appropriate (see Appendix B

Then, what aspects of the students' refusals might have hindered American raters' understanding and/or might have been offensive to their ears? Raters were not asked but were invited to comment on their assessment (see Table 2). Their comments indicated that problematic areas were lack of the students' English ability, their unconvincing excuses, their lack of reasons, and abruptness of their refusals. Some refusals were even judged as rude.

The refusals were also examined in terms of their semantic formulas. The semantic formulas were categorized based on Beebe et al.'s (1990) classification. The American refusals, both polite refusals and flat refusals, collected by the author in the previous study (Koseki, 2013), were used as a baseline for comparison. As Table 3 shows, strategies most frequently used by Japanese are *negative willingness/ability* (e.g. I can't go.), *statement of regret* (e.g. I'm sorry.), and *excuse/reason/explanation*. However, *statement of positive opinion* and *gratitude/appreciation* strategies, even though all Americans used at least one of them in their polite refusal, were only used by 34% (positive opinion) and 27% (gratitude) of the Japanese. Additionally, *excuse/reason/explanation* strategy, which was expected to be used in all the refusals, was actually used in 71% of them in total and only 50% of them in Situation 3.

Second Evaluation

However, the first evaluation could not provide enough information to specify exactly what had hindered appropriateness of the students' refusals. It was partly because the rating was designed to give a holistic grade and partly because the raters' comments on their evaluation were provided only on a limited number of refusals. Another problem of the first evaluation was interrater reliability. Difference between two grades given by two raters was two for nine refusals. According to their comments, the raters seem to have evaluated the same refusal on different criteria. Additionally, interrater reliability of the results was calculated with Excel and Spearman-Brown

Table 4
The Frequency of the American Rater's Choices on English Refusals.

	Clear Communication of Refusals				Politeness			Abruptness		Reasons/Excuses							
Choice	1a	1b	1c	1d	2a	2b	2c	4a	4b	5a	5b	5c-5e	5c	5d	5e	5f	5c-5f
AR1+AR2 (N=180)	88	56	15	21	55	80	45	84	96	16	25	89	64	11	14	50	139
S1 (N=60)	29	16	9	6	16	28	16	29	31	6	6	36	25	3	8	12	48
S2 (N=60)	32	19	3	6	26	26	8	35	25	7	12	29	22	4	3	12	41
S3 (N=60)	27	21	3	9	13	26	21	20	40	3	7	24	17	4	3	26	50

AR=American Rater, N=Number; S=Situation. (See Appendix C for Choices 1a-5f.)

prophecy formula (Brown, 2005), but their reliability could be low because the results both from the first evaluation and from the second evaluation were not interval scale but ordinal scale.

Finally, the frequency of American raters' choices in each criterion are shown in Table 4. In the second rating, each rater was asked to choose one of the choices on each criterion (see Appendix C). The results on formality were deleted from Table 4 because they were not problematic. The results in the second rating basically supported the findings from the first rating but provided more reliable information. As seen in Table 4, the most problematic area was reasons, with 77% of the refusals being judged as problematic with their reasons. The second-worst area was abruptness of the refusals, with 53% of the refusals being judged as abrupt and found most in Situation 3. Furthermore, on politeness, only 31% of the refusals was judged as polite enough while 25% was judged as rude. Rudeness was indicated most in Situation 3. Regarding clear communication of the message, only 49% of the refusals were evaluated as satisfactory.

Discussion

1. What Aspects of the Japanese Students' Refusals May Hinder Their Appropriateness in Each Situation?

Even though the Japanese students' English refusals were generally understandable, they had certain pragmatic problems. They included abruptness of the refusals or too short refusals such as "I'm sorry. I can't go there.", unconvincing excuses such as "I have a schedule." (The student wanted to say, "I have plans.") or "I am busy.", and a lack of excuses. Japanese raters' evaluation of Japanese refusals showed the similar tendency even though the number of inappropriate refusals was much smaller than the English equivalents. This similarity might be interpreted in two ways. One is that some Japanese students' pragmatic competence was still immature even in their native language. The other is that the problems of the Japanese students' refusals could be their L1 transfer because Japanese refusals tend to be short and a lack compelling reasons. Japanese raters might have judged short refusals and refusals without compelling reasons as inappropriate because they have been accustomed to English norms.

Furthermore, linguistic items which American raters evaluated as offensive include direct negative willingness such as "I really don't feel like going.", "I don't want to go.", "I won't join", and "I don't go to the party." One of the raters additionally suggested that "I want to decline" should be changed into "I have to decline." This finding indicates that polite refusals should include strategies to show the speaker's wish or desire to accept an invitation and strategies to show the speaker's regret for impossibility of doing that.

2. How Could a Difference in Interlocutors' Social Status Impact the Appropriateness of Japanese Students' Refusals?

American raters evaluated the refusals given to a lower-status interlocutor as most inappropriate. They judged 67% of the refusals in Situation 3 as abrupt and 84% of them as a lack of reasons or need of more compelling reasons. They also judged 35% of them, most among the three situations, as rude while Japanese raters judged Japanese refusals given to a higher-status interlocutor most rude. It might reflect Japanese culture in which people are most careful when refusing higher-status interlocutors.

Conclusion

This study was designed to identify major problems of Japanese EFL learners' refusals which might hinder their appropriateness. The study also investigated the impact of an interlocutor's social status on Japanese learners' refusals. The first evaluation revealed that the students' English competency might not have impacted their pragmatic performance so much. Some students' pragmalinguistic and sociocultural negative L1 transfer was also found. The second evaluation identified major reasons of the Japanese students' inappropriate performances. They are abruptness of refusals, unconvincing excuses, and lack of excuses. Regarding the difference in interlocutor's social status, American raters judged the refusals given to a lower-status interlocutor as most rude even though Japanese raters judged less rude. Japanese raters' assessment of

Japanese refusals shared the same tendency which may show their immature pragmatic ability even in their native language.

The limitations of the study are twofold. One is a lack of native speakers' data for comparison while the other is a limited number of raters. In the preparation stage for this study, American high school students' refusals were to be collected with the same DCTs using SurveyMonkey, but the negotiation with the instructor ended unsuccessfully. Therefore, the alternatives from the author's previous study were used.

In conclusion, when we teach Japanese students refusals of an invitation, we should encourage them to begin their refusals with their wish to accept the invitation and/or their gratitude for the inviter's goodwill, and then produce longer utterances with compelling and specific reasons to make their refusals sound polite enough.

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Appendix A
Discourse Completion Tasks

Situation 1
Your boss who you are working for part-time invited you to a party that the company is arranging. You don't feel like going and want to refuse her invitation.

Boss: We are planning a Christmas party from 7:00 p.m. on December 21st, Friday at a restaurant close to our office. I strongly recommend you come because you can get to know your colleagues better there. Can you join us?

You:

Situation 2
Your close friend invited you to a Christmas party that she and her friends are arranging, but you don't feel like going and want to refuse her invitation.

Friend: We are arranging a Christmas party from 6:00 p.m. on December 22nd, Saturday in Shibuya. Can you join us?

You:

Situation 3
Your school club junior invited you to a Christmas party that she and her friends are arranging, but you don't feel like going and want to refuse her invitation.

Junior: We are arranging a Christmas party from 6:00 p.m. on December 22nd, Saturday in Shibuya. Can you join us?

You:

Appendix B

Instruction for the First Rating

(1) Do you think most Americans can understand what the student wants to say if she produces it in the USA? Could you grade the following English refusals on the scale of 1-5 in terms of its comprehensibility and its appropriateness and type it in to the right side of each refusal?

5 I think most Americans can clearly understand what she wants to say.
4 I think most Americans can understand pretty much of what she wants to say.
3 I think most Americans can get a general idea of what she wants to say.
2 I think it is difficult for most Americans to understand what she wants to say but I think they can at least understand her intention of refusal.
1 I think it is very difficult for most Americans to understand her intention of refusal.

(2) Then, could you mark the words/phrases which could hinder Americans' comprehension with underline or markers if any? You are also welcome to type in comments in RED.

Appendix C
Instruction for the Second Rating

Could you choose a statement that best fits how you feel about each refusal based on American norms? (Japanese raters, could you judge each refusal based on Japanese norms?)

1. Clear communication of the writer's intention of refusing:
   a. The writer's intention of refusing is clearly communicated.
   b. The writer's intention of refusing can be somehow understood.
   c. The writer's intention of refusing is difficult to be understood because of the writer's lack of linguistic ability.
   d. The writer's intention of refusing is difficult to be understood because of the writer's lack of ability to discuss logically.

2. Politeness:
   a. The refusal is polite.
   b. The refusal is not very polite but probably doesn't cause any offense to the interlocutor.
   c. The refusal is rude.

3. Formality of the language:
   a. Appropriate
   b. Inappropriate

4. Abruptness:
   a. The refusal has no problem with abruptness.
   b. The refusal is abrupt.

5. Reasons / Excuses
   a. The reason is persuasive.
   b. The reason is not very persuasive but works.
   c. The reason is too vague.
   d. The reason is too honest.
   e. The refusal needs better reasons.
   f. The refusal lacks reasons.

Resources for Technology-Supported Learning in the EFL Classroom

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Technology-enhanced instruction has made possible new opportunities in language teaching. However, as language teachers, we know well that technology is only as good as its application. In this paper, I outline how and why I am using technology in my classes, and describe some of the applications I have found to be useful. I then outline some key themes in students' perceptions of the roles various types of technology supported instruction play in their learning.

技術強化した教育は語学指導に新たな機会をもたらす。しかしながら語学教師にとって技術は単に道具の一つとしてしか理解されていない。この論文では私が授業でどのように、どのような理由で技術を利用しているかに言及し、有用なアプリを紹介する。そして生徒の学習を支援する様々な技術の役割を生徒の知見からいくつかの鍵となるテーマで概要を示した。

Introduction

Technology-enhanced instruction has made possible new opportunities in language teaching. However, as language teachers, we know well that technology is only as good as its application. As with Internet use in society in general, how technologies are used, and whether the use of technology results in positive outcomes, are the important issues in education. That is, what teachers *do* with technology, and even more importantly, what technology can help teachers to get students to do, are the points that deserve attention.

The Web-based Education Commission (2000, web, 69) has stated that, "Dazzling technology has no value unless it supports content that meets the needs of learners." That is, technology is only as good as its application (Hess, 2012; Park and Son, 2009). Warschauer (2000, web) writes that, "Technology itself does not determine human behavior, such as how we teach. However, it does create the possibilities for new forms of behavior and education."

Over the past two years I have developed websites for each of my university skill-based English courses with the aim of extending student learning by integrating technologies into the online learning environment. I have had two aims in doing this. First, I wanted to make resources, materials, activities and assignments easily and readily accessible to students within what I hoped were interesting and attractive online environments. I sought to avoid the dry and somewhat colorless environment that some virtual learning environments or course management systems tend to have, and to create visually rich and easy-to-navigate environments. In creating custom websites for each course, and in developing a range of online

Carlson, A. (2014). Resources for technology-supported learning in the EFL classroom. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 269-274). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

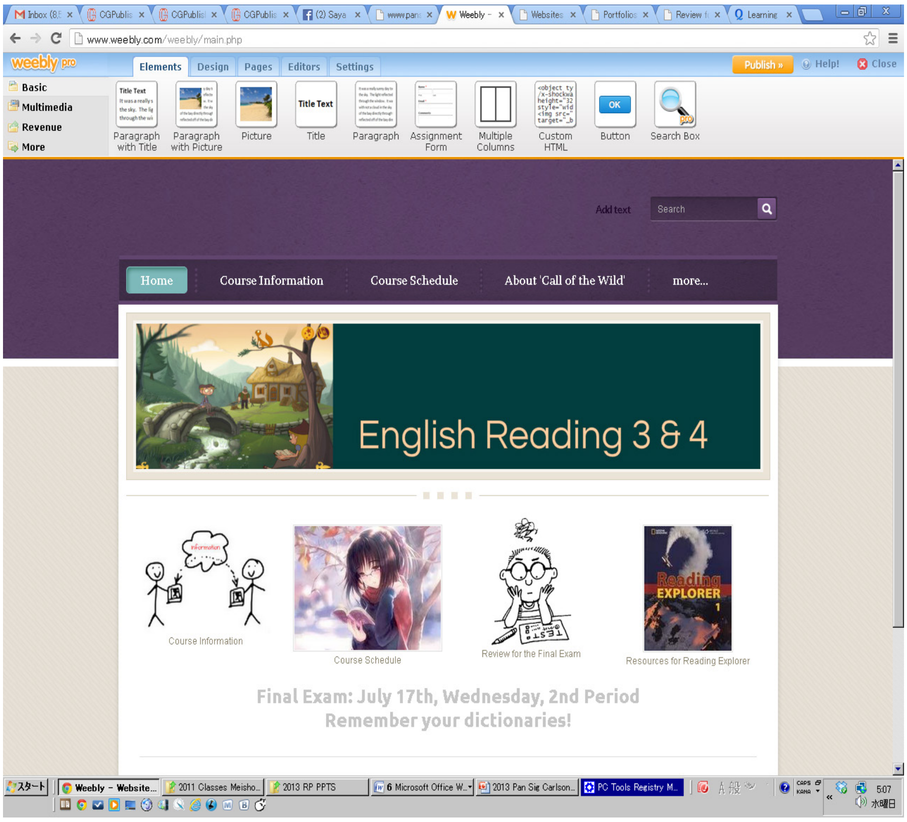

Figure 1.

materials, I hoped to provide extra opportunities for students, particularly those with less English, to understand, practice and review what we learn in class. Second, I hoped that the websites would also serve as a place for students to showcase and share their work, as well as to give and receive feedback and collaborate on a range of projects. For these reasons, each website has pages with:

1. Short videos and slideshows for use as prompts, background information and a range of listening and vocabulary building activities.
2. Links to online quizzes, games and other activities that have been developed for each course.
3. Course documents, templates, presentations and handouts for students to view and download.
4. Password-protected areas with student work or links to student pages.
5. Password-protected pages with materials for teachers.

Course Websites

I am using Weebly to develop customized websites for each of my classes. Creating a website using Weebly is inexpensive and relatively straightforward. I chose Weebly primarily because it allows the user to easily add or create a wide variety of elements, including slideshows, video and audio resources, surveys, blogs, student websites, password-controlled pages and other components. Weebly also allows the teacher to add other teachers as editors of all or part of a website, as well as to see how many people are visiting the site each day and which pages are most often viewed.

My course websites have pages with standard course information, such as course syllabus and schedule, my contact details, and information about assignments and exams. In addition, each website is a platform for a variety of other online applications. In the following discussion, I will outline my aims in using these applications, and will describe the applications themselves. I will then discuss student responses and feedback regarding learning in this type of technology-supported environment.

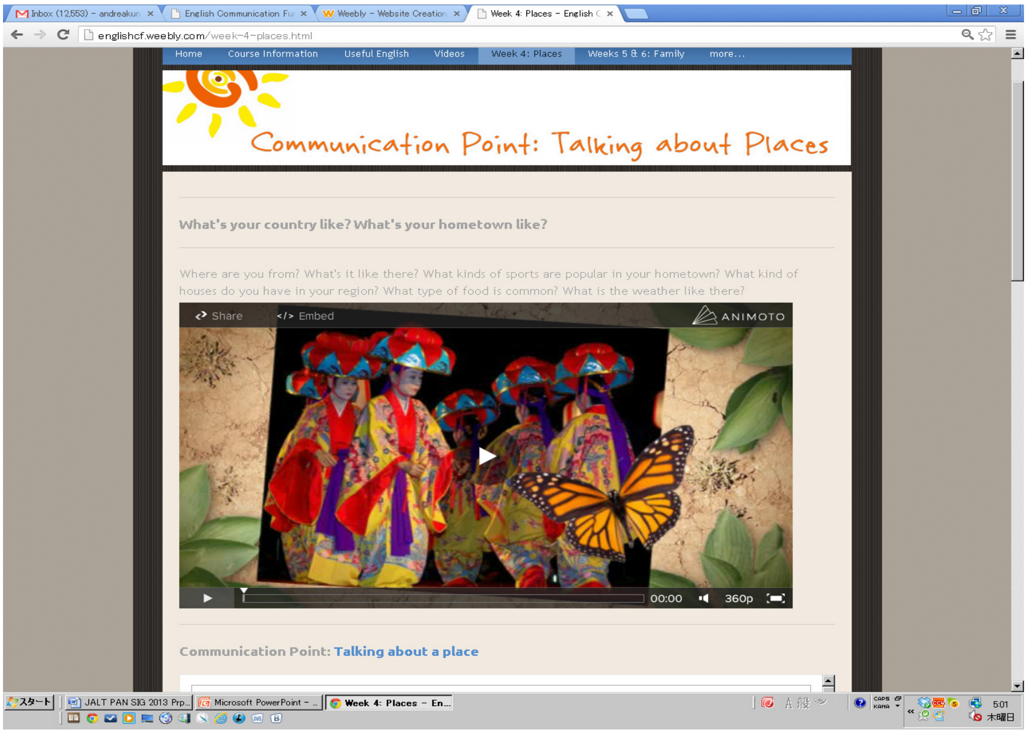

Figure 2.

Teacher Developed Videos

I use VoiceThread, GoAnimate and Animoto to create short videos, which are then uploaded to a given website. My aim in creating and using these types of videos in class is to introduce material, add interest and give students additional ways to learn and understand the course content. I find these types of materials can be especially helpful to students who need some extra support in their language learning.

VoiceThread is an online application that allows the user to add his or her voice to a video or PowerPoint, and for others to then add their spoken comments as part of a thread. I have used VoiceThread primarily as a model for student presentations, to prepare listening activities related to the topics and themes being covered in class and for short tutorials about specific skills or language points.

GoAnimate videos naturally look quite different from those made using VoiceThread, but can also be used in much the same way. In my classes, I often create short GoAnimate videos to introduce functional and grammatical aspects of the conversations we are focusing on in class.

Animoto is essentially a slideshow-style video made up of whatever images and text the teacher includes, accompanied by whatever music the teacher chooses. I often create Animoto videos to introduce a topic or a theme, such as sports or music. For example, I also sometimes upload images of student work as a way to share them with the class.

Online Quizzes and Activities

I use both Quia and Quizlet to create online quizzes and activities, which are then linked to the course websites. My purpose in doing this is to add interest to course content, gather information about how well students understand what they are learning and give students a variety of ways to review specific material outside of class. An additional aim is that students benefit from receiving immediate feedback about their answers.

In making Quia quizzes a teacher can choose from a number of question types. A quiz can, therefore, be customized to include, among others, multiple choice, fill in the blank, short answers questions in one quiz. Both images and audio can be added to the questions. Upon completing the quiz, students receive immediate feedback about their answers. Teachers can require students to provide their names, or can make this optional, and can limit the number of tries a student can have for a given quiz. Quia also provides a range of information to the teacher, including how students

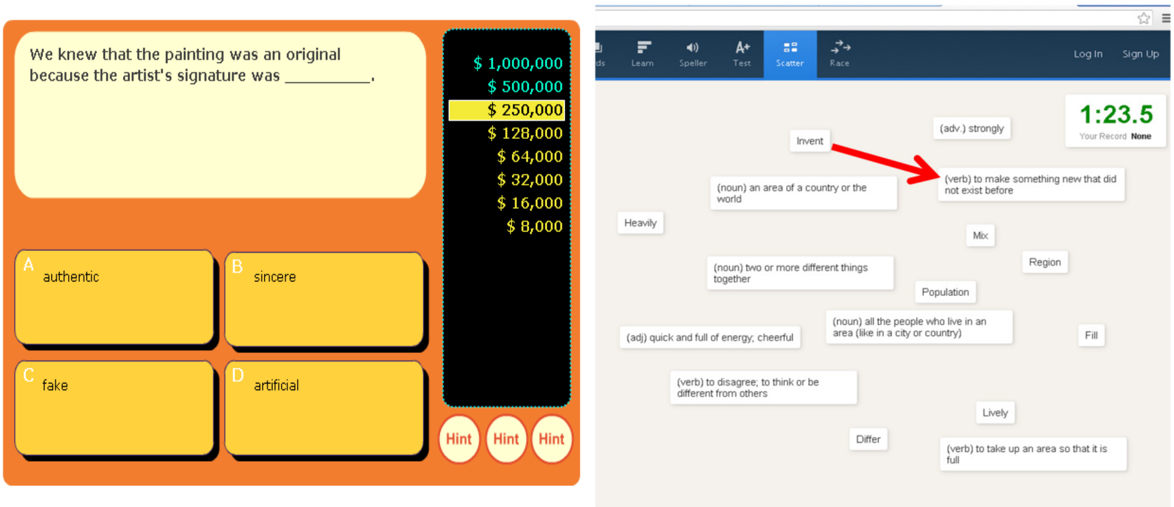

Figure 3.

have done individually and as a group. Additionally, a teacher can copy an already developed quiz, and edit it to create a new or different quiz. Images and audio can be added to quiz questions.

Like Quia, teachers can use Quizlet to make various types of questions within a test, and images and audio can be added to the questions. With Quizlet, however, questions are generated automatically after the teacher enters terms Quizlet generates . Another difference between the platforms is that with Quizlet, simply by entering terms and their matches, both quizzes and games are generated and displayed. Students can then choose the activities they wish to try.

Both Quia and Quizlet allow teachers to create games and activities, such as matching activities and flash cards. Using Quia, teachers can create a much wider range of materials, including two-player jeopardy-style games and ordering and cloze-style activities. A drawback with the Quia activities is that, unlike the quizzes, teachers are not able to track student progress. Quizlet games, although more limited, are timed and students seem to enjoy competing against the clock and against their best time.

Figure 4.

Online Student Portfolios

Another component that I have integrated into the course websites has been student online portfolios. I have two aims in doing this. First, I want to give students an opportunity to showcase their work and to give and receive feedback from peers. Secondly, I hope that writing for an authentic audience and knowing that their work will be read by their peers will encourage students to do their best work.

Using Weebly, teachers can give each student their own website, whilst maintaining control over security and content. Students can easily choose a design and layout and add images and information about themselves. As with the Weebly teacher websites, the student websites allow students to, among other things, add slideshows and embed videos.

