



*Expand Your Interests*

# Pan SIG Journal 2017

*Edited by Anthony Brian Gallagher*

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

## Message from the editor

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The 16<sup>th</sup> Annual PanSIG conference was held at Akita International University, Akita, Japan from May 19<sup>th</sup> to 21<sup>st</sup>, 2017. The theme was “Expand Your Interests.” This was a collaborative effort from 26 Special Interest Groups (SIGs) within the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). The conference was highly successful and participants were able to attend presentations on a variety of topics from a wide spectrum in the fields of language teaching and learning.

This journal represents the third edition of the annual PanSIG Journal in its latest form—following 13 years of proceedings publications beginning with 2002—which includes a selection of articles from the 2016 conference. With a blind peer review process and dedicated reviewing and editing committees, along with motivated and professional authors, the quality of the articles submitted to the 2017 PanSIG Journal were consistently high. The final articles which were peer selected for inclusion in the 2017 PanSIG Journal are a representative effort from the conference and work from a number of different SIGs on a diverse range of topics were accepted for publication in this year’s volume. These include many different articles which focus on a range of topics of research or teaching practice and serve to highlight the effort and creativity of the participants of the conference and the members of the SIGs involved.

Special thanks to Matthew Porter at Fukuoka Jo Gakuin Nursing University for so quickly allowing me to take over journal responsibilities and to Aleda Krause and Jennie Roloff Rothman for their dedication and support in reviewing and advising.

I would like to thank all of the contributors for submitting their articles for this publication. We are also very grateful for the readers of the submissions who suggested changes to the authors and contributed to the high quality of this volume. The success of this collection is a cumulative effort from a number of hard-working volunteers who dedicate large amounts of their precious time into putting together such a quality journal. We hope that you will enjoy reading the articles and that you can gain some insight for your professional development. Congratulations to all the contributors to this edition of the PanSIG Journal 2017.

August 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2018

Anthony Brian Gallagher,

Editor-in-Chief, PanSIG Journal 2017

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



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Selected articles from the 2017 PanSIG Conference Expand Your Interests

Akita International University, Akita Prefecture, Japan

Artwork courtesy of Jim George and James Dunn



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# PanSIG Journal 2017

## PDF Version

PanSIG 2017 was held May 19-21 at Akita International University (AIU) in Akita City, Akita Prefecture, Japan. AIU was a supporting institution (or cosponsor) of PanSIG 2017, and we are grateful for their support.

Thank you to everyone who helped make this conference a success!

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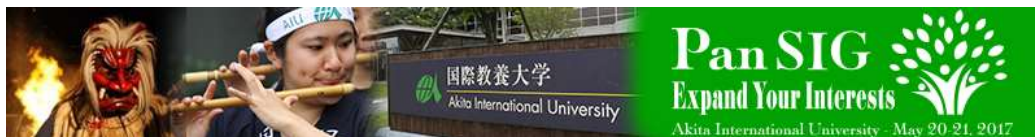
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Edited by Anthony Brian Gallagher

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## Table of Contents

Assessing Language Vitality and Endangerment of Pumi Language in China <i>An, Wanner, Yu &amp; Ono</i>	4
Social Emotional Learning and Mental Health Issues in Japanese Education <i>Arao</i>	18
[r] Interference in Learning Spanish as a Foreign Language <i>Campos</i>	26
Enhancing Learner Experience Through Augmented Reality in High School <i>Frazier</i>	33
Neuroscience in the Classroom: Understanding How New Information is Processed <i>Haga</i>	44
Using Online Student Response Games for Vocabulary Review <i>Harrold</i>	54
The Effectiveness of Team Teaching in Japanese High Schools <i>Hasnain</i>	59
Critical Thinking Through the Study of History <i>Hutchinson</i>	67
“G-PACS”: Process of Development and Effects of Political Simulation Games <i>Ishikawa</i>	75
Making Academic Writing Interactive <i>Jones</i>	81
Parents' Interpretation of the Hafu Referent <i>Kanai</i>	97
New and Old TOEIC L&R: Score Comparison and Test-Taker Views on Difficulty Level <i>Kanzaki</i>	104
Extending Class Presentations beyond the Classroom With Moxtra <i>Knight</i>	113
Discovering Students' Needs for a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Course <i>Larking</i>	119
How Do Self-Directed Learners Keep Going? The Role of Interest in Sustained Learning <i>McLoughlin &amp; Mynard</i>	128
Supervising “Sotsurons” (Japanese Graduation Theses) <i>Noguchi &amp; Anderson</i>	136
Survey on Americans' Understanding of Made-in-Japan English Words <i>Norman</i>	144
Approaching L2-Only Classrooms With Real-Time Anonymous Self-Reporting <i>Rector</i>	153
Developing Academic Lexis: An Interactive Approach <i>Reed &amp; Owens</i>	160
Developing a New Locus of Control Instrument: The Abridged Kambara Scale <i>Rupp &amp; Isemonger</i>	166

Students as Content Teachers: Peer-Taught Lessons in EFL Classes	174
<i>Taylor</i>	
Using Modern Tabletop Games in Your EFL Classroom	181
<i>Vaittinen</i>	
Multimodality and the Song: Exploiting Popular Song in the University Classroom	188
<i>Walker</i>	
A Case for Metaphor and Metonymy in the Classroom	196
<i>White</i>	
Concept Mediation by Elementary L2 Learners	203
<i>Williams &amp; Naganuma</i>	
Promoting EFL College Learners' Language Learning Strategies Through Facebook Interaction	211
<i>Yang</i>	
GILE SIG Forum: Educating for Global Citizenship	218
<i>Basio, Ibe, Matsui &amp; Rothman</i>	
Literature in Language Teaching SIG Forum Report	228
Challenges and Issues of Publishing Second Language Poetry Writing Research	
<i>Iida</i>	
Publishing in the Journal of Literature in Language Teaching	
<i>McNabb</i>	
Revisiting Literature as Authentic Content and Encouraging Reader Response in Japanese University Students	
<i>Aoki</i>	
The Literature in Language Teaching SIG's Current Position and Future Directions	
<i>McIlroy</i>	
Expanding Interests: Report on the Plenary Panel	234
<i>McIlroy, Aoyama, Bradford, Naganuma &amp; Ozeki</i>	

# Assessing Language Vitality and Endangerment of Pumi Language in China

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The Pumi language, spoken in Yunnan Province, China, is one of the minority languages that are currently in danger of going extinct. I have conducted research assessing the linguistic vitality of the language in question, based on six UNESCO Language Endangerment Index indicators and three of China's new indicators, in order to explore causes of the decline of the Pumi language and to search for appropriate countermeasures for protecting the language. Findings from this survey show that the degrees of language endangerment of Xiagaoping Village and Luoguqing Village are quite different. However, the Pumi language is generally endangered, with intermarriage, ethnic distribution, and tourism and traffic conditions as the primary reasons for language endangerment. The research also confirmed a welcome finding that the current local people have the strong will to protect and pass on the language of their ethnic group, which is quite different from results of previous research.

中国の雲南省で使われているプミ語は、現在絶滅の危機にある少数民族の言語の1つである。本研究では、この言語の衰退原因を明らかにし、言語の保護と継承のための適切な対策を探するために、UNESCO言語危険の6指標と中国の新しい3つの指標に基づいて、言語の持続力評価を行った。この研究結果は、2つの村の言語危険度がかなり異なることを示している。しかし、プミ語は近親結婚、民族分布、観光事業と交通事情で、存続が危ぶまれている。また、先行研究とは違って、この研究を通して原住民が自分の言葉を保護し、継承する強い意志を持っていることが確認できたことは嬉しい結果である。

As a large multinational state, China is composed of 56 ethnic groups and the total population is 1.37 billion. Currently, about 60 million people use minority languages (Upholding, 2010). Recently, some minority languages that are an important part of multiculturalism are accelerating towards becoming endangered and extinct. The intensification of endangerment of a language threatens the inherent balance of the language system, which is a serious challenge to the pattern of language and culture, and thus it triggers a language crisis in the world. Therefore, it is imperative to take action to protect the endangered languages.

Assessing the vitality of endangered languages is a prerequisite for the protection of endangered languages (Dixon, 1997; Dorian, 1992). At the international level,

there are many models for evaluating language vitality, such as GIDS (Fishman, 1991), EGIDS (Lewis & Simons, 2010), and LEI (Lee & Van Way, 2016). Among them, the UNESCO Index is considered to be the most authoritative method (Janhunen & Salminen, 1993; Moseley, 2010). Due to China's peculiarities, some of the evaluation criteria are not in line with China's national conditions. For example, a Chinese scholar, Sun Hongkai, once clearly pointed out that UNESCO's vitality indicators "are generally applicable, but some do not exactly match China's situation" (Sun, 2006). In this case, based on international research, a series of new assessment methods were proposed based on China's facts - The Endangered Language Indicator System (Dai, 2001), Three Indicators (Sun, 2001), and the Language Ecological



Monitoring Grading Index System and Language Ecological Quality Grading Evaluation Criteria (Xiao & Fan, 2011). However, two critical problems still exist: (a) the previous language methods either are not suitable for China's national conditions or only partially focus on limited indicators, therefore a more systematic and comprehensive language assessment method is necessary; and (b) previous delivered research only focused on several influential minority languages such as Tujia, Xiandao, and Buyiang minority Languages using old field survey datasets (Sun, 2001; Xu, 2001), however, some other minor minority languages, for example, the Pumi language, have their particularities and thus should also be investigated to get a more comprehensive understanding of the endangered language problem. Language vitality is a dynamic process; its scope and activities are constantly changing, so an updated field survey is also important. Therefore, the contribution of this research is a proposal for a new language assessment method to assess the state of language vitality of the minority Pumi language by using the latest field survey datasets.

### **Methodology**

This research took the Pumi language as a study case. Two typical areas, as shown in Figure 1, were selected for a field investigation. One is the Xiagaoping Village and the other one is Luoguqing Village. Both of these two areas are located in Lanping Bai and Pumi Autonomous County of Yunnan Province. Unlike other small ethnolinguistic groups in China, this language is rapidly being replaced by stronger languages. Even in the main residential district where Pumi language preservation is relatively complete, the language vitality is also declining.

#### **Flowchart of Methodology**

First, we administered a questionnaire and did interviews (see details in Appendix A and B) to obtain the updated indicator information that is related to language vitality assessment.

Following this, we analyzed the statistical information of each indicator. Moreover, finally, we qualified the endangerment degree of each indicator according to the criteria of UNESCO's Language Vitality and Endangerment framework for evaluating the Language Vitality of the Pumi language. Thus, this article mainly includes three different research methods. First, the Literature Research Method by which the researcher collects and analyzes literature to identify the terms was used to clarify a series of indicators that can be used to evaluate the vitality of the Pumi Language.

Second, we used the Field Investigation and Statistical Analysis Method, which involves the researcher visiting the minority regions in China to collect data through semi structured interviews and questionnaires and then evaluate the Pumi language situation. And third, the Comparative Analysis Method was used, which involves comparing the situations in the different study areas (Xiagaoping Village and Luoguqing Village) to conclude the language vitality results and further get the reasons for the endangerment.

### **Questionnaires and Interviews**

The content of the questionnaire is shown in the Appendix. Because of a lack of investigation partners, tough objective conditions, and limited time, the survey finally consisted of a total of 40 questionnaires in the two villages, 14 of which came from Xiagaoping Village and 26 from Luoguqing Village. For interviews, the author visited 11 Pumi people, including the village heads, a civil servant, a secondary school teacher, two merchants, and some ordinary villagers. They gave relatively detailed answers from the macro and micro perspective about the Pumi language. Figure 2 shows the respondents' backgrounds. The sample contained enough variety to judge it as a fairly representative sample of the populations of the two villages.

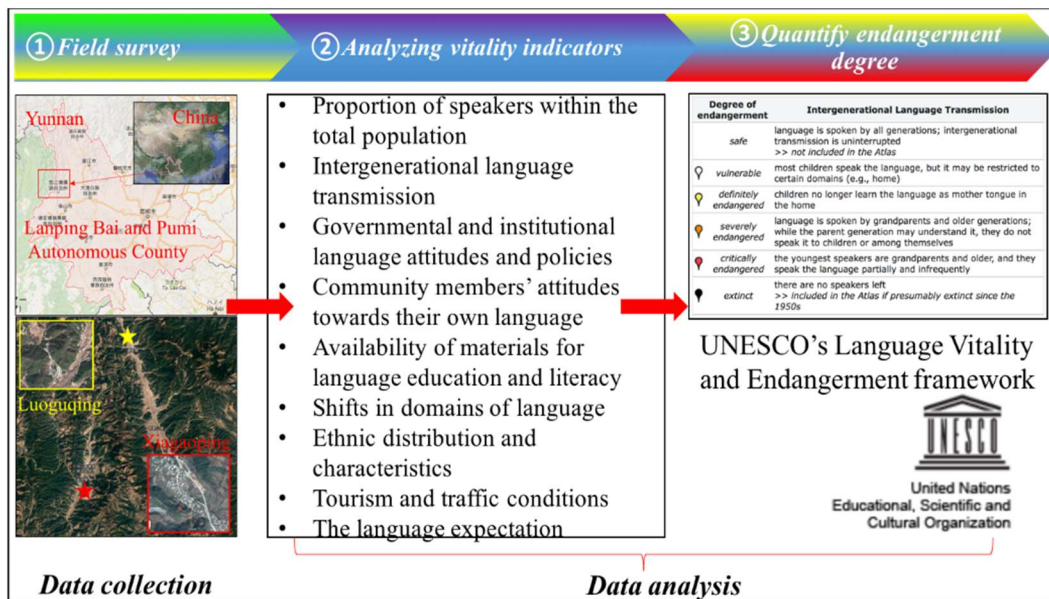


Figure 1. Flowchart of methodology adopted in this study.

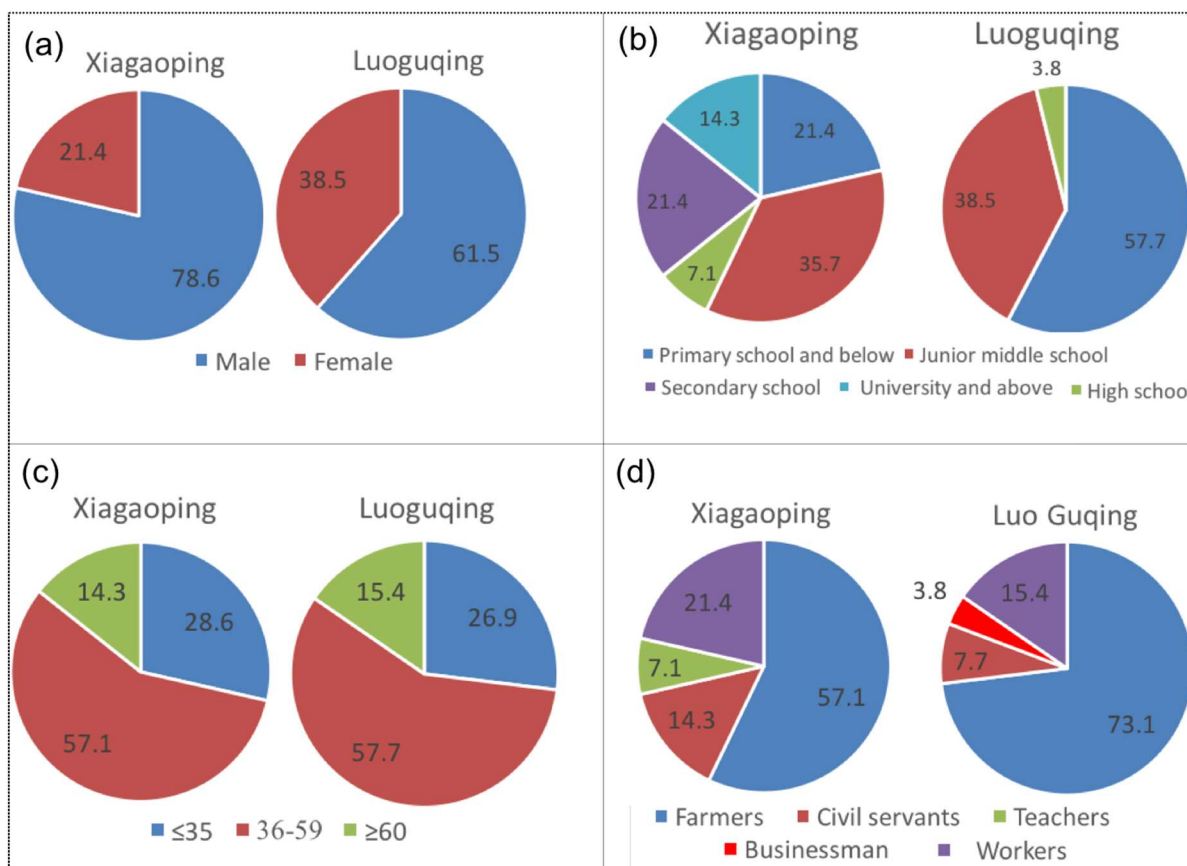


Figure 2. Information about the interview data: (a) the gender ratio of the respondents in the two villages, (b) the educational level of the respondents in the two villages, (c) the age ratio of the respondents in the two villages, and (d) the occupations of the respondents in the two villages.

## Results and Discussion

### Analyzing the Language Vitality Indicators

#### The proportion of speakers within the total population.

Pumi ethnic is a multilingual ethnic group and the Pumi people commonly can speak more than one language (Li, 1983). Our investigation shows that all the respondents in Luoguqing Village and Xiagaoping Village can speak at least two languages, and half of them can speak three languages. In Xiagaoping Village, the proportion of the people who can speak the Pumi language is only 7.1% (1 respondent). In Luoguqing Village, the first language of all the people is the Pumi Language (26 respondents). This means all the people can speak the Pumi language in Luoguqing Village, but very few people of Xiagaoping Village can speak Pumi language. The results of the respondents from Xiagaoping Village also confirmed that there are almost no people who speak the Pumi language there. Because of mixing with a large number of Bai people, they need to communicate with the Bai people, and their main language has shifted into Bai language now.

While respondents of Luoguqing Village said all the villagers use the Pumi language, which they learned while they were children, but when they went out for studying or working at a job, they began to learn other languages to communicate with other ethnic people. From this perspective, living scattered and mixed with other ethnics indeed is an important factor for the use of the Pumi language.

#### Intergenerational language transmission.

In Xiagaoping Village, the proportion of intermarriages among the respondents' parents is 30%, and half of them can speak the Pumi language, but only 7.1% of the next generation can speak the Pumi language. The declining trend of intergenerational language transmission is obvious. However, in Luoguqing Village, the preceding generation does not have intermarriage phenomenon and their skill in the Pumi language was proficient. The Pumi language situation among the next generation is well preserved. Xiagaoping Village interviewees said that the number of their fathers and grandparents who can speak Pumi language is limited, and now only a few elderly people can speak it.

Today's children also don't speak the Pumi language and they usually choose the Chinese or Bai language as their main language. At the same time, the phenomenon of intermarriage in their village is very common. However, Luoguqing Village interviewees said they learned the Pumi language from childhood, from generation to generation; thus now all the children also can speak the Pumi language.

They also accept intermarriage, but the intermarriage phenomenon in their village is extremely limited. Thus, the intergenerational difference in the use of the Pumi language in the two villages is obviously from their parent's generation; and the next generations became completely different. In Xiagaoping Village, the high rate of ethnic intermarriage results in their children usually ending up giving up the language of their ethnic group. This must be one of the important reasons for the endangerment of the Pumi language.

#### Shifts in domains of language.

Language domain of use is another very important factor in the language vitality. To a certain extent, it reflects the language user's attitude and value tendencies. Therefore, the shift of domains of language is a good indicator when evaluating the vitality of the endangered language. A language domain of use in this survey includes the following groups: those that communicate with parents and elders at home, those that communicate with siblings and peers at home, those that communicate with their child or junior at home, and those communicate with their classmates after school as well as use it in the market and in their village meetings. Then these domains are divided into two cases—communicating in a single language and two languages in each scenario.

When they communicate with a single language in each scenario, the situations of Xiagaoping Village and Luoguqing Village have a significant difference. The Xiagaoping Village groups (Figure 3) show that there are no people who use the Pumi language in each scenario. In Luoguqing Village (Figure 4), the respondents often communicate with the local people in the Pumi language and communicate with nonlocal people in Chinese dialects. The

Pumi language holds an absolute advantage over all the languages. But when the Pumi community members communicate with their parents, their siblings and peers, and the next generation, the proportion of their heritage language usage decreased gradually. This point also proves the existence of a decrease of intergenerational language transmission in place. In the case of communicating in two languages in each scenario, other minority languages and the Chinese dialect are predominant in both of the villages mentioned above; the Pumi language is rarely used.

The main language of the respondents in Xiagaoping Village has basically shifted to other minority languages; the use of Chinese dialects also has a gradually developing trend. The common language of Luoguqing Village is still the Pumi language, which is widely used for most social occasions. But in the meantime, the proportional use of the Pumi language has a slight intergenerational decrease.

### **Community members' attitudes towards the language of their ethnic group.**

A proportion of 42.9% and 84.6%, respectively, of the respondents in Xiagaoping and Luoguqing stated that the Pumi language is their favorite language. Both villages agree that Chinese dialects are the most useful languages (Figure 5). Only 35.7% and 46.2%, respectively, of the respondents in Xiagaoping and Luoguqing stated that the Pumi language is easy to learn. Almost all the respondents in both villages believe that the Pumi language is cordial. Most of the respondents hold the opinion that the social influence of the Pumi language is highly significant, the proportion in Xiagaoping and Luoguqing is 50% and 73.1%, respectively (Figure 6). In terms of the respondents' expectations of the future of the Pumi language (Figure 7), it is obvious that most of the respondents in the two villages not only want to study the Pumi language themselves, but also hope their friends and relatives around them study the Pumi language. Although the local people agree that Pumi language has a poor social function, they strongly desire that the government should take measures to protect and maintain the Pumi language.

Regarding the question "Which kind of education mode do you want your next generation to receive in the school?" a proportion of 78.57% and 80.77% of the respondents, respectively, in Xiagaoping Village and Luoguqing Village strongly hope their next generation receives bilingual education in Chinese and the Pumi language. The villagers in both places also agreed that bilingual education is necessary. They believe they cannot lose their heritage language. "Now, the policy of protecting minority language has been issued, so I hope the government can further realize it," one of the Pumi villagers of Luoguqing Village said. He also said that he had even tried to have bilingual education in his private kindergarten, but his kindergarten went bankrupt at last because of a lack of funds.

### **Availability of materials for language education and literacy.**

The Pumi language has no written form. When writing the Pumi people in Lanping County, the interviewees always use Chinese characters or the Chinese characters which are phonetically similar to the Pumi language to represent the Pumi language.

In fact, there is much research on the ontology of the Pumi language. Some practitioners also have implemented their own experiments. For example, Sizhi Ding, in 1995, devised a pan-dialectal orthography as a material for literacy and bilingual education to expand the Pumi language use in Dayang Village (Ding, 2007). In 2010, the Ninglang County Traditional Culture Association set up a Pumi bilingual teaching class in their national primary school. They used Tibetan to spell the Pumi language and developed three different teaching materials (Ane, 2014). However, these attempts were unsuccessful in the end, as they could not be accepted universally and hence were not really implemented. Therefore, so far, no orthography is available to the community.

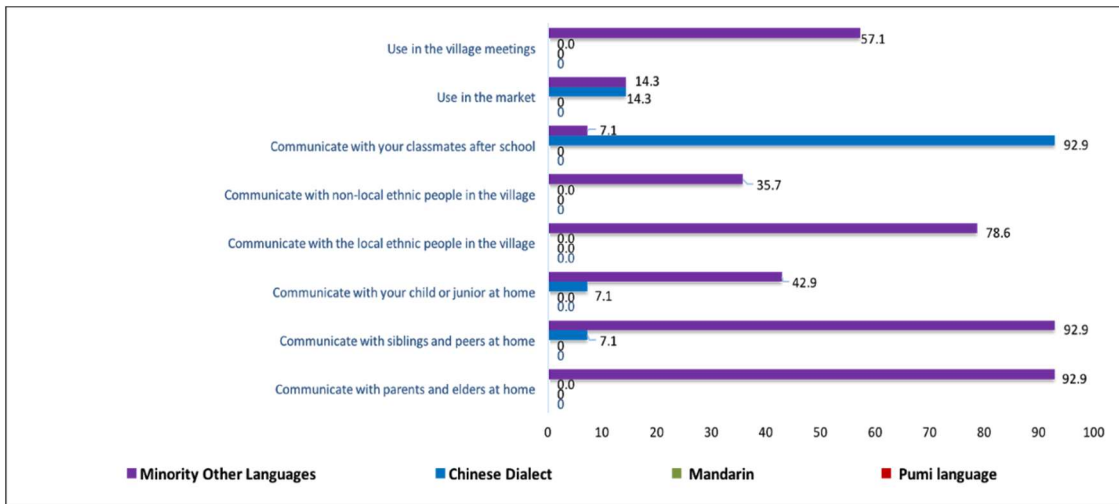


Figure 3. Proportion of people who communicate in a single language in each scenario in Xiagaoping Village.

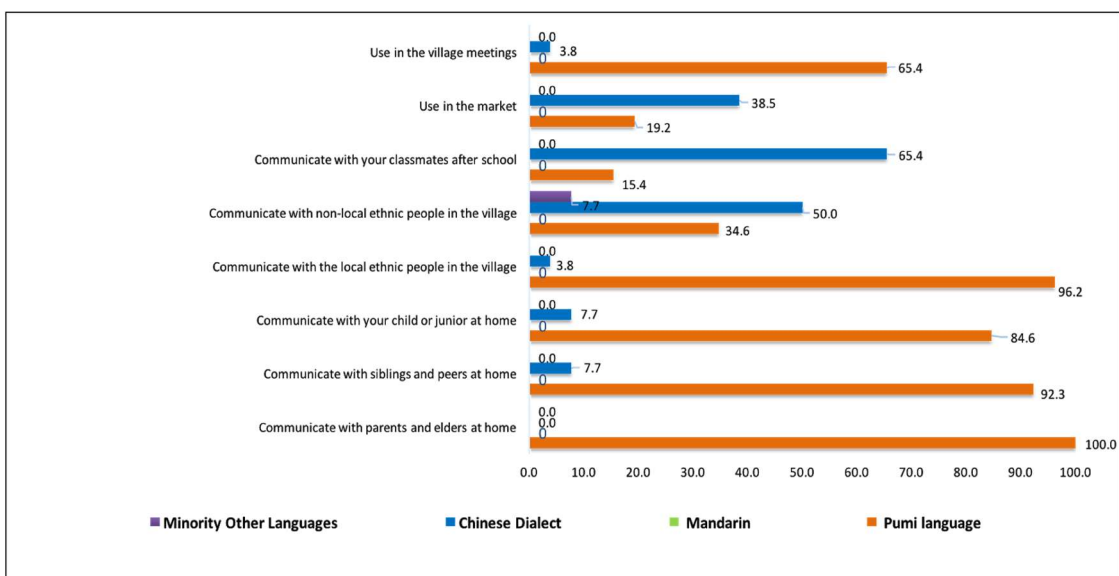


Figure 4. Proportion of people who communicate in a single language in each scenario in Luoguqing Village.

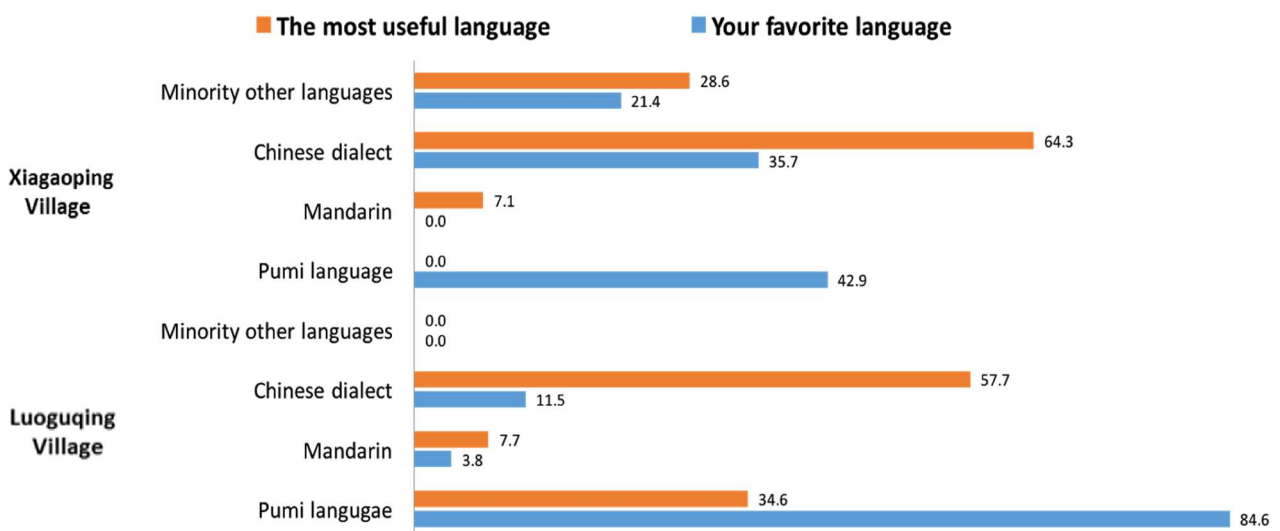


Figure 5. Proportion of responses to “Which language is the most useful language and your favorite language?” in the two villages.

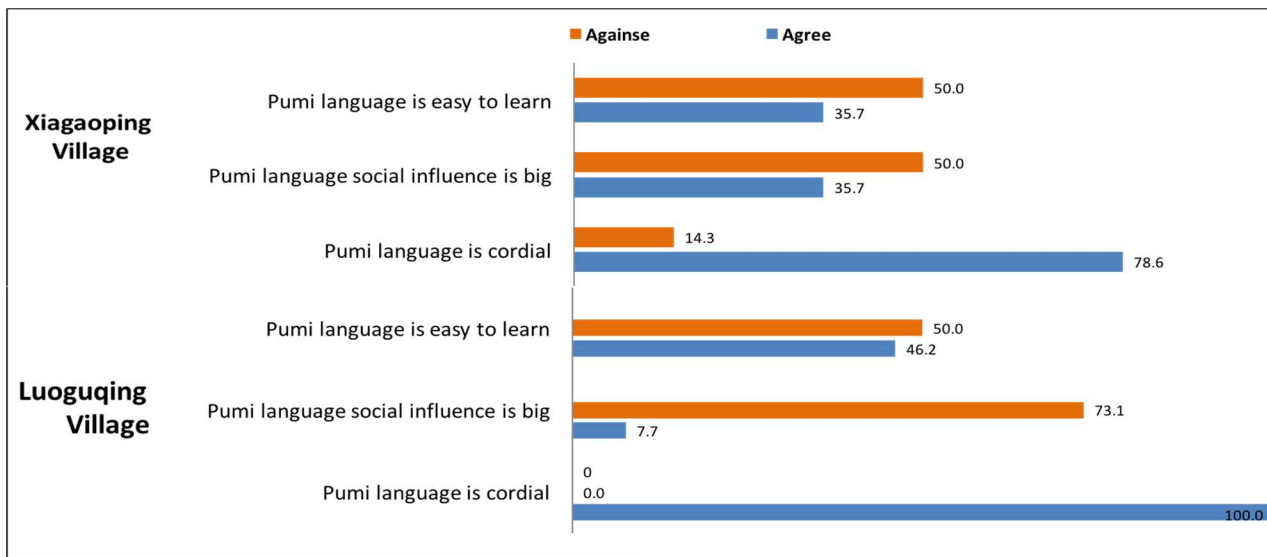


Figure 6. Proportion of the language attitude in the two villages when asked about the characteristics of the Pumi language.

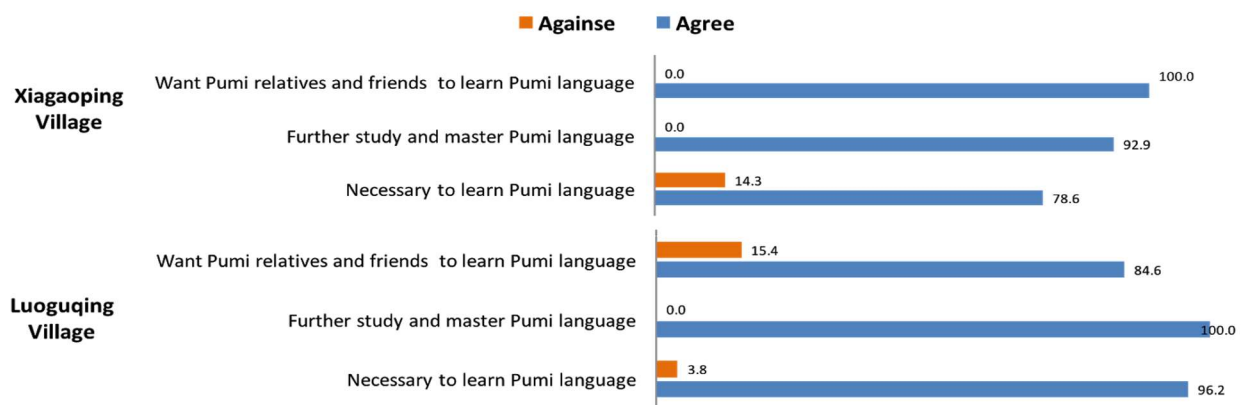


Figure 7. Proportion of the language attitude in two villages when asked about their expectations of the future of the Pumi language.

### Governmental and institutional language attitudes and policies.

In general, the Chinese government strongly stipulated for a long time that all ethnic groups have the freedom to use and develop the language of their ethnic group. Specifically, in July 2012, the Chinese State Council General Office issued "The twelfth 5-year plan for minority career." It included the Construction Project of the Minority Language Standardization of Information, the Rescue and Protection Project of Minority Endangered Languages, Minorities' Cultural Relics Protection Project, and the Minority Ancient Books Protection Project, aimed at strengthening the protection of minorities' cultural heritage. Meanwhile, the

reform and development of the minority language business also have been included in the Outline of the National Medium and Long-Term Language and Culture Reform and Development Plan (2012-2020) issued by the Chinese National Language Committee of the Chinese Ministry of Education in December 2012. Its content is as follows: (a) to speed up the promotion and popularization of Chinese in ethnic minority areas; (b) to scientifically protect the ethnic minority languages; (c) to promote the construction of minority language standardization; (d) to take the minority languages survey; and (e) to strengthen the scientific records and preservation of minority languages (Xing, 2014). Thus, it indicates that in China, all languages are protected by law,

and the government encourages the maintenance of all languages by implementing explicit policies.

### **Ethnic distribution, geographical features, and traffic conditions.**

Both of the two villages belong to Lanping Bai and Pumi Autonomous County. The distance between Xiagaoping Village and Luoguqing Village is only 41 kilometers, so some of their situations are relatively similar, such as the geographical, socioeconomic, and cultural environments. Of course, there are some important differences between them. Two important differences of ethnic distribution, tourism, and traffic conditions are as follows: (a) in Xiagaoping Village, the Pumi people are mixed with a large number of Bai people, concentrated in the residential area, who live in flat terrain and next to the main road, thus convenient transportation results in the spread of the dominant Bai language and the endangerment of weaker Pumi language; and (b) although the Pumi people account for the vast majority of the population in Luoguqing Village, they are scattered in the mountains. The inconvenient traffic results in that they have fewer chances to contact tourists and people outside, which is conducive to the preservation of the Pumi language.

### **Conclusion**

Based on the detailed analysis of each of the above factors, we can conclude two results (see Table 1.). Initially, this study was focused on the current status of the Pumi language. In Xiagaoping Village, The degree of these factors—intergenerational transmission, proportion of speakers within the total population, shifts in domains of language use, availability of materials for language education and literacy, ethnic distribution and geographical features, and traffic conditions are critically endangered or extinct. Therefore, the Pumi language of Xiagaoping Village is critically endangered and will become extinct. However, in Luoguqing Village, the degree of the following factors is safe: intergenerational transmission, proportion of speakers within the total population, the ethnic distribution, and geographical features and traffic conditions. Shifts in domains of language use are

vulnerable, and the availability of materials for language education and literacy is nonexistent. It is evident that the Pumi language vitality of Luoguqing Village is relatively stable, but a little vulnerable. However, both villages' degrees of governmental policies are safe, which provide a good external political environment for language protection. And the community members' attitudes and the educational expectation in the two villages are very safe, hence all the Pumi people have a strong will to inherit Pumi language. In other words, there is a good mass basis for the protection and heritage of the Pumi language.

This is the biggest achievement of this survey. Most of the previous related literature has shown that the Pumi people themselves do not treasure the Pumi language, and the people who can't speak the Pumi language do not have a powerful desire to learn it. But this survey had a different result: Through the development of society and the implementation of relevant national policies, more and more Pumi people have begun to change their previous concept—they have started to become eager to learn the language of their ethnic group. This is great progress!

Moreover, the survey provided statistics on the multiple-choice question "What do you think is the most important for protecting the Pumi language in the future?" The respondents' choices are very valuable. The government's policy support does play the most important role in Xiagaoping Village, where the Pumi language has been basically extinct, such as policy support, capital investment, and teacher training. In Luoguqing village, the most important factors are the teacher training and the preparation of teaching materials. These show that the implementation of the bilingual education also faces a lot of difficulties.

In addition, this research still has some deficiencies. For example, the data is insufficient, and the survey area is limited. Therefore, in the future, more far-reaching investigations of the Pumi language should be carried out. Generally, in the current difficult condition of the Pumi language, we believe that the protection and revitalization of the Pumi language is a long and arduous task that requires the efforts of all the Pumi people and the government.

**Table 1.***The 2 Pumi Villages Included in the Survey Evaluated Using the Language Endangerment Index*

Xiagaoping Village			Luoguqing Village	
Factors	Description	Degree	Description	Degree
Intergenerational Transmission	The language is used by very few speakers, most of the great-grandparental generation.	Critically endangered	The language is used by all ages, from children up.	safe
The proportion of speakers within the total population	Very few speak the language.	Critically endangered	All speak the language.	safe
Shifts in Domains of Language Use	Highly limited domains	Critically endangered	multilingual parity	vulnerable
Availability of Materials for Language Education and Literacy	No orthography is available to the community.	Extinct	No orthography is available to the community.	extinct
Governmental and Institutional Language Attitudes and Policies	All languages are protected. Equal support	Safe	All languages are protected. Equal support.	safe
Community Members' Attitudes towards The Language of Their Ethnic Group	Most members support language maintenance	Vulnerable	Most members support language maintenance	vulnerable
The Ethnic Distribution	Pumi people mixed with a large number of Bai people	Endangered	No other ethnics mixed with Pumi people	safe
Geographical Features and Traffic Conditions	The whole village is in flat terrain and next to the main road.	Endangered	The villagers scattered in the mountains. The traffic is not convenient.	safe
The Educational Expectation	Most members expect the bilingual education	Safe	Most members expect the bilingual education	safe

*Note. This table slightly changes some the names of the degree of UNESCO indicators to achieve the unity of the Chinese indicators, based on UNESCO grade division. Adapted from "Language vitality and endangerment".*



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## Appendix A

### *A Questionnaire on Language Attitudes and Ethnic Identity in the Pumi Language*

Age :      Gender : Male / Female      Occupation :

Education level: A Primary school and below   B Junior middle school   C High school   D Secondary school   E University and above

Your father's nationality:   Education level:   Pumi language proficiency: Skilled / Good / Slightly understand / None

Your mother's nationality:   Education level:   Pumi language proficiency: Skilled / Good / Slightly understand / None

A      (Multiple choices)

1. Which language did you first learn as a child?

A Pumi language   B Mandarin   C Chinese Dialect   D Minority Other languages

What is the language level?   A Skilled   B Good   C Slightly understand

2. What is your second language?

A Pumi language   B Mandarin   C Chinese Dialect   D Minority Other Languages   E None

What is the language level?   A Skilled   B Good   C Slightly understand

3. What is your third language?

A Pumi language   B Mandarin   C Chinese Dialect   D Minority Other Languages   E None

What is the language level?   A Skilled   B Good   C Slightly understand

4. What language do you currently use to communicate with parents and elders at home? A Pumi language   B Mandarin   C

Chinese Dialect   D Other minority Languages (      )

If more than one language, what percent of each language do you use to communicate with them?

The first language (      ), the second language (      ), the third language (      )

A 0-24%   B 25%-49%   C 50%-74%   D 75%-100%

5. What language do you currently use to communicate with siblings and peers at home?

A Pumi language   B Mandarin   C Chinese Dialect   D Other minority Languages (      )

If more than one language, what percent of each language do you use to communicate with them?

The first language (      ), the second language (      ), the third language (      )

A 0-24%   B 25%-49%   C 50%-74%   D 75%-100%

6. Which language do you currently use to communicate with your child or junior at home?

A Pumi language   B Mandarin   C Chinese Dialect   D Other minority Languages (      )

If more than one language, what percent of each language do you use to communicate with them? The first language (      ), the second language (      ), the third language (      )

A 0-24%   B 25%-49%   C 50%-74%   D 75%-100%

7. What language do you use to communicate with the local ethnic people in the village?

A Pumi language   B Mandarin   C Chinese Dialect   D Other minority Languages (      )

If more than one language, what percent of each language do you use to communicate with them?

The first language (      ), the second language (      ), the third language (      )

A 0-24%   B 25%-49%   C 50%-74%   D 75%-100%

8. What language do you communicate with non-local ethnic people in the village?

A Pumi language   B Mandarin   C Chinese Dialect   D Other minority Languages (      )

If more than one language, what percent of each language do you use to communicate with them?

The first language (      ), the second language (      ), the third language (      )

A 0-24% B 25%-49% C 50%-74% D75%-100%

9. What kind of language do you use to communicate with your classmates after school?

A Pumi language B Mandarin C Chinese Dialect D Other minority Languages ( )

If more than one language, what percent of each language do you use to communicate with them?

The first language ( ), the second language ( ), the third language ( )

A 0-24% B 25%-49% C 50%-74% D75%-100%

10. What language do you use in the market?

A Pumi language B Mandarin C Chinese Dialect D Other Minority Languages ( )

If more than one language, what percent of each language do you use to communicate with them?

The first language ( ), the second language ( ), the third language ( )

A 0-24% B 25%-49% C 50%-74% D75%-100%

11. What language do you use in your village meetings?

A Pumi language B Mandarin C Chinese Dialect D Other Minority Languages ( )

If more than one language, what percent of each language do you use to communicate with them?

The first language ( ), the second language ( ), the third language ( )

A 0-24% B 25%-49% C 50%-74% D75%-100%

12. You think the best language to listen to is

A Pumi B Mandarin C Chinese Dialect D Other minority languages E Other languages

13. Your favorite language is

A Pumi B Mandarin C Chinese Dialect D Other minority languages E Other languages

14. You think the most useful language is

A Pumi B Mandarin C Chinese Dialect D Other minority languages E Other languages

15. Do you think Pumi language is cordial?

A Very cordial B Cordial C General D No feeling

16. Is the Pumi language social influence big?

A Very big B Big C Not so big D No influence

17. Do you think Pumi language is easier to learn than other languages?

A Very easy B Easy C Not so easy D Hard

18. Do you think it necessary to learn (speak) Pumi language?

A very necessary B necessary C not so necessary D not necessary

If you think it necessary, please answer this, why? (Multiple choice)

A Is conducive to the succession of our culture B Will help work and make money

C Will have more friends D Convenient life E Other ( )

19. If you speak Pumi language, please answer this, what is the reason that you learn (speak) Pumi language? (Multiple choices)

A My parents' requirement B personal like C for the future job, study, and test. D As the Pumi people, I should learn Pumi language E others ( )

If you do not speak Pumi, please answer. What do you think is the most important problem you encountered in Pumi language? (Multiple choices) A So few people around me to speak it that the speaking opportunity is less B I afraid of others jokes and fear of communication C It is difficult to speak and I do not want to learn D Useless, unnecessary to learn (say)

20. If the Pumi people who can speak Pumi language in your village went out to work or study for some time and then came back to the village, but they no longer speak Pumi language. What's your attitude?

A Should not B Does not matter D Support

21. Are you willing to further study and master the national language?  
A Very willing to B willing to C Does not matter D Do not want
22. If the Pumi relatives and friends do not speak Pumi, do you want them to learn it?  
A Very much hope B Hope C Does not matter D Does not want
23. Do you want all the Pumi people to speak Pumi language?  
A Urge B Take everything as it comes C does not matter D does not want B Language Education
24. What kind of language mode would you expect your next generation to receive in their school?  
A Chinese education B Pumi language education C Chinese and Pumi language balance education
25. Do you think your primary school in your hometown should teach both Chinese and Pumi language?  
A Very willing to B Willing to C Does not matter D Against
26. Do you want to create a set of Pumi characters on the basis of Pumi language?  
A very hope B hope C Does not matter D does not want to
27. What is the most needed now in Pumi language schooling: (Please sort by level of need)  
A Policy support B Capital investment C Teacher training  
D Teaching materials compiled E Pumi people want to learn

## Appendix B

### *Interview Questions:*

1. Your self-introduction
2. Can you speak the language of your ethnic group? When and how did you learn it?
3. Under what circumstances would you use your language of your ethnic group? What is the situation of language of your ethnic group usage at home?
4. What is your reason for using the language of your ethnic group? (For communication, for customary, because the people around you speak it, or you have feeling about the language of your ethnic group?)
5. What is the current Pumi language use in your village? The Intermarriage situation?
6. What is the current Pumi language use of Pumi children? The current situation of children education?
7. What do you think about current Pumi's bilingual education? What do you think of the necessity and the possibility of implementation of bilingual education (Chinese and Pumi language)?
8. What is the Pumi development prospect? (Do you think it will be extinct or will maintain, or elevate, etc.) How can we effectively maintain Pumi language?
9. How do you think the use of Pumi language, Mandarin, Chinese dialect and other minority languages? (Which is important? the role?).
10. How do you think of the Pumi people who do not speak Pumi language?
11. Do you often speak Pumi language with the local Pumi people?
12. What is your attitude towards the language of your ethnic group and the Pumi identity?
13. Do you think it is necessary to improve the Pumi people's level of the Pumi language and Pumi culture?
14. What measures do you think we should take to protect the language of your ethnic group and your Pumi culture?

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# Social Emotional Learning and Mental Health Issues in Japanese Education

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It has become obvious that student success is determined by more than academic proficiency. 21<sup>st</sup> century skills learning emphasizes a well-rounded approach to education promoting the development of competencies beyond academic proficiency that will allow students to participate effectively in the dynamic and evolving workforce of the future. An important element of this holistic education is a focus on the mental and emotional well-being of individuals. Japan, like many other Asian countries, has a demanding education system. Educators are all too familiar with the stress placed on students by high-stakes testing environment. Over the years, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has implemented interventions such as shorter school hours, an emphasis on exercise and socialization, as well as increased opportunities for dialogue with counsellors and teachers strategies aimed not only at developing lifelong learners, but also to address the mental and emotional challenges faced by Japanese youth and adolescents. Despite Japan's impressive secondary schooling graduation rate (97%), less than one third of Japanese students go on to pursue and complete higher learning (OECD, 2015, pp. 41, 55). Moreover, many are concerned that such a demanding education system factors into the ever-increasing episodes of depression, *ijime*, and suicide among adolescents (OECD, 2012, p. 49).

## Mental, Emotional, and Behavioural Disorders (MEB)

In Japan's collectivist society, the emphasis on social norms and consensus has given rise to a form of "social privatization" in which individual impulses are suppressed to secure acceptance into the group (Rios-Ellis, Bellamy, & Shoji, 2000). Research suggests that this Japanese "need for inclusion" and the related fear of exclusion make individuals reluctant to discuss, much less seek help for, mental disorders (Ando, Asakura, & Simons-Morton, 2005; Laser, Luster, & Oshio, 2007; Pallos, Yamada, & Okawa, 2005; Rios-Ellis, Bellamy, & Shoji, 2000; Watanabe, et al., 2012). For youth and adolescents, the subsequent anxiety manifests internally—as depression and social withdrawal (school refusal and hikikomori), externally—in the form of deviant behaviour or DSH (deliberate self-harm), and/or through adversity with existing relationships—in the form of bullying.

## Depression

The past few decades have seen a dramatic change in how Japanese view and manage mental disorders, particularly depression. A greater awareness of mental disorders as having both physiological and psychological basis (depression was once considered *こころのかぜ*, literally a "cold of the soul"), and the recognition that environmental factors contributed as much as genetic propensity to outcomes, allowed individuals to seek and receive more effective recovery options. However, the stigma of mental disorders persists. The Japan Committee for Prevention and Treatment of Depression (JCPTD) estimates that over 6% of the population is clinically depressed, despite a reported incidence of only 2%. In elementary school, one in 12 students is reported to be depressed while that number jumps to one in four in junior high school (Pulvers, 2012). Preliminary research into young adults reports similar results with estimates of one in five students suffering from clinical depression (Tomoda, Mori, Kimura, Takahashi, & Kitamura, 2000). Given that these are only the reported and diagnosed

cases, depression is even more pervasive than these numbers suggest.