Investigating Student Perceptions of Technology-Supported Materials

To learn about student perceptions of using technology in these courses, I invited students from my two Reading classes to participate in an informal, focus group style unstructured discussion about the way technology is being used in the course. Such methods have become widely used in educational and social research and evaluation, as part of what has been termed a 'narrative turn' (Chamberlayne, et. al. 2000; Hollway & Jefferson, 2000). The discussion lasted 45 minutes, and I recorded and later transcribed the conversation. Ten students joined the discussion. The group was of English mixed ability and students were also mixed in terms of how much effort they put into learning English. We met in our usual classroom, a medium-size computer room. I first explained that I am hoping to learn from the students about what they find helpful and not helpful and to hear their ideas about how the online materials and activities might be developed and improved in the new semester. I asked the students to turn on their computers, so that they could refer to the website and applications. At the beginning of the discussion, all of the students commented very positively that they find the online materials to be fresh, interesting and helpful to their learning.

Students were strongly in agreement about five points:

1. Having material in one place, the course website, is very helpful and convenient.
2. They enjoy the online quizzes and activities and believe the materials are helpful to their learning, but only the more motivated students reported using them outside of class regularly. The less motivated students reported using the materials the day before an exam only.
3. They enjoy sharing their work online and seeing other students` work, but feel considerable stress about not being able to communicate in English as well as some of their peers.
4. They appreciate having online materials as they can access them almost anywhere and anytime.
5. They like having handouts and other course materials and information uploaded to the website.

The students also had some ideas for making the technology more useful and interesting. They were in general agreement that in the new semester it would be helpful to:

1. have more images integrated into the online quizzes and activities.
2. have any difficult terms students have used in their writing highlighted and hyperlinked so that by clicking on a word a simple definition appears.
3. have students prepare some of the quizzes and animated videos to go on the website.

Conclusion

My aim in using technology in my teaching is for the technology to enhance, support and extend students` language learning, and for it to play a positive role in helping students to develop agency and autonomy as language learners by having students showcase their work on their own webpages and providing opportunities to reviews materials in various online formats outside of class. By doing more research in the area of technology in the student-centered classroom, I hope to learn more about how students experience learning with technology and about how technology can best be used to help students achieve.

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Responses to an Email Magazine: How Do Writers Grow?

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This paper examines the potential of an email magazine to encourage extensive writing. The author examines responses of one reader to an email magazine designed for Japanese learners of English. The reader chose to respond to the email magazine instead of writing a diary, and the data consists of one year of her responses, a total of 228. The paper looks at how reading the email magazine affected her choice of topic, if there were any clear patterns of language used in her responses, and whether there was evidence of a change in her writing over the one-year period. Pedagogical implications are discussed in the conclusion.

本論はメールマガジンがエクステンシブライティングを促す可能性を探ることを目的とする。筆者は、ある読者が日本人英語学習者向けメールマガジンに英文日記代わりに送付した、1年分228回の英語の応答コメントを分析し、メールマガジン講読がコメントのトピック選択に与える影響、言葉づかいのパターンの有無、1年間でのライティングの変化について検証する。結論では教育方法論的見地からの論を展開する。

This paper will examine the potential of an email magazine to encourage extensive writing. *Jaremaga* < http://catchawave.jp/jm/> is an email magazine designed for Japanese learners of English, and although it was intended for extensive reading, one of the readers began to use it for extensive writing. The paper seeks to discover 1) how reading an email magazine affected the topic choice of this particular writer, 2) if there were any clear patterns in her responses, and 3) whether there was any evidence of change in her language over a one-year period. Pedagogical implications will be discussed in the conclusion.

Jarrell, D. (2014). Responses to an email magazine: How do writers grow? In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 275-279). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

The Need for Extensive Reading

Reading and writing are often seen as more difficult and less interesting than listening and speaking among English learners in Japan. The stereotype of the Japanese student who does well on written tests but cannot speak English is changing. This is no doubt due to the shift in the goals of English education in Japan over the past 25 years. With an increased focus on communication skills and a decrease in the size of English vocabulary taught in junior high and high schools (Tahira, 2012), students have better listening skills but poorer reading skills. At the writer's university, for example, the vast majority of incoming English students score higher on the listening section than on the reading section of TOEIC.

Another reason for the change is the mobile phone. It has become the main source of reading and the preferred medium of writing for many students. There are numerous studies that point to the importance of reading for developing vocabulary and critical thinking, but many students would rather have a conversation. How can we get them to enjoy the experience of reading? One solution comes from the extensive reading approach which recommends that foreign language learners read materials within their comfort zone. They read materials that can be understood without using a dictionary (5% or less unknown vocabulary) (Hu & Nation, 2000), they read what they like, they read a lot, and they read regularly (Bamford & Day, 2004).

The Email Magazine

Jaremaga was begun as a way to push extensive reading materials at English learners. There are reports from as early as 2001 indicating almost 100% mobile phone ownership among university students (Thornton & Houser, 2002), so an email magazine was seen as having great potential to get them to read. Posts are sent out 5 days a week, from Monday to Friday, at approximately 7:30 a.m., and the length is limited to 100 words to make it easy to receive and view the posts on mobile screens. Another advantage of short passages is that they can be read in just a few minutes, requiring only a small investment of time for the readers.

In order to satisfy the interests of a varied readership which includes junior high and high school students, their English teachers, university students, middle-aged workers, homemakers, and retirees, the magazine posts deal with a variety of topics: animals, reading, current events, history, education, family, food, foreign countries and culture, health, travel, intercultural differences, Japanese culture, language, movies and TV, music and dance, sports, quizzes and jokes, odd news, technology, the environment and science, and weather.

The stories are kept at the reading level of first-year Japanese high school students, and the grammar is kept simple (Jarrell, 2011). There are times when, due to the nature of the topic, unknown vocabulary cannot be avoided, but in these cases, the more difficult vocabulary items are glossed in Romanized Japanese.

One Reader's Extensive Writing

The email magazine was not originally intended as a source of inspiration for writers, but readers started to send in comments and their own stories. To encourage these reader-writers, Friday has been designated as the Readers' Corner since the beginning of 2011. Appropriate stories are chosen and edited for length and mistakes before being sent out.

In September 2011, one reader, who for the sake of convenience will be referred to as Yoshiko in this paper, started to send messages on a regular basis in September 2011. The quotes have been reproduced exactly as received, without correcting grammar or capitalization, with the exception of several language chunks that have been italicized for emphasis.

At the beginning of 2012, she sent the following message:

> Jan. 5, Yoshiko
>
> I want to decide my resolutions as follows: I have two resolutions. One is to write a reply to your jaremaga mail as much as I can instead of writing a diary. I enjoy your jaremaga mail because the contents are full and interesting. Another is to read as many books as I can.

During the course of 2012, a total of 260 Jaremaga posts were sent out, and Yoshiko sent in 228 messages. In response to a questionnaire sent to all the reader-writers, she identified herself as a doctor over the age of 60. While she may not be typical of the average English learner in Japan, her writings may provide clues as to how email magazines can be used to encourage learners to write more.

Topics

An analysis of Yoshiko's output shows that approximately 80% of her messages (184 out of 228) were directly connected to the topic of that day's post. Most of the remaining 20% (44 messages) are typical of diary entry topics. They deal with personal feelings and events such as Valentine's Day, discuss what she is reading, and talk about meeting a friend, traveling, buying an iPhone, and writing New Year's cards. On the other hand, Yoshiko is aware that she is writing to an American (the writer of Jaremaga) and takes the opportunity to explain certain aspects of Japanese culture.

> <u>Mar. 17, Yoshiko</u>
>
> Today is the start of "Higan" or "Ohigan." It continues 1 week, from 17th May to 23rd Mar. It is the particular period like "Obon" in summer. Many Japanese people pray for ancestors. I will visit the ancestors' grave tomorrow. By the way, in Japan, there are two Higan. One is in March and another is in September.

Yoshiko doesn't always keep to the same topic in one message. There are 25 instances of "by the way" being used to change topic within a message.

> <u>Aug. 9, Jaremaga</u>
>
> I saw two new convenience stores being built yesterday. I asked myself why there were so many in Japan. Then, I thought back to the time when I first came to Japan. At that time, there were many small stores in my wife's neighborhood. There was a small grocery store, a small fish store, and a very small shoe store. I wonder if people like convenience stores because they are small. I certainly like the convenience of shopping in my neighborhood.
>
> <u>Aug 9, Yoshiko</u>
>
> Many people like to shop in a convenience store like Lauson, etc. And they like to shop in large stores, not small stores. Because, people can buy many kinds of things in a large store. Surely this is very convenient. But many small stores went bankrupt. I think this tendency applies to other countries. *By the way*, London Olympic is coming soon to the last. I hope Nadeshiko Japan will get the gold medal.

Patterns

Yoshiko frequently asks questions. She seeks confirmation with questions such as "Is that true?" (Feb. 1) or asks for additional explanations, for example, "What is a president's day? Is that like a Emperor's birthday in Japan?" (Mar. 7). Her questioning style can be seen in the following quote, which also has an example of "surely," one of her most common discourse markers, appearing in 22 of her messages. She uses it to show her emphatic agreement with an idea in the original post.

> <u>Feb. 8, Jaremaga</u>
>
> Now you can get a special app for your smart phone to help you at restaurants in foreign countries. When you don't speak the language of the country, ordering food at a restaurant can be difficult. This app will "read" the menu using the camera on the phone. Then it will translate the menu into your language. That's so easy! Now I understand why they are called smart phones. Even so, I think I prefer to ask the waiter about the menu.
>
> <u>Feb. 8, Yoshiko</u>
>
> *What name is the special app.*? *Which cellphone has the app.* I have an iPAD, but I don't have an iPhone. After I bought a docomo's smart phone, I found out iPhone had much more convenient app. than other smart phone. I plans to change my smart phone to new iPhone when Apple will sell iPhone5, maybe this summer. *Surely*, smart phone is smarter than other phone.

While "surely" may seem stilted, it demonstrates her ability to interact with the posts.

Her anaphoric references abound with words such as "that" as in "*That* might be reasonable for Melbourne's people" (Apr. 3) referring to the early closing of stores in Australia. Another example is found in the example below, "like *that*." She also uses "similar" as in "Sometimes, I do *similar* things as you did, too" (Aug. 8) referring to how the author went swimming and broke his mobile phone.

> <u>Feb. 10, Jaremaga Readers' Corner</u>

> One reader wrote: I work at a night school in Gifu Prefecture. Some students are from Japan, of course, but many are from Brazil and other countries. Siri has become popular among the international students. Siri is the name of the iPhone 4 search engine. The students can talk to her in English (it has a woman's voice). When they ask her, "How about dinner with me later?" she replies, "I'm sorry but that's not my business."
>
> Feb. 10, Yoshiko
>
> When iPHONE4 was put on sale, there were several news about Siri *like that* in You Tube. Anyway, Siri is clever. It is funny. :-)

She indicates her surprise at new information on 15 separate occasions with the phrase "I didn't know" as can be seen in the following example.

> Jun. 27, Yoshiko
>
> *I didn't know* New York city is very hot now. The city opens some fire hydrants in hot days? What a risky state it is !! By the way, I like ice cream, too though I can't imagine there aren't enough ice cream to eat.

Yoshiko's messages demonstrate clear patterns of interaction with the e-mail posts.

Changes

Trying to discover evidence of change in her writing has proved very difficult. There was no observable change in the length of her messages over the year. Her average is 40 words per message (compared to 80-100 for each Jaremaga post). While her longest messages came at the end of the year (151 words on December 24 when she talks about 2 different topics and 106 words on November 5 describing her trip to Tokyo in which she lists the places she had been), many of her later messages are as short as two sentences. The average word count for January messages was 40, the count for February also 40, and for November it was 39. December's average of 48 words is skewed because of one unusually long 151-word message mentioned above.

The concordancing program AntConc (Anthony, 2011) provided the ratio of word types to word tokens, thought to be an indication of lexical density. Of the 9,180 word tokens in Yoshiko's messages, AntConc identified 1,930 word types, over 20% of the total words. The Jaremaga posts, by comparison, had 22,663 tokens and 3,330 types, a percentage of just under 15%. This indicates that her texts were at least as lexically dense as the Jaremaga posts themselves.

Pedagogical Implications

Yoshiko made the decision to respond to an email magazine rather than write a diary. Without an example of Yoshiko's previous diary entries, it is difficult to make any claims about changes in her writing. However, it is useful to make comparisons with student diaries to get an idea of the power of this kind of writing task.

Anyone who has assigned diaries as homework knows that the results can be tediously repetitive. This is the nature of a free writing assignment because, as one teacher has pointed out, students do not know what to write about (Deaux, 1993). Without any guidance, many students endup describing their daily routines ad nauseam. Free writing that goes unchecked by the teacher may even encourage students to repeat their English mistakes. While there is no doubt that, with guidance and teacher response, diaries can become very useful pedagogical tools (Pickett, 1993), email magazine responses seem to push the writer to use new vocabulary. It is clear from Yoshiko's data that she uses a wide range of vocabulary, and her topics are as varied as those of the email magazine.

Conclusion

This paper has examined the responses of one writer to an email magazine and showed that this kind of task can encourage a wide range of writing on different topics. Because the task involves responding, it also requires the writer to use appropriate interactional strategies. Yoshiko has stated in a questionnaire that thanks to the email magazine, she writes more frequently. She enjoys getting news from around the world and reading the stories by other readers. She feels that the email magazine helps her to write, but she says that she still worries about how to express herself. But doesn't every writer?

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Student Feedback on the Value of Impromptu Speeches

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This paper showcases three years of collected student feedback regarding how certain speech activities were received by multiple classes of students at various levels of English at Yokohama City University. In detail the paper will share the results of student surveys which show the student's feedback and perceptions of impromptu speech work. The value of classroom impromptu speeches will be explored as well as the importance of this 'perceived value" by the students. Questions for future inquiry based on these results are also detailed in this paper.

本研究は、授業内で行ったスピーキング活動を学生達がどのように受けとめているかを3年間に渡って調査したものである。調査は横浜市立大学の習熟度の異なる複数英語クラスの学生を対象とし、書面によるアンケートにより行われた。詳細では、即興によるスピーチ活動に対する学生のからのフィードバックと認識について掘り下げる。そして、授業内で行う即興スピーチ活動の価値と学生自身による価値認識の重要性の両方について考察する。本研究の結果に基づいて、今後の研究課題についても本論分で考察する。

The information and analysis in this paper was born from teacher research taken place for the purpose of improving coursework and student experiences in the classroom. The methodology I employed was intended to capture what the students found effective about the course, as well as whether or not they had enjoyed it. I used the collected feedback to improve the course on a semester to semester basis, to determine what activities were genuinely helpful to the students and to identify which activities students had found particularly engaging.

Over the course of this data collection, I discovered a pattern in the responses that brought forth some questions. Firstly, how important is it that students enjoy an activity? Secondly, how well do students gauge the effectiveness or usefulness of an activity? Furthermore, are student enjoyment and perception of usefulness/effectiveness necessarily related?

Nehls, P. N. (2014). Student feedback on the value of impromptu speeches. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 280-284). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

Method

Research Setting

The course in which I conducted this research was, "Advanced Practical English Two" (APE2), which is focused on academic speaking. The course included a variety of speaking activities such as speech, presentation, debate and discussion. Presentation and public speaking skills were a recurring theme upon which most of the activities were based. One of the official goals stated in the syllabus for the course was that students would acquire the public speaking skills required to be successful in university classes in the U.S. or Canada. One particular activity, impromptu speeches, is the specific focus of this paper.

Classes were limited to 15 students, and typical enrollment was 8 to 15 students. To qualify for the course, students had to have a score of at least 510 on the paper based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) or have passed the prerequisite "Advanced Practical English One" (APE1) course which is a four skills course. The APE1 course only accepts students with a score of 500 or more on the TOEFL. Students who had alternative test scores such as the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) Eiken or internet based TOEFL test were also accepted into the course(s) based on their score's relative equivalent to the paper based TOEFL score.

Although the prerequisites gave a general examination proficiency profile of the type of student that takes APE2, the actual student background of English study and experience of the students could have varied widely. As an example, this class had been attended by students with high test scores but limited speaking experience as well as native speakers of English who were looking to improve their public speaking skills.

The majority of the students were Japanese, although out of 151 students there were also four Chinese students, two Korean students, one Indian student and three Japanese citizens who had lived most of their lives overseas and were effectively native speakers of English.

Data collection

Data was collected from a total of 15 classes over seven semesters. On the final day of the course students were given a list and a short reminder/explanation about every activity completed in the class over the semester. Then, the students were asked two questions about each of the activities, using a simple 1 to 5 Likert scale for their response.

> How much did you enjoy this activity?
> How useful did you find this activity?

At the end of this list of activities, students were asked five additional questions:

> Which activity did you enjoy the most?
> Which activity did you enjoy the least?
> Which activity did you find the most useful?
> Which activity did you find the least useful?
> Which activity did you find to be the most difficult?

For the class I used these opinions to review the course and help plan for the next semester. For example, in the first few semesters of the course I used a "neutral mask" exercise in which students wore a white mask with no expression in order to work on posture and make students more conscious of their body language. This activity was almost universally disliked as well as consistently rated "least useful" by the students. I subsequently cut this activity in order to pursue a more successful activity in its stead.

Results

Data collected

One interesting pattern emerged from this data collection. The answers given in the Likert scale survey found that student opinions tended to show that most tasks in the class were considered "useful" and most activities received either ratings of "enjoyable" or neutral. However, one of the activities in class, impromptu speeches, was consistently rated highest on the Likert scale as a useful task and was often cited as "most useful". At the same time, this activity was rated by the majority of students as "difficult" and not particularly enjoyable. So in the midst of tasks that were generally seen as both useful and at least somewhat enjoyable, we have one task that stands out as being considered by students as more useful, but less enjoyable. One of my colleagues suggested that the students were thinking of impromptu speeches as being alike to "eating ones vegetables", i.e. you know it is good for you, even though you would rather not.

Impromptu speeches were carried out twice per semester. The setup was simple: students are seated in a circle and the order of the students giving the speech is chosen at random. Each student will be given two turns (speeches) during a single class. They are allowed one (1) pass of a topic, meaning they may refuse a topic they do not wish to speak about. However, if they have used their pass on their first impromptu speech, they must accept the second topic they receive. When it is a particular student's turn to speak, they choose a number between 1 and 36. This will assign them their topic. During the first day of impromptu speeches the topics concern very broad world issues such as capital punishment. The second session uses more Japan-specific topics, such as the use of nuclear energy after the Fukushima incident. Once the students have their topic, they are given 30 seconds to think about it, and then they must speak for two minutes. I have always made sure to emphasize that the purpose is to see whether or not they can speak on an issue for two minutes and that perfect grammar or perfectly formed opinions are not necessary. I tell the students that it isn't necessary to even give an opinion, although they may if they wish, but that summarizing the issue, or comparing different opinions is also acceptable. I ask them to imagine they are with a group of English speakers and someone turns to them and asks, "So Yuya, what do you think about _X_?

Here are the results of the student surveys about impromptu speeches. One hundred and fifty one surveys from 15 classes were collected over a three and a half year period (7 semesters).

"Usefulness"

90% of students (136/151) found impromptu speeches to be "very useful." Only 4.6% (7/151) found impromptu speeches to be "not useful," while 8 students (5.2%) appeared to find the activity neither useful nor not useful.

68% of the students (103/151) stated that the impromptu speech activity was "most useful". Common answers for other "most useful" activities were "final presentation," "self-evaulation," as well as "in class speeches."

"Enjoyment"

49.6% of students (75/151) rated impromptu speeches as a either a 1 or a 2 (not enjoyable) on the Likert scale. 15% rated the activity as "enjoyable" (23/151) while the rest rated the activity as neither enjoyable or un-enjoyable.

Table 1
Usefulness

Very Useful	Not Useful	Neither
136 (90%)	7 (4.6%)	8 (5.2%)

Table 2
Enjoyable

Enjoyable	Not Enjoyable	Neither
23 (15%)	75 (49.6%)	53 (35%)

"Difficulty"

66% of students (99/151) rated impromptu speeches as the "Most Difficult" activity of their APE2 class.

Discussion

Analysis

To analyze what may be happening here, I began looking for research that analyzed student perceptions of classroom tasks and what those perceptions might mean for motivation and learning.

I first looked at how this data may be linked to some theories of motivation. Until recently motivation was primarily identified as two different categories, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation (Dev, 1997; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Researchers who used these classifications generally agreed that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation may work simultaneously, with evidence supporting intrinsic motivation as markedly assisting the learning process with successful learning leading to increased self-efficacy (Caulfield, 2010). Bandura (1997) defines *self-efficacy* as believing in one's ability to initiate actions to achieve a desired outcome and "*is task specific versus being a general measure*" (emphasis mine). This suggests that my students possess a level of self-efficacy in order to undertake the impromptu speech task where the "desired outcome" is to speak on a topic for two minutes.

With the *expectancy theory* of motivation, if students value an outcome they will assess the difficulty of an activity and if they determine that the outcome is achievable, they will then put forth the necessary effort to achieve the task (Caulfield, 2007; Vroom, 1964). Furthermore, if students understand that poor performance at the task is related to lack of skill (or experience) then they are more likely to engage in the task (Brewster & Fager, 2000). From this data, we see that students value impromptu speech activities and although they rate it as difficult, they apparently see the outcome as achievable. There has yet to be a single instance of a student failing to make any effort whatsoever in an impromptu speech.

If we combine the ideas of *self-efficacy* and *expectancy theory*, we can then achieve a model that appears applicable to the students in this study. The process happens as such; the students see the value of impromptu speeches, they recognize their own lack of ability, yet they believe that through trying they can successfully perform an impromptu speech. Therefore we have a reasonable explanation as to why the students believe the activity is useful.

However, when we apply the more recent model of motivation, the idea of an *ideal L2 self* (Dornyei, 2011) it appears that we have an even more likely synthesis of the ideas above and therefore a better explanation for the perceived usefulness of impromptu speeches by the students. The "ideal self" is an individual's image of the person they would like to become when speaking an L2, and this becomes a powerful motivator because of the "desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves" (Dornyei, 2011, p. 86). So students can easily identify the gap between what they are capable of with impromptu speeches and their ideal L2 ability needed in order to speak on a topic with little or no preparation. This *ideal L2 self* motivates them and helps create their perception of impromptu speech activity value.

One question remains. Can the impromptu speech activity really be "useful" when it is not actually enjoyable for the students? In other words, is it possible to explain why students find impromptu speeches useful but *not* enjoyable? In Caulfield's 2010 study, he found something very similar in his data to the responses in my own data, namely, that student value and effort were highly predictive of student engagement in the task, particularly adhering to the student's idea of value. However, in Caulfield's study he found that students also performed more favorably in assignments that they identified as enjoying the most. The most frequently cited reason for disliking assignments was that the assignment could have been valuable, but was very difficult and therefore the actual value was "ambiguous." This does not align with the students in my course who found the impromptu speeches to be quite difficult or often "most difficult", yet who still held strongly to believing in the usefulness of the task. What may be at work here however is that despite the difficulty, the students found the impromptu speeches very applicable to their growth as English speakers and to potential future situations where they might be "put on the spot" so to speak. The second most cited reason for disliking an activity in Caulfield's study was the perceived inapplicability of the assignment to the student's lives. This was not the case for my students, who have confirmed that they could imagine situations where impromptu speaking skills are applicable to their lives. Finally, Caulfield concludes that if the assignment was both perceived as valuable *and* challenging, it was engaging for the students. This conclusion seems to concur with my own students' perceptions of impromptu speeches. Caulfield states that it is important for teachers to explain the value of their assignments so that students can better relate the task to their lives in order to feel a stronger motivation to perform. I could not agree with this assertion more.

Future research questions

The data analysis raises some interesting questions that I will seek to address as this research moves forward into the next stage. First of all, how do the students define "usefulness"? One might assume this question is self-explanatory, but it is a point that should be investigated for the sake of accurate analysis. Also, what considerations are students making when they consider an activity to be "enjoyable?" For example, the possibility exists that students might enjoy the impromptu speeches if they were done in a different format, or with different topics. The lack of enjoyment may not actually be due to the difficulty, but rather some other factor. Without collecting some student definitions of usefulness and enjoyment, this is difficult to answer adequately.

Another consideration for the research is to attempt a replication in Japan of Caulfield's 2010 study because that research took place in the United States.

By replicating the study in Japan, it would be possible to see if the environment of a Japanese university or Japanese cultural norms would affect results.

Conclusion

From the data and the literature reviewed, my conclusion is that impromptu speeches are clearly considered valuable by students, despite their also being perceived as a difficult task. Furthermore, this perceived value maintains the activity as a strong motivator for students whether or not they enjoy the impromptu speech activities. Impromptu speeches will therefore remain a core component of my APE2 academic speaking course, and I also highly recommend this activity to anyone teaching a similar course.

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Teacher's Manuals: The Bridge Between Teachers and Authors

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Teachers sometimes spend lots of time figuring out how to use their textbooks before they use them in class. Teacher's manuals may be able to help teachers understand textbooks better. Using textbooks effectively is essential. However, misunderstandings about the intended use of the textbooks are something that both teachers and authors want to avoid. This workshop looked at how teacher's manuals can act as a bridge between the teachers that use the textbook and the authors that write them. We discussed the perspective from three different perspectives: those of the teacher, the author and the publisher.

テキストを使う時、教師はまずテキストを理解するために、多くの時間を割きます。そして、自分のやりやすいように、またクラスのレベルに合うように、テキストの問題の順番を変えたり、練習問題に手を加えたり、あるいは他の教材を追加することもあるでしょう。テキストを使うことは、実際多くの時間を必要とします。そのときに役立つのが教授用書のはずです。テキストの解答だけではなく、たくさんの情報やアイデア、そして著者の思いが詰まっています。教授用書がどのように役に立つのか、このワークショップでは教師、著者、出版社の3つの立場から考えます。

Teacher's manuals are the bridge between teachers and textbooks. One of the main purposes of a teacher's manual is to provide answer keys, but they often contain a lot of other information as well. For example, they usually include information about the aims of the textbook, its structure, audio scripts, and advice on how to teach the various sections. Sometimes, they also include additional exercises, for example, on how to develop each activity more fully, extra homework ideas, unit tests, term exams, and even information about online resources.

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Teacher's manuals are also the bridge between their authors and the teachers who use them. Information about the background of the author and the foreword help teachers understand what the author had in mind when making the text, and why the author made the text in the first place. Reading about the author's ideas and research results and how this information influenced the text can be useful and even inspirational for teachers. Understanding an author's teaching philosophy and educational goals can help teachers make using a textbook more enjoyable, and in the best cases a good teacher's manual can really support the teachers that use them.

At the same time, I sometimes wonder to what extent teachers really use these manuals. What exactly should a teacher's manual contain? Do teachers benefit from having a teacher's manual? Do authors think carefully enough about the design and content of their teacher's manuals? I've been involved in the textbook publishing industry for more than ten years, and these are the questions I have been asking myself for some time now.

There are at least two reasons for why I started thinking about teacher's manuals. The first reason is that I often received questions about teaching manuals from teachers when I worked as a representative of an English textbook publisher. Teachers often contacted us to ask questions about the textbooks that they were using, or to request extra material. Sometimes they asked questions even though the answers to those questions were contained in the teacher's manual. For example, I often spoke to teachers that did not realize that the teacher's manual had the answer keys until the semester was almost over! The second reason is that I have also worked as a textbook designer, which means that I have experience working with textbook authors. These authors often have very specific ideas about what should be contained in the manual, and it is sometimes difficult for publishers to include all of this material. Knowing both the needs of the teachers as well as author's ideas and opinions, I have learned that it is not as easy as you might think to decide what the format should be and what information should be included.

The workshop

The purpose of the workshop described in this paper was to discuss how teacher's manuals could be improved. I believe that when teachers, authors, and publishers all agree about what a teacher's manual should be, teachers will be able to use them more effectively. In addition, authors will have a better idea of what sort of information will be the most useful for the teachers. Publishers also will be able to create better guidelines for authors in order to make textbooks easier for teachers to understand and use.

Seven current English teachers participated in this workshop. Five out of seven have experience in writing and publishing their own textbooks.

Given the three perspectives associated with making teacher's manuals, this workshop was divided into three sections each representing one of the perspectives: teachers, publishers, and authors. The use and the purpose of the teacher's manual were discussed from each point of view, and these discussions are summarized below. At the end, ideas generated in each section were summarized with the help of the participants. The total duration of the workshop was sixty minutes.

Teacher's perspective

The first question we discussed was how teachers usually go about selecting textbooks for their classes, and the main factors they consider when choosing a textbook. Some of the participants look at publishers' catalogs and ask for inspection copies or go to publishers' booths at conferences to get information, while others ask their colleagues for recommendations. All of the participants mentioned that the both the target level and the type of content are important factors, and each participant believed that that the level of textbook should match the level of students Finally, everyone felt that the content should be appropriate for the class. The participants also said that they usually thought carefully about whether the textbook would help their students achieve the goals of the class.

The next question we discussed was whether the participants use extra material such as the teacher's manual, answer keys, extra activities, and attached online resources. Most of the participants said that usually, they only use answer keys and read the introductions of how the textbooks are organized and structured. One participant said that if teachers can understand the textbook just by reading the introduction, then it is a good textbook. Other participants felt that the additional information in the teacher's manuals is sometimes helpful, but they do not use it very much. The conclusion of the group was that extra information like this is not a total waste because teachers may use some of it; however, many of the participants said that they found a lot of information overwhelming. In particular, one or two participants said that large teacher's manuals are too heavy to carry around, and that they felt that many teachers wouldn't use them for this reason. These participants said that they preferred to have small guides that only contained the answer keys. When asked about other materials, they said that they usually add their own material from outside the text anyway, so they do not need supplementary materials in the manual itself. Another point that was raised was that many of the participants do not use the entire textbook; instead, they only take certain sections from it. Finally, some of the participants mentioned that sometimes the teacher's manuals contain a lot of materials in Japanese. If this material is not translated into English, then it is difficult for teachers that cannot read Japanese to use this material.

Author's perspective

The first question for this part of the discussion was where authors get their ideas for writing textbooks. The participants who had published their own textbooks said their ideas came from their own experiences teaching in the classroom. Some of their activities had been inspired from the textbook as they use it in class. They often tried out part of the textbook by themselves, or they asked other teachers to try it. If the reaction from the students and any other teachers that used this material was positive, this encouraged the teachers to organize these materials into a book that could be published.

When asked about supplementary materials, the participants with publishing experience said that when they wrote textbooks, they thought of making answer keys, but not the other information and activities. For them, the focus was on making the textbook itself. Two of the participants that had experience publishing a textbook said that prior to publishing their textbooks, they gave a rough draft of their materials to other teachers to try. Even though they believed that they had enough instructions for how to use the material, these teachers asked them many questions, and this lead to improvements in both the material and the instructions. Some of the participants said that they sometimes could not understand how to use some of the activities they found in the textbooks, and in those cases they would look at the teacher's manual for information. One participant said that whenever he had a chance, he would try to meet the author of textbooks that he particularly liked. He did this to try to get more information about how to use the textbook more effectively. The section concluded with a short discussion about how even though authors think their instructions on how to use textbooks are clear and easy to follow, the reality is that teachers still have trouble understanding what the intentions of the author were.

Publisher's perspective

In the final section, we looked at the publisher's perspective. Without any hesitation, participants believed that the primary reason why publishers publish textbooks is for money. This raised the question of whether the publishers are really trying to be a bridge between the authors and teachers. The consensus from the participants was that publishers are not thinking of teacher's benefits, but their own. The example they used to support this was their product catalog. Product catalogs usually only contain pictures of the textbooks cover and short descriptions; as a result they do not contain enough information for teachers to understand the purpose of the textbook or the content. Consequently, teachers have to contact the publisher in order to get more information or receive an inspection copy and this was viewed as being somewhat devious. Many of the participants believe that this suggests that the publishers are not very committed to helping teachers understand what the authors are trying to do in the textbook.

On the other hand, one or two of the participants argued that in fact publishers are trying to create better textbooks and better teacher's manuals. In addition, some publishers are working hard to develop new technology to support their textbooks. For example, many teachers are using computers and tablet computers in the classroom, and some publishers are making their content available on these platforms. One example that was viewed favorably by the participants was having the teacher's manual in PDF, or as an online guide. Another was having audio tracks as downloadable MP3 files; this was viewed as being convenient both for teachers and for students. Other examples included are extra videos, collaborative online platforms such as Blackboard or ItsLearning, or even just using email. All of the participants were positive about these advances. However, it was clear in the minds of at least some of the participants that publishers are not always looked on in a very favorable light by either authors or teachers. This may be because publishers are less focused on being a bridge between authors and teachers, and more focused on selling textbooks.

Conclusion

For most teachers, teacher's manuals that are large in contents and comprehensive are helpful. The belief was that they should contain as much information as possible just in case such material is needed. On the other hand, some teachers prefer teacher's manuals to be as simple as possible so that they can spend a minimum amount of time to understand the textbooks and use parts where they want in order to combine with other materials they have.

From the author's point of view, the teacher's manual is a representation of authors' ideas about how to use the material. However, it seems that the intentions of the author are not always immediately clear to other teachers. One thing that can make the connection between the authors and the teachers stronger is for the author to provide the material to other teachers before publishing the textbook. Having other teachers use the textbook and give the author feedback helps the author to prepare a better teacher's manual that is more appropriate and easier to use.

Finally, the general consensus was that most publishers are out to make as much money as possible and that this sometimes overrides the needs of both the authors and the teachers. As a result, it sometimes appeared to the participants that financial considerations were determining what kind of information ends up in the teachers' manuals.

What the participants agreed on though was that putting teacher's manuals online could help to resolve some of these problems. Teachers can then only look at the information that they need when they need it, and material could be updated much more quickly. More importantly, for those teachers bringing laptop computers or tablets to their classes, this would eliminate the need to carry around heavy texts.

It was clear from this workshop that there was a gap between the needs of the teachers, authors and publishers of textbooks. Teacher's manuals can sometimes help to bridge these gaps, but there are definitely issues with how teacher's manuals are created today. However, it also seemed clear that there is a definite potential for new technologies to resolve some of these issues.

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Teaching Speaking: Content and Methodology

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Findings from the study of corpora (E.g. O'Keefe, McCarthy, Carter, 2007) and from the field of Conversation Analysis (e.g. Schegloff, 2007) have shown that spoken language differs markedly from written language in lexis and grammar and functions on a level of interactive, emergent meaning. This paper will highlight some of these key features of spoken language and briefly describe classroom implementation. The paper will conclude by suggesting that a small number of items are central to all spoken interaction and should be thoroughly taught to learners.

コーパス(O' Keefe, McCarthy, Carter, 2007)と言語分析(Schegloff, 2007)の研究結果によると、会話言語と文書言語では相互の語彙や文法の機能の果たし方は全く異なる。本文は会話学習方法での、いくつかの重要な特徴を簡潔に説明している。学習者に難解であるこれらのアイテムを使用した、会話のやりとりを提案し本文を締めくくる。

Usually, we ask if a person can *speak* a language as speaking seems to lie at the heart of what we consider language ability to be. Consequently, in learning a foreign language, speaking is, or should be, the central skill.

Speaking is a broad term that covers multiple different activities. Giving lectures or presentations is certainly speaking, but equally certainly, does not figure prominently in most people's daily language use. Likewise, the kinds of activities that are associated with notional-functional syllabi, such as ordering in a restaurant, and so on, account for a very small proportion of daily speaking. The speaking that does occupy most of our language use is that of conversation, face-to-face interaction in real time. Wong and Waring (2010, p. 1) state; "The importance of conversation as the foundation of all language learning cannot be overstated." So, in saying that speaking is the primary language skill, I mean interaction. Schegloff (2007) states that in order to avoid the connotations of triviality associated with the term conversation, the preferred term is "talk-in-interaction."

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Not only is interaction central to the external, social world, it is also characteristic of "language in the head" Langacker (2008) states; "In no small measure, our verbal thought takes the form of an imagined dialogue, if only with ourselves."(p.459).

If the centrality of spoken language is granted, and it is further granted that this mostly takes the form of dialogic interaction, then it follows that for language teachers, a central aim of our teaching should be to enable learners to engage in interaction in the target language.

Speaking in the Here and Now

Even the briefest overview of language will confirm that written language is not spoken language transferred to the page, nor is spoken language simply written language read out loud. Such is the nature of talk-in-interaction that it was not practically possible to investigate its contours and tease out its empirical strands before the advent of two key technologies. The first was the availability of reliable recording equipment, such as digital video cameras. The second was the development of computing power that enabled researchers to analyze large amounts of data in corpora.

Since the development of these technologies it has become clear that far from being too disordered and chaotic to yield any useful insights into language, daily talk-in -interaction has delicate structures which exist on a largely subconscious level. These structures allow participants to co-create meaning and social identity, and thus achieve at one and the same time the creation of mutually intelligible propositions about the world and also carry out the far more important task of phatic interaction. In Conversational Analysis (CA) terms participants talk a world into being in the here-and-now and then position themselves within it.

Teaching Speaking

Previous generations, lacking the technologies mentioned above, can be forgiven for relying on intuition, concocted examples and recourse to written texts as a basis for second language (L2) teaching. Happily, we are on firmer ground now when we make assertions about how speakers actually speak a given language. Although there is a wide and varied literature on what constitutes spoken language, and many findings are somewhat fractal-edged, the following sections will outline some key points.

Marking

Marking is central to spoken language. Use of common markers (sometimes called smallwords) is a key indicator of fluency (Hasselgreen, 2004). The frequency of common markers such as "Well", "You know", and "I mean" is extremely high. McCarthy (2010) citing corpus evidence, places these words in the top 15 in spoken English use. Although Hasselgreen's definition of small words states they do not contribute to the meaning, it is clear that they often perform vital roles in talk-in-interaction. For example, Schegloff and Lerner (2009) detail the role of "well" in its position as an opener in response to a "Wh" question, and in this place it signals non-straightforwardness in answering. These markers are often uttered more quickly and more quietly than the surrounding discourse.

The role of markers in speaking can be likened to punctuation in writing. A teacher would immediately give a failing grade to any piece of student writing that was devoid of punctuation, no matter how skillful the grammar and lexis use was. Speaking without marking should be seen as equally deviant.

Backchanneling

Listeners do not remain silent while the other takes a turn. Rather, they make brief utterances at certain places to signal a variety of important interactional meanings; understanding, agreement, surprise, continued acceptance of other's speakership and so on. This kind of language is commonly termed "backchannel" (Yngve, 1970). For Japanese students of English there are two separate issues when it comes to this aspect of language. The first is the use of silence as an interactional resource, and the second is the unconscious reversion to Japanese style backchannel, termed *Aizuchi* in Japanese (Locastro, 1987) during English-speaking interactions. Perhaps because Japanese *Aizuchi* are often non-lexical in nature, (Ehh, Uhnn, etc) whereas English backchannels (or receipt tokens as they are sometimes called) are often lexical (I see, yeah, right, really) it may be hard for Japanese to break away from the unconscious uttering of *Aizuchi* during English speaking. Nonetheless, students must be oriented towards using the English versions and avoiding the Japanese versions, otherwise, although one party may be speaking English, the other party can be said to be listening in Japanese.

Vague Language

Channel (1994) makes the point that non native speakers of English can often sound pedantic or over literal in their language. This is because of a tendency of native speakers to be purposefully vague. Numbers, amounts, times, prices and so on are often not given in precise terms. Two or three people go out for a few drinks, plans are made to meet at six-ish, they will spend twenty or thirty dollars on dinner, and probably be back at twelve, twelve thirty. These kinds of language use are typical and teachable. Channel (1994) investigates some of the internal structuring of these vague expressions. For example one can say "twenty or thirty dollars" but not usually "thirty or twenty dollars." Nor can one go beyond particular scales of amount vagueness. It is not usual to say "ten or thirty people came to the party."

Related to the use of vagueness in amounts there is also a wide variety of expressions which are termed "vague category markers," such as "something like that," "and stuff," and "or anything." These kinds of items serve a variety of functions. McCarthy (2010) states that they have a "marked tendency to trigger speaker change" and also fill a larger social function in that they "invite the listener to fill in absent members of categories from shared knowledge" (2010, p8), creating a convergent epistemic world within which the interactants can position themselves.

Assessments and Upgrades.

The theme of convergence is also a feature of the ways in which interactants give assessments and react to assessments. Pomerantz (1984) discusses the preferred status of agreements to disagreements in giving assessments. One manner in which agreements are done in conversation is by upgrade of the original assessment using limit adjectives. "Cold" can be upgraded to "freezing," "dirty" to "filthy" and so on. Pomerantz states that "upgraded agreements often occur as parts of clusters of agreements" (1984, p, 66).

In Japanese spoken interaction, agreement is often done with repetition. Assessment that today is *samui* (cold) will be agreed with by repetition, possibly with a tag (*Samui desu ne?* 'Yes, it's cold, isn't it?'). In tests carried out by the author, students' knowledge of limit adjectives is often limited. This constitutes a noticeable gap in learners' vocabulary and pragmatic awareness.

In addition to upgrade of assessment, another feature of spoken English is the use of hedging devices to make assessments, especially negative or potentially face-threatening assessments, less blunt. Common hedges include "sort of," "a little bit," "kind of," and "a bit." Like discourse markers, these are pronounced as hearable chunks, often spoken slightly quicker and slightly quieter than the surrounding discourse. So rather than charting a middle course in which winter days are cold, they could be absolutely freezing, or just kind of cold. A test might be absolutely impossible or a bit hard, and so on. A world in which assessments are never upgraded or hedged leads to language which is described by McCarthy (1991, p53.) as "bland," "flat" and "jejune."

Reported Speech

The centrality of reported speech in daily conversation can hardly be overstated. Bakhtin writes that, "The transmission and assessment of the speech of others, the discourse of another, is one of the most widespread and fundamental topics of human speech" (1992, p.337).

The sentiment is echoed by McCarthy, "…it is hard to imagine a day of our lives when we do not at some point support our discourse with direct or indirect reference to someone else's words. It is equally hard to imagine, therefore, any second language pedagogy claiming real adequacy that did not take the matter of speech reporting very seriously and give it a place in the syllabus" (1998, p.150).

Reported speech is typically dealt with from the point of view of backshifting of tenses, but backshifting is not a central feature of reported speech and native speakers often do not backshift in their reports in all cases. However, one problem that does present itself to learners is the semantics and syntax of the reported speech verbs, "say," "speak," "talk,"and "tell." Dirven, Goossens, Putseys, and Vorlat (1982) devote 171 pages to descriptions of the syntax and semantics of these words. Clearly, this level of detail is not appropriate for most language learners, and in any case, is beyond

Table 1
Reported Speech Verbs

Say	Report information, listener optional.
Speak	Report topic, listener optional.
Talk	Report topic: listener optional.
Tell	Report topic or information, listener necessary.

the intuition of most native speakers. However, a basic schema of the four words can be presented as seen in Table 1.

This basic description of the verbs (and it is conceded that other important senses exist) serves to raise awareness that there is a deal of optionality in the verb choice, depending on whether the reporter wishes to report topic or information, to mention a listener or not. McCarthy (2008) also reports that the past continuous is a prominent tense in reporting episodes. Taken together, this can lead to naturalistic utterances such as "I was talking to my friends about work and I was telling them that I'm going to quit." Or alternately, "I was talking about quitting my job." Or, "I was saying to Jim that I'm going to quit my job." It is argued here that rather than nestling in the syllabus between passives and perfect tenses, reported speech, its grammar and syntax, should be a prominent and recurring feature in ongoing teaching of the spoken language.

These few items seem to be important for the teaching of spoken English for several reasons. Firstly, items such as marking and backchanneling are specific to the spoken form of the language. Even in language textbooks, these forms are often absent from the conversations that illustrate language usage. Hasselgreen (2010) comments that" ...dialogues in course books still tend to be cleansed of many of the very words and phrases that characterize living dialogue" (p.23). If a student's exposure to English comes mainly from textbook dialogues, then it will be no surprise that spoken markers do not feature in their language output. Secondly, marking and backchanneling seem to exist on a largely subconscious level of linguistic awareness. Or, if the awareness becomes conscious, it may carry negative assessments. Watts (1989) suggests that speakers may judge use of discourse markers negatively, but comments that, "Paradoxically, speakers seem entirely unaware of the fact that and the extent to which they themselves make use of discourse markers" (p. 203).

A further reason why the language referred to above is important, is that it operates on the interactive level. Language users do much more than make propositional statements about the objective world or conduct transactional business. The central use of spoken language is that of interaction, of constructing turns based on the prior speaker's turn, of creating and maintaining social bonds, avoiding conflict, saving face through politeness strategies and co-constructing a shared, social reality. The language referred to above is vital in contributing to this alignment. Regardless of the topic of conversation or any transactional business at hand, marking, backchanneling, assessments and approximation will likely figure in the unfolding discourse. The attainment of native-like proficiency in the target language is tacitly acknowledged by most students and their teachers as being an unrealistic goal. However, certain language goals are seen as being within reach. Cook (1989) comments that, "...if the difficulty with conversation classes is widespread, so too is the desire of students to converse successfully in the language they are learning" (p.116).