### ***Hikikomori***

*Hikikomori*, “shut-ins,” have received much attention partly due to sensationalized media coverage of *hikikomori* as perpetrators of senseless violence and partly because it was a pathology originally thought to be unique to Japan (Rizzo, 2016). The Japanese Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare defines *hikikomori* as “persons who refuse to leave their houses for a period exceeding 6 months” (Itou, 2003). In fact, many *hikikomori* remain in isolation for years and even decades (Jones, 2006). *Hikikomori* manifests at a time when adult responsibilities are forced on adolescents who feel overwhelmed and incapable of fulfilling expected roles. Some researchers point to domestic pressures as a factor, while others refer to the incongruity between modern Japanese youth, influenced by western notions of self and individuality, and the traditional notions of social harmony and rigid social hierarchy. There are believed to be between 700,000 and 1 million cases of *hikikomori* in Japan, and an estimated 1.5 million at high risk of developing this condition (Hoffman, 2011). However, these numbers may be an underestimate, as cases of female and young adolescent *hikikomori* are underreported (Fogel & Kawai, 2009).

### ***Ijime***

Whereas *hikikomori* is egosyntonic (consistent with one's own beliefs and values), a *voluntary* withdrawal from society, school bullying, or *ijime*, is not only unwelcome, but also pernicious. For a child who has been brought up believing that success in life and as a human being is defined by group affiliation, the effects of *ijime* and subsequent social exclusion can be devastating.

In 2014, MEXT reported 188,057 cases of *ijime* in schools, up by over 2,000 cases from the previous year. Though junior and senior high schools saw a drop in incidents, a greater number of incidents are being reported by younger students (Asia Pacific News, 2015). Unfortunately, statistics regarding the prevalence of bullying in Japan tend to be unreliable because of the unwillingness of victims to report incidents for fear of repercussions or further isolating

themselves from the group. Moreover, the Japanese educational system does not readily promote open communication about these problems with a tendency to prefer teachers and administrators who appear not to have any incidents of *ijime* to those who are able to manage *ijime* effectively. There is much speculation that reported cases of *ijime* reflect only one tenth of all actual incidents (Rios-Ellis, Bellamy, & Shoji, 2000). What makes *ijime* so difficult to resolve is that it often seems to be an accepted form of social interaction. In Japan, where rigid social systems model behaviour, there is a tendency to pass down, from cohort to cohort, negative social practices and mores, such as *ijime*, with little opportunity to develop the skills required to resist negative peer influences.

### **Suicide**

Suicide has been a pressing health concern in Japan for well over half a century. Japan ranks second in suicide rate among OECD countries and 17<sup>th</sup> in the world (OECD, 2015; WHO, 2016). The number of suicides still stands at well over 25,000 per year or about 70 suicides each day and the number of annual suicides continues to grow, albeit more slowly (Japan Foreign Press Centre, 2014; White Paper, 2015).

A particular worry for educators is the fact that adolescents and young adults are highly vulnerable to suicidal ideation (thoughts of suicide) (Hidaka, et al., 2008). Japan is the only G7 country where suicide is the leading cause of mortality among adolescents and young adults, accounting for 6.9% of all causes of death (Japan Foreign Press Centre, 2014). Of specific concern are women in their 20s, who account for 2.9% of all suicides, and adolescent males, who represent 7.6% (Cabinet Office of Japan, 2015).

Risk factors among Japanese youth include mental health problems, domestic strife, and poor peer relationships (Cabinet Office of Japan, 2015; Hidaka et al., 2008). Moreover, studies on DSH, a predictor for repeated DSH and completed suicide, suggest that emotional dysregulation, depression, use of alcohol and drugs, and early sexual activity are strong moderators for suicidal ideation (Cabinet Office of Japan, 2015; Hidaka et al., 2008; Nishikawa, Hagglof, & Sundbom, 2010; Watanabe, et al., 2012). This is especially salient for Japanese women, who engage in DSH four times

more often than men (Cabinet Office of Japan, 2015; Kerig, Ludlow, & Wenar, 2012, p. 331; Watanabe, et al., 2012).

Individuals diagnosed with and at risk for developing disorders often present with deficits that negatively impact peer relationships. Emotional and cognitive deficits and the resulting behaviours they produce make it difficult to “generate, evaluate and choose a response in social situations” resulting in peer aggression and ostracism (Parker, Rubin, Erath, Wojslawowicz, & Buskirk, 2006, p.466). Updates to the DSM-V (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th edition) emphasize adaptive functioning and reflect the understanding that many disorders are problematic *specifically* because they adversely affect functioning within the social domain. In fact, studies demonstrate that the most effective academic interventions are not those that target academic behaviours and outcomes, but ones that specifically address prosocial and proactive behaviours (Iovannone, Dunlap, Huber, & Kincaid, 2003, p. 160).

### **Social and Emotional Learning**

Social and emotional learning (SEL) addresses those factors that make learning challenging for students so that they can better capitalize on learning opportunities. SEL programs and intervention are effective not only at treating identified problems, but also preventing the development of problems by ameliorating risk factors, realigning deviant development and maintaining gains throughout a child’s development. Many countries have implemented SEL programs with much success. Japan, in turn, has begun investigating the viability of SEL programs (Ikesako & Miyamoto, 2015).

### **What is Social and Emotional Learning?**

SEL, also referred to as “noncognitive skills,” “soft skills,” “21<sup>st</sup> century skills,” “character strengths,” and “whole child learning,” is the process of developing the skills and competencies related to recognizing and managing emotions, developing care and concern for others, establishing positive relationships, making responsible decisions, and handling challenging situations constructively (Zines, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, 2004). According to the Collaborative for Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL), there are five core

social-emotional competencies that describe the skills required for students’ success (CASEL, 2017):

- *Self-awareness*: the skills to recognize one’s thoughts and emotions and understand the effect they have on behaviour and on others. This includes a well-developed sense of self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-confidence, perceived control, and optimism.
- *Self-management*: the skills to effectively regulate one’s thoughts, emotions, and behaviors. This includes the abilities to manage stress and tackle challenges, by implementing goal setting, monitoring progress, and using effective problem-solving strategies.
- *Social awareness*: the skills to recognize and appreciate the perspective of others including respect for divergent views and utilization of social resources such as family, school, and community.
- *Relationship skills*: the skills to develop and nurture healthy relationships including the abilities to communicate and collaborate effectively, to resolve interpersonal conflict, as well as to resist the effects of negative social influences.
- *Responsible decision making*: the skills to identify and respond effectively to challenges including the ability to consider multiple factors to make responsible and ethical decisions.

As a preventive measure, SEL skills empower students to capitalize on their environment, take advantage of available resources, and make responsible decisions. This is particularly important for students who feel disconnected from peer groups and is instrumental to prevent disengagement from schooling and socialization. By promoting dialogue, solving problems becomes the focus rather than managing the problem student. Such a shift allows struggling students to negotiate the incongruities of expectations and perceived capabilities and helps these students safely reexamine their role in society and develop effective coping strategies.

Within an academic environment, SEL interventions are predicated on the idea that students’ academic performance is linked to their ability to regulate emotions, communicate effectively, and use problem-solving



strategies to overcome academic challenges and interpersonal conflicts. It is important to remember that students do not enter school knowing how to interact effectively with peers and teachers or how to successfully navigate stressful academic situations. Neither do students necessarily understand how emotions impact decisions and affect others around them. Like academic content, these social and emotional skills need to be learned, practiced, and developed.

Such skill development lends itself well to a language learning environment, with its emphasis on social interaction and communication, particularly in classrooms that incorporate communicative activities. Effective language learning hinges on student affect and is as much a process of intrapersonal dialogue as it is of interpersonal communication. In addition, implementing SEL in language-learning environments also supports language learners facing challenges unique to learning a foreign language. Learners often have yet to acquire the vocabulary and skills to express themselves satisfactorily, especially their concerns and problems. They experience frustration from the gap between what they want to say and what they are able to say, which can lead to a reluctance to engage in social interactions and academic activities. As students learn a foreign language, they also develop their identities as language speakers. Limited ability in a foreign language may lead to perceptions of marginalization or prejudice. Moreover, social interaction leads to engagement with various ideas and beliefs that are often different from what students hold to be true. This is particularly true when encountering a foreign culture. SEL is a process of implementing skills such as managing learning expectations, developing relationships, communicating effectively, being sensitive to others, collaborating, and negotiating one's identity, that are required to work through challenges to effect positive outcomes.

### **SEL Implementation**

SEL interventions do not have to be massive efforts to be effective (Durlak et al., 2011, p. 413). Tough (2012) utilizes dual-purpose instruction, which involves explicitly teaching academic alongside character content. In addition, micro-changes—resource efficient, data-driven “small but highly beneficial shifts in classroom practices” (Doll, Brehm, &

Zucker, 2014, p. 96)—can also be integrated into existing practice. Regardless of the form and degree of implementation, SEL interventions should include:

### **Student-Centered discipline**

Student-centered discipline happens when teachers provide opportunities for learners to have input into what happens in the classrooms. Rather than focus on punitive measures and limiting actions, teachers work with students to develop acceptable norms and logical consequences. In this way, students learn to regulate their own behaviour and can problem-solve difficulties that may arise.

### **Teacher language**

Teachers can encourage students for effort rather than for accomplishment by focusing on what the student did and what they can do to become better. Changing how one praises a student (i.e., praising effort over ability) can bring about a growth mindset resulting in —persistence and what Dweck (2006) termed academic tenacity.

### **Responsibility and choice**

Create opportunities for students to make responsible decisions about their work and provide meaningful input into not only what they learn but how they learn it. Social responsibility can also be developed by the implementation of peer or cross-age tutoring or contributing to service learning programs (e.g., extending learning to engagement in the school or local community).

### **Warmth and support**

Though many teachers already work to ensure that their classrooms are safe and supportive environments, one effective practice is to provide opportunities for students to showcase what they have learned. This can be done through student-led discussions or lectures or even through the use of “exit tickets,” where students can record what they have learned or communicate what they are having trouble with.

### **Cooperative learning**

Cooperative learning is much more than “group work.” It involves students pooling their resources to engage with content in a meaningful way. Students are required to be

aware of how they work together and be able to monitor their progress toward their established goal. Incorporating student-developed rubrics that define collaborative and individual accountability are helpful tools.

### **Classroom discussions**

What distinguishes classroom discussions from conversations is that in discussions, students and teachers build from each others' ideas. Effective classroom discussion is student driven and provides learners the opportunity to broaden their perspectives and expand not only their own ideas but the ideas of others, whereas traditional classrooms conversations are often teacher assigned and bounded by target language or topic.

### **Self-assessment and self-reflection**

Teachers can ask students to reflect and assess their own performance in order to identify areas for improvement. Such self-assessment works when teachers work with students to develop criteria and priorities for learning, against which students can monitor their progress. In addition, it is important that students learn and practice how to source and utilize resources in their environment to help them meet their learning goals.

### **Balanced instruction**

Balanced instruction entails balancing direct instruction with active learning, providing students the opportunity to learn about and engage with content. It also entails balancing individual with collaborative work. Project-based learning and portfolios provide many opportunities for this.

### **Academic press and expectations**

Teachers want their students to succeed and many work hard to support their students' efforts. However, it should be remembered that students must also recognize that the responsibility for success, and failure, is ultimately theirs. To effectively do this, teachers must be aware not just of students' academic capabilities but also their emotional reaction to academic challenges.

## **Competence building**

Competence is developed through the systematic implementation of modelling, practice, feedback, and coaching. Responsive classrooms are where teachers model expected behaviors, monitor student performance, provide feedback, and facilitate conflict resolution to solve problems as they arise. These classrooms are rife with learning opportunities that students and teachers capitalize on to develop effective social and emotional skills. (Adapted from Yoder, 2014)

Many educators already implement these in their classrooms. However, they are often not thought of as opportunities to promote social and emotional learning. For example, cooperative learning and classroom discussions are often implemented without focusing on the social skills being used to make these tasks successful. A greater awareness of SEL and practices allows educators to tie what they are currently doing with the development of social and emotional skills.

### **What the Data Shows**

The past few decades have seen substantial gains resulting from programs implementing SEL approaches to reduce behavior problems and support prosocial interactions. Research has indicated that the development of SEL competencies has a direct, positive effect on both behavioural and academic outcomes (Farrington et al., 2012) with improvement in academic performance by up to 11 percentile points (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011, p. 417). Follow-up studies support these results and indicate that noncognitive skills, more than IQ, account for academic performance (Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, & Kelly, 2007, p. 1098). Further, noncognitive factors are better predictors of student outcomes in school and in life than cognitive measures such as test scores or IQ (Dweck, Walton, & Cohen, 2014, p. 214; Elias, Parker, Kash, Weissberg, & O'Brien, 2008, p. 254; Weissberg & Cascarino, 2013).

To date, much SEL research and practice has focussed specifically on K-12 where the development of socialization and intrapersonal skills are necessary for

individuals to adapt to changing environments and meet development expectations. However, recent research on the implementation of SEL in higher education environments shows much promise, particularly those interventions that focus on the cognitive aspect of emotional processing, such as mindfulness, relaxation, cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT), and social skills training (Conley, 2015). University is a time of unique challenges, and for many students, the skills required to succeed at both school and life are yet underdeveloped. This is a time when structured external support from school schedules, family, and monitored supervision give way and students must rely on skills like self-awareness, self-management, and responsible decision making in order to succeed. They must also navigate different and often challenging relationships with peers and teachers. SEL would seem a good fit to support learners during this important developmental period.

### Conclusion

The educational landscape is changing and social and emotional well-being is quickly becoming a standard that students need to develop during schooling. As social and emotional learning is a relatively new concept for many educators in Japan, it is hoped that this brief outline can provide educators a solid background on how to start implementing SEL approaches into their classrooms and spur further dialogue. SEL is important not only because it helps connect students to their classrooms and with what they are learning, but also to their families and communities, as well as to the future that waits for them.

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## [r] Interference in Learning Spanish as a Foreign Language

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Phonological interference occurs when language sound systems differ at segmental levels. In this study, it will be possible to identify the pronunciation success ratios of the phonological segment [r] in Japanese students of Spanish within their first year of SLA. In order to achieve the aforementioned, 12 audio-recorded sets of 59 students were examined through the direct perception method and a speech analysis software (PRAAT). 743 utterances containing the target segment were found organized into lexical units. The articulatory performance, including all allophonic deviations, as well as the phonological interference cases were analyzed and categorized in order to identify some of the major phonological difficulties in learning Spanish as a FL.

音声体系に分節レベルで違いのある異なる言語間では音韻上の干渉が生じる。本研究では日本語を母語とし、第二言語としての習得期間が1年未満のスペイン語学習者が分節音[r]を正しく発音する割合を調査した。59名の学習者が産出した各12本の録音ファイルを直接認識法および音声分析ソフト(PRAAT)を用いて分析した。語彙単位内に含まれた分析対象分節音の発話が総計743個確認された。全ての異音を含む調音の成果と音韻上の干渉例を分析・分類し、外国語としてのスペイン語学習において生じうる主たる音韻上の困難さの特定を行った。

Second language acquisition processes acknowledge the fact that second language learners (SLLs) will substitute or transfer sounds in order to simplify speech; and use similar sounds from L1 when some sounds from L2 are not present in their phonological system (Crystal, 1987). However, Trubetskoy (2005) after studying the perceptive operational processes in second language acquisition (SLA), added to the equation his well-known “phonological filter” proposal that stands for the speaker inability of perceiving non-native segments rather than just not being able to utter them. SLLs will face these phenomena in all their range: the distribution and number of phonemes in the contrastive systems, syllable structure, allophonic variations, prosodic shortening and lengthening, diachronic usage, among others.

Furthermore, Flege's speech learning model (Flege, 1987, 1995) states that SLLs will be more likely to distinguish L1 and L2 sounds when they are less similar in their phonological categories. In this way, SLLs will be able to establish one or some new L2 categories of a given L2 sound

only if they can perceive the main differences with their closest counterpart in their L1; if not, such sound might be assimilated within a single L1 category and therefore interfere in the learning process of the corresponding L2 category (Altmann & Kabak, 2011).

Japanese and Spanish are certainly two very different languages, in regard of their origin, grammatical structure, lexicon, writing systems, among many other areas. However, at phonological level, Japanese and Spanish have some similarities (Ueda, 1977), both have 5 vowel sounds, shared the same stops, most of the fricatives, and more. Nevertheless, as in any other pair of languages, there are some segments not shared in both sound systems, such as the segment [r], which is the main subject of this study. Considering the phonetic level, there are also several differences, such as the case of Japanese syllable structure, which certainly interferes in the pronunciation of SLLs (Carruthers, 2005).

Japanese language does not have distinctive liquid segments, but the Spanish sound inventory does ([l], [r] and [ʎ]), and despite there are several allophones of the Japanese liquid [ʎ], they do not trigger any miscommunication in all their possible deviations. However, it is important that Spanish SLLs are able to identify the importance of these distinctive segments, as it could lead to misunderstanding, as in the case of the following minimal pairs:

*pelo* [ʎ] (hair) - *pero* [r] (but) - *perro* [r] (dog)

*Ni siquiera tengo ni un pelo* (I do not even have a hair)

*Ni siquiera tengo ni un pero* (I do not even have a 'but' [objection])

*Ni siquiera tengo ni un perro* (I do not even have a dog)

Therefore, understanding what are likely to be the variety of utterances of certain sounds ([ʎ], [r] and [r], in this case) is vital to create or choose methodological strategies to improve SLLs' speech accuracy; moving from what and how something is currently being uttered to what and how they should be. Usually, SLLs do not own these skills on their own; therefore, providing the knowledge of the issues and remedial actions will allow them to move forward in their SLA process.

### Methods and Analysis

Through contrastive analysis between phonetic inventories of Spanish and Japanese, Spanish learners' speech was analyzed in order to attain an empirical registry of potential articulatory interferences in their SLA. For it, the perceptual assimilation model (PAM) developed by Best et al. (1994) was referred to rank the phenomena in 3 degrees of perceptual differentiation: 1) L2 sound is assimilated to an L1 category. 2) L2 sound is assimilated as an uncategorizable speech sound. 3) L2 sound is not assimilated to speech.

Furthermore, due to some phonological correspondence in both languages, only the segment [r] (alveolar - trill) was considered for this study, being one of a few segments not existing in the Japanese sound system; however, even though [r] is not formally part of it, it could be found sometimes in Tokyo's Shitamachi dialect, but "the alveolar trill [r] is a variant marked with vulgarity" (Labrune, 2012, p. 92), and therefore, its use tends to be avoided.

Despite there was no analysis of clusters carried out, characteristic of the syllabic nature of Japanese language,

some considerations based on epenthesis phenomena (mainly anaptyxis) in echo vowel were revised, as well as some gairaigo lexicon (Labrune, 2012; Daulton, 2001), such as in the case of the words 'restaurante' (レストラン) and 'Puerto Rico' (プエルトリコ) found in this study; however, none of these phenomena were described in this paper. Also, some implications of L3 language acquisition theories were considered to discriminate if the presence of a previous L2 in the sample subjects might have contributed to phonological improvement of L3 (Wrembel, 2014), or on the contrary, led to phonological interference.

In order to accomplish the aforementioned, 59 Japanese students of Spanish (27 male and 32 female) divided in two groups, within their first year of language learning, recorded 12 sets of audios (stored in .wav format); all of them were reading assessments taken in their Spanish class which were leveled according to the student's lexicon and grammar knowledge. Some of them contained only one [r] utterance or more, which means that there is not relation of the number of sets recorded and the amount of [r] utterances in them, appearing in natural (not research-intended) speech (Excerpt 1). Each student had the opportunity to record their reading assessment as many times as they considered was necessary and choose the audio of what they believed was their best performance. Audio were recorded in individual computers with personal headsets through lab licensed audiovisual software. Audios with not enough sound quality, noise overlap or without the standards for a proper analysis were dismissed.

In order to verify the rates of accuracy and interference, the audio sets were recorded in a 7 months span, so that it was possible to discard one-time errors in the student's utterances. Also, accuracy rates over time per student were analyzed to identify the phonological progress of each one of the participants.

From all sets, 743 utterances containing the segment [r] were found, isolated and organized in 7 lexical units (utterance frequency/student): *restaurante* (4), *Rico* (2), *Riqui* (1), *Ramos* (3), *guitarrista* (1), *Rosa* (1), and *aburridas* (1).

As suggested by Pearce (2011), each audio was analyzed through the direct perception method but also with the support of a speech processing software (PRAAT) when

the discrimination of single segments was not possible using this method. Then, the data was schematized and rates of accuracy frequency were determine to see if certain segment

utterances were due to phonological interferences of L2 into L1 or not.

### *Excerpt 1*

#### Script 8

- 01 8.  
02 Guía: Aquí estamos en el centro comercial Plaza Universidad.  
03 Turista: ¿Hay buenas ofertas aquí?  
04 Guía: Hay estupendas ofertas... y mucho más.  
05 Hay tiendas de toda clase.  
06 Hay cines con películas en español, en inglés, en alemán, en francés.  
07 ¡A mí me encanta este centro comercial!  
08 9.  
09 Guía: Nuestro tour termina aquí en la Zona **Rosa**, una zona comercial  
10 con las tiendas más elegantes de la ciudad.  
11 También hay excelentes **restaurantes** y **café**s al aire libre.

## Results

Even though, most of the recording were analyzed with the direct perception method, the speech analysis through PRAAT helped to precisely identify all the segmental categories, whether they came from the target segment or some phonological interferences (Figures 1 & 2). Also, some of the audios were randomly chosen to undergo this analysis to verify the accuracy of the main method. Through these spectrograms, it is possible to clearly see how the segment [r] shows one single flap in its articulation (Image 2), whereas the trill [r] vibrates in multiple periods when being uttered (Image 1). Despite neighboring vowels can affect the way certain sounds are articulated, creating multiple allophonic deviations, such phenomenon will not be covered in this study, but it will be considered for possible allophonic utterances within the articulatory accuracy ratio.

After analyzing all the recordings, the interferences found were organized in three groups: segmental (L1 segment is transferred directly into L2), allophonic (certain features of the L1 closest segment are transferred into L2 as another segment in the L2 phonological inventory) and others (mainly coming from a pre-existing L2). Within these groups, four main interferences were found: [l] which is the main

Japanese segment, [r] and [l] which come from the Spanish inventory but share certain features with the former, and [ɹ] which was the most frequent and significant interference in this group. The groups and interferences were organized as follows (with their phonological categories):

Segmental: [l] : alveolar - lateral - flap

Allophonic: [r] : alveolar - flap

[l] : alveolar - lateral - approximant

Others: [ɹ] : alveolar – approximant

Interferences with the segment [ɹ] are identified as probably coming from students' former L2 language; as all of them have received certain degree of foreign language training (English, in this case), during their secondary education years (being part of the Japanese national curriculum), as well as current credit requirements in their university programs. However, the number of interferences with such segment is low enough to not further go on their possible causes and variables.

As for the [r] segment, the average articulatory accuracy ratio reached 17.36%, leaving 71.47% of phonological interferences, and 11.17% of utterances from other variables. The rates for each of the interferences can be found in Table 1. Unfortunately, there is not enough research on allophonic deviations of the Spanish [r] segment



throughout Latin America and Spain to acknowledge the whole range of possibilities. However, some of the most known deviations were included in articulatory accuracy ratio.

[r] segment is normally found in initial (like in *rosa* ['rosa]) or middle (like in *perro* ['pero]) positions, but never in final position; however, when it is located in middle position, it tends (not including some exceptions, e.g. after n, s, or l) to graphically appear with double grapheme 'rr'. It

seems that students performed better in uttering the [r] segment in middle position (Figure 3.), because, despite both the lexical units, *guitarrista* and *restaurante*, appeared together in the same assessment script (Excerpt 2), the accuracy ratio of the target segment varied. Nevertheless, the data is not conclusive, due to the lack of more even utterances with initial and middle positions, so that further research would need to be carried out to analyze such phenomenon.