The above section described some findings from Corpus Linguistics and Conversation Analysis that are recurrent in all talk-in-interaction. There are many other important findings but lack of space precludes further description here. The business of how to teach students these kinds of items is addressed below.

Classroom Practice

Firstly, it must be stated clearly that while marking, backchanneling and so on can be the central topics of an entire lesson or series of lessons, they must also figure as a constant backdrop to *all* lessons, regardless of the main 'target'. To this end, the establishment of a template turn structure that includes markers serves as

Table 2
Example of a Basic Expanded Turn Pattern

Step one	An opening marker or group of markers; Well/ Actually
Step two	A statement
Step three	A marker: You know/ I mean
Step four	An expansion
Step five	A closing marker; You know/ You know what I mean/ Something like that

Table 3
Unrehearsed Conversation Showing Marking

01 02	A: Well, eh, what kind of car do you want to drive?
03	B: Well, actually I, I'd like to drive a small car
04	A: Yes
05 06	B: You know, like I mean, I can't maybe big, drive big car
07	A: Yeah
08 09	B: you know, like Alpha, Estima something like that you know?
10	A: Yes

a solid foundation for students to habituate themselves to using the markers unconsciously. The turn structure is outlined in Table 2.

Habituation to this kind of template can lead to student speaking which is much more naturalistic than is often the case. Consider the transcript of unrehearsed dialogue in Table 3 between two students who had been habituated to this utterance template.

Students must be given ample opportunity to engage in speaking in the class, and the teacher must make efforts to monitor speaking and provide real-time commentary on the ongoing discourse and interject when necessary to encourage use of the necessary language. At turn openings, closings or during pauses the teacher as an over hearer says (or whispers) the target word(s) to the student. Habituation leads to an intermediate phase where students engaging in speaking, with the teacher as over hearer, will self-correct and insert relevant markers or backchannel, usually accompanied by gaze shift to the teacher. Finally, insertion of markers and backchannels becomes habitual and automatic, but may still have elements of patchiness, especially when students think the teacher is elsewhere engaged. A similar process of repeated and persistent monitoring and correction will also lead to the automatic use of vague terms, hedged or upgraded assessments and backchannels.

Conclusion

One view of language teaching may define accuracy as the ability to manipulate lexis and morpho-syntatcical elements at the level of the sentence to produce language which would be acceptable as written language. This paper proposes a wider view of accuracy, namely, a view which enables learners to be accurate interlocutors by habituating them to use a relatively small number of spoken forms during talk-in-interaction. Or, to phrase it in spoken terms: "Well, you know, I was saying that it's kind of difficult to decide what to teach. I mean, I've taught students how to use the past tense, and stuff like that, but, you know, they still sound kind of strange when they speak. Anyways, I think that focusing on four or five key things and just keep doing them, really works, you know?"

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Testing People: A History of a Placement Test

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This paper considers how teacher and administrative perceptions of a university placement test evolved over time. The narrative follows five years of change for a placement instrument used to sort more than 3,000 students every year. Although a knowledge of testing has been important, it has been the building of a community in the test development process that has been key in the success of the current test. This paper explores how teachers collaborated to produce the test in its current form (based around Davidson & Lynch, 2002), and uses four episodes to examine how the test development community reached its current level of success.

本稿では、大学のクラス分けテストに対する、教師や大学管理の認識について考察する。毎年３，０００人以上の学生をレベル分けする為のテストが、5年の間に変化してきた様子を解説した。テスト・評価の知識が重要であったが、現在のテストの成功により重要であったのは、テスト開発プロセスにおける大学のコミュニティであった。教師陣がどのように協力し（Davidson　&Lynch、2002をベースにした）、4つのエピソードを元にテスト開発コミュニティが現在の状態に達するまでを探る。

Tests are made by people. These people have different perspectives, and desire different outcomes from those same tests. The relationship between the people in the testing process is therefore of paramount importance in developing a test. This is part of what is covered in *Testcraft*, the seminal work by Davidson and Lynch (2002). This article relates to the ongoing development of a placement instrument in a mid-level private university in Japan. The purpose of this article is to look at factors besides measurement of language abilities that shape the way this instrument was maintained and adopted.

This paper represents a history of five years for a placement instrument used to sort more than 3,000 students every year, and documents the process of change within that history. Although a knowledge of testing has been important, it has been the building of a community in the test development process that has been key in the success of the current test. After a brief introduction of the environment, I give a timeline of the instrument, and introduce the starting position for those involved in putting the instrument together. Next, I consider theoretical issues. Following this, I introduce some critical incidents in the test development process, and try to illustrate key learnings from these points. These incidents had great bearing on the perceptions of the instrument within the school. Finally, I discuss some of the ways the instrument combines with broader issues in the school.

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Environment

The testing instrument is mostly for non-English majors at a private Liberal Arts university in Kansai, with most learners being false beginners. Four out of five faculties give compulsory English classes over two years, with the fifth completing all credits in a single year. Most students will take two classes per semester, one taught by a Japanese English teacher, and another by a non-Japanese English teacher.

Although a curriculum exists, it is not a strict curriculum, and assessment is generally left up to individual teachers. The instrument in this article is therefore normative. Students are ranked by test score, and then divided into groups in order of score for a given slot in the timetable. There are no pre-conditions to acceptance on the program, nor any level-specific requirements in terms of a study program.

Most language programs are run through the Language Centre, an inter-faculty agency providing classes for members of the various faculties. The inter-faculty committee responsible for the Language Centre is generally made up of revolving members from the client faculties. Members generally serve two years. Similarly, members of the school administration change, although generally with less frequency. Committee members, including the Centre Director, are not required to have any TESOL-related knowledge or qualifications. The net result is that the management of the language programs has a short institutional memory, and decisions may have to be re-visited from time to time.

A Brief Timeline

The current placement instrument replaced a big "test", developed when the current Language Centre was set up, prior to the employment of the author. The original test had all the hallmarks of a high-stakes test. Mostly for reasons connected to the logistics of testing up to 2000 people more-or-less simultaneously, the decision was taken to make the test for incoming students a mail-home test for incoming first year students. Students progressing to their second year would take the test in class, or be assigned a time in which to take the test if they did not attend class. This was implemented for the 2008/9 academic year, and involved considerable test re-design. The new instrument passed through committee on the following grounds:

- The new instrument was easier to administer, and much easier to follow up on if students did not do it.
- Having students take the test in their own time fosters personal reliability and autonomy.

The new test was lightly analyzed and some items changed following the first delivery. The test was generally considered a success. Although the new testing instrument did not have a listening section, the test was felt to be giving sufficient information for the purpose of dividing people by general English ability.

Some Principles for the Test

The new instrument is considered a low stakes instrument. No one taking the test is going to lose a place if they perform poorly, nor will opportunities be denied. Indeed, one problem with the former test was participation, in that the last test under the old system had less than a 90% attendance rate. Those who did not attend were simply placed in mid- to low-level classes, regardless of their level. The main consequence of misplacement is therefore motivational. Being placed too high may make the classes too challenging, and too low may be too boring.

When talking about test development, some kind of template is often referred to in applying a particular theoretical approach to reliability and validity. For example, Bachman and Palmer (1996) refer to *blueprints*, and Davidson and Lynch (2002) refer to *specs* (and this term is the one used in our own process). More recently, Fulcher & Davidson (2009) have extended this to include a metaphor of architecture. Such underlying principles, approaches, and models of language underpinning the process of test development help to produce quality testing.

Unfortunately, the teaching team that created this new instrument was largely unaware of this body of work. The primary focus was on face-validity. We were asked to rewrite the multiple forms of the test by a process of reverse engineering, in order to create a test with a similar feel to the previous instrument. Experience with testing among the teachers doing the revisions was in short supply, and little help was forthcoming elsewhere. Although all teachers had MAs in the field, none of them had studied testing *per se* as part of their various programs. This meant that there was a substantial lack of knowledge with regard to issues in test creation and analysis.

That situation has changed, however. The teachers of the Language Centre have been able to develop a more conscious knowledge base of how to design tests, evaluate concepts such as reliability, and to modify tests using data from the results. Besides the purely statistical approach to the effectiveness of items, other data is being sought. In particular, all teachers of Language Centre classes (not simply those on fulltime contracts) have recently been given access to placement data, including copies of the test itself and results from their specific students for the first time. Teachers' feedback on how well classes are divided is being sought and used in the design process. In addition, curriculum review work being done at present is helping to tie classroom work and the placement process where possible.

Episode 1 – First Analysis

Following the results of the first test, methods were sought to find out if the test was a good test. Among the Language Centre teachers, however, educational assessment had at best been optional on most of the MA programs attended by members, and no one had a strong background in testing. Follow-up on test design was not required, but left as an option for teachers.

The data from the test itself took some time to get, but finally arrived in the form of a spreadsheet, with four years of data from the old test as well. The format of the spreadsheet did not lend itself to easy manipulation. Statistical packages such as SPSS were not available to us and prohibitively expensive to buy. Although the desire to analyse the test was strong, it did not look like there was a simple way to do it.

After some time and effort, a short, simple, helpful paper was found to get us started (Elvin, 2003). This paper gave a simple guide to the steps of test analysis with nine fictitious students. Analysis used Excel, meaning no complex software was needed and most calculations were fairly simple. Although concepts such as Item Facility and Item Discrimination were easily grasped, the paper simply showed how to calculate reliability and Standard Error of Measurement (SEM). Many questions remained, such as what kind of reliability we should be aiming at, or what measures of reliability were good.

A final barrier was the amount of data for processing and the format it arrived in. When it arrived, the data was spread over several pages of a workbook, with spaces between each test-taker. Although I am now reasonably adept at skills such as removing blank lines and filling blank cells, acquiring these skills was a process of trial, error, and frustration.

Lessons Learned

Actually seeing how the process works on Excel was invaluable. Recently, tutorials on the processes for analyzing test items have become easily available on YouTube. J. D. Brown's book on test analysis (Brown, 2005) was a great help. More recently, books come with CD ROMs and instructional video (e.g. Carr, 2011).

Episode 2 – Paralysis

Despite being unsure of ideal targets for reliability or SEM, I was able to produce a list of items that seemed to work and items that definitely needed changing for the second year of the test. After announcing these, I was asked to make the changes I had identified. Although this request was flattering and the work rewarding, the test was essentially a single-handed operation. While students going into their second year would have seen some items before, there was a good balance of new items, so the test still appeared fresh.

Results from the second year of testing were presented to teachers shortly before the deadline for production of the third year test. This particular year had seen new teachers, new staff in the centre, and new people in management. Essentially, the editing of the test had slipped under the radar. The general consensus among the teachers was that there was insufficient time to edit a low-stakes test. It was considered unlikely that any given student would remember specific items. For this reason, the second and third iteration of the test were the same.

Students advancing to the second year were given the test in class. Some teachers from these classes noted the test items were the same, and thought that was detrimental to students. Members of the management committee were also unhappy about the lack of change.

Lessons Learned

Because of the nature of contracts at the Language Centre, it is hard for people on temporary contracts to follow a test cycle. Other stakeholders had also changed that year, and the workflow of the centre had suffered disruption. A yearly plan of when certain tasks can be expected will help to avoid particular times (not just testing cycles!) from slipping under the radar.

Additionally, working in teams leads to a greater awareness of when relevant items should appear on schedule. Some kind of "buddy" system helps everyone to notice when schedules are not being kept.

Episode 3 – Good news

As soon as data was received for the 2011/2 iteration first year students, I organized a professional development workshop to take my colleagues through the basics of testing, using our own data as a base. With a view to creating more skills for employment, the workshop idea was welcomed. Participants had varying backgrounds in and beliefs about testing and statistics. During the workshop, we followed a classical model of testing, rather than using Item Response Theory. Although the models are complementary, a classical model can (in theory at least) be done with a calculator, and is much easier to grasp for those new to testing.

Starting with some of the theoretical background for good testing, we were able to build a common lexicon and core concepts. All participants manipulated the items to produce Item Facility and Item Discrimination scores, and were able to get as far as calculating the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 for reliability. Although we did not calculate the SEM for the data we had, the idea was covered in theory.

When all the data for that iteration was available, we were able to approach the test better as a team. During a one-day session at the end of the 2012/13 spring semester, the workshop participants met again. The instrument was re-designed, items changed, and a set of specs was recorded and made available to all participants via Moodle.

Drawing on the testing theory and experience I had developed addressing the test on my own, I facilitated this meeting. The day began with a discussion of who was involved in the testing (from students to administrators), the expectations of the test, and potential issues to be raised and dealt with. After a morning of discussing these issues and designing the specs, smaller teams were made and created specific parts of the test. In this way, we created all the components of the final test quickly and efficiently.

The final test actually took a little longer than planned to construct, but the day was well received. The notions underlying the test were all discussed within the context of the existing curriculum and proposed curriculum changes. Teachers reported that they had been worried about spending a day working on testing, but were all pleased with the result. Knowledge of the way the test would be analyzed, along with hard data from the past, helped keep things concrete.

End-of-day feedback showed that having someone knowledgeable about tests was useful. It was suggested that, had we tried the same thing a few years earlier, the results would have been counter-productive.

Lessons Learned

The testing cycle needs to be a visible and valued part of a teaching team's work. The initial impetus of creating marketable experiences in testing served to raise awareness and promote interest. Tying the test to work that was ongoing or of interest to teachers generally was also useful.

Additionally, my own experience and knowledge was well-received. Although I am far from a testing expert, I was able to focus the needs of the workshop and facilitate good results that participants were satisfied with. I should add that I would not have been able to do this at the earlier iterations of the test. My earlier frustration and failures had been channeled, and used to create to a generally positive result.

Episode 4 – Bad news?

Within a month or so of completing the test through the teacher workshop, I learned that members of the General Affairs department were looking to purchase a commercial test to replace the test we had just made. The discovery of this news was made by accident. It seems I had overlooked several important factors contributing to the success of a test.

The process of the workshop for test creation, and the use of Moodle for test specs, was a solution to the testing problems as perceived by fulltime contract teachers. The main objections to the test from the General Affairs department was that the test is scored in a single evening, when all data has to be checked and re-checked. This is a stressful experience that they would prefer to pass on to others. In addition, there is a perception that branded tests would allow more communication between feeder schools and the university. This can be used to show that students being sent to the university are making progress.

Lessons Learned

A very important segment of stakeholders had been overlooked in attempts to fix the instrument. More importantly, that segment was a key decision maker in school processes. The General Affairs department have their own set of needs which needed addressing. In general, they were unaware of much of the process of change being undertaken, and had moved to address the needs for test revision that they perceived.

Many of the issues raised are being addressed now, including looking at the feasibility of making our own test available online, feedback to students and schools based on the test, and reviewing the curriculum in an attempt to show progress to feeder schools and other stakeholders.

Conclusion

The placement instrument at present shows a reasonable level of reliability (alpha of 0.86, SEM 3.04). Most significantly, however, is that teachers feel it is adequate at the job of putting students into groups of similar ability. Added to the sense of ownership, and the ability to change it to meet future curriculum goals, the current instrument and process is being continued for the present, while more work on curriculum is undertaken. The feasibility of continuing our own placement test now rests on keeping it simple and practical to administer.

More importantly, however, the discussion of validity is now shifting as well. While much discussion has been had on the placement validity, in order to show feeder schools and other stakeholders it is effective, the emphasis of the validity argument is now shifting on creating a validity argument for the curriculum.

The test has shown holes in the structure of the organization of our systems, and we have been able to use the data to respond to the challenges presented. In many ways, it has been a timely warning, highlighting when problems were around. More than anything else, the history of this test has shown that a language centre needs a team of people working together to address all needs with assessment, rather than pure mechanical test-creation skill. The expertise in testing that we have developed has been a big part of making a team. It is the team itself, however, that makes a language program stand or fall.

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The Effect of Vocabulary Use on EFL Learners' Writing Fluency

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Research has shown that L2 learners' receptive vocabulary knowledge is larger than their productive knowledge. However, students' productive knowledge can be increased through both study and practice. This study investigates Japanese university students' progress in using vocabulary productively over the course of one semester. Students produced 217 sentences containing vocabulary they learned from a reading textbook. All the sentences were collected and examined by the researcher, and issues such as fluency, correctness, comprehensibility, and creativity were investigated. The results indicated that this productive activity improved students' comprehensibility and fluency.

L2学習者の受容語彙の知識の研究は、その生産性の知識よりも大きいことを示している。しかし、学生の生産的な知識は、研究と実践の両方を通って増加させることができる。この研究は、1学期の過程で生産的に語彙を使って、日本の大学の学生の進捗状況を調査します。学生は読書の教科書から学んだ語彙を含む217の文章を作成した。すべての文章を収集し、検討研究者によって、そのような流暢さ、正確さ、わかりやすさ、そして創造性などの問題を調べた。

Vocabulary development is a slow process that requires both time and effort on the part of L2 learners. It develops gradually from unknown to knowing before having full mastery. According to Henriksen (1999), vocabulary knowledge is a multi-dimensional construct with three dimensions: the partial to precise dimension, the receptive-productive dimension and the depth dimension.

This paper focuses on the receptive and productive dimension. According to Waring (1997) and Webb (2008), receptive knowledge refers to L2 learners' ability to properly translate a word from L2 into L1 while productive knowledge refers to L2 learners' ability to give a specific L2 translation for an L1 word. Schmitt (2010) and Nation (1990) define the receptive knowledge as L2 learners' ability to recognize both the form and meaning of a word in either listening or reading tasks and the productive knowledge as L2 learners' ability to appropriately produce a word in either speaking or writing. Receptive knowledge is, of course, a prerequisite for productive knowledge as learners need to listen to or read the word before being able to produce it.

Research literature indicates that L2 learners' receptive vocabulary size is greater than their productive vocabulary size and that the gap between

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Table 1
Analysis of the sentences

Unit	Correctness	Comprehensibility	Experience-based
7	17%	96%	12%
8	15%	97%	18%
9	17%	99%	17%
10	18%	99%	18%

these two sizes decreases with more language study and practice (Laufer & Paribakht, 1998). Nation (1990) reports that native speakers of English finish high school with about 18000-20000 word families while non-native speakers who finish high school or are enrolled in undergraduate or graduate programs have about 4000 word families. Nurweni & Read (1999) reported that Indonesian university students have an average of 1226 word families, and Shillaw (1995) and Barrow Nakashimi and Ishino (1990) found that Japanese students have an average of 2000-3000 word families. Nation (2010) argues that students need “the 2000 most frequent words of English” (p. 15) in order to be able to pursue academic study because those 2000 high frequency words cover about 80% of an academic text. Although L2 learners tend to use high frequency words from the 1000 to 2000 word level, Lee and Munice (2006) found some improvement in L2 learners’ productive knowledge after 14 days of practice

The present study investigates L2 learners’ ability to produce, in writing, vocabulary learned previously at a Science and Technology university in Japan

Methodology

Participants in the study were science and technology university students at a university in Japan. Students took this course as a required course. Students studied selected units from a reading textbook and encountered 10 new words in each unit. At the end of each reading unit, students were asked to form groups of 3-5 and use new words in sentences from their own. Each group was asked to create one sentence using one word they learned previously. Then feedback concerning grammar, comprehensibility, and meaning was provided by the teacher and peers. All the sentences were collected and examined by the researcher, and issues such as fluency, correctness, comprehensibility, creativity, etc. were investigated.

Results and Discussion

Students created sentences using vocabulary studied in 4 units of the textbook. In total, students produced 217 sentences. Then, students’ sentences were analyzed in terms of correctness (if the sentence is grammatically correct), comprehensibility (if the sentence makes sense), experience-based sentences (if the sentences produced are related to students’ daily life rather than the content of the reading) and fluency (the time it took students to produce the sentences).

Concerning correctness, it seems that there was not a significant change in students’ grammar knowledge as a result of the regular feedback and error corrections provided by the teacher.

There was a slight improvement in terms of sentence comprehensibility. When the activity started, 4% of the sentences were incomprehensible but by the end of the semester, only 1% of the sentences were incomprehensible.

Concerning writing about the content or about their experiences, when the activity started, students wrote about the content rather that creating sentences about their life experiences. Table 1 shows the results.

Concerning students’ fluency in producing sentences, one thing that surprised the researcher was the time it took for each group of three-four students to finish creating one sentence at the beginning of the semester. When the time average was calculated, it

Table 2
Sample sentences produced by students

Word	Students' sentence
Giant	I have seen a giant dinosaur in book.
Physically	Physically, some animals have a tail.
Appearance	She has a friendly appearance.
Examine	We are examine to the dog.

was found that it took students 10 minutes to write sentences on unit 7, 8 minutes to write sentences on unit 8, 4 minutes to write sentences on unit 9, and only 3 minutes to write sentences on unit 10. It is obvious that the time needed to create sentences decreased gradually from 10 minutes to 3 minutes. This could be the result of productive practice.

When the activity started, it took students 10 minutes to produce only one sentence using new vocabulary. This is a long time compared with the simple sentences many students produced when they started the activity. Table 2 shows some sample sentences.

Obviously, it was hard for students to use new vocabulary in sentences at the beginning of the semester. Three groups of four-five students could not even write one sentence. They seemed to think and try a lot, but it was a hard task.

Why, I wondered, could many students perform well in the vocabulary sections of the weekly quizzes students took, but not in using vocabulary to communicate? In the weekly quizzes, students answered translation questions as well as fill-in-the-blanks questions. Many could get the meaning right, but when it came to using them in sentences, students started struggling with this activity. This might be one explanation as to why many students cannot communicate with their teachers in English during office hours. It is probable that many of these students may have not received this kind of practice before.

However, students' fluency in writing sentences improved gradually with practice. The time it took students to write sentences changed gradually from 10 minutes on average at the beginning to 2 minutes on average at the end of the semester. Students started to become fluent in using new vocabulary in sentences although the kinds and numbers of mistakes remained almost the same in all units. But the purpose of this activity was fluency rather than accuracy. This shows the importance of using the vocabulary in sentences for fluency purposes.

Concerning the effect of the feedback received from the teacher and peers, there was not a significant change in the number of errors made by students. In total, sentences about unit 7 contained 13 grammatical mistakes, sentences on unit 8 contained 13 mistakes, sentences on unit 9 also contained 13 mistakes, and sentences on unit 10 contained even more mistakes (15). In class, students received feedback on grammar and usage, especially about basic grammar errors such as tenses: deleting "s" or using –ing form of the verb without verb to "be", or adding prepositions. Table 3 shows samples of the mistakes students made when using verbs in sentences.

From the in-depth analysis of the sentences produced by students, it was noticed that the number of incomprehensible sentences decreased from 8 in unit 7 to 3 in unit 10. One sample sentence from unit 7 is "Gold is completely in gold materials."