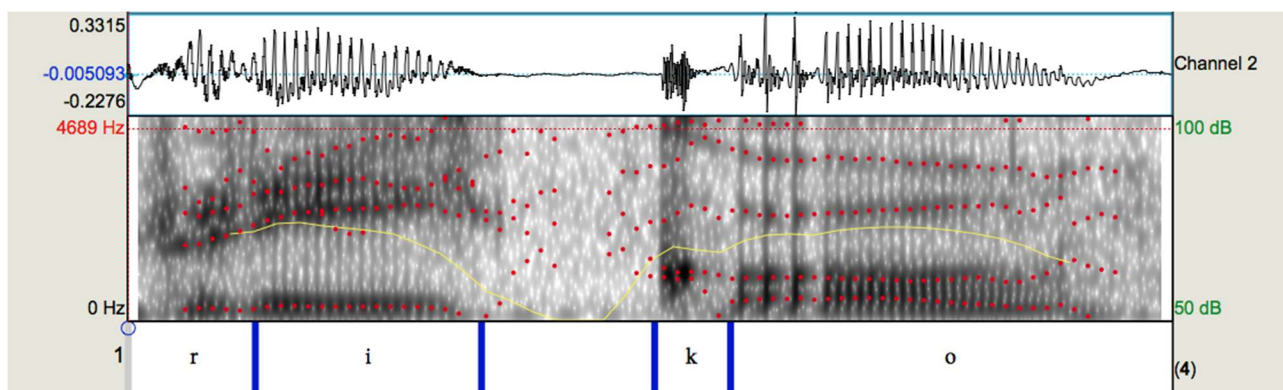


Figure 1.

PRAAT Spectrogram of 'rico' - segment [r]

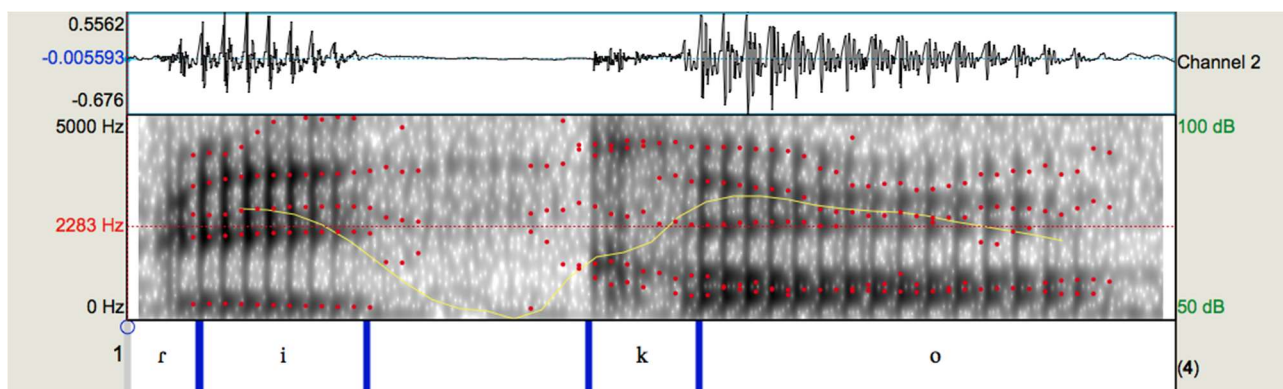


Figure 2.

PRAAT Spectrogram of 'rico' - segment [r]

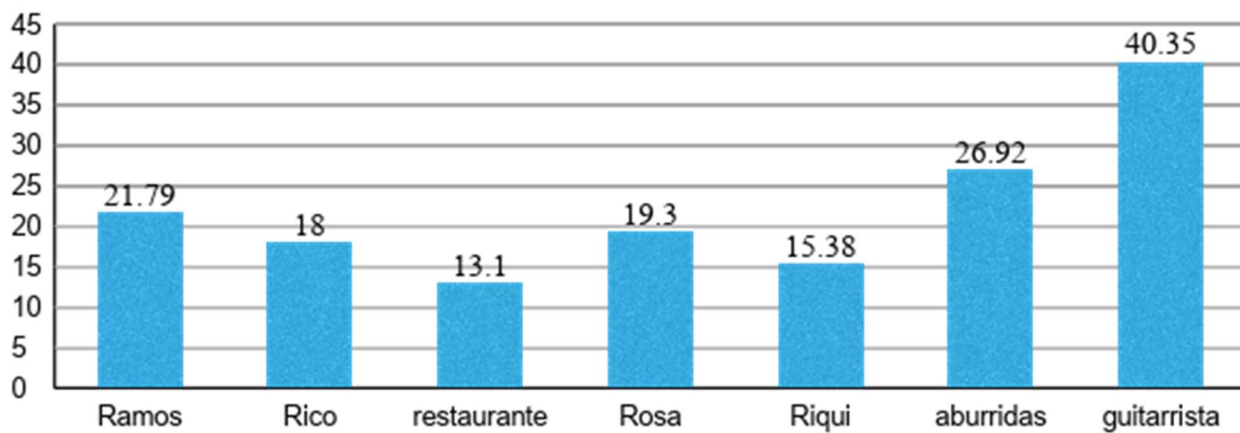
Table 1.

Percentage of accuracy vs. percentage of interference

Segments uttered	[l]	[r]	[r]	[l]	Other	Total utterances
Total	171	240	129	120	83	743
%	23.01	32.30	17.36	16.15	11.17	

Figure 3.

Accuracy per lexical unit



According to Altmann and Kabak's (2011) postulate of SLLs assimilating an L2 sound within a L1 sound when not able to perceive distinctive categories in L2, the interference ratios per lexical unit (Table 3.) showed SLLs were able to perceive certain but not all distinctive features in the target segment, leading to the use of segments partially sharing such categories; so that [r] and [l] almost prevailed over all possible other interferences. Allophonic deviations of such segments were reduced and categorized within the mentioned segments.

The general accuracy improvement increased only in 8.18% from the first assessment session (18.98%) to the last (27.16%) within the 7 months span of SLA. 30.5% of the sample could not utter the target sound [r] in any of the assessment sessions. Only a 25.42% of students were above the accuracy mean ( $\bar{x}=24.81$ ) of who could successfully utter the target sound during the given SLA span. This suggests that SLLs need further experience and phonological training to overcome their interferences.

### Conclusions

Several research papers widely present phonological interferences between Japanese and other languages, but Spanish has been addressed only in some specific concerns. This paper proved [r] segment is certainly one of the main phonological difficulties for Japanese students learning Spanish, and it needs to be addressed properly in SLA training. Having a better understanding of how phonological systems work can significantly improve SLLs' pronunciation performance. The earlier students are aware of the phonological contrast between their L1 and the language being learned (whether it is a L2 or L3), will certainly improve the articulation rates of foreign sounds. There are several methods and training techniques available for educators online and in published materials that can be applied in any language teaching curriculum.

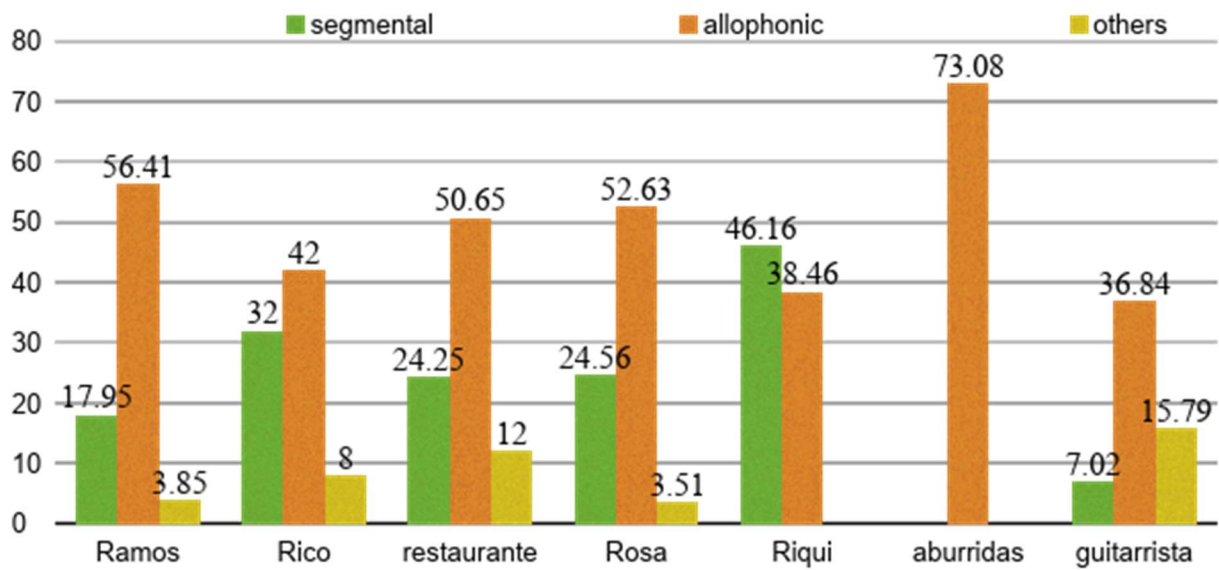
Excerpt 2

Script 11

01 5. 3:00  
02 Por la tarde comemos  
03 si es posible en un **restaurante** al aire libre.  
04 El muchacho que trabaja en el restaurante es muy guapo.  
05 6. 7:00  
05 A veces hay una fiesta en casa de un amigo.  
06 Kati y Daniel bailan muy bien, ¿no?  
07 7. domingo 11:00  
08 Los domingos siempre salimos de casa  
09 un poco antes de las once y vamos a la iglesia.  
10 Después paseamos y comemos juntos.  
11 8. 6:00  
12 Por la tarde, mi amigo Martín me lleva a una discoteca. ¡Cuánta gente hay!  
13 Me encanta esta música.  
14 El **guitarrista** toca y canta muy bien.  
15 Y ustedes, ¿qué hacen un fin de semana típico?

Table 3.

Interference per lexical unit



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# Enhancing Learner Experience Through Augmented Reality in High School

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This paper introduces an augmented reality-based [AR] action research project implemented within a high school environment during an intensive language seminar. An iPad app was designed for the mystery narrative theme to enhance participants' critical thinking skills, communication skills, and motivation. The paper highlights how AR expanded the language-learning experience for learners and teachers as well as exploring the perceptions they had of the technology. The conclusion includes an examination of the difficulties that arose during the project and proposes improvements to the body of action research, while also encouraging the increased use of AR technologies within a classroom setting that spans multiple levels.

本論文は、高等教育という環境の中で、集中語学セミナー内で使用された拡張現実[AR]に基づいた研究プロジェクトを紹介していく。参加者が批判的思考、コミュニケーション能力、モチベーションを向上させるため、ミステリーをテーマとした iPad 用アプリがデザインされた。本論文では、AR が学習者、教師がどのように言語学習の視野を広げ、テクノロジーの認識を高めたかに焦点が置かれている。結論としてはプロジェクト実施中に挙げられた問題点の考察が含まれ、クラス内で複数のレベルに亘り、より多くの AR テクノロジーの活用を促すといった、行動研究の主要な点に対する改善策が提案されている。

A massive shift in pedagogies has led to the need for educators and learners alike to engage in an ever increasing multimodal environment inside and outside the classroom. It is through blended learning, a mix of digital media within a traditional classroom where the learner controls time, place, path, or pace, which can open the doors to more creative learning environments. One way to apply this within the classroom is through augmented reality (AR) or augmented learning. Sheehy et al. (2014) defined augmented learning as utilizing an "electronic device to extend learners' interaction with and perceptions of their current environment to include and bring to life different times, space, characters, and possibilities" (p. 1). This technology has been utilized to expand on the learners' experience within the maths and sciences. However, AR has rarely been applied in TESOL as an effective way to introduce language to learners. Therefore, it is through an action research approach that this study explored a gap in the application of this technology by considering two questions.

1. What are students' and teachers' perspectives on AR within a learning environment?
2. How did the AR task affect learning?

## What Is Meant by AR

As there is no agreed upon definition of AR, this paper will rely on the definition provided by Sheehy et. al. (2014, p. 20) in which AR is an overlay of digital information or data, including text or images, applied to the physical world. Hence AR technology is vastly different from that of virtual reality, which is a complete immersion into a digital world with no stimulus from the physical world. As Milgram et al. (1994) pointed out, AR technology can be considered as "mix reality" since it is a blend of the virtual world with the physical one, however, for this paper the technology will be strictly referred to as AR.

## Why Consider Augmented Learning

One of the strongest arguments for utilizing AR learning is the kinesthetic learning or tactile learning element, in which learners learn through doing rather than watching (Gardner, 2011). This method of learning is reputed to be extremely effective with young learners; by adding augmentation, as Radu and MacIntyre (2012) claimed, games that use the whole body increase learners' skills development and motivation through alternative learning paths in the same way as physical interactions. AR learning may also be responsible for raising awareness of social components of a task, as learners must interact not only with the physical world but but also with the others involved in the task (Wu, Lee, Chang, & Liang, 2013). Xu et al. (2008) illustrated this point in their study with a table-top augmented game, stating that participants found the task to be more enjoyable and felt a stronger sense of "being together" through the application of AR. As learners are allowed more control of their learning environment, this leads to more critical thinking. Price and Rogers (2004) added to the argument by claiming that when learning is combined with physical manipulation of the world, this leads to "higher order cognitive activities, like thinking, reasoning and reflecting" (p. 138). They linked AR learning, which emphasizes the use of both brain and body, to Bruner's (1973) fundamental developmental theory, which states that "effective learning takes place when meaning is taken from experience with the world, when children through their own experience discover what is 'going on in their own heads'" (p. 72).

Additionally, it is believed that when learners are given a more powerful source of information to learn from, like AR, it can vastly change their thinking processes. Papert (1976,) stated that "the use of computer metaphors by children will have effects beyond what is normally classed as 'cognitive skill.' We expect it will influence their language, imagery, games, social interactions, relationships, etc." (Sec. 1.6, para. 9). This statement arguably could be extended to AR learning by applying Punentadura's (2014) SAMR model that applies Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive processes to AR learning in the classroom. This model highlights how essential the use of technology is, not only for learners, but for teachers as well. The SAMR model consists of four stages:

substitution, augmentation, modification, and redefinition. The substitute and augmentation stages of the model assumes technology as a direct tool for substitute with no functional change or functional improvement, an example of which would be students using a shared file in Google docs to complete a task as a functional replacement for pen and paper. Modification in the SAMR model is when technology allows for significant task redesign. Whereas, redefinition in the model leads to technology being used to create a new task that was previously inconceivable in a classroom. An example of this would be the creation and implications of an AR task. The SAMR model aids teachers in designing, developing, and incorporating digital learning tasks that target higher order cognitive skills, including analyzing, evaluating, and creating. This is the pedagogical approach this study was designed around.

## Methods

The research aligns with that of an interpretivist view, in which the researcher seeks to explore the social world related to the attitudes held about augmented activities within the classroom (Thomas, 2013, p. 77). As well, regarding the language usage through the addition of AR learning as an idea shapes us as social beings and is context specific (Seargeant, 2009, p. 1). The qualitative paradigm was the primary source for data collected through mixed method design. Structured observations in the field and video recordings were used to capture the "Aha" moments, when students become aware of their learning and are able to gain a greater insight into the activity (Kato & Mynard, 2016, p. 156). How students and teachers interacted with material and situations throughout the three days was also recorded. Video observations allowed the researcher to analyze group work at a later date. Teachers probed for student's self-analysis during activities by asking questions during the observation. Participants also were asked to complete a self-reflective journal at the end of each day during the English experience, which provided an in-depth understanding on how perspectives were shifting. Finally, a survey was administered on the last day to gather quantitative data to analyze changes in perceptions during the experience. With the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods (a mixed method), it could be argued

that this study made use of triangulation to strengthen the validity of the research (see Dörnyei, 2016).

### **Context**

This research explored how first year Japanese public high school students and teachers experienced a three-day intensive English experience designed around the school's stated goal of increasing learners' autonomy and multimodality. It was aimed at teasing out the perspectives learners hold when exposed to "new ways" of learning, including a "Clue-like" mystery themed performed by native speakers, mixed-culture narratives, script creation, and implementing iPad applications using AR. These approaches are intended to move students away from traditional literacies to more critical thinking tasks. This paper will focus primarily on the participants' experiences when interacting with the AR activity. The application was designed specifically for the summer seminar. As each seminar has a different number of students and teachers, the mystery changes annually. Hence, this version of the "crime room" app could not be reused in following years. This was a known limitation of this study.

### **Participants**

There were two sets of participants. The first comprised of first year high school students with ages ranging between 15 and 16. In total, 32 students took part in this study. Students were all part of the international course at a public senior high school, which primarily focuses on English and international relationships. Students tended to be A2 or B1 according to the CEFR levels (pre-intermediate/ intermediate ACTFL levels) with an EIKEN score of 3, pre-2, or 2.

The second group of participants consisted of the teachers taking part in the seminar. The teacher group included six native speakers of English with varied educational

backgrounds and Englishes, all from the inner circle of Kachru's three circle model (Kachru, 1992, p. 356). Three Japanese teachers from the public high school also took part in the study. Teachers did not have a traditional role during the language camp and instead functioned as overseers of activities and actors in the mystery and provided student assistance.

### **AR Crime Room Depiction**

The focus of this study was only a small part of the participants' total experience during the intensive English program. This activity was carried out on the second day, so learner participants were already aware that their goal was to solve the mystery. The AR crime room was introduced after students had an opportunity to interview the nine teacher suspects for information about the mystery. This made the students aware of all the possible outcomes and helped them to focus on who the "villain" could be. The AR crime room expanded on the overarching "Clue-like" narrative that the suspects had constructed up to that point. The learners were meant to believe that the teacher acting as the "victim" had had their room ransacked and several items were taken to a different location and mixed with items that belonged to all the seminar's teachers. The activity was restricted to a large room with both decoy objects and target objects scattered around for learners to discover. Learner participants went around in groups, locating 16 different target objects and then determined who the object belonged to, using messages that appeared when an object was scanned by an iPad or iPhone. The messages were color-coded and gave the learners an insight into the suspect's innermost thoughts. This room is where the learners uncovered that the victim might not be as innocent as they had thought from the messages.

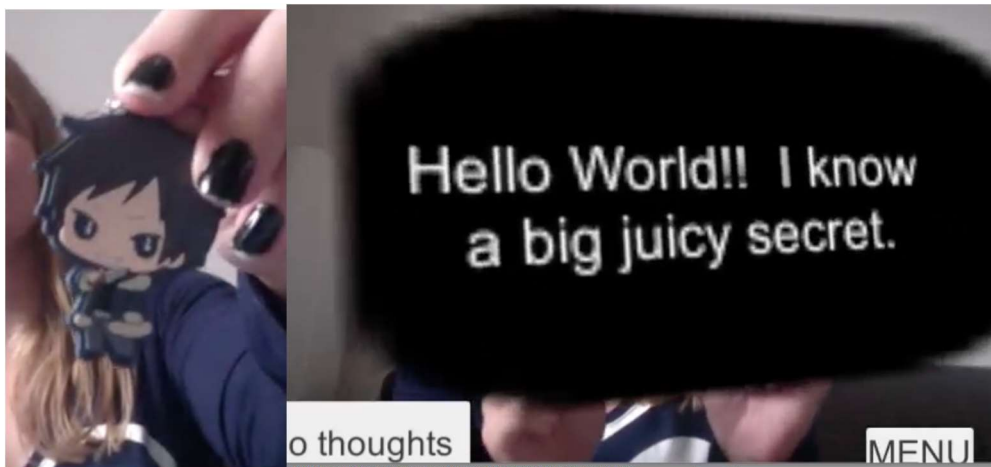


Figure 1. Left: Example of target object. Right: Examples of the app in use.

### What Are Students' and Teachers' Perspective of AR Within a Learning Environment?

#### Successes

Overall there was a positive impression of the activity by the student participants. For many of the students this was the first time they had access to technology like this in a learning environment. There was a tangible sense of awe as the students worked their way through the crime room with clues appearing when they found the target object. Students worked together with more enthusiasm to complete the task. As Sheehy (2014) pointed out, "augmented learning create[s] the social, affective, and cognitive conditions that will allow individuals and groups of people not only to approach learning in a meaningful way but also to engage with it more deeply" (p. 2). This study highlighted these effects of augmented learning on the participants. The survey results from students indicated that at first they were hesitant about using the iPads for learning purposes, however, once they were using the app within the AR crime room the students became very motivated to complete the task of locating the messages. The survey also showed that one third of the students saw the use of iPads in the classroom as a valuable learning tool. The learners expressed that they would like to see more activities like the AR crime room in their general English classroom.

The predominant theme that emerged from student reflections was viewing this application as motivation as it added a game-like element to discovering information. However, there was a clear awareness among the students

that application of this activity within a public school would need drastic modifications due to the barriers or lack of access and knowledge of the technology. Contrastingly, the teacher participants saw AR as a feasible addition to the classroom as it could lead to more *natural English* interaction and critical thinking. Students could analyze not only the meanings of the messages but also the correlation between relationships in the mystery and the meaning of the objects through which the messages were conveyed. Teachers were as impressed with the technology as the students were. One of the teachers stated, "[The] AR mystery app was surprising to me, students are of the digital-native generation, therefore, they looked [as] excited as if they were playing 'Pokemon-Go.'" This statement shows that the teacher believes there is a gap between the student knowledge of technology and their own. This activity was launched at the peak of interest in AR gaming due to the influence of "Pokemon-Go," which had been released a month prior to the language seminar. Teachers identified this as a contributing factor of the success of the app. The same teacher later stated, "The AR game/activity was fascinating and a blast as a learning tool. My group enjoyed having a more hands-on role in the activity, i.e. [the students get to] 'choose' what information they received." This shows that unlike the students, teachers saw that AR technology could be a way to lead students to more autonomous learning. Thus, AR could be a valuable tool to invest in for a high school not only for special events like the summer seminar, but also for general classes as well.



## **Pitfalls**

This section will focus on the most problematic issues that occurred while using the AR app in this context. First, the distance from the target object to iPad became an issue. Students were instructed both verbally and in writing that they needed to “move slowly and get close to objects for the message to appear” however, due to the excitement of the task and the novelty of the new technology, some students forgot about these instructions, which made finding the messages more difficult. This led to some participants running out of time to locate all of the target objects. In total, four of the five groups completed the task by locating all 16 messages, with one group finding only 15 messages. The second issue occurred once a message was found. Students had to fill out a paper notebook that contained all the information they had gathered during the seminar. However, there were no firm surfaces to write on without moving objects/target objects, and this led to cumbersome juggling acts as students tried to hold on to the device with the AR app, the notebook, and a writing utensil.

The next pitfall was one that in this context could not have been avoided. The number of iPads was not sufficient for the number of participants. The study had a total of 5 iPads and iPhones for 32 students. For this activity to truly be successful every student or at least each pair of students needed to have a device. However, as these sorts of devices are generally not widely available to public high schools, the only devices provided were the ones the researcher could supply. Finally, the last issue related to the set-up of the crime room. Groups of students tended to follow each other around once someone located a target object and its message. This herding mentality could have been avoided if groups were staggered during different times throughout the day to enter the crime room, but the time limit would not allow that.

## **How Did the AR Task Affect Learning?**

The effect of the AR task was met with a sense of awe. The task, being a novelty for the learners, may have been viewed as more of a game rather than a tool of learning and information delivery. This is evident, as the learner participants did not seem to find value in the activity outside of the seminar.

However, learners would not have been able to complete the final task of explaining the mystery and deciding “who did it” without key information from the AR crime room. Hence, like the SAMR model, which modifies and redefines information with technology, the information gain in the AR room was used in creating a new task (Punentadura, 2014). This task redesign also aligned with the cognitive processes of Bloom’s Taxonomy, leading learners to understand the materials, apply the knowledge, analyze which information was relevant or irrelevant, evaluate the decision through discussions, and finally create a hypothesis with which to accomplish the tasks (Anderson & Bloom; 2014). Learners may not have been completely aware of the contribution the AR crime room made to their learning, as their journals entry reflect, but through observation and their final project at the seminar it was clear that there was an implicit effect on the learners.

## **Changes to the Build**

As depicted in the findings there were successes and pitfalls in implementing AR technology in a high school environment. This led to a second build of the mystery AR application that could be utilized in any educational situation with all levels of learners. The second version of the app is a self-contained mystery, which involves the learners as key characters in the mystery rather than just being the detective. When the learners begin the task, each person is given a QR code that is coded to assign a character to each player. The player is given a bio-sheet of the character, which contains an image, the character’s name, their relationship to the victim, and the information they have about the crime. Students then move around the room interviewing each other and inputting the information they believe is relevant in an in-game note-taking system. The learners can also explore other QR code clues around the room to simulate a crime scene. These clues are 3D models, which brings AR learning into this task. These adjustments to the activity solve some of the pitfalls and could lead to a greater success in implementing AR within the classroom. This build still capitalizes on the kinesthetic learning aspect and gives students a greater opportunity to use critical thinking and deductive logic as less information is given by one individual or clue.

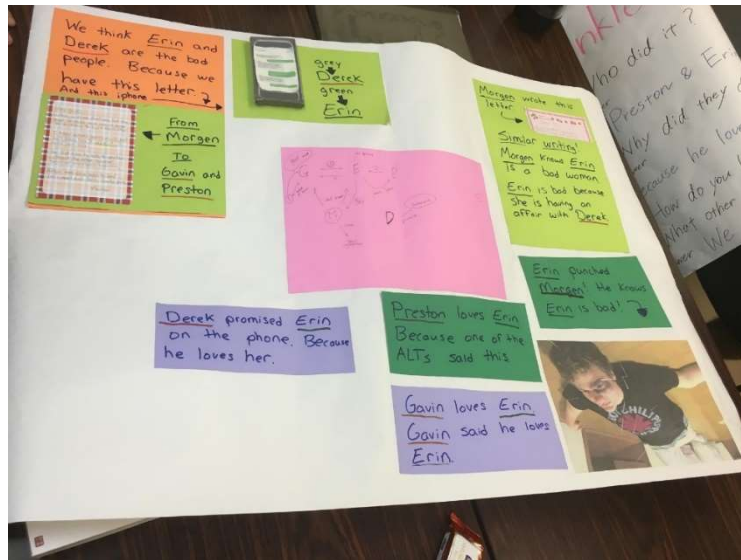


Figure 2. Students final project using all information gathered.

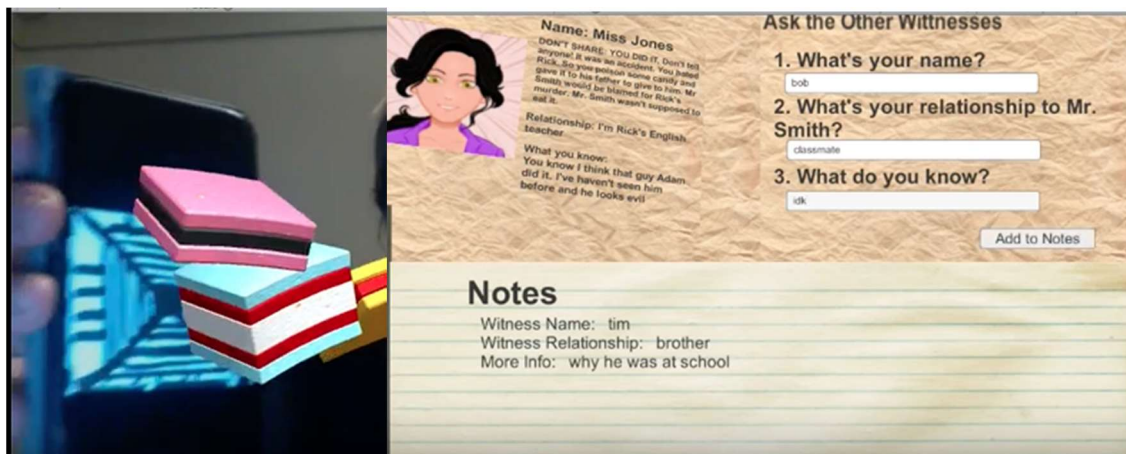


Figure 3. Left & right: Examples of the app in use.

### Limitations

For these activities to be successful in this setting, there is a need for investment in technology. A limited access to the technology was possibly the most difficult limitation within this study. Public high schools in prefectures in southern Japan simply do not have the funding to provide this kind of learning tool. This financial constraint is compounded by the approach being arguably less valued than traditional learning methods. This is a limitation that is not isolated to public high schools but can also be found in universities across Japan. Not having mobile devices or technology in the classroom limits the ability to introduce a blended learning environment to learners and may hinder their abilities to function in a multimodal world.

### Conclusion

Throughout history there has been resistance to new and innovative technology, for instance it was believed that the printing press would “destroy the oral society” (Burke, 1991, p.71), that TV would lead to illiteracy, that the Internet would be nothing but a distraction. It is clear that AR learning in a high school context is following the same pattern of hesitation to adopt, though surprisingly in this study the apprehension arose more among the learners than the teachers. More exposure to this AR learning would be a valuable experience for the learners and might shift behavioral tendencies to avoid technology for educational purposes, something that is desperately needed. Further research and builds of the AR app need to be analyzed to increase the effectiveness of the technology and its reach into the classroom. This will also lead to a need for teacher

training in the pedagogical relevance of this approach. A multimodal addition to a high school curriculum could enhance learners' behavior towards technology, not only through the uses of the AR mystery app built for this study, but also through free applications like HP Reveal or Plickers that are readily available for use in the classroom now. It is important to incorporate new and fresh ideas emerging from innovations in the classroom. It may be difficult and there will be many barriers, but there are clear benefits.

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## Appendix

1. Water reflects less light than ice, \_\_\_\_\_ allowing the oceans to absorb more heat from the sun.
  - a. without
  - b. thereby
  - c. because
  - d. however
2. Choose the sentence that makes the most sense.
  - a. Maternal people tend to work better in the mornings than in the afternoons or evenings.
  - b. My maternal grandparents still live in Aichi prefecture.
  - c. The description was maternal and very difficult to understand.
  - d. Maternal beliefs often contradict religious beliefs.
3. Choose the best definition for the word in bold): He has a large **repertoire**.
  - a. Collection of skills
  - b. Kind of weapon
  - c. A long list
  - d. A good reputation
4. **Adolescents** are often portrayed negatively in the media.
  - a. Legal guardians of children
  - b. Young people who haven't yet reached full maturity; teenagers
  - c. Gambling addicts
  - d. Unemployed or part-time workers
5. \_\_\_\_\_ ideology
  - a. Emotional
  - b. Casual
  - c. Political
  - d. Illegal
6. You can \_\_\_\_\_ the video into a blog post
  - a. initiate
  - b. embed
  - c. rotate
  - d. migrate
7. Choose the sentence that makes the most sense:
  - a. Jake's magnitude is well known in the city.
  - b. The last earthquake had a magnitude of 4.3 on the Richter Scale.
  - c. The building had several large columns made of magnitude.
  - d. When a volcano erupts, deadly magnitude flows from the crater.
8. Define: Theorem
  - a. A statement that can be proven
  - b. Something that makes a change
  - c. A thin covering of tissue
  - d. A state of balance

9. The average amount of time spent reading per student and overall improvement in TOEFL scores correlate.
- have a connection, in which one thing affects or depends on another
  - appear very similar
  - increase at a rapid rate
  - have an opposite relationship with one another
10. Consumption \_\_\_\_\_
- belief
  - play
  - disease
  - tax
11. Choose the sentence that makes the most sense.
- An adverb may precede the verb.
  - Precede with caution, as always.
  - You may now precede to the checkout.
  - He was not willing to precede with the offer.
12. To drive a car legally, you must \_\_\_\_\_ a driver's license.
- integrate
  - adapt
  - obtain
  - audit
13. Define: Algorithm.
- percussion-based musical score
  - a dialect of Arabic
  - an Ancient Greek work meaning 'alphabet'
  - a procedure or formula for solving a problem
14. Gender inequality is a huge problem in Japan.
- The quality of being unfair or uneven
  - A situation in which all people within a specific society or isolated group have the same status
  - Inaccuracy, mistakes, errors
  - An unnatural order
15. Define: Syllable
- A unit of sound in speech
  - A course outline or description
  - A type of traditional song, sung without any instruments
  - A statistic
16. She explicitly explained what needed to be done in her instructions
- clearly, directly
  - secretly, vaguely
  - loudly
  - carefully

17. Define: Nonlinear
- Not straightforward, has many dimensions
  - Not mainstream, alternative
  - Relating to the study of the planets and the universe
  - Something which is crafted very carefully
18. The internet helps \_\_\_\_\_ the sharing of information
- Stress
  - Facilitate
  - Benefit
  - Interrupt
19. Choose the sentence that makes the most sense
- In aggregate, we raised \$1000 in funds by selling KUIS t-shirts.
  - He has temper problems. He needs to control his aggregate.
  - Aggregate is a dying industry in developed countries, as less and less people work on farms.
  - The aggregate form is something that defies stereotypes.
20. \_\_\_\_\_ disturbance
- Extended
  - Mixed
  - Elegant
  - Public

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### Author Biographies

*Jacob Terrance Reed* has been living and teaching in Japan since 2013, most recently at Kanda University of International Studies as a lecturer. His primary research interests include vocabulary acquisition and gamification.

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# Neuroscience in the Classroom: Understanding How New Information is Processed

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In recent years, the imperative to establish stronger links between education and cognitive neuroscience has led to an influx of new methodologies in the classroom. However, with the growing interest in human development there has also been a rise in misapplied and/or misappropriated theory in classrooms. The purpose of this paper is to briefly outline the science of how the brain processes new information, and specifically how learning gets transferred into long term memory. Then it will share evidence-based practices that the author utilizes in teaching EFL in higher education.

近年、教育、認知神経科学の間に強いつながりを確立することは、教室での新しい方法論の流入を招いています。しかし、人間開発への関心が高まるにつれて、教室で誤用された理論や盗用された理論も増加しています。本書の目的は、脳が新しい情報をどのように処理するか、具体的にどのように学習が長期記憶に移行するかについての科学を簡単に概説することです。次に、高等教育で EFL を教える際に著者が利用する心、脳、教育の証拠ベースの実践を共有します。

In recent years, there has been growing calls for stronger applications of knowledge from cognitive neuroscience to education. It is no longer sufficient for educators to focus only on what *ought* to be learned, rather there is an increasing imperative for teacher pedagogy to reflect how people *actually do* learn. It is a shift from teacher-led lecture style and drill methodologies to more experiential, interdisciplinary and learner-focused pedagogy. However, although the latter may be in practice in some countries such as Finland (Vitikka, Krokfors, & Hurmerinta, 2012), varying degrees of implementation can be seen in other countries such as America or Japan. For instance, it is not uncommon for teachers to be more constructivist in philosophy than in practice (Becker, 2000); and there is evidence that teachers engage in practices that they indicate that they do not support (Lim & Chan, 2007, Liu, 2011). In other countries, such as Japan, despite national calls for reform (MEXT, 2008, 2011) traditional teacher-fronted pedagogy relying on rote-memorization continues to be the norm in many classrooms (Gorsuch, 1998, 2000; Nishino, 2008, 2011). Moreover, with the growing interest in human development there has also been a rise in misapplied and/or misappropriated theory

in classrooms (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014, p. 11). Neuro-myths such as left-brained and right-brained theory, or distinct teaching to specific learning styles (eg. visual/kinesthetic/auditory, etc.) has permeated classrooms and popular thinking for so long that teachers and students alike believe that they are facts (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2014, p. 11-12). The time spent creating and implementing pedagogy that stem from these neuro-myths costs valuable class time that could be spent utilizing more effective methodologies based on true evidence. However, although many teacher education programs include coursework in cognitive neuroscience, after pre-service training any further application or research must be self-initiated. Time-strapped teachers who are focused on the more immediate needs of preparing lessons may have little exposure or experience in applying evidence-based theory based on cognitive neuroscience in their classrooms. As such, they continue to teach using the same traditional, less effective methodologies.

The purpose of this paper is to first briefly outline how the brain processes new information, specifically, how learning gets transferred into long term memory. Then it will



share some evidence-based practices that the author utilizes to teach EFL in higher education.

### Information Processing in the Brain

For educators, one of the key roles is to create the conditions through which learning can be best achieved. Learning can be defined as, “the relatively permanent change in a person’s knowledge or behavior due to experience. This definition has three components: 1) the duration of the change is long-term rather than short-term; 2) the locus of the change is the content and structure of knowledge in memory or the behavior of the learner; 3) the cause of the change is the learner’s experience in the environment rather than fatigue, motivation, drugs, physical condition or physiologic intervention” (Mayer, R. E., 1982, p. 1040).

Learning and memory coexist in symbiosis whereby they are mutually dependent upon one another. As such, in order to help students to learn it is essential that educators first understand how the brain processes and stores information. The cognitive system can be organized into 3

basic processes. 1. input/output, 2. information processing (decoding & encoding), and 3. storage and retrieval. Our senses recognize external stimulus that we decode to understand and situate it within our existing schema. Upon placing new information within our understood framework, we then then encode it in order to process, and maintain it within our memory storage system. Once it is stored, (in either working or long-term memory), we apply different processes to retrieve that information during times when we would like to utilize the data. Finally, our use of that information will take form of some kind of output (Figure 1).

### The Multi-Store Model

Atkinson & Shiffrin’s (1968) influential multi-store model of memory postulates three components of human memory: *sensory memory*, *short-term (working) memory (STM)*, and *long-term memory (LTM)*. As we interact with the environment our senses attend to stimuli. This information is initially stored in *sensory memory*. The inputs we pay attention to are then transferred to our STM whereby we encode it. The inputs that we do not attend to are lost or forgotten (Figure 2).

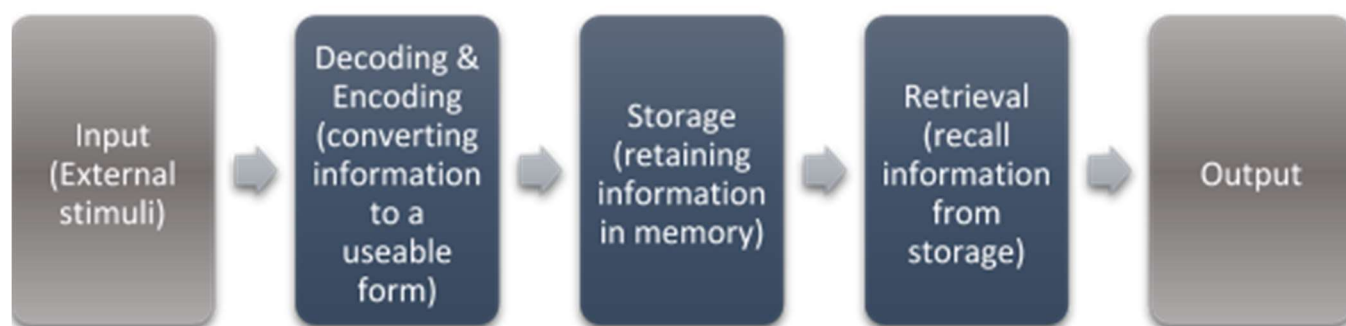


Figure 1.

Basic stages of processes involved in human memory (adapted from Marzano, 1998).

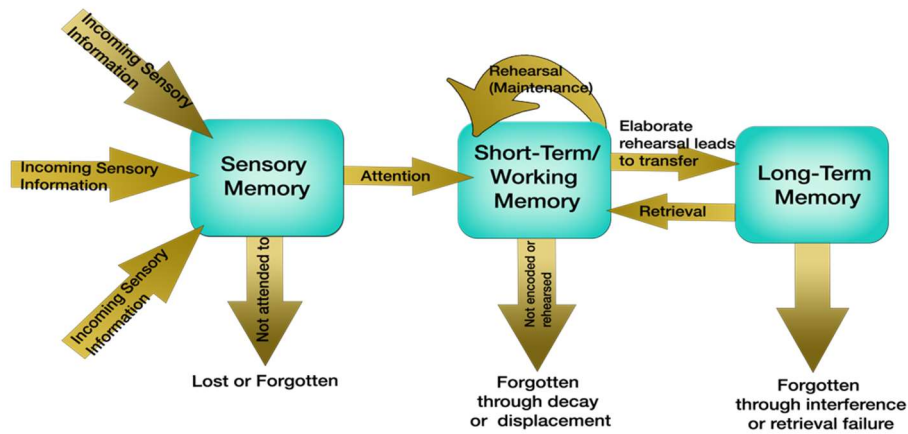


Figure 2.

*Atkinson-Shiffrin's multi-store model of memory (adapted from Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968).*

### Sensory & Short-Term Memory Capacity and Duration

Sensory and STM stores have a limited capacity. This results in a limit in the number of inputs that can be attended to at the sensory stage and within short-term memory. George Miller (1955) found in his seminal research *The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two* the capacity limit is  $7 \pm 2$  chunks of information. According to Miller, chunking can extend the capacity of STM by grouping strings of information into smaller chunks so that they are easier to process (eg. a 9-digit telephone number broken down into 3 or 4 digit chunks). Another example of extending the capacity is through the use of mnemonics, for example, remembering the word STEAM to represent “Science, Technology, Engineering, Arts and Mathematics”.

The average duration of information within STM is 10-20 seconds, with declining recall after 12 seconds (Peterson & Peterson, 1959). Information is lost through decay or displacement (pushed out by new information). For example, forgetting what you want to say as you attend to other external sensory inputs in a conversation.

### Long-Term Memory Capacity and Duration

According to the Multi Store Model, all humans have an existing schema of neural networks that we have been constructing since we began to interact with our external environment. Within our neural networks, each memory is embedded in many neural connections, and each connection

is related to other memories. As we encode our memories we encode them to this network, or schema. For example, as we interact with a new input we relate it with what we already know or have experienced, and then establish a connection. The extent to which these memories are encoded will affect their transfer to LTM. The more often inputs are rehearsed the more likely the transfer to LTM will be achieved. Furthermore, if inputs are connected to strongly anchored memories or elements within the individual's schema there is also more chance for that input to be stored in LTM. However, tenuous encoding or lack of rehearsal can result in that data being difficult to retrieve (see interference and retrieval failure below).

Research suggests that LTM is limitless and holds information relatively permanently Atkinson & Shiffrin (1968). This is why once you learn how to ride a bike you will always be able to ride a bike, even without using one for years. Retrieval of information stored within LTM is dependent upon retrieval cues. Unlike STM where there is a limited capacity and information is lost through decay or displacement, LTM is viewed to be limitless. Therefore, once stored in LTM the data remains indefinitely, however, the cues to recall the memory can be disrupted, or interfered with to the degree that the memory becomes either inaccessible or difficult to recall. Each memory is stored in LTM within a network of interconnected memories. Retrieval of the information within LTM can be affected by interference and/or retrieval failure.

Interference occurs as a result of stored information that is similar which can distract from locating the specific information we are trying to retrieve. There are two types of interference: retroactive and proactive (Baddeley & Hitch, 1977). Retroactive interference occurs when new information interferes with old information. For example, you get a new phone number and you become so accustomed to telling everyone your new telephone number that recalling your old telephone number becomes difficult. Proactive interference occurs when something that you learned in the past affects your ability to retrieve something you have recently learned. For example, you are beginning to learn a new language (Spanish), however you have studied Japanese as a second language for many years and when you try to ask a question in Spanish the words you recall are Japanese.

Because all memories are embedded within other associations in LTM over time if there is little access to that information then the cues may be affected and the memory not recalled due to retrieval failure. With retrieval failure, the information is not lost or displaced, but it simply cannot be found (Tulving & Pealstone, 1966). More recent research suggests that information stored within LTM is not an exact replica of what occurred, but encoded reconstructions.

For instance, new information can be interpreted and encoded so that it fits with the individual's pre-existing knowledge/schema, further strengthening prejudice or stereotypes. Another type of reconstruction is when the individual encodes an event with additional information that did not occur, which can result in distortions or even "false memories" (Roediger & McDermott, 1995)

### Improving Retention of Information

Rehearsal is necessary in order to improve the duration of stored information within STM. It has a limited capacity and therefore, "use it or lose it" as it will decay or be displaced. However, rehearsal alone does not guarantee transfer to LTM. Craik & Lockhart's (1972) influential research identified two main types of rehearsal: maintenance and elaborative. *Maintenance rehearsal* is rote repetition, whereby an individual may revisit the information often at different times, perhaps by writing it or saying it often (e.g. drills). *Elaborative rehearsal* links the new information in a meaningful way to the individual's personal schema already stored in LTM. Craik & Lockhart found that elaborative rehearsal promoted encoding to LTM better than maintenance rehearsal; the more active and meaningful the encoding the stronger the connections because the information is processed more deeply. In other words, the more meaningful, the deeper the processing and the better the storage.

### The Spacing Effect

The spacing effect refers to the significant findings of Hermann Ebbinghaus (1885) that spaced presentations of information is learned more effectively than long intensive massed presentations. For example, six intervals of 30 minutes of study will produce better recall than one 3-hour block of study (Figure 3).

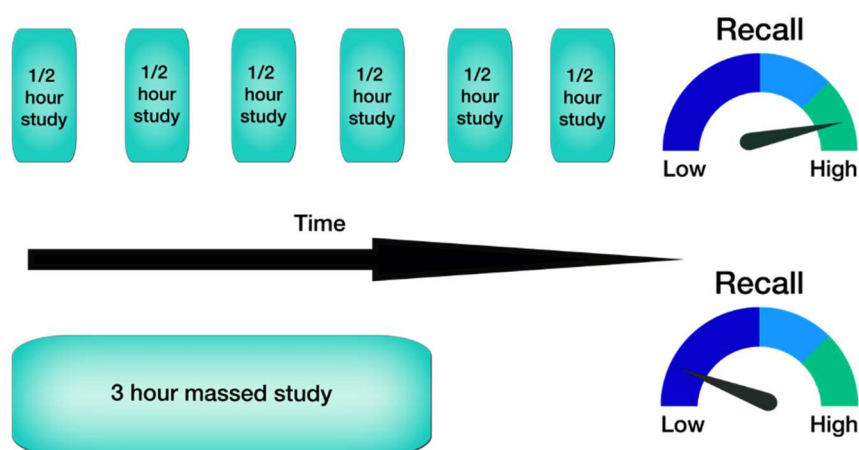


Figure 3. Spacing Effect. Adapted from Ebbinghaus, 1885.

Although the evidence of the spacing effect is robust, with numerous studies replicating the findings of Ebbinghaus, there is little evidence that the potential has been realized in classrooms, or textbooks. Most course curriculums (and textbooks) teach new information in large chunks, or units with limited rehearsal of previously learned material; review is most often in the form of a test. As such, there does not seem to appear to be a systematic implementation of spaced review in most courses (Dempster, 1988).

### Applications in an EFL University Context

There are many evidence based pedagogies that apply knowledge of how the brain processes information in order to enhance learner development; for a detailed discussion please refer to Tracey Tokuhama-Espinosa (2014) *Making Classrooms Better: 50 practical applications of Mind, Brain and Education Science* and *The ABCs of How We Learn: 26 scientifically proven approaches, how they work and when to use them* by Schwartz, Tsang, & Blair (2016). In this section, the author will introduce pedagogical applications of how the brain processes information. Although the methodologies were applied to EFL classes in a university in Japan, with appropriate modifications they can most certainly be applied to other teaching contexts.

#### Limited Capacity of STM: Limit the amount of new information introduced

Most textbooks will have extensive vocabulary lists within each chapter and the number of new words introduced in each unit may vary from 10 to 20, and maybe more depending on the teacher and lesson. Additionally, often class readings will include many new items that are outside of the vocabulary lists. Given that the capacity limit of what we can process is  $7 \pm 2$  chunks of information at a time it is impossible for students to fully process long vocabulary lists. In fact, introducing too many new information can serve to distract and take away from actual learning.

In the University EFL classroom, with our limited capacity in mind, when lesson planning the author sets a target to introduce or work with only 7 new information chunks at a time. For example, in a discussion activity where students use phrase cards to assist the flow of the discussion,

instead of using 30+ different possible phrases (discourse markers), only seven cards are given to each group to use. These cards are then swapped for other phrases on another day. Previously the activity used over 30 different discourse markers. The motivation behind giving students so many phrase cards to use in the activity was to give them as many options as possible. However, the effect was that with so many different phrases to choose from students became overwhelmed with choice and tended to search for and/or only use the phrases they were familiar with; finally, they did not add many new phrases to their active vocabulary. By limiting the number of cards to the *magical number*  $7 \pm 2$ , students are better able to focus on, and process new terms within their working memory.

Recognizing the limits of the capacity in human STM extends beyond vocabulary and grammar items to new sociolinguistic and sociocultural items. For instance, recently there has been a great push for Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). In a CLIL based approach students are learning new concepts in a foreign language. The new items they could be trying to decode and place within their existing schemata are new content, ideas, ways to think and communicate with others, etc. In order to manage the feeling of overwhelm and to focus learners on the key lesson objectives in my CLIL based lessons at the start of class I write on the board the main learning points for the lesson. I have a maximum of three objectives for the class, and within each objective there will be less than 9 new items. For example, in a lesson on “Quality of Life” the three objectives were:

1. To describe the difference between “Quality of Life” and “Standard of Living.”
2. Give 3 examples of each.
3. Discuss with others about your priorities in life (Give Reasons and Ask others)

Upon introducing this topic students encountered a lot of new information through visual aids and text. However, I limited their focus to these points, and within these points I limited the number of items that I required them to work with. Objective 3 would be using discussion phrase cards as I have described above. These phrases could be new, or terms

that they are already familiar with, however, there would be only 7 cards.