Looking at the correct sentences produced, it was noticed that students moved from writing about the content to producing sentences about their life experiences. In unit 7 students wrote 25 sentences about their life experiences compared to 40 sentences in unit 10. Finally, when checking if some parts of speech were more difficult than others, it was noticed that mistakes and difficulty depended on the word itself rather than the part of speech of the word.

Conclusion

Based upon the results of this study, it is evident that students' productive knowledge can be increased through both study and practice. Despite this study's limitations, it is still fair to conclude that using new vocabulary in sentences seems to contribute positively to improving students' fluency, comprehensibility, correctness and productive vocabulary knowledge in general. The number of the incomprehensible sentences decreased as a result of the use of this activity.

Table 3
Sample mistakes across units

	Class	Unit 7	Unit 8	Unit 9	Unit 10
No.		**Examine**	**Affect**	**Warn**	**Indicate**
1	1EM3-4	The teacher examined student's number.	I was affected teacher.	A teacher can warn students.	He indicated this logic.
2	1VA1-2	I examined the lake.	Kobori was affected by sad news.	I warn to him.	The map indicate a place of treasure.
3	1BB1-2	I examined about dinosaurs.	I was affected by a teacher.	They warned you a danger.	Our future has indicate.
4	1EM1-2	Scientists examine cell of human.	He was affected by Takeshi Kitano.	They warn American football is danger.	He indicated that to practice baseball for her.
5	1EE1-2	I examine about dinosaur.	I was affected the book.	I warn you.	Pyramid is indicate that is tomb.
6	1EA1 1VE1	I examined about T. rex.	Company was affected by economic.	The teacher warn us not to talk.	These number are indicate to important answer.
7	1IC3-4	I examine dinosaurs.	The problem affect her life.	I warned to big voice talk with them.	I indicate the question's answer.
8	1ER1-2	We are examine to the dog.	This medicine affect you deeply.	South Korea was warning for North Korea's attack.	That symbol indicates freedom. The map indicate where to go.
9	1EE3 1EI1	We examine the dinosaurs.	Soular panel affect ecology.	Teachers warn students to keep the class rule.	The flag indicate that we are lose.
10	1IM1-2	The scientist examine dinosaur's egg.	She was affected his words.	I warned to run in pool side to him.	He indicated the sun.
11	1BC1-2	We examine the T. rex.	I was affected by my grandfather.	He can warn people.	My grandfather indicate treasure.

This indicates that students' productive knowledge improved. The productive knowledge, according to Schmitt (2010), is L2 learners' ability to appropriately produce a word in a sentence. Also students' fluency improved significantly as a result of using this activity.

The study highly recommends this strategy after each reading class. Through using this strategy in class, teachers can help their students move from receptive to productive vocabulary learning. In classes with students of varied ability, it is recommended to get students to work collaboratively in groups. When working in groups, students can feel responsible towards their own learning and can receive feedback from and negotiate with other group members.

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The Value of Using Student Feedback in the Classroom

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Self-evaluation forms can make learners think more deeply and realistically about the quality of their speaking skills and what can be done to enhance them. By reflecting on their own strengths and weaknesses in speaking English and through evaluating the oral performance of peers, students can become more aware and adept at how to improve their own skills. This paper will look at how first and second year students in non-major compulsory communication classes responded to evaluation forms, and then, at how third year elective students felt about giving and receiving feedback to and from peers.

自己評価表は、学習者の自分の会話能力について、より深く、より現実的に考えさせ、そして会話能力を向上させる。英会話能力において、自分の強みや弱みを反映することによって、また仲間の会話能力を評価することを通して、生徒は英会話能力の向上の方法を、より認識し精通することができるようになる。この論文は、まず、必修科目ではない英会話授業の1、2年生が、自己評価表に対してどのような反応をするか、考察するものである。次に、選択科目の英会話授業の3年生が、英会話能力を仲間にフィードバックしたり、仲間からフィードバックを受けたりすることについて、どのように感じるか、考察するものである。

Within the typical Japanese college classroom, there can be a wide difference between the strongest and weakest students. There are also differences between students in terms of their own strengths and weaknesses. Some might be grammatically accurate; others may excel in comprehension, whilst others might have good pronunciation. There is a wealth of ability that can be mined by other students in helping to improve standards. Students can be trained to develop their own critical faculties through self and peer evaluation to become more proficient speakers of English.

This paper does not focus on self-assessment, in terms of individual students awarding grades to one's own performance, as it seems that able, more mature students, drastically under-grade themselves, whilst younger, weaker speakers, take the opportunity to over-grade.

Underhill (1987), says that students are already evaluating in an informal way. Each student will have a view on where he or she ranks in the class hierarchy for speaking ability. However, students will not necessarily see other students as a resource to improve, and this is where formalizing it, through teacher-led input, can be beneficial. Luoma (2004) notes that students can learn from each other whilst English et al. (2005) say students become reflective learners noticing the strengths and weaknesses not just of peers, but their own too and consequently take action to improve. Students need to be able to adopt a proactive approach as the teacher will not be there once formal education has finished.

An important reason to do peer assessment, as

Evans, D. R. (2014). The value of using student feedback in the classroom. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 306-312). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

highlighted by Falchikov, cited in Walker (2001), is that it increases students' responsibility and autonomy. An unmotivated student who has little interest in speaking English will try hard to grade classmates fairly, and in doing so, will notice aspects that would otherwise be passed by. Brown et al. (1994) believe that the skills used in such assessment will be useful throughout the working life of a student. Abson (1994) feels that peer assessment is motivating, especially if there is a continuous element, as students are then being assessed not only when the teacher is monitoring.

The Students

The students involved were from a four-year nursing college. English communication is compulsory for first and second year students and optional for third and fourth years. Each course comprises of only 14 classes. For the first and second years, the aim of the course is communication, and to this end students have a final spoken exam. There are two classes of 25 students in both first year and second year classes typically. For the third year students there are usually 18 but on the day of the questionnaire there were only 12. The test is three to five minutes with an unknown partner, on an unknown topic. (This is to prevent memorization, and to ensure that students have to ask and answer questions in real time.)

Procedure

As doing an oral exam is new for most students, the teacher needs to sympathetically introduce them to doing unprepared speaking in English. Some "closed pairs" practice, in which students speak for three minutes without the teacher monitoring, helps students to build confidence. Starting at 90 seconds and building to 180 seconds might help some students. Every week in class, students will do some form of closed pairs talking for a minimum of three minutes so that it is normal by the time of the final test. Periodically the students will do open class demonstrations which prepare them for the final test. They also give the teacher an opportunity to see what is lacking and to teach accordingly.

Once students are familiar with speaking to a classmate for 3 minutes they do an open class demonstration. To begin, the teacher chooses an opening question which is easily extended. For example, 'How was your weekend?' or 'What's new?' The topic should be open enough for students to be original.

Student Responses

Before beginning, students are given a feedback form. These questions are designed to get students to reflect on how they did, and to think about how they can improve. The most common choices for 50 first year students reflecting on what they did well the first time they attempted to converse in public are shown in Table 1.

Students are initially very reluctant to say they did anything well, so it is important to insist on this section being filled in. Everyone does manage to think of three good points eventually.

Table 1
Write down three things you did well

Good conversation aspects	Number of comments
I smiled	28
I spoke loudly	20
I made eye contact	13
I didn't stop speaking	13
I gave good answers	13
I asked questions well	12
I enjoyed it	9

It is not so surprising that students have focused on quite simple aspects, as for most, this is the first time that they have had to speak English in public. Small victories such as smiling are significant. Some students are already focusing on more English related aspects as can be seen in those who wrote 'asking good questions' or 'giving good answers'.

With 50 second year students, doing this exercise for the second time, it is possible to see a deeper understanding of what is important. Being able to convey their message more fully, more loudly and truer to what they intended, were regarded as key, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Why did you do better?

Reasons	Number of comments
I spoke more than the first time	23
I spoke more loudly	23
I could say what I wanted	20
I smiled	14
I was more fluent	13
I enjoyed it	11

The students were next asked to write down three things that could be improved on their next performance.

Both first and second year students highlighted "Speaking more fluently," as the number one desired improvement. This helps students understand the benefit of speaking practice. The first year students' second most common choice was "Use gestures and body language," as they notice from watching each other that they can look very tense. The second year students, in contrast, wrote, "Learn more vocabulary and expressions".

Table 3
Who was the best speaker today (first years)? Why?

First year reasons	Number of comments
She was interesting/fun	12
She had a loud voice	12
She smiled	12
She had good pronunciation	12
She kept speaking	11

First year perceptions as to what makes a good student speaker of English are shown in Table 3.

For second year students, the five most common reasons given are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Who was the best speaker today (second years)? Why?

Second year reasons	Number of comments
She spoke fluently	18
Her conversation was interesting	15
She enjoyed herself	15
She asked good questions	12
She was clear and easy to understand	11

The students have come to their own conclusion that it is important for the speakers to both enjoy the process of speaking in English and for what they say to be interesting. They are also aware of the need for the speaker to consider the needs of the listener.

The most common reasons as to what made the best conversation for first years are given in Table 5.

Table 5
Which pair had the best conversation today? Why?

First year reasons	Number of comments
The topic was interesting	15
They didn't stop speaking	13
It was natural/normal	13
They sounded natural	12
They had good body language	11
They had fun	10

For second years students there were only three common categories, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Which pair had the best conversation today? Why?

Second year reasons	Number of comments
They enjoyed themselves	25
It was natural	21
The topic was interesting	17

The students' comments show that they are gaining an understanding of what makes good conversation. The emphasis is on enjoying talking in English, making the content interesting and having genuine communication rather than providing a display for the teacher.

Whilst the answers to all the questions are enlightening in their own right, the answers are not the goal of this approach. What is valuable is that all students reflect on how to improve their English communication skills through both self and peer evaluation, to reappraise what makes both a good speaker and a good conversation.

If the teacher has time, it might be useful for brief comments to be made on a photocopy of each feedback sheet, so that the student feels an individual interest is being taken in his or her performance.

Before the end of year exam, it is helpful for students to do a practice run, so that on that day, they know exactly what to expect both as performers in the test and as evaluators (Norcini, 2003).

Peer Assessment

There are potential problems with doing peer assessment. Cheng&Warren, (1997) note that students might dislike being given the responsibility of grading peers. In the set-up described here, fifty per cent of the final grade comes from the teacher, and fifty per cent from all the students combined. That means, that if two tests are done, (students also prepare a learned nursing dialogue), each student grading in a class of 25 students only accounts for one per cent of the overall total. If only one test is done, that rises to two per cent. Pointing this out does allay students concerns. Boud, cited in Walker (2001) notes that peer grading can be unreliable, but this too can easily be sidestepped, by removing the outliers in terms of grading. Possible gender bias is a concern for Falchikov & Magin (1997), and within the nursing college with typically 90% female students, male students can be under-graded. This is not the case for those who are outstanding, but weaker students seem to receive lower grades than female students of a similar ability. Knowing this, however, makes it easier to counteract. Abson (1994) warned that peer assessment could legitimize prejudice against individuals. Again, forewarned is forearmed, and anomalies can easily be identified from the grade sheets and rectified.

On test day, the opening question to begin the dialogue is written on the board. This gives students a few minutes to think about the topic. They cannot write anything, but can look up words. Then, the teacher takes around a pot of numbers, and students pull one out a number at random to determine order of performance. This shows that the process is fair.

All students are given a grading sheet in which there is space to award both a grade and to write a comment. The point of the comment is to understand how the student is grading. As long as students are told to be consistent and to measure all students in the same way, the grading should be fair. It is important that each student chooses criteria that he or she feels capable of judging. In practice tests, using criterion such as "fluency", "complexity", "body language" or "voice quality", alert students to different possibilities, but for the final test students should be free to choose.

It seems best to ration the number of A+'s, A's, B+'s, B's that students can award, as if given a free hand, they are likely to give all the classmates A's. In a class of 25, allowing a maximum of five in each category means that the graded students are reasonably spread out. The teacher can then convert these so that an A+ equals 5 points, A is 4, B+ is 3, B is 2, and unmarked is 1. When this is done, it is very easy to spot any anomaly, and then that paper can be excluded from the grading. Next, the teacher tallies the scores and the students' position can easily be seen. If the teacher so wishes, he or she can grade using percentages, and then use the students' order to match the percentage given by the teacher. So, for example, if the teacher's highest grade is 92%, the student who tallied the highest score can be awarded 92% and so on. The scores from the teacher and the students can then be added together and divided by two to get the final percentage.

The process of assessing peers makes all students take the task very seriously and in some cases, students who have no interest in English will make a bigger effort when asked to do this than in any other aspect of the course.

The reaction of third years to doing peer to peer feedback

The third year students are more mature and better at English than the first and second year students. As they have chosen to come to class, the atmosphere is light and enjoyable. The students have also experienced what the first and second years have done, so they are used to such an approach.

The third year course is a discussion based course using 'Impact Issues 2' as a course book. Students are well practiced in conversing. The new component in the following example is that of students giving feedback to each other.

As with the first and second years, students were drawn at random to form pairs, and no topic was stipulated, though it was just after the Golden Week holiday and that seemed to be a natural topic for most (but not all pairs). There were 12 students in this class and they were broken down into three groups of four for feedback purposes. Students were asked to give feedback for the three other people in their group. The feedback form was very simple, with one side of the form entitled "Good points" and the numbers 1, 2 and 3 written vertically below and on the other "Things to improve". The teacher asked all students to be sure to fill in this section, as if there is no obligation to do so, the majority of students will leave it blank.

After the pairs had finished their dialogue students were given some time to finish writing up their comments. They then conversed with each other in pairs, giving feedback to each other. The vast majority of students used only English, but they were allowed to use Japanese if they needed or wanted to use their native language.

Having given feedback they were asked to fill in a feedback form.

Table 7
Do you enjoy watching your classmates perform?

Hate	1	2	3	4	5	Love
				5	7	

The response to this question is overwhelmingly positive. Students at all age levels and abilities watch their classmates with great attention.

These are a selection of third year students' comments.

> *Every pair had a different topic so it was a natural conversation*
>
> *They try to speak, they aren't ashamed, so I try too. There are many chances to speak English.*
>
> *X and Y's English is so beautiful. I want to speak like them.*
>
> *I could learn about what other people are thinking and feeling during English class.*

Table 8
Do you find it helpful to watch your classmates perform?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	Yes, very
	1				11	

The one student who chose "1" did so because her concern was about pronunciation and she didn't feel her classmates could help her with it. All other students chose the highest possible choice and comments below reflect how beneficial the students find it.

> *I could learn how other people react and give comments*
>
> *Because I notice lots of things to improve my English.*

Everyone looked like they were having fun, so I could relax too.

Because I can learn new expressions and new responses.

Not surprisingly this was not unanimously popular as giving feedback on how to improve performance can be nerve-wracking even for experienced teacher trainers. For these students it was the first time to do such a thing in English class, and possibly in any area at all.

Table 9
How do you feel about giving feedback to your classmates?

Awful	1	2	3	4	5	Very useful
		1	2	3	6	

I don't like it very much, but I think it's useful to develop our English together.

It's too difficult for me to find good or bad point for others.

When I gave feedback they were glad so I felt good.

It was great because everyone watched the performances carefully.

Selected student comments are written below.

I could learn and improve on my weakness.

Nobody tells me my bad point about English. So it's very nice to know what to improve.

I think my voice is big but many feedback said that it's not. I never knew! And friends tell me my good points, so I'm happy.

There were a lot of things that I can't notice.

A very pleasing point that emerges from students' comments is that they enjoyed receiving praise from their classmates. Whilst this is not surprising, it makes one aware that in large classes it is very hard for teachers to give individual students feedback on performance. They were also grateful to receive suggestions for self -improvement, with peers being able to make valuable observations.

Table 10
How do you feel about getting feedback from a classmate?

Awful	1	2	3	4	5	Very useful
				5	7	

The rating also shows that students were happier to receive feedback than to give it. However, as this is the first occasion they have given feedback, it is to be hoped that familiarity will lead to greater confidence.

Conclusion

Students not only benefit from being observant of their peers in improving their own language skills, but they find it very enjoyable to observe as well. Lower level students can be trained to become aware of how to become better speakers of English through guided feedback forms, and higher level students can experiment with giving and receiving feedback too. These activities put more responsibility on students to take the lead in developing their own English and teach skills they can also transfer to other areas of life.

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The World, the Language Learner, and Relationships

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This collaborative, interactive forum brought together poster and multi-media displays focused on two main areas: (a) the connections between global issues, learner development, and pragmatics, and (b) understanding helpfulness and support in the arts of language learning and teaching. The forum featured consecutive simultaneous presentations, held in four corners of the room, on topics related to language learning and relationships, critical thinking and social justice, and language use and identity. These were followed by corner-based discussions, before the forum finished with plenary reports. The focus of each presentation is briefly presented here to strengthen the cross-SIG links that were explored and developed through this joint collaborative forum.

本フォーラムはポスターとマルチメディア表示を組み合わせた協調的、相互的なもので、次の二つのテーマに焦点をあてました：1.　グローバル問題、学習者ディベロップメント、語用論の連携、2.　語学学習と語学教育における有用性と支援の理解。本フォーラムでは、4つのコーナーに分かれて、語学学習と人間関係、批判的思考法と社会的正義、言語使用とアイデンティティに関する発表とディスカッションを行い、最後に各コーナーの代表に報告をしてもらいました。他のコーナーの発表内容もご理解頂き、本フォーラムの成果を共有していただきたいと思いますので、以下に各発表の概要を紹介します。

What do the Special Interest Groups Global Issues in Language Education, Learner Development, and Pragmatics have in common? And what can we learn from each other? This was both the purpose and the challenge of the PanSIG 2013 collaborative forum by the three SIGs. All three groups are concerned with matters beyond the classroom: life and social issues, language use in relationships, and purposeful language

Ronald, J. et al. (2014). The world, the language learner, and relationships. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 313-322). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

learning, and many of the 10 presentations given at the forum embraced and explored two or three of these perspectives in combination.

This paper begins with Lori Zenuk-Nishide and Donna Tatsuki's report of the benefits for language learners of model United Nations simulations, followed by Andy Barfield's focus on migration-related issues as he explores connections between critical pedagogy for social justice and learner autonomy. Louise Haynes reports on the impact of teaching that focuses on the FD1 Disaster, while Jane Joritz-Nakagawa describes the use of poetry in exploring global issues, developing critical thinking and promoting personal growth. In a similar way, Marybeth Kamibeppu and Eleanor Kelly explain how global or social issues in language learning may be addressed through drama. Erina Ogawa explores the use of another medium, educational manga, as a tool for global issues-focused language learning. Moving towards more of a focus on pragmatics, Kevin Mark describes an approach that aims to integrate learner development, global education and language awareness, with Ian Hurrell and Jim Ronald both reminding us of the importance of pragmatic development and sensitivity in and beyond the classroom. Finally Seth Cervantes and Robert Olson provide us with a useful pragmatics checklist as a tool for helping both teachers and learners become more aware of interactional practices as key aspects of language learning and use.

Benefits of Model United Nations

In EFL contexts, content-based educational initiatives like the Model United Nations (MUN) can offer an imagined community/community of practice. The MUN's global content influences the development of international posture and the production of possible selves that mediate learners' interest in learning English and the L2 using ideal self (Yashima, & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004). The benefits of the MUN are numerous (Tatsuki 2009; Zenuk-Nishide, 2009; Zenuk-Nishide, & Tatsuki, 2012), but success requires 'near peer modelling' (Murphey, & Arao, 2001).

Preparation for a MUN simulation includes researching about the United Nation and its bodies, the topic to be debated, the country the student will represent as a delegate, and the regional policies related to the item on the agenda. Templates need to be given to write a country position paper, resolutions and amendments. In addition, the MUN formulaic rules of procedure and caucusing/negotiating need to be introduced and practised. When students negotiate and co-construct solutions through draft resolutions, their self-efficacy increases (Zenuk-Nishide, & Acar, 2011).

Exploring Contradictions between Learner Autonomy and Critical Pedagogy for Social Justice

Grounded in a seminar where second-year students undertake self-directed research projects on international migration issues, this presentation displayed examples of student goals, notes and reflections, as well as key principles of pedagogy for autonomy as (inter)personal empowerment and social transformation (Jiménez Raya, Lamb, & Vieira, 2007) and critical pedagogy for social justice (Smyth, 2011).

In the seminar, students start by collecting and sorting pictures about migration to create initial "migration concepts and puzzles" for future exploration. They also map their own Family Migration History and conduct an interview with an immigrant in their local community to find out about their interviewee's migration history. Learning next about different migration concepts and re-interpreting their previous work to explore such concepts in action, the students complete their own research projects on Japan-based migration issues. On a weekly basis, the students set learning goals, keep notes, and reflect on how their understanding of migration issues is developing.

In the forum presentation, participants were encouraged to view the display materials and engage in discussion with each other. Among many different points made, the following tensions remain unresolved:

1. The development of learner autonomy is understood to start from the individual and work (ideally) outwards towards the social and political arenas, but the development of critical pedagogy starts from a social perspective and

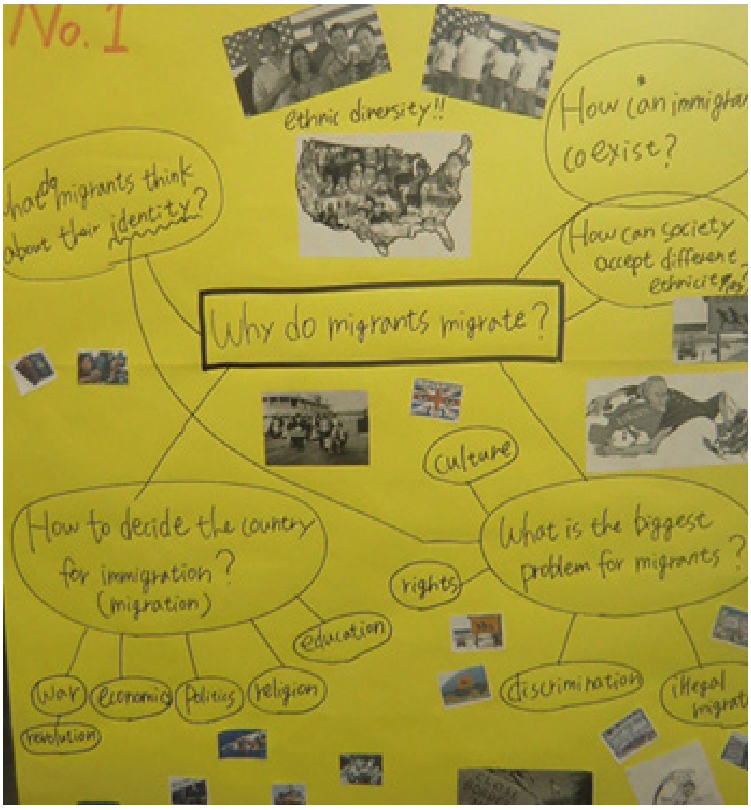

Figure 1. An initial "migration concepts and puzzles" poster

places much greater emphasis on social and political engagement and transformation: What does this tension entail for a hybrid pedagogy that tries to connect the two regimes?