### Elaborate Rehearsal – Focus on Anchoring to Existing Schemata

As previously mentioned, effective transmission of new information into LTM is dependent upon *elaborate rehearsal*. One aspect of *elaborate rehearsal* is establishing meaningful connections to the individual. As such, it may not be enough to simply rely only on “activating” the student schemata with a warm up activity before introducing new concepts. Instead educators should actively work with students to help them make meaningful connections with new information. For instance, when introducing new vocabulary, it is common for teachers to ask students to write a sentence using that new vocabulary. However, although this process is more meaningful than simply remembering the words from a list or textbook definitions, often foreign language students rely on their dictionary to give them a sentence. As such, this sentence is not “meaningful” to the student, and thus the vocabulary has less chance of transfer to LTM than if they anchored it to something within their existing schemata.

A more effective way is to have students think about their lives and think of how they use the vocabulary in their lives and create sentences about their immediate lives. For example, a vocabulary term in one of the textbooks I use is *predict*. Previously, when I asked students to write a sentence I often saw sentences such as, “The weather forecast predicts sunshine tomorrow.” However, on tests students would not be able to recreate this sentence and often did not remember this word at all. Since making an active effort to have students create more semantic connections I ask them to think more specifically about the things that do in their lives. For example, are they on a sports team? Do they have a favourite sports team? Who do they *predict* will win and why? How about their lives after graduation, what do they *predict* will happen? When do they *predict* things in their lives?

In order to strengthen and create more connections to their existing schemata students complete vocabulary worksheets where they provide three different examples of how they see the new vocabulary in their lives (Figure 4). They then share the sentences with a partner who then must ask questions related to the situation/experience. The sharing of meaningful experiences with a partner serves to enhance the anchoring and memory.

1. Write the **new** vocabulary in the circle.
2. Write 3 sentences of how you **experience** that vocabulary **in your life**.
3. **Draw** one image in the circle.

Part of speech (PoS): \_\_\_\_\_

1. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Figure 4. Vocabulary worksheet sample.

Anchoring the new words into their existing schema has served to not only increase vocabulary test scores, but also the active use of new vocabulary terms in class discussions.

## **Elaborate Rehearsal – Focus on Deep Processing**

Elaborate rehearsal is not only about making semantic connections but fostering deeper processing. The deeper the processing the more likely the information is to be stored into LTM. Deeper processing can be achieved through activating other areas of the brain which then create more connections with the new information ( Craik & Lockhart, 1972). For example, one way to interact with new information is through text, however other ways to engage can be through visual images, or physically. Different inputs activate different areas within the brain; the more connections the brain makes with the new information the stronger the encoding, and the greater the chance for transfer to LTM. In the EFL setting in addition to having students connect new information to their individual lives, I also ask them to draw pictures, or even make a role play where they use new vocabulary or learned concepts. For instance, the vocabulary worksheet described above (Figure 4) has a space for them to draw a picture.

The focus on deep processing is not limited to vocabulary, but applied to other concepts, or course objectives. For example, in a lesson on critical thinking and logical fallacies, reading simple definitions about (a limited number of) fallacies are supplemented with recreations of situations in their lives where they have used logical fallacies. In order to encourage even deeper processing students work together in groups to create a role play to demonstrate one fallacy to the class, which working together in groups identify the fallacy.

## **Spacing Effect – Systematic Spaced Review in the Classroom**

The ample evidence that supports spaced review suggests that educators and students would benefit from more structured pedagogy that incorporates the spacing effect. Two main obstacles have been identified to impede the application in classrooms: teachers often default to familiar methods, and conventional instructional practice favors massed practice (Kang, 2016). For example, textbooks are based on units and usually upon moving on to the next unit of study there is little opportunity to review content from previous units until

perhaps the end of the term when students “cram” for their exams.

One way to incorporate more structured spacing of target objectives is to identify key objectives at the beginning of the term that will be used throughout the year. For example, the traditional lesson format using units can still be utilized, however in addition key vocabulary, phrases or objectives that can be used throughout the year can be extrapolated and a schedule based on spaced repetition be prepared at the beginning of the year. In the author’s case for instance, discourse markers (such as phrases to agree, disagree, or ask questions) can be used for all discussions, regardless of topic; these discourse markers are introduced and recycled throughout the year based on a schedule that cycles through the phrases used.

Another application of the spacing effect could be to incorporate educational technology in the classroom or course work that utilizes space repetition within its design such as Quizlet or Anki cards. With these programs teachers can create their own set of digital flash cards that can be shared with the class. Part of the course grade could be dependent on their use of the system. For Quizlet you can have a teacher account where you can manage the class and see their progress. Quizlet can also be used in groups where each group of 3-4 students work together on one mobile device to answer the questions in a kind of race to see which group finishes the fastest. You can also use Anki or Quizlet in teacher fronted activities where the teacher uses the system to ask questions that is displayed on a projector. Students think their answers in groups and write them down on a team whiteboard (each group has one whiteboard). Each team with the correct answer gets a point. The team with the most points wins. The system’s algorithm maintains a record of the items that are known so those that require more review will be displayed more often. This may be a more effective application than the teacher deciding what terms need more review based on observations.

The final method that the author uses to structure spaced repetition in the classroom is to revisit previously learned vocabulary and topics two or three weeks after the unit was taught in a class opening activity. Traditional themed units are still utilized in the author’s class, however,

two weeks after completion of the unit revisit with a class opening activities that utilize concepts and vocabulary from the previous unit. The opening activity could be a 2-minute speech, or a 3-2-1 fluency activity (Brown & Nation, 1997) that is a response to a question using some of the previously learned vocabulary or concepts.

### Conclusion

Language is not only grammar and vocabulary, but cognitive processes. It is vital for educators in the 21<sup>st</sup> century to assess their current pedagogy through the lens of established cognitive theory in order to ensure that their practices facilitate learning most efficiently. Deeper understanding of the mechanisms and limitations of the brain can have a powerful effect on one's teaching practice. With enhanced knowledge about how the brain actually processes new information teachers can re-evaluate and adjust their methodologies to reflect how people actually learn, rather than "how people have learned in the past." In order to raise teacher awareness about the relationship between the brain, learning, and pedagogy, this paper discussed briefly several key models from cognitive neuroscience and shared some applications within the EFL setting.

Established theory demonstrates that several different processes influence how information is retained within the brain; and educators can encourage a positive effect at each stage in order to enhance learning. Initially new information is in the STM stage where the brain is working on decoding and placing it within their existing schemata. Human brains have a limited capacity to process new information at this stage. Course objectives and textbooks often have long lists of new sociolinguistic items such as vocabulary, grammar and new ways of thinking about the world that can overwhelm learners. Teachers must identify what is new information for their learners and establish concrete limits in every class in order to reduce the overwhelm and give the working memory the capacity to process the most essential—in this case "*less is more.*"

Through deep processing—activating different areas of the brain, and *elaborate rehearsal* teachers can also influence how learners encode new information so that it is retained in the LTM and has better cues for easier recall.

Finally, teachers must make more effort to apply research findings about the *spacing effect* in the classroom by allowing more frequent review of past learned items in their classes. Often teachers may believe that their role is to teach/introduce *new* things, and as such may feel pressure to move on to the next unit and/or to teach something new. However, teachers must also be cognizant of their role to encourage retention and recall of items taught. Learning is not manifest from the teaching of more new things, but rather the successful encoding and retention of items in ways that they can be retrieved and recalled when needed at a later date. The introduction of more new information may be less significant than ensuring that what is taught is retained and recalled more easily. With enhanced awareness of how humans process information, teachers can recognize their influence at every stage and the role of the teacher is changed from one who simply introduces new information, to one that promotes human learning.

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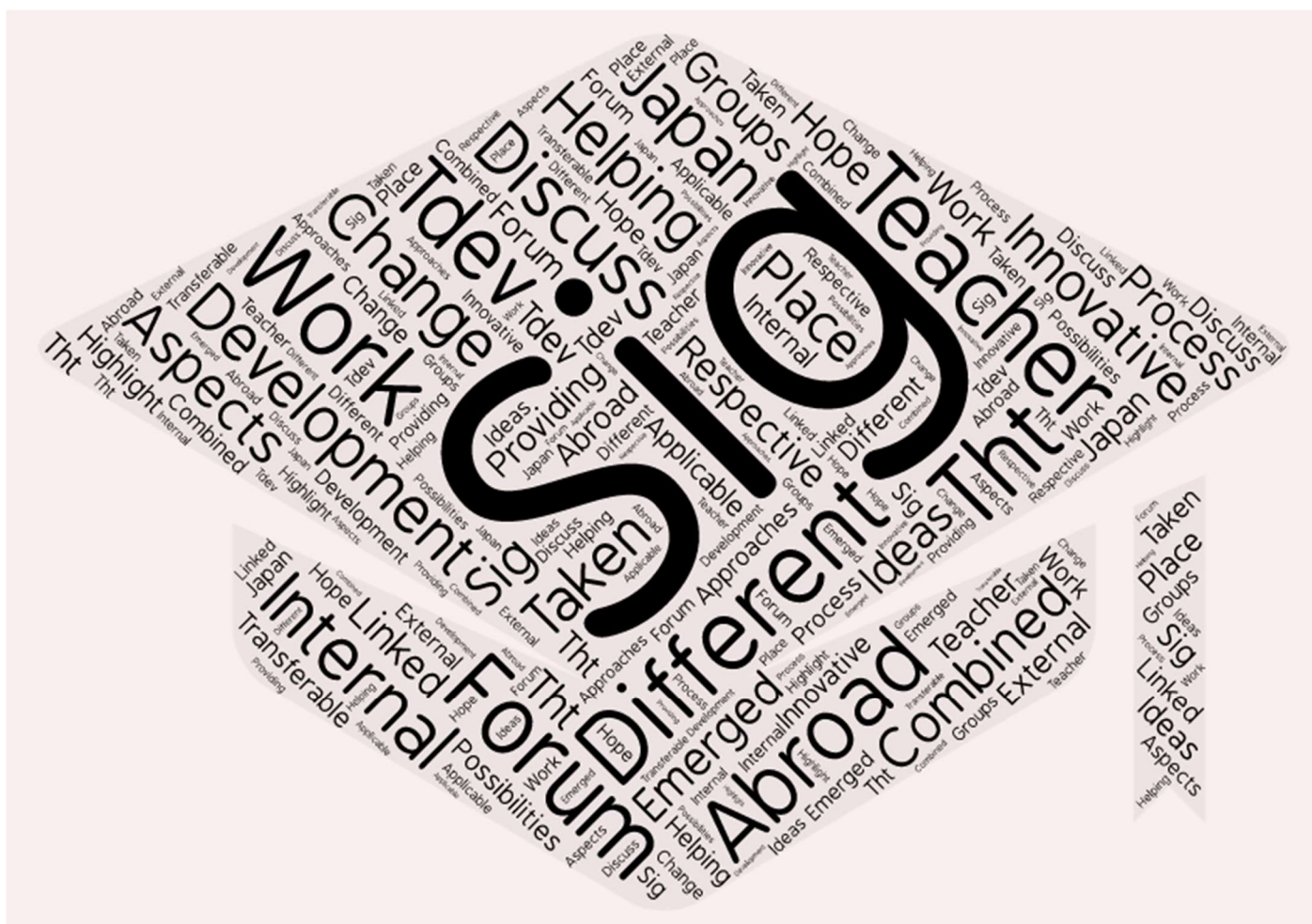


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# Using Online Student Response Games for Vocabulary Review

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This paper provides practical information on using online student response games such as Kahoot or Quizlet Live for reviewing target vocabulary in class. These applications allow the teacher to create online quizzes for students to compete against each other, either individually or in teams, using their smartphones to answer the questions. This paper explains how these games can be created, what types of questions and formats can be used, and what data can be extracted from the students' answers to provide the teacher with more information on which words may need further review.

この論文では Kahoot や Quizlet Live に代表される、語彙学習のためのオンライン学習ツールを用いた授業実践報告を提供する。これらのアプリによって、教師はオンラインでクイズを作成することができ、学生たちはクイズに解答するためにスマートフォンを用いて、個人ないしチームで互いに競い合う。本稿では、どのようにこれらのゲームが作成され、どのような問題や形式が用いられるのか、そして学生たちの解答からどのようなデータが抽出されるのかについて記述し、更なる研究を要する単語について教師に示唆を与える。

Students studying listening and speaking in a particular 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup>-year English program at a Japanese university are required to learn a preset vocabulary list of 15 words each week. These words are recorded with multiple definitions and example sentences in their vocabulary notebook for homework. Students then have a weekly quiz on vocabulary that tests the words from their notebook for the previous 3 weeks and contributes to their final grade. At the end of the semester they also have a final vocabulary test reviewing all 10 lists. Teachers have discretion how they review vocabulary before the quizzes or the final test, but using online student response games such as Kahoot or Quizlet Live has proved to be enjoyable and popular with the students. It also has the benefit of providing the teacher with additional data on the words the students find most difficult to remember.

## Background

Recent trends in mobile assisted language learning (MALL) research indicate vocabulary to be the most popular skill to integrate into digital mobile learning, with apps and websites often being used by teachers and learners to enhance vocabulary instruction and acquisition (Bozdogan, 2015;

Imtiaz, Norrihan, Muhammad, & Waqar, 2016). This may be done with mobile apps students download to facilitate language learning (Mindog, 2016), such as Quizlet for vocabulary review (Dizon, 2016) or Socrative (Ohashi, 2015). Past research has shown there are many potential opportunities for integrating MALL into self-study (Bozdogan, 2015; Imtiaz et al., 2016), but recently there has been a growth in interactive possibilities that utilize MALL for classroom games and quizzes.

There are now a range of options for digitally gathering responses from students in the classroom that use the mobile devices available, such as Plickers, Kahoot, Google Forms, Socrative, Flina, and Quizlet Live (Howell, Tseng, & Colorado-Resa, 2017; Wolff, 2016). In the past, student response systems such as individual clickers were restrictively expensive but now online solutions offer a free viable alternative for gathering student responses (Vandewalle, 2016). By using a student response system teachers can benefit greatly from obtaining instant whole class feedback during review tasks to see how well students have learnt the target language. This paper will focus on how to use two of

these systems, Kahoot and Quizlet Live, and what feedback can be gained from the students' responses. These two options were chosen above others due to their simplicity of use and suitability specifically for vocabulary review. The websites for both proved to be very user-friendly as they do not require the students to download an app or open an account, a drawback of alternatives such as Socrative. Furthermore, there is no requirement for the teacher to provide the students with physical QR code response cards such as when using the Plickers response gathering system. In addition, Quizlet Live specifically targets vocabulary review, and the visual aspect of Kahoot also favors vocabulary-based questions. Therefore, they were considered the most suitable for the intended task over alternative response systems that may be used to generate more open-ended feedback from students such as Google Forms or Flinga. However, it should be noted that to use these programs students do require access to a device and the Internet, but it is also possible to share a device if necessary.

These games were trialed with six listening and speaking classes, a total of approximately 180 students, for approximately 10 minutes at the start of class. Only one student involved did not have access to a device but was able to borrow a device from the teacher. The games proved to be easy to set up and implement, and students for the most part appeared interested and engaged when playing them. Quizlet Live was particularly useful for weekly review, due to the ease with which weekly lists can be combined to make supersets to review vocabulary words from multiple weeks, mimicking the format of the weekly quizzes and which would contribute to the students' grades. The feedback the games provided helped give the teacher some indication of which words students found difficult, which were identified for further recycling and review activities in later weeks. Kahoot in particular provides extensive individual feedback for students. Overall, the student response systems provided an interactive way to review vocabulary before the weekly quiz, and were able to replace previous review activities such as gap fill puzzles and crosswords that require less collaboration and interaction.

## Quizlet Live

Quizlet has been used widely as an effective tool for vocabulary review using various activities and flashcards (Barr, 2016; Dizon 2016) but since 2016 it has also offered the option of a collaborative class game known as Quizlet Live. This game allows students to interact in teams to match vocabulary from a predetermined list, in a race against other teams. However, a potential drawback is that you need a minimum of six students to play, so is unsuitable for small classes (Raine, 2016).

## How to Play Quizlet Live

First, the teacher must create a free Quizlet account. Then, they are able to create a new word list with English and Japanese meanings. This can be created from scratch or imported from Word, Excel, or Google Docs if the teacher already has copies of the target vocabulary lists. Once the word list has been created they can select the Quizlet Live option and display the code for students, by projecting it on a screen, which students must use to join the game. Ask the students to go to the web address <Quizlet.Live> on their device (e.g., an iPad or smartphone) then input the code displayed on the teacher's screen and write their name in English to join the game. It is important to direct students to the <Quizlet.Live> page to input the code, not <Quizlet.com>, as this page is simplified. There is only a box for students to enter the joining code rather than the main website. As students join, their names will be added to a list displayed on the teacher's screen. If students use an inappropriate name, or if they have not entered a name in English, then the teacher can click on the name in the list, it will be deleted, and the student must reenter their name.

When the teacher clicks "begin game," the students are assigned a team with an animal name. These groups are displayed on the teacher's screen and the students have to stand up and find their teammates. When the teacher clicks again to start the game, students have to work together with their group to match up the vocabulary. They see four possible answers but not all students have the correct answer, so they must share their devices and answers to identify which group member should answer each question. The teacher's

screen displays the progress of the teams. There are 12 questions and it is a race to answer all 12 correctly. However, if any member of the team makes a mistake, the score returns to zero and the team must start again. The stages of the game as seen on the teacher's screen are displayed in Figure 1.

### **Quizlet Live Feedback**

When the game ends, the teacher's screen shows a picture of the animal of the winning group and the names of the players in that team. The teacher can click to review the feedback that will display which two words students confused while playing the game. However, as pointed out by Raine (2016), there is a lack of data provided to facilitate individual or group assessment, as it does not specify which group or individual made which mistake.

### **Kahoot**

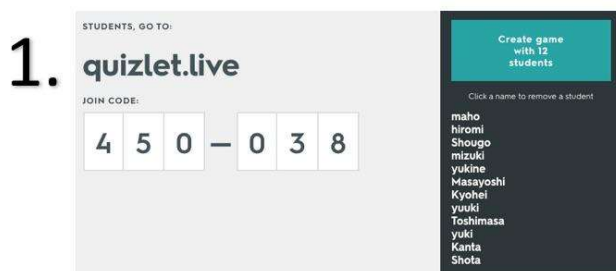
Kahoot has recently emerged as an effective game for review that encourages student motivation and engagement (Alvarado, Coelho, & Dougherty, 2016). Teachers can create visually appealing quizzes with images, and students work either alone or in groups to choose the best answer to multiple-choice questions. The format has many potential benefits such as its usefulness for assessing students and the provision of immediate feedback with a wide variety of data for the teacher to evaluate. Until recently the game was limited to multiple-choice quizzes. However, a new Jumble game, in which students order the four options, has recently been added and more variations may also become available in the future.

### **How to Play Kahoot**

First, the teacher must create a user account. Then, they will be able to create a new game, which requires providing general information such as a quiz name, topic, and intended audience. Once this has been entered, the teacher can create individual questions. Each item must have a question, an image, and four possible answers with the correct answer highlighted, as well as the time limit to be imposed for student responses for each question.

After clicking on "play game," the teacher must invite the students to go to <Kahoot.it> on their devices and input the code displayed on the teacher's screen. Similar to when playing Quizlet Live, it is important they go to <Kahoot.it> not to <Kahoot.com>. During the game, multiple-choice questions containing a question, picture, and four possible answers will be displayed from the teacher's screen. The students then have to choose the correct word to match the picture by selecting the colour that corresponds to the answer from the four choices displayed on their device. Students can play individually or in teams by sharing a device.

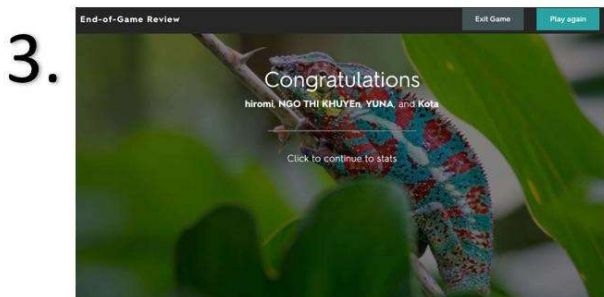
When the time limit for each question expires, the teacher's screen will display how many students responded with each answer and which answer was correct. After each question a scoreboard will be displayed showing the top five scoring students. Students get points for correct answers and the speed of their response. After the final question, the scores for the top five students are displayed. The teacher also has the option to download the entire class results and quiz data. The stages of the game as seen on the teacher's screen are displayed in Figure 2.



Students enter the code to join the game then when create game is clicked will be assigned a team.



A race between the teams is shown displaying the number of correct answers.



The winning team is announced.



Feedback showing any mistakes is displayed.

Figure 1. What will be displayed on the teacher's screen while playing Quizlet Live.



Students enter the code to join the game.



The question and four possible answers are displayed.



The correct answers and number of responses for each is displayed.



A leaderboard listing the top 5 scoring respondents is displayed.



After the final question the top 5 leaderboard is displayed and the option to download more feedback.



Additional feedback for all students is provided in a spreadsheet document.

Figure 2. What will be displayed on the teacher's screen while playing Kahoot.

### Kahoot Feedback

The teacher can download a spreadsheet that contains the final scores and number of correct answers for each student. The spreadsheet also breaks down the number of correct answers for each question; the answers are colour coded so the teacher can see at a glance which questions the students most struggled with. The spreadsheet also provides an overview of the percentage of correct answers to give an idea if it was an easy or difficult quiz as well as data on student responses as to

whether they found the activity fun or useful. Overall, the feedback provided by Kahoot is much more extensive than that provided by Quizlet Live and allows the teacher to track and assess the responses of individuals or teams, which would also make using the results for summative assessment possible if desired. Kahoot has a great deal of potential for identifying the words students in general find most difficult to remember and recycling them through future review activities.

## Conclusion

In summary, Kahoot and Quizlet Live offer engaging, collaborative, and interactive ways to review vocabulary in class. They also provide feedback for the teacher to use in tracking students' progress and deciding what words to prioritize and recycle in future review tasks. These response systems are simple for both the teacher and the students to set up and use, and in this paper I have attempted to provide practical advice for any teachers considering using this approach.

The scope of this paper has been limited in focus to vocabulary review and the two specific response systems, but future research will consider the wide variety of student response systems now available for collecting different types of feedback from students such as Google Forms, Flina, or Socrative. These systems offer exciting new ways to collect student contributions. Therefore, future studies will explore innovative ways they can be implemented in language classes to engage students and provide teachers with meaningful feedback on student progress.

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## Author's Biography

**Peter Harrold** is an English Lecturer at Kyushu Sangyo University in Fukuoka, Japan. He holds an MA in teaching English for academic purposes from the University of Nottingham, UK. His research interests include EAP, autonomy, extensive reading, and MALL.

# The Effectiveness of Team Teaching in Japanese High Schools

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English education and team teaching in Japanese public and private high schools demand the collaboration of Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and assistant language teachers (ALTs). The roles of each in terms of lesson preparation and materials selection as well as the perceived agency of the JTEs and ALTs in the national foreign language curriculum can become sources of conflict and dysfunction. This is an examination of their preservice and in-service training. High school ALTs and JTEs nationwide were surveyed and interviewed. Both parties felt that there need to be clearer guidelines of their individual roles to team teach effectively.

日本の公私立高等学校における英語教育とチームティーチングでは、日本人の英語教師である Japanese Teachers of English (以下、JTEs) と、外国語指導助手、いわゆる Assistant Language Teachers (以下、ALTs) の共同作業が要求される。授業準備や教材選びにおけるそれぞれの役割、そして同様に国の外国語教育課程指導要領にて示される JTEs と ALTs の責任の認識の違いが、チーム内に衝突や機能不全を起こす原因となりうる。本研究は彼らの事前研修および事中研修を分析したものである。全国の高校に勤務する ALTs と JTEs を対象に調査し、またインタビューを行った。本研究の結果から、JTEs と ALTs のどちらのグループも、効果的な英語のチームティーチングを実現するためには、彼らそれぞれの役割についてのより明確なガイドラインが必要だと感じていることが浮き彫りとなった。

## Introduction

Since 1987, the Japan Exchange and Teaching Program (JET Program) has aimed to promote grassroots internationalization through providing native English-speaking assistant language teachers (ALTs) for Japanese schools to team teach with Japanese teachers of English (JTEs). When the JET Program was first initiated, the ALT's duties mainly facilitated intercultural exchange with little emphasis on actually teaching English (Martin, 2010). Rather than having one ALT consistently present at one school during their term on the JET Program, ALTs were dispatched to a large number of institutions as visitors for a day, acting as cultural ambassadors for their home country. When the program was first implemented in public high schools, especially the competitive and college bound (also known as *shingakugo*) schools, team teaching was conducted by JTEs on a voluntary basis (Iwami, 1992). English oral

communication classes were not required in Japanese public senior high schools until April 1994 (Tomei, 1998). The listening section of the National Center Test for University Admissions test was introduced in 2006, and in effect, more English communication classes and interview exams have been woven into the English language curriculum in high schools throughout Japan. Junior and senior high school ALTs were transitioning from being visitors to teachers who would assist the JTE in English communication classes.