2. The questioning stance of critical pedagogy invites a shifting of perspective between at least three positions (teacher, students, communities), but the questioning stance of learner autonomy moves mainly between learner and teacher roles. What might critical pedagogy offer for a political interpretation of the transformative potential of learner autonomy?

While the central concerns of both schools seem to diverge, together they provide an interesting pedagogic dialectic for exploring in praxis learner development and global issues.

Raising the Topic of the Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Disaster

"The scales fell from my eyes," writes a freshman in her weekly homework. One of the most important global issue currently facing our students, if not the entire planet, is the on-going disaster at the Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Plant. Who is involved and what help do they really need? This short presentation looked at how this controversial topic was dealt with by several groups of lower-intermediate to intermediate university freshmen, none of whom were majoring in English.

At the time of the earthquake, tsunami, and meltdowns, the students in these classes were approaching their last year of high school, getting ready for the final push toward entrance examinations for university. Knowing that such study probably took up most of their time, I wondered how much they actually knew about the effects of the meltdowns on the people in the local areas near the affected plant, the rivers, oceans, wildlife, and, possibly, the food supply. These class activities also developed out of my observations on how major media have not given consistent coverage of the disaster from a wide variety of viewpoints.

This topic, one of many global issues covered during the semester, was one that was timely and extremely important to the lives of the students. Regular weekly homework assignments included writing comments on an assigned video from TED.com related to the topic for the week. In the week preceding our discussion on the situation in Fukushima, the students were asked to watch and to respond to a German documentary (ZDF, undated) with Japanese subtitles.

In the following class, I pointed out that there were many other voices (e.g., governments, farmers, fishermen, IAEA, business owners) that were not shared in that video and that the students would be including a few of these other voices through 1-minute speeches in front of an imaginary "Special UN Committee on World Safety." The students wrote their speeches and presented them in front of the class, before discussing prepared questions in small groups. Several students noted that this particular class offered them new insights into a problem directly impacting their lives.

Poetry, Global Issues, Critical Thinking and Personal Growth

Research in arts therapy education (e.g., Mazza, 2003; Alschuler, 2006) supports the idea that reading, writing and sharing poems with others in a group setting can lead to improved self-esteem, an increased awareness of self and others, enhanced creative problem-solving abilities, better communication skills, better perspective taking, and an expanded view of life. In her presentation, Jane Joritz-Nakagawa shared over two dozen poems, ranging in linguistic difficulty from upper beginning to advanced, containing themes such as war, FGM, nuclear power, gender inequality, animal rights, domestic violence, homelessness, discrimination, and minority identities.

Suggestions for using poems in the classroom included: (a) have students work in groups to work out together / discuss poems' meanings and features; (b) use originals together with translations (Japanese poems with English translations or English poems with Japanese translations); (c) pre-teach important vocabulary items found in the poems; (d) provide cultural or other background information to introduce the poem and poet when useful; (e) select shorter poems or use excerpts of longer works to ameliorate challenge; (f) have students write and then share their own poems—either on the same theme as or using a similar structure to the model poems; (g) have students and/or the teacher read poems out loud or use poetry recordings to learn and/or practice phonological features; (h) teach students some basic terms useful for discussing poetry (e.g. line, stanza, metaphor, sonnet, rhyme, alliteration, prose poem, poet, speaker in a poem) so that learners can participate in discussions or write about poems more successfully; (i) use jigsaw-type cooperative learning activities such as having one student individually in a group of four study and report on one of the following characteristics of a poem: sound, overall structure, metaphor, and meaning (an idea received from writer and teacher Holly Thompson); (j) use poems and/or poets and poetic forms (such as haiku) that the students will already be familiar with in Japanese but in English translation; (k) have students write their reactions to poems in a journal; and (l) have students prepare written and oral research reports about a poet or poem.

Connecting Drama and Global/Social Issues in Language Learning

> But language is not purely an intellectual matter. Our minds are attached to our bodies, and our bodies to our minds. The intellect rarely functions without an element of emotion, yet it is so often just this element that is lacking in teaching material (Maley & Duff, 1982, p. 7).

This quote describes an important reason to use drama-based activities in the language classroom: They provide students with the opportunity to observe how emotions are expressed in the target language and to express their own feelings in that language through role-play and acting out original scripts. Using role-play activities helps students develop empathy for others (Boudreault, 2010), and it is empathy that enables students to understand more deeply the issues people in the world are facing today.

Kamibeppu and Kelly use drama to enable learners to relate more deeply to the topic being discussed and to raise students' awareness of current global and social issues. The dramas "Romeo and Juliet" and "West Side Story" can be related to current issues such as discrimination, immigration, refugee problems, conflicts within and between countries, gang violence, criminal justice, forced marriages, gun violence, and suicide.

For lower-level students, the dramas can be simpler while the issues are still relevant. Disney classics like "Lady and the Tramp" address topics such as poverty, economic-class discrimination, and animal rights. "Cinderella" is an obvious choice for discussions on blended families and bullying. Other movies that can be used are: "Kramer vs. Kramer" for discussions on divorce; "Dances with Wolves" for lessons on indigenous rights, border disputes, and minority languages; and "WALL-E" which can be used when studying about environmental problems.

The presentation detailed assignments and class activities that can be used to augment a language class. Some examples of the activities discussed were: (a) turning down the sound of the video and having the students take on the roles and act them out; (b) showing pictures of different scenes and having teams either explain the scene or speak for one of the characters; and (c) acting out different scenes or reciting dialog to play "name that scene" or "name that character".

Helpful Educational Manga Textbook Activities

Some teachers may not be aware of the validity of using educational manga as teaching material, but images are often an important part of language learning as Monnin (2010, p. 123) comments: "... the use of image literacies in language learning is much more than an established pedagogical practice". In this presentation, Erina Ogawa reported on the research she had conducted on completion rates of activities from a textbook with a global employment issues theme. She and a colleague, Helen Hanae, co-authored this educational manga textbook.

The innovative and helpful style of teaching and learning made possible by using an educational manga textbook lent itself to the design of a variety of different types of activities to accompany the manga storyline and promote further language and content learning. These activity types include: dialogue completion, chart filling, list making, partial business document writing, checklist ticking, blank filling, quiz completion, listening comprehension, and journal writing. In order to know which of these types were more useful for her students, Ogawa categorized 54 activities, completed by 71 students from two second-year classes, into 12 different activity-type groups. She then analysed the completion rates of each group. This amounted to a total of 3,834 activities and was a far more time-consuming task than she had anticipated. However, the analysis did provide some useful data on completion rates for the different activity types.

The data (see Ogawa, unpublished, for detailed results) were presented in pie chart form accompanied by samples of each activity type. Document-related tasks, as well as chart completion tasks, showed high completion rates. On the other hand, low completion rates were found for list making, journal writing, checklist making, and sentence writing tasks. To put it simply, activities that required students to produce more language had lower completion rates than activities that had more scaffolding provided, such as blank-filling activities. This information may provide some guidance for teachers when deciding activities for their students.

Integrating Learner Development, Global Education and Language Awareness

In the following sentence the first and last words are in the correct position, but the remaining words are jumbled. There is (probably!) only one way in which these can be unscrambled so as to create what we can recognize as a meaningful, well-formed English sentence.

> <u>I</u> would that mean approach what you can think about to like examples some teaching it illustrate to <u>integratively.</u>

Can you unscramble them? To make it slightly easier, here is a hint:

> I _____ _____ ____ ___ ______ ______ _____ ___ can mean ___ _________ _________ integratively.

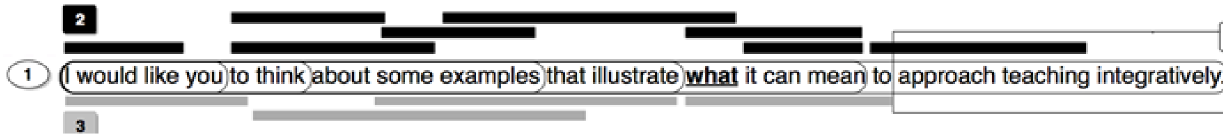

Figure 2.

And if you were to hear the sentence read aloud once, it would be considerably easier.

You may doubt the wisdom of employing a technique such as this for teaching English, yet this (artificial) example illustrates a set of "Lexical Approach" (Lewis, 2008) techniques that can support learner autonomy, content-based learning, and pragmatic awareness. The text in Figure 2 provides the "answer" to the puzzle. The diagram attempts to show some of the ways in which this sentence is composed of meaningful "chunks." Actually, there are many ways of identifying these, and to some extent the divisions made here are personal. Nevertheless, it is clear that we do process language in terms of pieces of meaning (Hoey, 2005) and that recognizing the internal syntactic integrity of pieces, as well as their combinatorial possibilities and limitations in creating a well-formed discourse segment, is a complex process. I see four types of chunk here:

- a simple, linear left-right expansion, with each successively larger whole adding a piece of meaning
- an increased grammatical focus
- a greater pragmatic, discourse application
- a strong association with the content under discussion.

In actual teaching the process works in this way:

1. Prior exposure is given to the content (verbatim or paraphrase) through listening, reading, discussion or a combination thereof.
2. Reading aloud or writing, learners work through a list of chunks of increasing length, self- or peer-correcting as they do so:
   [1] I you like would to
   [2] would to think you like about
   [3] to it think can about what mean
   [4] what can mean it approach to teaching
3. Learners may also be asked to fill in the blanks in a continuous passage.

Introducing Pragmatics: Hearts and minds

The development of pragmatic competence in language learners is one of the major issues being discussed in the field of ELT today. There is a wealth of literature suggesting that the synthetic materials used in many textbooks are insufficient for developing a learner's ability to communicate in real-life situations (Gilmore, 2007). As a result, it has been widely advocated that exposing learners to the naturalistic language used in authentic materials is a more effective way of helping learners to develop their pragmatic competence (Guariento & Morley, 2001).

However, extensive research also indicates that the linguistic and socio-cultural complexity of the language used in authentic materials can be a source of frustration and de-motivation for many language learners. This is often put down to learners commonly lacking the linguistic ability and schematic knowledge to comprehend authentic language (Ellis, 2002).

This exploratory study attempted to resolve this issue by training a group of EFL university students to use discourse analysis techniques adapted from Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle and Gee's (2011) Language-in-use model. Comments from questionnaires and interviews such as "I thought that, more than the meaning of the words, the mind and intentions of the speaker is important for communication" indicated that, through using these techniques autonomously in a learner-centred and non-threatening environment, the students felt that they had acquired a set of tools which they could utilize to access pragmatic meaning in the authentic materials. They also reported gaining a deeper appreciation of the pragmatic influences on authentic language use.

These results indicate that training learners in using discourse analysis techniques autonomously to analyse authentic materials can be an effective means of helping learners to develop pragmatic competence.

Peer Feedback: From Hurtful to Helpful

One aspect of collaborative language learning is peer feedback: students rating or commenting on each other's presentations or correcting each other's writing. Especially when this feedback is public, it may constitute a Face Threatening Act (FTA): "Utterance or act which threatens a person's public self-image" (Yule, 1996, p. 130). In fact, peer correction may typically involve a number of FTAs, such as those listed by Brown and Levinson (1978, p. 66): "Expressions of disapproval, criticism, contempt or ridicule; contradictions or disagreements; challenges".

This small study was conducted with a class of 17 second-year university English majors. First, students wrote self-introductions for use in future international exchanges. Copies of these were then distributed to classmates with instructions to read and correct each other's work. They did this in silence and then the copies were returned to their authors. My question as to how this experience felt was met with a long silence, followed by one quiet "Embarrassing."

Next, students were told about two painful experiences of peer correction that the presenter had gone through: of class observation and of a journal editor's correction of a book review. Following this, students discussed in pairs how to make peer correction a better experience, then wrote their ideas on the board: using compliments and mentioning good points, using pictures and emoticons, and pointing out gently as advice rather than correction.

Unmarked copies of the students' writing were then redistributed for correction by other classmates. This second time, a similar number of corrections were made, but there were also 17 comments, 11 pictures, and various compliments, encouragements and hedged advice. The exercise ended with students, unprompted, happily returning each other's work.

The project started as action research: a problem is identified, responded to, and evaluated. It turned into something closer to exploratory practice; as students became aware of the problem, they suggested solutions, which we tried out and evaluated together. Together, we found a way to turn peer feedback from hurtful to helpful.

The Pragmatics Checklist: Building Awareness of Interactional Practices

In occupations that have no room for mistakes, airline pilots or surgeons for example, the checklist has proven to be a valuable tool to avoid, or at the very least reduce, mistakes (Gawande, 2011). This is especially the case when tasks are fraught with complexity. If a language teacher makes a mistake, most likely no one will suffer loss of life or limb, yet the sheer complexity of teaching is no less daunting. One example of this is the teaching and learning of pragmatics. Below we briefly describe the implementation of a pragmatics checklist in the language classroom to build awareness of pragmatics, particularly *interactional practices*.

According to Wong and Waring (2011), *interactional competence* is made up of four interactional practices: (1) *turn-taking*, (2) *sequential,* (3) *overall structuring,* and (4) *repair practices*. Now, how can teachers use a checklist to teach interactional practices? To answer that question, we first created the following checklist.

☐ Does your conversation have an opening/closing?
☐ Do you say more than yes/no?
☐ Do you use Really? + QUESTION?
☐ Do you use (REPEAT) + QUESTION?

We implemented the checklist taking a 5-step approach.

1. Introduce interactional practices. In the first step, we introduce openings and closings, which are related to overall structuring practices.
2. Pair/Group work. Students practice these interactional practices in pairs or small groups by co-writing a dialogue. Once completed, the students use the checklist.
3. Perform. Students then have a conversation, which is recorded. The students are not allowed to use their co-written dialogue and memorization is discouraged.

4. Transcription phase. Students listen and transcribe either all or selected snippets of the conversation. The students review the transcripts to check if they have done everything on the checklist.
5. Perform. After this, students practice the same conversation, which is again recorded. The students then return to the third step (Perform) and the process is repeated for fluency development.

The purpose of using checklists in this case is *not* to encourage memorization, but to build awareness of interactional practices and to encourage creativity.

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Utilizing Smartphones and Tablet Technology in CBI Courses to Enhance the Learning Experience

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Technology, when used appropriately, has always enhanced teaching, and as it has improved, it has become more efficient. This paper will firstly give an example of how to create an original video using a smartphone in order to improve student concentration and motivation in a CBI (Content Based Instruction) class. This will be followed by an example of how to go about videoing and uploading student presentations to YouTube, in order to allow them the opportunity to view themselves and others in self-reflection and peer-review.

技術は常に教育を向上させた。技術が向上したように、技術を使用するための効率も向上している。本論文では、学生のモチベーションを向上させ、また集中力を高めるためスマートフォンでオリジナルのビデオの撮影の仕方について説明する。またさらに、学生が自己反省とピアレビューで自分自身と他者を比較できる為に、タブレットで学生のプレゼンテーションを撮影しYoutubeに載せることについて述べる。

Using video and multimedia in the classroom has been around since at least the 1960s (Williams & Lutes, 2007) but until recently it required a large amount of coordination on the instructor's part, as well as a large amount of resources. It is only in recent years, with the advent of mobile technologies that incorporate advanced features in smartphones and tablets, that things that once took hours to set up and administer now take just minutes, and cost a fraction of what they used to. Technology has empowered educators and can allow them to develop and create instructional materials that assist students to better engage with and comprehend classroom materials, as well as to review and reflect upon their own academic performance. This paper will explain how the video camera function of tablets or smartphones can be utilized in the EFL or ESL classroom to make lessons more enjoyable, promote motivation among students and enhance the learning experience for both students and instructors alike.

Ritchie, Z. & Miller, R. (2014). Utilizing smartphones and tablet technology in CBI courses to enhance the learning experience. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 323-330). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

Background

As second language teachers, more of us are being asked to create content-based courses, often in subjects we are not entirely knowledgeable about, or comfortable teaching. Content-based Instruction (CBI), which focuses on the struggle to master content as a means to deepen language ability, was developed in the 1980s

(Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 1989) and has become a popular teaching methodology in ESL/EFL classes (Messerklinger, 2008).

One of the advantages and motivating factors in CBI is that it allows teachers and students to explore interesting, relevant and complex topics. However, the challenge is how to make such material more accessible and understandable (Stryker and Leaver, 1987). How can an instructor prepare and introduce complex and unfamiliar topics to learners in a way that reduces their anxiety and reflects their linguistic level, while maintaining their motivation? One method that we have had success with in teaching CBI to Japanese university students is to use video. This may range from the more traditional method of screening a video or DVD, to the more recent such as using Internet video streaming services such as YouTube. However, these are not always effective or practical. Sometimes, the content may be unsuitable (in content or level) or it may be difficult to access (DVDs that do not play in your region) or, merely unavailable. So, why make-do with these content delivery methods when you can easily create own original video that is available, accessible, precisely suited to your needs and copyright free?

Creating an Original Video Using a Smartphone

This section provides tips on creating your own video with a smartphone. The example is a short video "Petroleum Man" that was created for use as the warm-up to a module about the amount of energy in our food. We will discuss the rationale and context for which the video was created, and then give step-by-step instructions on how to make a video.

The video was introduced at a Japanese university to intermediate level students in the final year of a course on geopolitics and energy that was taught between 2006 and 2011. In previous years for the warm-up part of the lesson, a straightforward question was written on the blackboard: "What did you have for breakfast this morning". This was done to activate students' mental schema, to personalize the material and to make the topic more relevant to the students' daily lives. After the question was written on the board, the students had to fill out a table with the foods they had eaten and where they thought they might have come from. However, often there were instances of response resistance, where students would answer: "I didn't have breakfast", or similar such comments. Furthermore, at other times it was discovered that a few minutes into the exercise, some students would still not be paying attention, having missed the question entirely. Yet others were playing with their phones (the irony!) or still unpacking their pens and pencils, all wasting valuable classroom learning time. Enough anecdotal evidence showed that the warm-up exercise was perhaps too dull and boring and was not engaging enough for them.

Thus to make the lesson more interesting and stimulating, it was decided to make and record a short video to replace the warm-up part of the lesson. It was found this helped eliminate several classroom problems, especially learning resistance as the students were immediately immersed in the topic through pictures and sound, which certainly stimulated them—especially when it was mentioned that the instructor had created the video with a colleague as the "star".

Originally filmed in 2010, the video follows a man, as he wakes, gets out of bed, moves to the kitchen, makes, and eats his breakfast. The scripting and direction was minimal, the star had a hangover, and the cinematography was shaky with some particularly nauseating shifts in perspective, due to the fact that we originally filmed in portrait mode instead of landscape. The original footage length was about twelve minutes, but after about two hours of heavy editing we managed to condense it down to about a minute, before adding some catchy music and uploading it to YouTube, the end result being of surprisingly high quality.

Creating your video is easier than you might think. First, smart-phones these days have advanced video shooting capabilities, such as the ability to film in 720p or even full HD 1080p video. Second, once recorded your video can even be edited right in your phone, should you install the necessary applications (iMovie for iPhone, for example). Naturally, it is still possible to edit your video the traditional way through a desktop computer (we used iMovie on a Macintosh computer, although Windows or Linux both have similar video editing software available). You might need some video conversion software (a popular one is HandBreak for the Mac) to convert the video format of your phone to one compatible with iMovie.

Once your video has been edited to your liking, you can then upload it to YouTube from either your phone or desktop computer, and will be ready to be viewed (Appendix 2). The reason we prefer YouTube is that it provides an uncomplicated method to upload the video to the Internet, as well as making it possible to distribute the URL to students so they can watch it in their own time as homework if need be. Of course, you can easily set your YouTube privacy settings to private, or hidden, so third parties cannot search for your video and view it.

Recording Student Presentations for Self or Peer Evaluation

Research indicates that allowing students time for reflection tends to lead to a positive effect on their academic performance (Grossman, 2009). As previously mentioned, utilizing the video camera function on a smartphone or tablet is easier than ever before and requires little experience on the part of the person recording the video. Recording students' presentations and allowing them to view them outside of the classroom not only allows individual students the ability to evaluate their own work, but also to evaluate the work of their peers. This self-evaluation and peer evaluation allows the students to comprehend the grading rubric and how they are graded and gives them a chance to see that the grades they receive from the instructor are not arbitrary but are meticulously structured. The students themselves are also able to notice this through their own performances, and grading that they perform. This is accomplished through watching their own presentations as they can provide written feedback online, offline or both and on their own time that would be difficult for them do within the classroom, due to time limitations.

Another option is to give students in different classes, but within the same university and giving the same presentation, the chance to review each other's work. As an example, in a CBI lesson on population growth, a group of students gave a presentation on the population growth of Indonesia and then were given another group's presentation on the same country with the same theme, allowing them to see how other students were performing.

As previously mentioned, we prefer to upload our videos to YouTube since it is one of the easiest services to navigate and has many advanced features. One of those features is the ability for a registered user to create a "YouTube Channel" which can be utilized for classroom work and is perfect to use for self-evaluation purposes. Additionally, since 2010, all Google services have been integrated and now use the same user ID and password, so if you have a Gmail account you are already able to access YouTube, including all other Google services. On your tablet or smartphone, simply videoing the presentation and then pressing the upload to YouTube button allows one a quick and effective method to upload and later access the video on the YouTube channel. Uploading can also be accomplished during the subsequent presentation, so that while you are videoing another presentation you can upload the previous one. This keeps everything organized and allows you to move forward to the next presentation quickly without taking up precious classroom time. Students can then access the YouTube channel on their devices at a later date. So long as each group is aware of their title, or even the name of the channel, they should be able to find their video fairly quickly.

A simple method that works to ensure a basic level of privacy is to put the video into what we call a "semiprivate" mode and give it a unique title, which you distribute to your class and have them search for on YouTube. As an example, if the class is English One and it is on Monday morning and there are several presentations then the title for the first group's video might be: "Monpd1gp1". This would represent Monday Period One Group One. Then adding your institution's name would make the title even more unique; just remember that you should not use spaces in your file names. This unique title for the presentation gives the students some privacy and will usually negate unauthorized outside viewing of the material. Just remember that the video is still in the public domain and might possibly be sound by others.