However, as exams and English curriculum requirements began to gear towards English oral communication in the 1990s and 2000s, the ALT's role in team teaching at Japanese high schools began to evolve into a more active and prominent role in the classroom. A large number of ALTs refer to their roles as "human tape recorders" as their JTE only summons them to recite dialogues from their textbooks (McCrostie, 2017). Conflicts also arise for

JTEs as they try to navigate their role in team teaching. JTEs who are used to solo teaching may have some confusion as to what the role of the ALT should be. Some may believe the role of the ALT to be more of an entertainer or guest, rather than that of a partner in teaching (Rosati, 2005). These beliefs can lead to an underutilization of the ALTs in class planning and teaching. While this underutilization of ALTs still remains an issue in JET's 30th year, many senior high school ALTs and JTEs escape this trend due to the nature of their contracts and teacher training.

Currently, senior high school ALTs attend four different kinds of training seminars during their employment. They first attend JET Tokyo Orientation for 3 days. Team teaching seminars are conducted by teacher trainers and are divided based on the type of school that the ALT will teach at. Until 2014, the Association for Japan Exchange and Teaching (AJET), a volunteer organization of JET Program participants, also facilitated workshops for incoming JETs. ALTs attend another orientation exclusively for 1st-years with their respective Board of Education (BOE). The 1st-year orientation is combined with the elementary and junior high school ALT orientation, and the ratio of the content between teacher training and general living in Japan varies depending on the BOE. Prefectural and municipal ALTs also have the annual Skills Development Conference (SDC) together in the fall or winter. The length and the content of this conference varies between BOEs depending on how many ALTs are contracted in the prefecture. Larger prefectures usually host SDC for 2 days or more with a designated committee of BOE employees, ALTs, and JTEs, while prefectures with fewer ALTs only host the SDC for 1 day. Senior high school ALTs also have their own regional meetings in the spring, where they discuss team teaching strategies and attend workshops for a day.

Now, most senior high school ALTs work at only one school during their entire term on the JET Program while the elementary and junior high school ALTs visit multiple schools and rotate often during their term. In the past few years, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has changed their policies to include ALTs in more schools throughout Japan by 2020 (Aoki, 2014). This dynamic nature of the national English

curriculum in preparation for the 2020 Olympics, however, evokes issues with the perceived roles of the JTE and ALT during their preservice and in-service training. In an interview with *The Japan Times* about the influx of ALTs in Japanese elementary schools, Sophia University professor Kensaku Yoshida stated, "The education ministry is responsible for ensuring the quality of ALTs, [b]ut if English becomes a proper subject (in 2020) and the education ministry doesn't provide some kind of training, it may cause confusion (with the teachers)" (Aoki, 2014). As Yoshida stated, it is vital to provide proper training for ALTs and JTEs to implement effective English education in Japan. This study was aimed at evaluating the current state of training that English instructors receive and determining how English teacher training can be improved in the future.

It is important to note that almost all senior high school ALTs are contracted under the prefectural BOE, while most elementary and junior high school ALTs are contracted under the municipal BOE. As of July 1<sup>st</sup>, 2016, there are approximately 1,739 prefectural JET ALTs (JET Programme, 2016). The JET Program does not document the exact number of senior high school ALTs in Japan and some senior high school ALT contracts vary between BOEs, so there may be a margin of error in this estimate. For example, the Hamamatsu Municipal BOE oversees one senior high school ALT. BOEs also directly confirm which "level"/ranking the ALT's school is. A competitive senior high school with a low acceptance rate would be labeled as a "high-level school," while a senior high school with a high acceptance rate would be considered a "low-level school." There are ALTs who are also placed at specialized schools (technical, commercial, agricultural, etc.).

Since 2014, the number of ALTs contracted in private and public schools in Tokyo have also significantly increased, and the training seminars for Tokyo JET participants are conducted differently from the rest of the prefectural BOEs in Japan. In Tokyo, the Tokyo Private JET Shigaku Zaidan Organization (東京都私学財団) mainly organizes and facilitates training for Tokyo ALTs by hosting workshops that are presented by teacher trainers who were former ALTs. While ALTs receive teacher training throughout the year, JTEs seldom receive training on team



teaching. Before 2006, teacher licenses in Japan were permanent after passing the licensing exam, but now all teachers must take special seminars every 4-5 years to retain their teaching license. However, JTEs only have one opportunity to receive training for team teaching through SDC, and only one or two JTEs per school are required to attend the conferences. In the following questionnaires, both the JTEs and the ALTs expressed their concerns about how their teacher training lacks focus on their respective roles in team teaching. These opposing levels of exposure to team teaching in the training that the JTEs and ALTs receive relate to how they experience team teaching together in the classroom.

This study was an examination of the positive and negative experiences that both ALTs and JTEs have had with team teaching at Japanese senior high schools. The research was focused on three areas: (a) the pre-service and in-service training ALTs and JTEs receive during their employment, (b) how ALTs and JTEs are collaborating when they team teach, and how they perceive each other's roles in team teaching, and (c) how future job satisfaction and job training for both ALTs and JTEs can be improved.

## Method

### Participants

The ALTs who participated were recruited through prefectural BOE newsletters and Facebook groups that were exclusive to senior high school JET participants. JTE participants were contacted via these ALT participants. Participants included 128 ALTs and 14 JTEs.

63% of the ALTs team teach with four to seven JTEs per year. 56% of the ALT survey participants possessed a teaching certification of some kind. 59% of them had TEFL certification (29% of them noted that they received their TEFL certification through the CLAIR TEFL Grant while in the JET Program); 20% had CELTA certification; 11% had teaching licenses in their home countries; and 4% had received other forms of teaching certification. 51.4% of the ALTs were teaching at low-level senior high schools; 21.2% were teaching at intermediate-level; 9.6% taught at high-level; and 17.8% taught at specialized high schools. 97% of the ALTs were teaching 1st-year high school students; 83%

taught 2nd-year students; and 75% taught 3rd-year students. The 2nd- and 3rd-year student team teaching classes, however, are optional elective courses (English Expression, Debate, etc.). 57% of the ALTs stated that they taught less than 15 hours a week, which was interesting, considering that BOEs require senior high school ALTs to teach 15 hours minimum per week (Shizuoka BOE). 40% taught 11-14 hours; 14% taught 6-10 hours; and 3% taught 1-5 hours per week. Some ALTs noted that they only visit the elective courses classes once a month, but a majority of them taught the 1st-year students once a week.

### Questionnaire

In order to understand how confident ALTs and JTEs were in their team teaching experiences and abilities, a questionnaire was distributed to 128 ALTs and 14 JTEs nationwide. The questions were designed based on surveys that other studies (Birch, 2009; Gifu Prefectural Education Center, 2002; Luxton, Fennelly, & Fukuda, 2014; Mahoney, 2004) have conducted for comparison, and others were based on postconference surveys that BOEs distribute. These studies asked ALTs and JTEs about how they perceived each other's roles. This study resembles Birch's questionnaire about satisfaction with teacher training for ALTs but also inquired about the JTE's satisfaction with their own training in team teaching. Luxton, Fennelly, and Fukuda (2014) also identified the obstacles both groups face when native English speakers team teach with JTEs and how most JTEs perceive the ALT's role as a guest in the classroom.

Questions 1-12 (see Appendix) related to the demographics of the ALTs and JTEs in terms of how long they have been team teaching and the level of the institution they currently teach at. Questions 13-19 focused on the ALT and JTE's satisfaction with team teaching and the extent it varies among the other JTEs. Questions 20-30 reviewed the satisfaction that ALTs and JTEs have with their preservice and in-service training and how much of their training focuses on team teaching. Finally, questions 31-37 focused on the ratio of the average ALT and JTE involvement in lesson planning, teaching, and evaluating between the two groups. At the end of the survey, ALT participants were asked to leave their email address for a follow-up interview.

## Interviews

Interviews were conducted in English to clarify and provide context for the initial survey results. Interviews were recorded and transcribed. ALTs based in the Seibu region of Shizuoka were interviewed in person, and ALTs outside of the Seibu region were interviewed via Skype. All of the JTE interviews were conducted in person in English and Japanese within the Seibu region of Shizuoka. ALT interviews were approximately 1-2 hours long while JTE interviews lasted 30-45 minutes.

## Results

### Satisfaction with Training

Both JTEs and ALTs expressed that they received no clear criteria of what the other teacher was supposed to do for team teaching. A 1st-year ALT at a technical senior high school stated, "In Tokyo Orientation, we were told what we would do, but not what the JTE would do...and each of my JTEs would be very different. Some just look out the window, some translate everything I say. It didn't feel like 'team'-teaching." 121 ALTs provided similar responses regardless of the level of the high school they taught: the lack of information on what input they should expect from their JTEs and the overwhelming brevity of their roles in the classroom. All JTE respondents who had received their licenses over 5 years ago (86%) noted that they had also received no preservice training on lesson planning or team teaching with ALTs. However, two of the JTE respondents had obtained their licenses within the past few years and noted that their job interviews and preservice training seminar involved BOE employees who were former ALTs. As for the in-service training, 98 of the ALTs and 12 of the JTEs also expressed that most conflicts in the workplace that involved lesson

planning and lack of feedback from the ALT or JTE were reduced to "cultural misunderstandings" rather than strategizing a feasible solution for the lack of communication between ALTs and JTEs.

### Lesson Planning

105 out of 128 of the ALT respondents confirmed that they made 100% of the lesson plans on their own and 13 out of 14 of the JTE respondents agreed. Only 2 ALTs stated that they designed less than 50% of the lesson plan (Table 1.).

Both sets of respondents stated that this ratio seldom varied among the other JTEs. 115 of the participants were satisfied with this ratio because they said it allowed the ALT to have an active role in the classroom while the JTE could act as the assistant. One ALT respondent wrote, "I like it. It allows me to have control. It gives [JTEs] a break and it makes me a better teacher. Our classes are more interactive and focused on output." However, 48% of the ALT respondents were dissatisfied by the lack of feedback from the JTE before and after lesson planning and wished that the JTE participated more actively in class when monitoring the students' output. 37% of the ALTs also noted that their BOE and base school never reviewed their performance or explicitly stated what they should improve on. One ALT wrote, "I think this is the only job in the world where you're not given a performance review." Eight of the JTE respondents stated that they did not have time to read through lesson plans or provide adequate feedback due to their job duties outside of team teaching.

Table 1. Responses to How Much of the Team Teaching is Facilitated by the ALT?

	Lesson planning				Team teaching			
	<50%	50%	50%<	100%	<50%	50%	50%<	100%
ALTs	2	0	21	105	2	8	92	26
JTEs	0	0	1	13	0	0	2	2

Note. ALTs: n = 128, JTEs: n = 14.

## Team Teaching

A majority of the ALTs and JTEs agreed that the ALTs should create lesson plans, present, practice pronunciation, and give feedback to students to monitor their participation and confirm their understanding of the lesson. However, 20% of the ALTs were unsure if they had to monitor class participation or discipline students. Both parties also agreed that the JTEs should discipline the students, provide grammar explanation/translations in Japanese if necessary, and monitor participation, implying that that JTEs would play a more supporting role while the ALT played a main role in team teaching. The ratio of ALT and JTE participation was slightly more balanced than the ratio of involvement with lesson planning. 92% of the ALT respondents stated that they facilitated over 50% of the class and that 71% of their JTEs facilitated 20%-30% of the class.

All of the ALTs noted that their best team teaching experiences involved actively communicating with their JTEs before and after lessons and having their JTE motivate students to participate in class. A 2nd-year ALT wrote,

One of the best JTEs would do everything with me. He would greet the class, explain activities, do examples, motivate students to participate, and help students ALL with me. I'm basically the main teacher but this particular teacher understood my roles and limits. He even took the time each week to talk about the classes we had together. Others didn't bother reading it.

The JTE respondents overall stated that their best team teaching experiences involved the students' active engagement with the ALT during the lessons.

When asked about their worst team teaching experiences, all of the ALTs noted the lack of engagement and classroom management from their JTE. One ALT wrote, "The most difficult experience was team teaching with a teacher who, despite having gone over the lesson plan just before class, refused to participate on a regular basis and would stand in the back or off to the side without participating. On a bad day, they would sleep in the back." There were 94 similar responses. The JTE respondents had negative experiences with time management and lack of

engagement with their ALT; these were usually with 1st-year ALTs. One JTE stated, "The ALT's PowerPoint was very long. The students had no time to practice their speaking," and another stated, "The students could not focus in the class. My ALT did not engage with the students." Both ALTs and JTEs felt that there needs to be more equal participation and engagement with students during team teaching, and that the students should have more opportunities to speak in a seminar-style class instead of a lecture.

## Interviews

27 current ALTs and 4 former ALTs were interviewed for 1-2 hours. 29 of the interviews were conducted over Skype while 2 of them were in person. 21 worked at low-level schools, four were at intermediate-level schools, three were at a commercial/technical/agricultural schools, one was at a high-level school, and one was at a private upper intermediate school. Seven current JTEs and one former private school JTE were interviewed in person for 15-20 minutes. Four were from low-level schools, one was from an upper intermediate school, one was at a high-level school, and one was from a private upper intermediate school. Participants were asked to extrapolate on their survey responses and how their roles and training should improve.

When asked about their own perceived roles, most of the ALTs stated that they were the main teacher rather than the assistant, while the JTE should act as the motivator. They specifically noted that JTEs should show that English can be useful for Japanese people, provide grammar explanations, and show what an English-speaking Japanese person would be like to show how feasible it is for a nonnative English speaker to master the language. A 2nd-year ALT commented, "Please, just tell the ALT explicitly what you want for the lesson. Also, the ALT part of team teaching mystifies me. If I am an assistant, let me assist. As it is, I plan all the lessons myself." 30 of the ALT interviewees had similar responses. When asked about the ALT's agency in lesson planning and team teaching, one JTE stated, "The English Conversation Class is for the ALTs. They should encourage students to talk. Sometimes, I have to translate instructions in Japanese," and four other JTEs provided similar answers. Another JTE noted that their presence was only necessary

because it would be illegal to leave the ALT alone in the classroom. Based on the interviews, it seems that the JTEs and ALTs both feel that the ALT should have the most agency and have a leading role in team teaching.

When they were asked about how team teaching could be improved, all 31 of the ALTs and six of the JTEs referenced their preservice and in-service training. Five of the JTEs also noted that their impression of the ALT was based on the old model of team teaching: visit the classroom as a foreign guest rather than a teacher and return to their home country. When asked about their ideal roles, 29 of the ALT interviewees expressed that they wanted their classes to be more legitimate and focused on collaborative team teaching. One ALT stated, "Do lessons together. Besides using the ALT as a parrot or cool toy, actually plan lessons with us. Make our classes as important as 'normal' classes." Three of the JTEs stated that they wanted the students to have more opportunities to speak with the ALT.

### **Discussion**

In order for ALTs and JTEs to team teach effectively, intercultural communication and more uniformity of the ALT and JTE roles must be emphasized in their training. In the survey responses, more than half of the participants from each group echoed the same sources of confusion when it comes to team teaching. While senior high school ALTs attend training seminars multiple times a year, JTEs rarely attend the same ones. Both groups also agreed that ALTs should design over 50% of the lesson plans and lead their English Communication classes while the JTE should act as the assistant. The curriculum of the courses that the ALTs team teach in are not connected to the course of study for the other English courses that the JTE solo teaches. This gives ALTs more flexibility with creating the content for their classes. The objective of the English Communication classes involves speaking and listening practice for the students, and the ALTs can invest most of their time in creating activities to facilitate English conversations. This role reversal already occurs in team teaching, but both groups feel challenged when the lesson plan is not discussed beforehand or evaluated afterwards.

Some limitations in this study include the setting where these surveys and interviews were announced and conducted. The ALT respondents were recruited online via BOE newsletters and Facebook groups, so it is possible that some ALTs may not have seen the survey if they are seldom online. Links to the survey were not posted in AJET-affiliated Facebook groups or public JET-affiliated Facebook pages because they were public and accessible to non-ALTs, risking the possibility of collecting false data. There were much fewer JTE participants than ALTs, and JTEs were only recruited to take the survey by their ALT. This implies that the JTE would already have an open working relationship with their ALT to complete the survey and volunteer for the interviews. None of the JTE interviews were online and were conducted in public places, so they may have been less forthcoming with their workplace issues compared to the Skype interviews. The Skype interviews were more private, so the interviewees appeared more relaxed and vocal in their responses.

The results yield several implications for team teaching practices. First, both groups expressed that they would be more satisfied with team teaching if their roles were more clearly defined in their preservice and in-service training. The lack of mutual clarity in the ALT's and JTE's roles in team teaching affects their in-class performance to a huge extent. ALTs are assumed to take the leading role in lesson planning and leading their lessons, but there are few assumptions about what the JTE should do during their lessons since team teaching is rarely discussed in the JTEs' training. It is necessary for JTEs to receive more training on the concept of team teaching and collaborating with ALTs during classes. Both groups should also become more assertive in their agency with lesson planning; if ALTs and JTEs directly confronted each other before and after lesson planning, they could avoid potential issues during classes. Future job satisfaction for both groups can be improved by training both ALTs and JTEs on collaborative lesson planning and communication instead of only providing demos for games and ALT presentations. Designing content for lessons is essential to team teaching, but ALTs and JTEs need to confirm how they can execute the content collaboratively with less confusion about their perceived roles and agency in the classroom.

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## Appendix

1. Which prefecture do you teach in?
2. [ALTs Only] What gender do you identify as?
3. [ALTs Only] How old are you?
4. [ALTs Only] How many schools do you work at?
5. Do you change schools every year/semester?
6. Do you have any of these certifications? (TEFL, CELTA, Teaching License, Other: \_\_\_\_)
7. Is your high school private or public?
8. What grades do you teach?
9. What level is your school?
10. What do you do at school? (Oral Communication, Writing, Test Prep [EIKEN, University Entrance Exams, etc.], Grading, English Club, Other: \_\_\_\_)
11. [ALTs Only] Which program do you work for? (JET Program, Interac, Altia Central, Private Hire, Other: \_\_\_\_)
12. How long have you been an ALT/JTE? [Current Year]: (1st year, 2nd year, 3rd year, 4th year, 5th year, Other: \_\_)
13. [ALTs Only] Do you plan on recontracting? (Yes/No)

14. [ALTs Only][Optional] Why/Why not?
15. How many JTEs do you work with? (1-2, 3-5, 6-8, 9+, Other: \_)
16. On a scale of 1-5, how satisfied are you with team-teaching? (1: least satisfied, 5: very satisfied)
17. [ALTs only] On a scale of 1-5, does the JTE assist you when you team-teach? (1: does not participate, 5: fully assists when team-teaching)
18. [ALTs only] On a scale of 1-5, Are all of your JTEs able to interact with you in English? (1: Cannot speak in English, 5: Can perfectly speak in English)
19. Are there any issues/challenges you face with the program/school you work for?
20. How helpful was your pre-service training? Rate on a scale of 1-10 (1 being “not helpful at all”, 10 being “extremely helpful”)
21. Did your pre-service training help you learn how to team-teach?
22. How helpful was your in-service training? Rate on a scale of 1-10 (1 being “not helpful at all”, 10 being “extremely helpful”)
23. Did your in-service training help you learn how to team-teach?
24. On average, what percentage of the lesson plan is made by the ALT and the JTE? Is it 50-50?
25. To what extent does it vary between JTEs?
26. Should this percentage change? Why/why not?
27. Does the JTE discuss lesson plans before/after the class? [Yes (both), Yes (before), Yes (after), No]
28. On average, what percentage of team-teaching is done by the ALT? Is it 50-50?
29. To what extent does it vary between JTEs?
30. Should this percentage change? Why/why not?
31. How much English and how much Japanese is being used by the JTE? [Two Scales: 1-10; 1: Never used, 10: Used very frequently]
32. What should the ALT and JTE’s role be in team-teaching?
33. What was one of your best team-teaching experiences/classes?
34. What was one of your worst team-teaching experiences/classes?
35. How could team-teaching be improved?
36. Write your full name & e-mail if you'd like to be interviewed for this presentation.
37. [ALTs Only] Please share this with your JTE if they would also like to provide feedback.

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### Author Biography

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# Critical Thinking Through the Study of History

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This article describes the theoretical framework of an elective content and language integrated learning (CLIL) course in modern Japanese history. The course focuses on cross-cultural exchange between Japan and the world during the period 1868-1926. After describing the course structure and lesson organization, the article considers key elements of critical thinking and historical analysis, organizing them into three strands: description (using evidence to understand what took place); analysis (the how and why of historical change); and evaluation (connecting what they have learned to their own lives). It then describes selected activities that are used to support learner development of those skills. The article concludes with the finding that, with appropriate teacher scaffolding and feedback and discussion mechanisms, CLIL history can be highly motivating for both learners and instructors.

本稿は、1868年から1926年の間に日本が世界と行った異文化交流を扱う近代日本史（選択科目）の授業を、内容言語統合型学習（CLIL）にて行う理論的枠組みについて説明したものである。学習構成と授業の進め方について説明をしたうえで、批判的思考と歴史的分析の重要な要素を検討し、それらを「説明」（証拠の活用による過去の事象理解）、「分析」（歴史的変化の経緯と理由）、「評価」（学んだ内容の実生活への応用）の三部分へと整理していく。次に、これら説明・分析・評価のスキルを学習者が伸ばしていけるようサポートするべく選り抜かれた諸活動について述べる。教師が然るべき足場を提供し、適切なフィードバックと議論の仕方に沿って授業を進めることで、CLILによる歴史の授業は学習者と講師双方の関心を強く引きつけて内容に集中させ、意欲を高めることができると結論付けている。

CLIL (content language-integrated learning) is an umbrella term for a variety of pedagogical approaches that combine content and language learning. Rather than seeing language development as an end, however, "CLIL is about using languages to learn" (Marsh, Marsland, & Stenberg, as cited in Ball, n.d.). Coyle's 4Cs curriculum proposes four essential components of effective CLIL practice: content, communication, cognition, and culture. In this model, learning of content (subject matter) takes place when students personalize their learning by thinking on many levels (cognition) and interacting with others (communication). The final component is culture, which encompasses cross-cultural awareness and exploring self and "otherness" in relation to what is learned (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010).

The CLIL history course described here, "Japan and the World: Through Travellers' Eyes," focuses on the experiences of "travellers" between Japan and other countries between 1868 and 1926. The focus of assessment is student analysis of course content (cognition) and exploration of how course content interacts with culture, in particular how what they have learned connects to their own lives. Content is not directly assessed (there is no test of historical facts, for example), and language is only assessed insofar as it affects student ability to communicate their ideas. This assessment structure is intended to emphasize critical thinking skills and to move away from the idea that history is a list of objective facts to be rote-learned for examinations.

Writers such as Momoki (2016) have criticized the lack of focus on thinking skills in Japanese history education and its tendency to artificially separate Japanese history from the history of the world. When discussing their history learning experiences, course participants often echo these sentiments and report feeling ashamed at their limited grasp of their country's history. Another way of approaching history, I believe, is to see it as a rich source of stories about "what man has done and thus what man is," in the words of philosopher of history R. G. Collingwood (1946). In other words, by using historical sources to describe and understand what happened in the past and interpreting how and why it happened, students can learn to make connections between past and present and so use history as a resource to understand human actions in the present.

This paper will describe the conceptual framework of the course "Japan and the World: Through Traveller's Eyes," and outline selected activities that I use to encourage critical thinking and reflection. As this is a pedagogical paper, not a research paper, all references to student comments are anecdotal.

### Basic Course Outline and Lesson Procedure

The course focuses on the Meiji and Taisho periods in Japan (1868-1926), a time of tumultuous change. The Meiji Restoration of 1868 saw the overthrow of the military shogunate that had ruled Japan for centuries. The feudal class system was abolished, and limited parliamentary democracy introduced. Citizens were free to choose their professions, and Japan was opened to foreign trade and ideas after centuries of relative isolation. Debates raged about how best to achieve "Civilization and Enlightenment" (文明開化), with some thinkers proposing the abandonment of the Japanese language, while others, especially later on, argued that Japan was losing its own identity in its haste to adopt Western fashions.

"Japan and the World" is an elective course for 3rd- and 4th-year English majors, who must have a minimum ITP TOEFL score of 480. To date, all participants have been educated in Japan; thus, despite low levels of self-confidence

in their historical knowledge, their familiarity with key personalities and terms aids their comprehension of content. I also encourage them to do background research in their L1 to support their learning. To lower the cognitive demand, student readings focus primarily on individuals (the travellers of the course title), and I provide context through short lectures. Readings also focus on concrete events or opinions whose objective details can be understood fairly readily by students, but which lend themselves to deeper analysis.