If your institution (or you yourself) is still concerned about privacy issues, then the YouTube channel could be made private so that all students need to be registered with that channel before being allowed access. The disadvantage of this is that it adds another layer of administration and tends to cut into class time, since you need to explicitly go through the process of making sure the students are registered properly with Google and that they all know how to access their accounts correctly.

Within the YouTube channel under each video there are spaces for comments, a feature that you might want to make use of if you want your students to explicitly record their thoughts on their presentations. Having students comment on the videos they have watched ensures that the instructor is able to easily determine that the students have actually watched their presentations. One possibility might also be to have the students perform the self-evaluation part online, with peer evaluation carried out using paper and pen that they then hand in to the teacher and not viewable to other students in the class. This will depend on how the classes are structured and how the students interact. If they are a mature class, the instructor may want to ensure the students write more in depth comments, avoiding short one word phrases such as "good" or "great." In either case, pre-teaching grading and comments should ensure successful feedback and reflection.

Recording and taking the time to upload student presentations to YouTube ensures they take the classes more seriously and we have found it tends to promote more active participation and a higher performance level. In other words, peer pressure and peer review appear to affect performance in a positive way as there is implicit pressure on students because others will be watching them and there will be a lasting public record. A final benefit of putting presentations onto YouTube is that other faculty members and colleagues may be interested in what the students are doing, and it is quite easy to share this type of information with others by sending them links or files of the classroom presentations.

Conclusions

There has never been a better time than now to employ the use of high powered video cameras that most of us carry around with us in our classrooms; doing so is much easier than it used to be and the latest technology makes it easier and quicker to film, edit videos and then upload them to the internet. Our first example involved creating an original video for use as the introduction to a CBI module. Overall, it took less than 2 hours to edit the video, add music and upload it. The extra time and effort leaves one with an original product and a teaching tool that you can tailor to your own particular needs. Additionally, it may help resolve some classroom resistance, especially at the beginning of a lesson, as video/technology is clearly more intrinsically interesting for students, creates more interactive lessons, and allows students to see the materials and enables them to better comprehend your lesson. And it certainly breaks the ice if students see the teacher in a new light or as a 'movie star' or 'producer'. Our second example also showed that it is a lot simpler than one might imagine to record student presentations and upload them quickly to the Internet; then provide them with ample opportunities for self or peer evaluation online. These things are a lot more difficult and time consuming to carry out within the traditional classroom. These are just two examples of how we use the video technology in our phones and tablets to both stimulate and motivate students in CBI classes in our classrooms. However, the sky is the limit and we think that making an effort to use the very powerful tools that most of carry around to enhance our classroom experience can be a very rewarding experience for both teachers and students alike. Finally, we want to reiterate that just as with anything technology related, there will always be a learning curve, but it is not as steep as you might think.

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Appendix A

Classroom plan for whole reading lesson using 'Petroleum Man'

1. Warm-up: Pre-reading and discussion (Video)

Designed to complement the theme of the lesson and get students thinking about the theme of food. Play the video and have the students complete a table listing the foods the man ate, and where they think the foods possibly came from. Then discuss the answers as a class. Possible answers are that the coffee comes from Kenya or Brazil; the orange juice from China or the US; the banana from the Philippines; the cereal from Europe, and so on. Approaching an introduction with a short video definitely stimulates and excites the students, and is an uncomplicated way to activate background knowledge of the topic. In addition, it breaks up the lesson and moves away from a reading lesson to a lesson using video.

2. The principal idea

Students are instructed to read the passage quickly to look for the gist, to get them thinking about what the principal idea is about, as it might not be obvious from the title. Some of the passage was left blank for follow up exercises later in the lesson. The point here is to have the students understand that their breakfasts (and indeed all food) indirectly contain or use fossil fuels (primarily oil) and that it takes more energy to make and get the food to you than is actually in the food itself. (**10 minutes**)

3. Comprehension.

Students are asked to examine the text again, and to complete the true or false comprehension exercise to encourage a deeper understanding of the meaning. They are also asked to fix any mistakes if the answers are false. This way, they are practicing structure / form and it militates against guessing. The teacher should walk around monitoring students/offering encouragement as appropriate. Answers are solicited and put on the board. (**20 minutes**)

4. Group work

1. This section is designed to give students the chance to apply what they have learned in the text at a deeper cognitive level. This requires students to articulate and process the content and stimulate use of new vocabulary they have learned up to this point. Note: As there are no exact answers for this, students are encouraged to help each other devise what they think are the best answers. Each group will put their answers on the board, into three columns with information added from other groups in the class until we have what the class considers the most accurate. The teacher's role here is generally hands off, although if one group has too few members, or if groups look as if they are in trouble, then encouragement should be offered as appropriate. (**20 minutes**)

2. Encouraging deeper thinking

This is based on lines 42–46 of the reading. In their groups, students consider how they might determine how much oil is in their food. There is no right or wrong answer here and it is rather an opportunity for the students to apply what they have learned in the text with their own knowledge/ideas to devise reasonable and plausible answers. The teacher might mitigate this, and give hints if appropriate and/or scaffold information as needed. The original text might be displayed on the overhead as a final example. (**20 minutes**)

5. Homework

Finally, the students are given the chance to think about the situation as Japanese citizens and it is hoped the statistic that Japan is only 40% self-sufficient in food production will alarm them. Using ideas/vocabulary from the text, students are encouraged to devise their own ideas. The question is purposely left open to encourage extensive responses. This consolidates their knowledge and adds a writing component making it a more rounded lesson.

Appendix B

"Petroleum Man", YouTube Link: http://youtu.be/qDkIlVA-z3M

What Great Teachers Do Differently

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One of the cornerstones of teaching is being professional so one can collaborate and cooperate with both peers and students within your school and community. This term can be difficult to define as teachers become busy. This paper discusses a field study done on seven interventions that "Great Teachers Do Differently" as prescribed by Dr John Whitaker and their effect on student performance. These include competence, establishing clear expectations, creating a positive atmosphere, keeping personal and professional life separate, planning, decision making and treating people respectfully.

プロ意識を持って教えるには、教育現場の同僚と子どもたちとの協力が必要であるが、これが教師の仕事をさらに忙しいものとしている。この論文では適性、分かりやすい目標設定、よい雰囲気の作り方、プライベートと仕事の分け方、計画の立て方、決断の仕方、ほかの人への敬意の示し方などの「よい教師が行う相違点」七つの点について論議している。さらにこれらがクラスでどのように学生の勉強の結果に影響するか議論します。

Why would students look at great teachers? If a student knows he or she has a great teacher, that student will inevitably think more highly of their school. Studying the methodologies of effective teachers is good for benchmarking ideas on how to improve our own teaching (Whitaker, 2004).

With some research, one can quickly find various opinions on teaching programs in Japan particularly about the JET Programme for ALTs (Assistant Language Teachers) (Constantine, 2013). According to Whitaker the people participating in any program make it effective or ineffective. When a program brings out the best in people, it can work very well. Effective teachers focus on the processes in any program and try to make it work for their school (Whitaker 2004, 2011). For example, several ALTs may resign during the course of a school year because of unruly students. However, an ALT who comes from an effective teacher training program and uses effective interventions will motivate his or her students and will stay (Amobi, 2006). It is better to first focus on the "who" then look at the "what" (Collins, 2001).

Name, G. (2014). What Great Teachers Do Differently, In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 331-338). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

Rationale for Study

A teacher's attitude toward the profession and students has a direct impact on the strategies and interventions that are implemented in the classroom. Therefore, there is a direct effect on student performance (Dornyei 1990, 2001, Shinde, Karekatti, 2012). By examining how some of Whitaker's interventions impact student performance, there is a strong rationale behind the importance of analyzing these practices. Whitaker (2004, 2011) said there are numerous simple self interventions such as setting clear expectations and benchmarked decision making that can help make a teacher more effective in the classroom. This paper explores these interventions and analyzes how they impact student performance.

Table 1
Total sample group differentiation by class

Experimental Group With Whitaker's Interventions This Group: (N=94)			Control Group Without Whitaker's Interventions This Group: (N=63)	
6-1 (N=31)	6-2 (N=31)	5-1 (N=32)	5-2 (N=32)	6-3 (N=31)

Total sample size: N=157

Many teachers take a remedial approach toward the lack of student performance by blaming outside socio-economic and environmental factors. This study shows that there are a wide array of interventions the teacher can take toward him or herself to gain an internal focus and significantly improve student performance in any classroom. A "great teacher", as Whitaker (2004, 2011) defines it, will use these interventions to his or her advantage when obtaining specific and measurable results in the language classroom. These interventions span multiple types of learners since their common element is the teacher.

Research Method and Identification of Respondent Groups

Multiple prescribed research methods from Sagor (2011) were implemented to construct data collection instruments in order to accurately quantify the effectiveness of Whitaker's interventions on the sample groups. Table 1 illustrates how these participants were divided and defines the control and experimental groups. The total sample size was 157 elementary school students (N=157) across five classes. Ninety three students (N=93) were sixth graders across three classes, while 64 students (N=64) were fifth graders across two classes. Each of these grade levels were divided into an experimental group in which Whitaker's interventions were implemented and a control group in which the interventions were not implemented. Using this type of group differentiation allowed accurate observation and compilation of the results. The experimental group had 94 students (N=94) which consisted of 62 sixth graders (N=62) across two classes and 32 fifth graders (N=32) in one class. The control group had 63 students (N=63) which consisted of 31 six graders (N=31) in one class and 32 fifth graders (N=32) in another class. All classes used the mainstream English curriculum set by the Ministry of Science and Education (MEXT) which is the *Hi, friends! 1* (Tokyo Shoseki, 2012) textbook for fifth grade and the *Hi, friends! 2* (Tokyo Shoseki, 2012), textbook for sixth grade.

The student population was fairly homogeneous and was from lower income and middle income class families, which was determined by the boundaries of the school zoning map. For privacy protection of the students and the school, all names remained anonymous. Types of data collection included counting the number of students who successfully completed an assignment and measuring the amount of time students took to complete that assignment or obey a teacher's command. Data was also measured across a finite amount time of 10 weeks to determine the trend of the effectiveness of some of Whitaker's prescribed interventions. All results were recorded and comparisons were analyzed between the experimental group and the control group.

"Great Teachers Establish Clear Expectations at the Start of the Year and Follow Them Consistently" (Whitaker, 2011, p. 31)

Being consistent in everything you do and using simple language, you can establish expectations your students will quickly pick up (Rice, 1991). For example, when I need to calm the class down, I go to the front of the room, put my index finger up to my mouth and say one time: "quiet please" and stand there silently. If

Table 2
Time in seconds taken to quiet classes down with and without Whitaker's prescribed interventions by grade level across 10 weeks

Week	Experimental Group With Whitaker's Interventions This Group: (N=94)			Control Group Without Whitaker's Interventions This Group: (N=63)	
	6-1 (N=31)	6-2 (N=31)	5-1 (N=32)	5-2 (N=32)	6-3 (N=31)
1	**30**	42	60	**72**	42
2	42	42	48	68	42
3	30	36	42	90	42
4	42	42	48	84	54
5	36	30	54	96	60
6	36	36	48	90	66
7	42	36	54	102	78
8	42	42	60	96	72
9	30	36	48	108	84
10	**36**	42	54	**120**	90

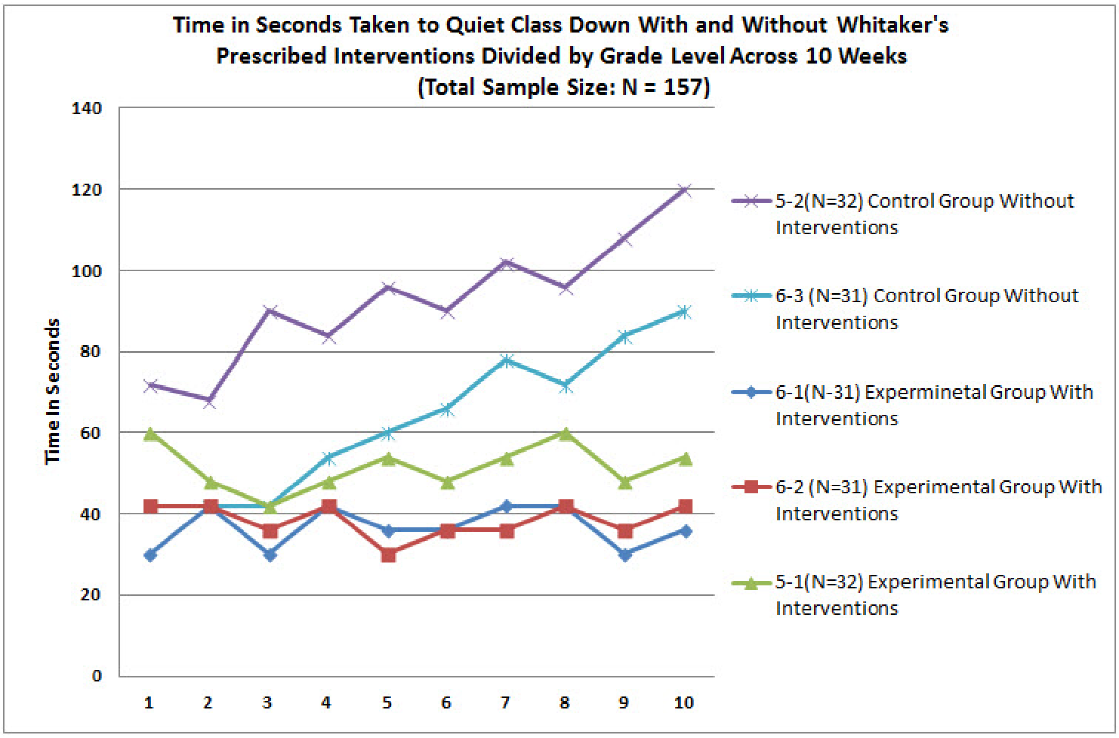

Figure 1. Graphical representation of Table 2 showing the trend of effectiveness for the time it took to quiet the class down with and without Whitaker's prescribed interventions of consistent procedures

I use this method, the students quickly realize your silence and within about one minute, the class will be quiet. I use this same procedure every time I need the class's attention. Also, a teacher should learn the students' nonverbal body language to gain insight in order to predict how they may behave (Rivers, 1977). It is important to set expectations and try to establish relationships with students so that they want to meet them (Whitaker, 2004, 2011).

Table 2 and Figure 1 are the results of implementing this expectation across 10 weeks. Looking at Table 1 (1st week) on the top highlighted line, the time it takes to quiet down the classes is very close together. Classes 5-2 (N=32) and 6-1(N=31) are the furthest apart at a 42 seconds difference (72 minus 30). The results show that by the (10th week) the difference in time it takes

Table 3

Comparison of the number of students who completed an assignment with and without Whitaker's prescribed interventions (teacher conduct and appropriate strategies)

Experimental Group (N=94)			Control Group (N=63)	
6-1 (N=31)	6-2 (N=31)	5-1 (N=32)	5-2 (N=32)	6-3 (N=31)
31/31	26/31	27/32	21/32	23/31
100%	83.9%	84.4%	65.6%	74.2%
Totals in Experimental Group			Totals in Control Group	
84/94			44/63	
89.4%			69.8%	

Total sample size: N=157

to quiet these classes down doubles to 84 seconds (120 minus 36). All other variables are the same except for the teacher being consistent with procedures.

Figure 1 accentuates the effectiveness of this intervention in a line graph. With all three of the control groups, as already defined in Table 1, the amount of time it took to quiet the class down stayed relatively the same. However, with the control groups, where this intervention was not implemented, the time only increased.

Great Teachers Know They Are the Variable in the Classroom" (Whitaker, 2011, p. 49)

When a good teacher sees that students are not coping with an assignment or performing poorly in class, the first person that the teacher looks at is him or herself. The best teachers take responsibility for their own teaching methodologies and try to understand how it affects their classroom and their institution. Strategies such as exploratory learning, guided reading, role plays, and differentiated instruction will motivate students by creating a positive classroom experience (Jamarillo, 2013). Also a teacher's beliefs on language acquisition and student learning can have a great affect on student performance (Shinde, Karekatti, 2012).

Looking at Table 3, there is a noticeable difference between the experimental group, where Whitaker's prescribed interventions were applied and the control group where they were not applied. In this case the main intervention was teacher conduct and implementation of appropriate strategies. The assignment completion rate in the experimental group was 19.6% higher than the control group (89.4% vs. 69.8%). There can be two different teachers in the same classroom and the students will perform differently depending on how the teacher conducts him or herself. Building relationships and credibility with the students and colleagues is just as important as how well the material is taught (Rice, 1991, Whitaker, 2011)

"Great Teachers Create a Positive Atmosphere in Their Classrooms and Schools" (Whitaker, 2011, p. 61)

The teacher's personality has a great impact on the classroom atmosphere which plays a large factor in attendance (Dornyei, 1990). Part of being professional is treating everyone with respect, including your students. Even great teachers do not like all of their students (Whitaker, 2004). However, they treat each student equally and praise the class consistently without playing favorites. Praise is a proven effective

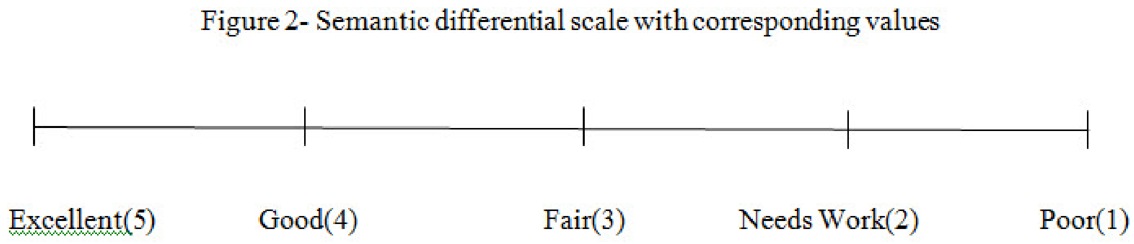

Figure 2. Semantic differntial scale with corresponding values

TABLE 4
Teacher's rating of student choral practice pronunciation using a semantic differential scale (1 to 5) with and without Whitaker's prescribed interventions (using effective praise)

Week	Experimental Group (N=94)			Control Group (N=63)	
	6-1 (N=31)	6-2 (N=31)	5-1 (N=32)	5-2 (N=32)	6-3 (N=31)
1	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
2	5.0	4.0	5.0	4.0	4.0
3	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.0
4	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.0	3.0
5	4.0	4.0	5.0	5.0	4.0
6	5.0	4.0	5.0	5.0	4.0
7	5.0	4.0	5.0	4.0	4.0
8	3.0	3.0	4.0	4.0	3.0
9	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
10	5.0	4.0	5.0	5.0	4.0
Average Per Class	4.4	4.0	4.6	4.3	3.8
Average Per Group		**4.33**		**4.05**	

research based strategy that will have a positive impact on the classroom atmosphere if implemented properly (Dornyei 1990, 2001, Whitaker, 2004, 2011). For praise to be effective it must be authentic, specific, immediate, clean and private (Whitaker 2003, 2011).

Table 4 is the compilation of results from a semantic differential scale (Figure 2) that was used to rate student choral pronunciation practice across 10 weeks using effective praise. The results are somewhat inconclusive since there is only a .28 difference (4.33 vs. 4.05) between the experimental group and the control group. However, one can only postulate what the results would be if the intervention of effective praise was not used. On the other hand with such a small difference, it is questionable whether or not the praise was "effective".

"Great Teachers Constantly Filter out the Negatives That Don't Matter and Share a Positive Attitude" (Whitaker, 2011, p. 67)

It is surprising how much negativity one can hear around a school. If enough negativity spreads around, other people will start to believe it, even if it is not true (Whitaker, 2011). The good news is that the impact a positive attitude can have on a teacher's decisions, implementation of strategies and student performance

Table 5

Comparison of the time it took the experimental group and the control group to complete an assignment with and without Whitaker's interventions (teacher proximity and individual student assistance)

Week	Experimental Group (N=94)			Control Group (N=63)	
	6-1 (N=31)	6-2 (N=31)	5-1 (N=32)	5-2 (N=32)	6-3 (N=31)
Hi, friends! 1 P. 31 (3 Hint Quiz)	N/A	N/A	4:15	7:00	N/A
Hi, friends! 1 P. 35 (Activity: Your Dream Time Schedule)	N/A	N/A	6:30	8:15	N/A
Hi, friends! 2 P. 23 (Activity 1: Teacher's Day and Interview)	3:40	4:20	N/A	N/A	6:30
Hi, friends! 2 P. 40 (Interview About Your Friend's Dream)	6:50	7:15	N/A	N/A	7:45
Hi, friends! 2 P. 40 (Declaring Your Dream)	5:00	5:15	N/A	N/A	6:15

Time is in minutes and seconds.

is profound (Shinde, Karekatti, 2012). Regardless of the motivation a student has for studying English, that reason becomes secondary to classroom related motivations like the teacher's attitude (Dornyei, 1990). One good way to convey a positive and professional attitude is to stop calling your teaching job "work", especially in front of students (Whitaker 2004, 2011). Another matter, which is difficult for many people, is to keep your job and personal life separate. A teacher is a performer who is in front of an audience. The students do not need to be concerned with whatever personal difficulties the teacher may be experiencing.

"Great Teachers Have a Plan and Purpose for Everything They do" (Whitaker, 2011, p. 83)

One of the homeroom teachers I worked with last year told me that every time two particular students worked together, they caused problems for the class. One has to wonder why that teacher continued having them work together. When I was teaching in a junior high school, there was one student who disrupted the class because he wanted attention. I decided to give it to him. While the JTE taught the class, I always sat beside that student. He never disturbed English class again and I built a good relationship with him.

In Table 5, assignment completion times were recorded and compared between the experimental group, where Whitaker's interventions were implemented and the control group where Whitaker's interventions were not implemented. The assignments were from *Hi, friends! 1* and *Hi, friends! 2* (Tokyo Shoseki, 2012). In this case the intervention was classroom management by using proximity control and assisting students individually. In all the assignments the experimental group completed them considerably faster than the control group. However, looking at Table 5 in the highlighted areas, there is a data anomaly where the experimental group completed the assignment only 30 seconds faster than the control group. Although reasons for this anomaly are inconclusive, possibilities include a mistake in data collection, inadvertent application of interventions or the students may really have completed the assignment within the recorded time.

"Great Teachers ask Themselves one Central Question: What Will the Best People Think?" (Whitaker, 2011, p. 87)

Too many people settle for a reason rather than asking for the purpose (Whitaker 2004, 2011). Whitaker (2011) said that great teachers make decisions with three questions:

1. What is the purpose?
2. Will this actually accomplish the purpose?
3. What will the best people think?

If a teacher addresses a concern with the whole class regarding poor performance on an assignment, the students who did well will wonder why they are being grouped together with students who did not complete the assignment well. It also allows students who did not put in effort to feel more comfortable and they lose their incentive to improve. However, if the teacher tells the class how well they did, the students who did not put in a good effort will think that everyone but them did better and they will strive to improve on the next assignment.

In his book *From Good to Great*, Collins (2001) talks about the hedgehog and the fox. The fox knows a little about everything while the hedgehog understands one large thing. He said that successful companies are like the hedgehog and focus on one core competency. Likewise, the best teachers focus on only one part of their profession.

Conclusion

What can teachers do before they can connect with students' minds? The first person a great teacher looks at is him or herself. This study examined seven interventions a teacher can do to have an internal focus and have a positive impact on their classes. Four of these interventions were quantified with field research and the results concluded that a small change in the teacher can have a vast quantifiable impact on student performance. We can stand up in front of the class and teach our hearts out. However, unless students know that we truly care for them, they won't care either. With just a little change, everyone can become a great teacher in their own way.

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Writing for Academic Publication: Participation and Collaboration

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Pressure to produce academic publications presents challenges for language teachers in Japan, yet can entail opportunities for collaboration and community building that may help to alleviate the stress and facilitate the process of trying to get published. In this article, three experienced JALT Writers' Peer Support Group (PSG) members share advice and describe forms of assistance the group offers to writers entering and exploring the realm of academic publication. They explain its support activities, map out potential venues for publication, suggest available resources and strategies, and point out the benefits of getting published. They also point out benefits of becoming a peer-reader with the PSG and provide advice on writing good reviews. This article concludes with calls for experienced writers to join the PSG and collaborate in its support activities.

日本の語学教師にとって、学術論文の投稿や出版の際の重圧は、解決すべき課題であるが、コミュニティを作って共同で取り組むことにより、そのストレスを軽減し、投稿や出版までの過程を効率よく進めることができる。本稿では、PSG（JALT著者相互支援グループ）の経験豊富なメンバー３人が、学術論文作成における初心者や、更に向上を目指す研究者に助言を行い、様々なサポートの方法を提示する。そのサポートの中で、執筆や出版の可能性のある研究を提示し、それに必要な資料や成功戦略を提案し、学術出版することの利点や有用性について指摘する。加えて、PSGに参加することの意義を示唆し、良い論評の書き方も教授する。経験を積んだ研究者や論文執筆者がより多くPSGに参加し、相互にサポート、協力し合い、コミュニティを広げていくことを目標とする。

The JALT Peer Support Group (PSG) is a team of writers and teachers, called peer-readers, who collaboratively assist other writers, who are writing in English as a first or other language, to develop their manuscripts to a (hopefully) publishable level. Writing is a hard process, and a single paper may need several rewrites and reviews before it is ready to be submitted for publication (Belcher, 2007). The PSG peer-readers help writers manage that process. They work with authors to develop overall writing skills, looking at paper organization and development and providing feedback on areas that can use more development, more research or possibly less information. In the beginning stages of the process, grammar and style will not be checked. However, writers are encouraged to submit subsequent versions to the PSG, so as papers progress, more sentence-level issues can be addressed. The PSG is associated with JALT, but is available to

Beaufait, P., Edwards, L., & Muller, T. (2014). Writing for academic publication: Participation and collaboration. In R. Chartrand, G. Brooks, M. Porter, & M. Grogan (Eds.), *The 2013 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 339-346). Nagoya, Japan: JALT.

help writers looking to publish with any publication.

The three authors, experienced teachers, readers for the PSG, and writers themselves, consider writing for academic publication an integral and necessary part of professional development. This article will provide advice to writers entering and exploring the realm of academic publication, and describe forms of assistance that the PSG offers. In addition, it outlines some of the benefits to becoming a peer-reader for the PSG and provides some tips and guidelines for writing strong reviews. Finally, it reiterates a call for experienced writers to join the PSG and collaborate in its support activities.

The Imperative for Language Teachers in Japan to Publish

The conversation in the international academic community surrounding the professional development of language teachers tends to center around the acquisition of teacher identity and skills for classroom language teaching, such as in Kanno and Stuart (2011) and Tsui (2007), but in Japan one expectation that many higher education employers have is for language teachers to conduct and publish research, which the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT, 2006) attributes to the tendency for “a faculty council” (p. 76) to be responsible for hiring, as Japanese faculty tend to put a stronger emphasis on research than teaching (Boyer, Altbach, & Whitelaw, 1994).

The implication for language teachers, whose background and training are often not research based, is that hiring committees, generally composed primarily of non-language teaching faculty, expect evidence of academic research and publications when hiring for language teaching positions (McCrostie, 2010). While publications are not the only evaluation criteria used (see McCrostie for examples of other criteria), they can represent a minimum criteria candidates are expected to meet in order to pass early stages of screening and, in a competitive higher education employment marketplace, more prestigious publication histories may facilitate job applicants in reaching final rounds of screening and job interviews. For full-time faculty, publications are also a major criterion of promotion (MEXT, 2006), and so interest in academic publishing tends to be ubiquitous throughout language teaching in higher education in Japan.

Research based on European scholars has shown that access to support networks is important to success in pursuit of academic publication (Lillis & Curry, 2010), both in terms of offering support in drafting and revising submissions for publication and in terms of facilitating access to publications (Curry & Lillis, 2010). A complication that many language teachers in Japan face is that the stage at which scholars are often socialized into the conversation of their field is during their PhD studies (see, for example, Aitchson, Kamler, & Lee, 2010). Yet in Japan an MA tends to remain the minimum required qualification for many language teaching positions (McCrostie, 2010), thus MA qualified teachers looking to publish their work may not have had the same socialization into writing for publication as PhDs.

A further difficulty language teachers based in Japan may face is that undergraduate English teaching is ubiquitous across majors, which leads many English teaching faculties to be quite small, meaning many language teachers may not have access to colleagues in their local contexts to help provide support for their academic writing activities (Adamson & Muller, 2008). Helping teachers to overcome these disparities is part of the charter of the PSG, by providing support to teachers in their academic writing pursuits.

Types of Academic Publications

Standards for evaluating publications in Japan tend to be based on individual universities and faculties, and there is considerable criticism of, and debate about, how publications are evaluated (see Seglen, 1997, for a critique of the most widely used publication evaluation systems internationally, the SCI and SSCI). Nevertheless, this section outlines information available regarding how publications are evaluated and many of the publication opportunities available to language teachers in Japan.

Academic Publications and Teachers' Résumés

The value particular papers are assigned is generally based on the geographical reach of the publication it appears in and the nature of the manuscript itself. Regarding geographical reach, for example, one faculty promotion review document for a public university, acquired as part of ongoing research, lists international publications as accruing ten points, national publications eight points, regional publications (incorporating multiple prefectures) six points, prefectural publications four points, city, town and village publications two points, and finally internal university publications (*kiyou*) one point. It is important to keep in mind that review committees consider more than a simple numeric score when reviewing applicants; ten *kiyou* publications almost certainly will not be assigned the same qualitative value as a single international publication, despite both being given ten points according to this formal evaluation scale. Also, how a publication is determined to be international versus national may vary across contexts.

Regarding the nature of manuscripts, one public university application required candidates to order their publications with book chapters first, followed by original articles, review articles, and finally "others" with the explicit instructions "Proceedings and academic reports should be listed as 'Others.'" The same document went on to ask for a list of conference presentations according to international conferences followed by 'domestic' conferences, with each list further subdivided according to invited speaker, symposium, and finally individual 'aural' presentation. If order in these lists is a sign of relative importance, one could interpret items appearing first on the list as being given relatively more weight than those at the end of the list. Yet most language teachers will not have book chapters as their first publications, and so the next sections turn to a discussion of the different available publications within and outside of JALT.

JALT Publications

JALT publishes two print publications nationally, *The Language Teacher*, a bi-monthly publication for members containing teaching practice articles, and *JALT Journal*, a biannual research journal. JALT also produces online peer-reviewed Proceedings of the National Conference annually. In addition to the national publications, every JALT SIG is required to have a publication. Information about the various SIGs and their publications is available via jalt.org. Furthermore, many SIGs, often in collaboration with JALT Chapters, hold a number of conferences and events annually, such as the PanSIG Conference, and many of these events offer an opportunity for presenters to contribute proceedings articles.

Other Venues for Publication

Within Japan, in addition to JALT, there are two associations that cater primarily to Japanese teachers of English, JACET and JACELE. Both of these have national conferences in August and regional chapter meetings at other times of the year. Outside of Japan, if you are interested in presentation and publication opportunities, an excellent resource is The Linguist List (http://linguistlist.org), which advertises calls for upcoming conferences, special issues of journals and book projects.

A Caveat or Two

If something looks too good to be true, it likely is, and this goes for presentation and publication opportunities as well. Some disreputable publishers solicit manuscripts from lists of conference presenters, and if you receive such an unsolicited request, checking the publisher's name against Beall's List (http://scholarlyoa.com) can help to verify whether the publication is legitimate. Disreputable publishers charge scholars exorbitant fees to publish their work, and while charging for publication is not always a sign of a disreputable organization (JACET and JACELE charge for publication), problematic publishers use hidden fees that are only made clear after a paper has been 'accepted' for publication. More information about this issue can be found in Brown and Cook (2013).

Writing and Collaborating with the PSG

Success in academic writing involves overcoming several obstacles, including developing a clean writing style, learning to make a point clearly, and addressing the fear of putting your ideas and beliefs on paper for others to read and discuss. Often the hardest part in writing is getting started: finding a suitable topic and angle, deciding on a thesis and figuring out how to approach your data. There are some things that can be done before you start writing that can help this part of the process be more manageable.

One great way to get started is by reading other papers in the same style or on the same topics that you are interested in. You can model your own writing style after these examples and use their format to help you layout your data. They are also a great place to find references that support your research. Also, if you know where you would like to submit your article for publication, read articles previously published there to get an idea of what kinds of articles they accept and the writing style used. Finally, if you are writing in a certain style for the first time, try to find an experienced writer to co-author with. For example, if you haven't written a research paper before, find a more experienced co-worker to work with in setting up and analyzing your study.

In the beginning stages of writing, correct formatting for references is not so important. However, be sure to keep copies of all sources you use or think you might use. It is a good idea to write a working bibliography that you can update as you go along, which lists all the sources you have looked at, used in your paper, or think are interesting, along with all the pertinent reference information. As much as possible, try to build this working bibliography using an APA style guide, such as the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association 6th Edition (2010) or the Purdue Online Writing Lab (http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/section/2/10/). It is easy to delete sources from a bibliography that are not used, but getting to the editing stage of a paper and realizing you cannot find all complete reference information for a key quote or passage is quite frustrating.

Contacting the PSG

Finally, when you have a draft ready for someone else to read, contact the PSG at http://jalt-publications.org/psg. Most papers submitted to the PSG still require quite a bit of work to make them publishable, so do not worry if your paper is still rough. In fact, submitting sooner could save you a lot of time and frustration as peer-readers often find that writers need to make fairly large changes to the layout and presentation of their ideas. Rather than writing several drafts on your own, and then being frustrated by realizing how far the paper still has to go, working together with a PSG peer may help you streamline and cut down the drafting process.

What Happens Next

When the coordinator receives a paper from a writer, she alerts the group and places the paper in a file on Google drive. Peer-readers can then look at the paper and decide if they are interested in the topic and able to provide feedback on it. With a growing number of peer-readers becoming involved in the PSG, the multiple areas of expertise available makes it easier to match authors and readers. Once two readers are found, the coordinator contacts the author again to let them know the paper is in the system and give them a time frame for the reviews to be finished.

It usually takes about a month for the readers to read the paper and write their reviews. When both reviews are finished and added to the file in Google drive, the Coordinator contacts the author again to give them access to the Google drive file with the reviews. In that way, the author can ask direct questions to the peer-readers through the online system and vice versa. Getting access to Google Drive requires having a Gmail account, which is free.

PSG readers themselves are keen on getting feedback on their feedback to writers, in order to enhance and promote the collaborative process. With this in mind, questions readers append to their reviews may focus on:

- What sorts of feedback the writers found most helpful,
- What suggestions they are likely to follow (or eventually decide not to) as they revise their papers,
- When they expect to complete revision of their papers, and
- Whether they would like someone in the PSG to take another look at their work when it reaches the next satisfactory stage of completion.

Who Has Used the PSG?

In 2012, PSG records indicated a ratio of individual non-Japanese to Japanese writers, who had availed themselves of PSG readership, of almost two to one (9:5). However, two of the Japanese writers had submitted two or more papers, and occasionally resubmitted them for second or third readings. So, in general, the PSG seems to have served both Japanese and non-Japanese writers nearly equally. To find out how writers felt about PSG services, the group conducted an online survey in April 2013, mainly "1) to collect feedback from writers who have submitted papers to the JALT Writers' Peer Support Group (PSG) on one or more occasions; and 2) to use the information ... to improve and promote PSG activities" (PSG Survey of Writers, April 20, 2013).

Though the survey went out to eleven writers, whose active addresses the PSG had, only three responded. Nevertheless, comments they provided guide on-going PSG activities. Here are two from the most active Japanese writer:

1. "Comments on overall organization of the paper and detailed feedback on the paragraph level were very helpful to revise my work."
2. "How helpful and effective it is for writers, in particular non-native writers, to receive feedback from native speakers who are in the field of EFL[!]"

That same writer also remarked that feedback on grammar would be helpful, but she would not want to waste it on parts of papers that may not remain in the final version. Next, here are two comments from non-Japanese writers who had submitted papers only once:

1. "[T]he thing I remember most is the comment about the lack of unity in our group. ... [T]his clearly helped us to zoom in on this point and turn it into a positive aspect of the paper."
2. "[P]roofreaders for journals often point out failings without offering ways to improve. PSG's comments were constructive and gave clear ideas for improvement."

Those comments summarize the aims of the PSG.

Becoming a Peer-Reader for the PSG

One way to become more involved in JALT, and the publishing community at large, is to volunteer for groups like the PSG. There are many benefits of becoming a peer-reader. If you are interested in peer reviewing for other venues, this is a great place to start. The PSG does not actually publish papers themselves, so there is less pressure to get it right. All papers submitted to the PSG will still be reviewed and edited by the publication they are submitted to. Also, we use a collaborative review system that allows less-experienced readers to work with those with more experience and gives new readers a chance to read finished reviews in our archives in order to gain ideas about what to focus on, the style the review should be written in, and other aspects of feedback to writers. Reading what and how other people write is a great way to not only hone your own writing skills but also discover other teachers and writers who are interested in the same topics as you and build a writing network that could lead to collaboration in the future or provide you with valuable insights into your own research.

Providing Effective Feedback

The work of the PSG is, rather than providing authors with a one-time, impassive reading of their work, more like an online writing conference in which authors and readers work collaboratively, possibly over several versions of a paper, to improve and polish it. The feedback provided in such a conference (or review) can focus on two areas: feedback on content and feedback on form (Williams, 2003). Usually the PSG peer-readers provide feedback on content by helping authors organize their ideas and pointing out areas that could use more development, more research or possibly less information.

However, according to Graves (1982) no matter what the focus is, there are a few characteristics that make up a good review. First, the focus of the review should be on just a few points; focusing on too many issues at once can be overwhelming and discouraging. Also, the reviewer should try to demonstrate solutions to problems, especially for content or organizational issues. And finally, the reviewer should help stimulate pleasure in the writing process by giving positive feedback and encouragement. While keeping these points in mind, in writing the review, it is best to follow a 3-step process: pre-review, review, and post-review.

Pre-review

When first looking at a paper, it is important to read it through a few times before writing any notes. Often on the first read-through it is hard to digest all that is being said and to even see the gems that are in front of you. The papers received by the PSG are often "diamonds in the rough" and it is not until the third or fourth read-through that the diamond becomes visible and a path to that diamond starts to emerge. It is also important, if provided, to review the writer's goals for the paper, what their process has been so far, and to find out if the paper has been reviewed already and what that feedback was. If the writer has any specific questions, be sure that you read their paper with the goal of answering those questions.

Writing the Review

The PSG works mainly with emerging writers. We want to encourage them to build their skills and continue writing in the future. Therefore, it is important to remember that writing of any kind, at any level, is a very personal activity; by putting words on paper, writers are placing a part of themselves in the public arena. The peer-readers should acknowledge this by taking the writers' feelings into account and addressing the topic being written about; the author chose this topic because it is something they feel strongly about, and have probably put a lot of time into. Here is an example from an actual review:

> Example of Feedback to a Writer
> *... I've read through your paper, and feel like you have two different papers here: one which is explaining the efficacy of using <technology> in the classroom, and another which is reporting the results of a student survey you conducted on the usefulness of the use of <technology> in your classroom. I think that the better of the two papers, and the more meaningful to your readers, is the former, talking about how to implement <technology> in the language classroom, rather than the latter. I think, though, that your paper would benefit from reorienting your introduction to state this purpose at the outset in order to make it clear to your readers what your intentions are from the start. ...*

Giving positive feedback on the interest of the research or referencing an interesting fact or finding first, can help put the writer at ease and help them listen to more critical comments later (Pryle, 2009). Next, be sure to address specific questions or concerns that the author has before addressing areas that you feel need clarification, expansion, reduction, more research, or other major issues. As stated above, it is helpful to provide models for the authors to follow, so peer-readers often provide sample outlines for the paper, propose possible section headings and/or rewrite a passage to demonstrate writing style. Finally, remind the author that all suggestions are theirs to accept or reject and that if they have any questions about your review, they should not hesitate to ask; it is collaboration after all and in the end the paper is the author's, not yours. The review itself is inserted at the beginning of the paper in the Google document. Therefore, write all general remarks and comments in letter style.

If you would like to make in-text comments, it is possible to do this in Google Drive. Use in-text comments to indicate specific areas you feel the author can focus on or to ask specific questions. However, use these sparingly as they can get overwhelming. Also, as most of the comments will be general in nature and the paper will probably undergo significant changes before reaching the editing stage, do not worry about pointing out typos or grammar/word usage errors when doing first readings.

Post-Review

Before pasting your review into the Google document, be sure to read through and review it for clarity and completeness. Then, when you are satisfied, paste it into the document and email the coordinator and other collaborators. Do not worry if it is not perfect; as this is collaboration, the coordinator and others can comment and provide feedback on your review and you are able to ask questions yourself, if you would like. The author will not be granted access to the file until all the reviews are completed and checked by the coordinator, so any in-house conversations can be

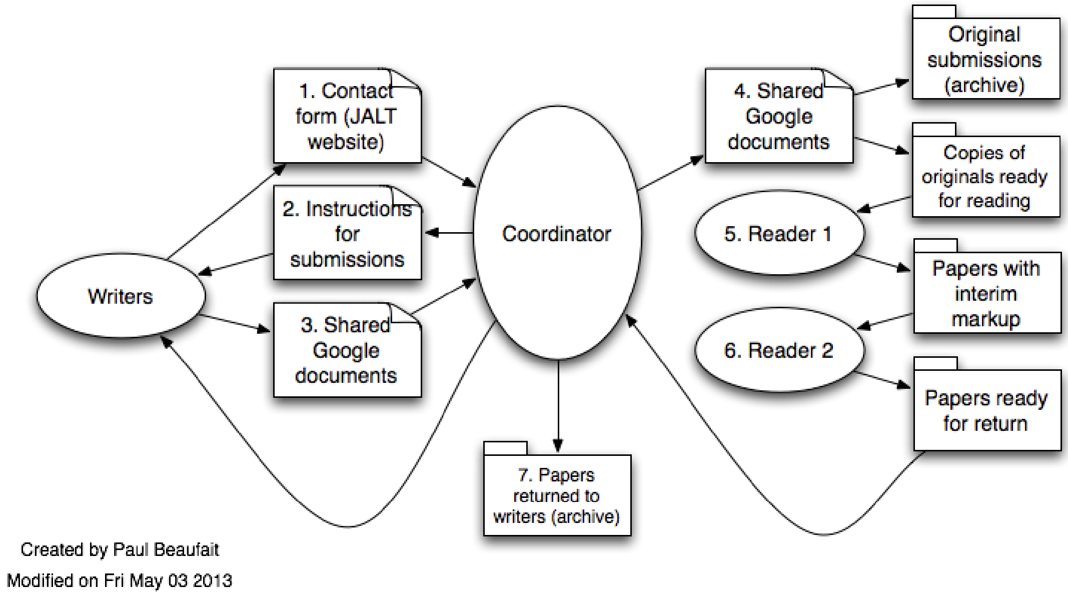

Figure 1. JALT Peer Support Group (PSG) workflow, May 2013. This figure represents the coordinated readership process of the PSG.

deleted before the author sees them.

PSG Workflow

When people become members of the PSG, the coordinator adds them to the PSG mailing list. Then, when they share a Gmail address with the PSG, they will get access to PSG resources on Google Drive, which include a number of received, in-process, and already reviewed papers. This enables new PSG members to read through papers with reviews written by other PSG members to get ideas of both the types of papers we review and how to write reviews. Files are stored in Google Drive, in a shared PSG resources folder. The flowchart in Figure 1 represents the PSG workflow: from writers to coordinator, to readers, and then back again.

Our current workflow calls for writers to contact the PSG coordinator, with whom they share papers in Google Drive, granting the coordinator editing privileges (steps 1-3). In turn, the coordinator shares copies of the files with PSG members, in earmarked sub-folders accessible to the group (step 4). Then readers a) volunteer to read particular papers, and b) appraise the coordinator and one another of their progress by:

1. Moving annotated papers from one earmarked folder to the next, and
2. Sending update messages *from the papers within Google Drive* using the email collaborators function.

When annotated papers are ready for return, the coordinator shares them back to the writers, and archives the copies for future PSG reference.

Hopefully, the preceding overview of PSG activities, peer-reader responsibilities, and workflow will encourage more language teaching professionals in Japan to join the group and get involved in collaborative, peer-to-peer readership and support.

Call for New PSG Members

Now more than ever, with the current job market in Japan, academic publication is important in getting that next great teaching position. The JALT Peer Support Group is a valuable resource that can help emerging writers get published as well as build their résumés. It offers a multitude of other benefits for authors and peer-readers alike. So, we hope you will contact us with papers-in-progress you would like assistance with and/or join us as a peer-reader yourself.

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