Classes are divided into input classes, review classes, and classes for preparation or delivery of presentations. The basic structure of input lessons follows a "test-teach-test" structure in that students first complete a comprehension task without input from the teacher for homework (British Council, n.d.). Students read a background text describing the life of someone who travelled to or from Japan (a traveller), paired with a short authentic text (2-3 paragraphs) written by that person. Before reading, students are guided to research and record necessary vocabulary. After reading, they answer three sets of questions:

1. Chronological questions, aimed at understanding the story;
2. Comprehension questions, aimed at understanding the authentic text. Where there is no authentic text, students summarize the background text; and
3. Discussion questions, aimed at provoking thought on relevant issues.

In class, students have 20 minutes to compare and summarize their ideas in small groups. I elicit possible answers from students, clarify understanding where necessary, and add ideas to a shared class Google document. I then give a short lecture (15-20 minutes) focussing in greater depth on the issues in the homework questions. Finally, students spend 20 minutes writing a reflection, which will be described in greater detail below.

Students are assessed based on their understanding and analysis of the course content; language is only assessed when it influences their ability to express their ideas. They have time to prepare for all assignments and are never tested on dates or facts. The assessment breakdown is as follows:



- 12 x comprehension questions and reflections: 40%
- Group presentation: 20%
- Individual presentation and small-group discussion: 20%
- Reflective interview with teacher: 20%

### Framework for Critical Thinking Through History

The course was structured around an amalgamation of historical skills and critical thinking skills. For critical thinking skills, I referred to Facione's (2011) summary of the Delphi Report on Critical Thinking, which defines the subskills of critical thinking based on the opinions of 46 experts. Historical skills were drawn from two main sources: The Historical Thinking Project (n.d.) and Historical Association (Disciplinary concepts) (<https://www.history.org.uk/secondary/categories/pp-disciplinary-concepts>).

I divided the target skills for the course into three strands: description, historical analysis, and evaluation. These concepts are discussed further in the section on self-regulation, below. Briefly, they are drawn from the "DIE" model used in intercultural studies, and are aimed at moving from objective description, through inference and analysis, to subjective evaluation and personal identification with the themes under consideration.

I will first outline the framework that I used to build the course, before describing sample activities that have proved engaging and effective in developing students' skills. I hope that this framework will act as a useful starting point for teachers hoping to stimulate critical thinking and historical enquiry among students.

#### *Strand 1: Description*

Students use primary sources (created during the time being studied) and background information to understand events in the context of the times. They

consider differing perspectives on the same events and the credibility of different accounts.

**1a) Using evidence.** Students learn how to interpret and analyze primary sources.

**1b) Contextualizing and evaluating credibility.** Students infer connections between the historical context and the information in the source. They try to see events from the perspective of the writer. Using context, knowledge of the writer, and alternative sources, they evaluate the credibility of the source.

**1c) Understanding multiple perspectives.** Students infer and evaluate the positions of multiple participants.

#### *Strand 2: Interpretation*

Students identify key events and trends and the interrelations between them. They consider how comparisons across time and space can add to our understanding of history and the present.

**2a) Establish significance.** Students interpret available information and identify the significant aspects of the past.

**2b) Cause and consequence.** Students consider the evidence and infer causal links that can explain subsequent events. They consider "long-term ideologies, institutions, and conditions, and short-term motivations, actions and events" (The Historical Thinking Project, n.d.)

**2c) Comparison.** Students infer similarities and differences between societies at different points in time or space and consider how events were experienced differently by different individuals and social groups. They use this knowledge to explain behaviour or outcomes.

#### *Strand 3: Evaluation*

Students "consider [their] own relationship to [the content] and how we personally fit into the context of the issue" (Brookfield, pp.7-9). They try to empathise with the people they study and evaluate their actions. They reflect on what lessons history can have for the modern world and how their

thinking has changed in light of lesson content. They consider what they have learned about the study of history and its impact on our world.

**3a) Empathy.** Students evaluate the available information and attempt to take the perspective of a person living at that time. They try to understand “the social, cultural, intellectual, and emotional settings that shaped people’s lives and actions in the past” (The Historical Thinking Project, n.d.).

**3b) Ethics.** While empathy involves understanding events from the perspective of participants, ethics involves stepping back and evaluating individual actions and the consequences of their decisions.

**3c) Self-regulation.** Students monitor their own learning and apply critical thinking skills to their own opinions, “with a view toward questioning, confirming, validating, or correcting [one’s] reasoning” (Facione, 2011). They come to a greater understanding of what is subjective judgement and what can be stated objectively given available evidence.

**3d) Meta-history.** Through exposure to issues such as credibility, multiple perspectives, and differing historical explanations for events, students gain insight into history as a discipline and the “uses and abuses” of history in the modern world.

## Sample Activities for a Japanese History Course

### *Strand 1: Description*

**1a) Using evidence.** For homework before input sessions, students read a short authentic text written by the focus individual. It is crucial that students understand this evidence, as it forms the basis for all the other skills described above, and to this end texts chosen describe concrete events rather than abstract concepts. For example, in spite of its flowery English, students are able to use a text from 1910 to grasp what five young men from Choshu province (the Choshu Five) had to do to stow away illegally on a ship bound for England (Griffis, 1910). They are aided in this by their existing schemata; knowing the context—that their actions are illegal—helps students guess the meaning of words such as “evading.” Students are encouraged to research in their L1 to

fill gaps in their understanding, and where possible I use visual texts to supplement verbal explanation (in this case, the 2006 movie of the event; Igarashi, 2006).

Activities using visual evidence allow students to communicate while applying their cognitive skills to make sense of content, without the additional burden of having to comprehend a written text in their L2. According to Levstik & Barton (2005, p. 88), images also generate interest and “tap into a much wider range of background knowledge than printed text or oral discussions.” One excellent activity from the MIT Visualizing Cultures website ([https://ocw.mit.edu/ans7870/21f/21f.027/yokohama/cur\\_teacher/yb\\_cur\\_01.html](https://ocw.mit.edu/ans7870/21f/21f.027/yokohama/cur_teacher/yb_cur_01.html)) asks students to examine Japanese woodblock prints depicting Yokohama shortly after it opened to foreign residents. Using a series of guiding questions, students search for evidence of the interactions between Japanese and non-Japanese residents. In past courses, students have identified people of different origins using gestures to communicate, for example, or the imbalance in status between white westerners at leisure and the Japanese (usually women) who serve them. This leads into the discussion of how much we can rely on these sometimes fantastical images and the purpose of the artists in making them.

**1b, 1c) Credibility and context.** English writer and explorer Isabella Bird travelled to Japan in 1878, making an unusual decision to travel north to Hokkaido. She subsequently published her letters home to her sister. Students read selected excerpts from these letters (Bird, 1881), which focus on concrete aspects of daily life—such as the lives of rickshaw pullers or the new steam trains. For homework, students categorise Bird’s impressions into positive and negative. After sharing their impressions with other students, they are given an image depicting the same theme, either a Western tourist photograph or a Japanese woodblock print.

The teacher gives a brief orientation to the limitations of photography at the time and a set of guiding questions. Students work to compare the image and the text then present to other students. Considering two sources simulates the work of the historian in seeking corroboration

and reconciling differences in evidence and encourages students to understand that all texts, even photographs, can be subjective.

**1d) Multiple perspectives.** Students read a text describing the Namamugi Incident, in which a British merchant was killed by samurai in 1862 (Satow, 1921). The text, written by a British diplomat, presents the incident as a vicious and unprovoked attack. Based on background research, and their understanding of Japanese society at the time, students retell the incident from the Japanese perspective. They can make changes at the global level (explaining why it was considered disrespectful to walk in front of a daimyo's retinue), or identify words that demonstrate the writer's bias ("a barbarous murder," for example).

This activity is followed by the visual text activity described in 1a, above, which gives students more background on contemporary relations between Japanese and non-Japanese in Yokohama, near where the Namamugi Incident occurred. Students are also asked to decide who is at fault for the incident, which provokes lively debate and leads to examining the terms of the Anglo-Japanese Friendship Treaty signed in 1854, which exempted British nationals from Japanese law. This lesson clearly has an impact on students, as a majority of them choose to discuss it in their final reflective interviews.

### *Strand 2: Analysis*

In the initial design of this course, I included several activities in which students were to carry out historical analysis in small groups. Perhaps because students lacked confidence in their history knowledge, or in their ability to make inferences, these had limited success. Revising the course, I decided to use the test-teach-test setup "to identify the specific needs of learners" (British Council, n.d.); I would give students a chance to generate ideas in response to homework questions (test) and use my lecture to cover points that I felt they had missed (teach).

Let us consider the example of the Choshu Five, introduced above in section 1a.

**2b) Cause and consequence.** The Choshu Five risked their lives stowing away and travelling to England when it was still illegal to do so. Why? Students usually respond that the five men disagreed with Japan's national isolation and wanted to learn skills that could modernize Japan. In fact, all five young men did just that, learning skills (and English) that were invaluable in leading the new government formed in 1868, so this is one answer that is supported by evidence.

Having tested student understanding, I used my lecture to teach aspects they may not have considered; in this case, over the centuries of its existence, the feudal class system had become warped by the growing wealth of the merchant class (technically near the bottom of society) and the impoverishment of low-ranking samurai (technically near the top of society). As the Choshu Five were all low-ranking samurai, they may have been pushed to take extreme measures in order to influence society. While it was not compulsory to consider interpretations introduced in my lecture in lesson reflections (the second test), many students chose to do so.

### *Strand 3: Evaluation*

**3a, 3b) Empathy and ethics.** According to Endacott and Brooks (2013), historical empathy takes place when students place events in context, take perspectives on those events, and make an affective connection with the historical figures. I have discussed some ways in which the first two elements might be promoted. In terms of affective connection, I believe that this course's focus on the experiences and decisions of individuals allows students to get to know them and empathise with their motivations. In addition, classroom discussion of empathy-related questions gives students "a larger pool of affective responses to draw from in their attempts to empathize" (Endacott & Brooks, 2013, p. 50), and students frequently reported that their classmates had introduced them to new perspectives.

In the course we also consider ethical issues, and I attempt to offer alternative perspectives to the accepted interpretation of history. For example, I ask students to consider whether Ito Hirobumi was (a) a hero who risked his

life to travel overseas with the Choshu Five, to learn technology to modernise Japan, and who led Japan as its first prime minister, or (b) a villain who left Japan illegally to acquire arms to overthrow the government and who was assassinated for his role as Governor General of occupied Korea. This leads many students, in their reflections, to speculate about how our memory of Ito, and indeed the course of history, might be different if he had been captured and executed.

We also consider war and the Japanese empire. Although conflicts such as World War 2 occur outside the time period of the course, they are considered as part of a period of empire-building beginning with Japan's victory over China in 1895. Our traveller for this topic is Lafcadio Hearn, who praises the strength shown by Japan in defeating China and Russia (in 1905). As a counterpoint to this, in my lecture, I discuss some of the controversies surrounding the Japanese empire.

Although there is an argument for avoiding such issues, I believe it is essential to understand this darker backdrop to Japan's success in building an industrial economy. I also believe that it is important for students to be able to understand present political issues in Japan (such as the move to reinterpret the pacifist constitution) and abroad (recurrent political tensions in Asia). Nonetheless, I do not require students to discuss them with their peers. Students may choose to address them in their reflections, which are not read by other students, and are not penalised should they choose not to do so. However, students that choose to address these issues usually state that they agree with their inclusion in the course.

**3c) Self-regulation.** Following each input session, students write a reflection on their learning. They are encouraged to connect what they have learned to their own lives and reflect on the learning process. The format is relatively free, although students are encouraged to make points in each of the three strands of the course framework:

1. **Describe** an aspect of what we have studied that they find interesting.

2. **Analyse** that aspect. This involves making inferences about why something happened, why it was important, or comparing it with other situations and behaviours. It differs from stage three in focussing on non-subjective inference.
3. **Evaluate** what the chosen aspect and its analysis mean for the student/ modern society. How do they feel about it? What have they learned?

These strands are originally drawn from intercultural studies and are aimed at “fostering discernment between what can be said objectively, what can be said in the realm of inference or speculation, and what may be expressed as value judgment and personal opinion” (Nam & Condon, 2010, p. 86). I also use this framework to formulate my feedback on reflections, pointing out inferences with insufficient evidence or value judgements represented as fact. Students often address these comments in their final reflective interviews.

**3d) Meta-history.** Through this course, I hope that students will encounter a way of studying history that is quite different to the way that they studied in school and that this will stimulate reflection on the nature of history. In addition to the reflective writing after each input lesson, students carry out a prepared summative interview with the teacher at the end of the course. In this, they are required to expand on one event, one person, and consider their understanding of the nature of history as a discipline.

This last question takes the form of (a) discussing a way in which their view of history has changed or has not changed or (b) analyzing a well-known quote about the study of history, which I chose to encapsulate the core concepts of the course framework. This allows me to assess the student's grasp of course content, while also giving room for students to analyze and evaluate what has been studied. Coming at the end of a cycle of reading, understanding, discussion, lecture input, reflection, and teacher feedback, it also offers students an opportunity to reflect on how their thinking has changed and what they have learned from their classmates.

## Conclusion

Despite the initial perception among course participants that history is a dry, difficult subject, a gratifying proportion report at the end of the course that this perception has changed. I believe this demonstrates that the actions, motivations, mistakes, and interactions of people in the past can all be made accessible to the second language students of today.

For teachers, the task of identifying historical topics and materials for a course of study may seem daunting. However, my experience designing this course suggests that the principles of second language teaching are most important in making CLIL lessons successful. The content needs to be an adequate springboard, but one that students can locate and use; by setting tasks at appropriate levels, identifying important vocabulary, and providing ample opportunity for peer and teacher discussion and feedback, teachers can empower students to think deeply about complex historical issues in a way that is motivating for both teachers and students. I have found this course to be hugely rewarding and would encourage all teachers looking to develop students' critical thinking skills to expand their interests and give CLIL history a try.

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# “G-PACS”: Process of Development and Effects of Political Simulation Games

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This paper describes a hands-on political simulation game, the Global Peace and Conflict Simulation Game (G-PACS), which was developed over several years by students, including the author, in the English seminar class of the Meiji University School of Political Science and Economics. This paper first reviews possible benefits of such games from English and political education perspectives. Several theoretical benefits of playing and developing the game are provided. This paper then traces the actual processes of learning and game development by the students and illustrates how inspiration for developing the game came from the seminar and study abroad experiences.

本論文では Global Peace and Conflict Simulation Game (G-PACS)と呼ばれる、明治大学政治経済学部での著者を含む英語に関する演習クラスを履修していた生徒達によって数年をかけて開発された実践的な政治に関するシミュレーションゲームについて説明する。初めに英語教育と政治教育の視点からゲームの有効性について議論する。そのゲームを行うこと及び開発をすることに関して、いくつかの理論的な効果がそこには提示されている。続いて、本論文では、そこで起きた、生徒の学習とゲームの開発の過程を追う。ここでは演習クラスの授業から発想を得て開発をしていった過程が示されている。

This paper examines theoretical benefits of hands-on political simulation games and provides an example of the background and development of such games. This game is called the Global Peace and Conflict Simulation Game (henceforth, “G-PACS”). It has been developed over 2 years by two undergraduate students, including the author, who majored in Political Science at Meiji University in Japan. It is expected that this paper will serve to help university English teachers of intermediate and advanced level students in university, especially for those who teach social issues in English, and inspire them to develop their own simulation games as well as lead their students to develop such games.

## Review of Literature

This first section discusses the possible benefits of playing and making political hands-on simulation games for students from the perspectives of political education and English language teaching (ELT), including the neuro-ELT perspective. Political education is discussed in this section because G-PACS includes elements of education about social

issues, particularly political education, as well as English education; it includes elements of learning about “both contents and language,” as Coyle, Hood, and Marsh described (2010, p. 1). Recently, one of the teaching methods in English learning, content and language integrated learning (CLIL), which combines content, communication, cognition, and culture (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p. 41), has attracted the attention and investigation of scholars, especially in Europe. Some universities in Japan have also put CLIL theories into practice. For example, Lockley and Cooke (2017) taught “A History of Japanese International Communication” as a CLIL course at one university located near Tokyo, aiming to improve English skills as well as critical thinking on intercultural issues (pp. 66, 69).

## Political Education Perspectives

Political education perspectives provide mainly two benefits for students in playing and/or making hands-on political simulation games, namely, learning different points of view and gaining knowledge effectively. First, political simulation

games can provide basic concepts such as identity, state power, personal leadership, and alliances, which are necessary to analyze politics within and outside of each country. Participants can learn, or at least feel, these concepts through listening to opinions in other countries and seeing available options in the process of earning points, since “making choices and experiencing the consequences of those choices serve as analogues for real-world environments and decisions” (McCall, 2012, p. 13). Esquith (1992) noted that concepts based on political theory are important since they “address how citizens think through particular conflicts within local and cooperative institutions as well as centralized national institutions” (p. 261). He did not mention global politics in his paper, but his comments would be also applicable there as well as in domestic politics.

In addition, playing simulation games themselves has various benefits for gaining insights in many fields, including international politics. Scholars argue that simulation games generally lead students to acquire knowledge by either forcing or encouraging them to learn out of necessity (Mubaslat, 2012, p. 4; Oblinger, 2006, p. 3). Robinson, Anderson, Hermann, and Snyder (1996), for instance, found that those who prefer simulations to case studies tend to get higher scores on exams in the understanding of principles within the various areas of political science (p. 64).

### **English Language Teaching Perspectives**

ELT perspectives claim that students can develop all of the fundamental English skills—reading, listening, speaking, and writing—from several approaches with enhanced memory and learning. To begin with, playing political simulation games enables students to cover various kinds of English skills. These games, for instance, can cover reading skills through the instructions about the situation in the imaginary world, listening skills through watching videos about real global issues and listening to other people’s speech, writing skills through drawing up agreement documents, and speaking skills through negotiations. Such skills would be even more enhanced when students develop the game by themselves through research, writing, and explaining the situations. Brewbaker described the effect of learning various English

skills through simulation games by observing that, “because the student involved in a situation has every reason to listen attentively, speak convincingly, read perceptively, and—in many instances—write forcefully, simulation gaming brings this traditional goal of English nearer to realization” (1972, p. 105).

Simulation gaming encompasses several approaches such as CLIL, task-based language teaching, and communicative language teaching. Not only do political simulation games include extensive basic English skill learning and methods, but also enhance students’ memory and learning. Since “language is managed by various interconnected parts of the brain” (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2008, p. 56), we should cultivate its function in a number of ways. Political simulation games also match many of the recommended elements for effective learning from neuro-ELT, for example, “choices,” “emotion,” “collaboration [with other learners],” and “solvable mysteries” (NeuroELT Conference, 2015).

### **The Background of the Simulation Game Development**

The development of G-PACS began in 2015 in a university seminar class consisting of five members including the author and codeveloper. One of the requirements for enrollment was to be concurrently taking at least one class in the special English program for better communication skills in business and academic situations. This program was limited to those who had a score of 520 or above on the TOEIC test. Over 100 people join this program every year in order to take classes in the program and/or participate in events held by the program. The English levels of the students in the seminar class where G-PACS had its start were intermediate or advanced.

Members of the seminar must not only participate actively but also organize most events and activities in the English program, including an English summer camp that is held in September for several days and a reunion party, whose purpose is to encounter and have exchanges with the alumni of the program. The focus in this section is to present the student game developers’ learning process during the several years it took to complete the development of the game.



## Stage One: A Teacher-Led Class

The seminar was a teacher-led class during the entire spring semester of 2015. The teacher used extensive teaching materials, including TED Talks and the “21 Day Challenge” (Achor, 2011), an attempt to rewire the students’ brains to focus more on the positive. She encouraged the seminar students to post their positive feelings on Facebook regarding such events as a 3-day study camp with international students held by the university. As Achor (2011) stated, “every single relationship, business and educational outcome improves when the brain is positive first” (para. 7), it was a significant tool to motivate the students in the seminar.

The seminar members, however, were not satisfied with the class as it was because no additional events were organized for the students in the English program in the university. Even though the teacher had asked the seminar members to do so several times since the beginning of the seminar, they had struggled to determine what to do for themselves in the fall semester until they found one TED Talk on the World Peace Game at the end of the spring semester.

## Stage Two: Inspiration

In their research, the seminar members discovered a TED Talk from 2011 called “Teaching with the World Peace Game,” presented by John Hunter, which stimulated the development of G-PACS. This game is mainly played by fourth-grade students; the game includes an imaginary set of “fifty overlapping crises” (Hunter, 2013, p. 46). The following is one example situation from the game:

The Kajazians [one of the tribes in the Game] are living in an area that they want to claim as an independent nation and are petitioning the United Nations for political and economical control over that territory. . . . The mother country, of course, is unwilling to recognize Kajazian independence for fear of losing the oil. (Hunter, 2013, p. 46)

Everyone in the seminar was inspired and amazed by this presentation since it showed that even fourth-grade children could negotiate complex political issues. John Hunter invited

the children to participate in deep thought, or as one of the students said, “you’re actually getting taught something like how to take care of the world” (Hunter, 2011), and he connects situations in the Game with the present, using the words of Sun Tzu:

Now I’m feeling really weird because I’m living what Sun Tzu said. . . . He said, “Those who go into battle and win will want to go back, and those who lose in battle will want to go back and win.” And so I’ve been winning battles, so I’m going into battles, more battles. And I think it’s sort of weird to be living what Sun Tzu said. (Hunter, 2011)

This presentation led the seminar members to consider how to develop a political simulation game that could engage college students in negotiations, especially political ones, from English education and political education perspectives. The seminar members began to look for a method that would help participants, mainly college students, enjoy negotiations about politics and understand the basic situations of politics in the real world. That was the beginning of the development of G-PACS.

## Stage Three: Research and Development

Noticing a change, the teacher began to reduce her control of the class and left the development to the students. This pushed the seminar members to start researching and developing a trial simulation game by themselves. Since they did not have the time or money to observe the World Peace Game, they obtained basic ideas from books by John Hunter, such as a board game involving the participants as representatives from each country, and made their own 5-hour-long trial game. It consisted of four countries involved in such issues as proxy wars, minority rights, and terrorism, inspired by the Syrian War and by the September 11, 2001, tragedy. They also produced a promotional video, pamphlets, and documents explaining the situation in each country in order to promote the game and increase its sophistication.

Despite these efforts, the game did not work well in its first trial in December 2015. That was contrary to the expectations of leading participants to enjoy negotiations

equally regardless of their understanding of politics. Rather, the more knowledge the players had, the more initiative they took in the trial game. In January 2016, the seminar ended and the development of the game also ended for a while. The two seminar members who would later develop G-PACS, the author and another member, left Japan to study abroad for 6 months and 3 months, respectively.

#### **Stage Four: Breakthrough and Development of G-PACS**

The author and other seminar member decided to begin developing another trial game starting in summer 2016, when they had returned from studying abroad. Their learning experiences and insights gained while overseas shaped the trial game in a way that could not have been achieved without the benefit of the study abroad experience. Notably, a class about negotiation and conflict resolution that the author took at an American university helped contribute to an increase in understanding necessary for successful development of what would become G-PACS. In that class, students negotiated about 20 issues based on role-playing activities with a point system, for example, 60 points for one option and 400 points for another option, being used to guide the play. As Hartevelde and Sutherland pointed out, “scores are generally viewed as an extrinsic motivator used to reinforce competition and engage players” (p. 2336). In other words, a point system makes the game easier and more fun to play.

The class also led the author to connect political negotiations and daily life. Active listening is an important and effective tool for conflict resolution in daily life, for example, in problems with love, quarrels between people, and differences of opinion about how to spend one’s time studying abroad best, to name a few. Scholars (e.g., Stone, Patton, & Heen, 2010, p. 166) have pointed out that active listening leads the partner to listen. The author came to the realization that the experiences gathered from studying abroad, in addition to the insights from the class mentioned above, could also be applied to politics. According to Ocran (1985), “even when the idea is absolutely unacceptable to one’s side, it is best to treat it and its proposer with some respect” (p. 419). He continued:

the order of presentation of points would be that selected by the government, and the other side would be forced to negotiate the government’s proposals, and not the other way around. However, in order to make any progress at all in any negotiations, the arguments and proposals of each party must, of course, be communicated to the other. (p. 419)

A case in point is the issue between Japan and China of comfort women. The author realized the importance of such listening skills when he talked about this issue with a Chinese woman. As scholars emphasize, citizens in each country have different narratives of their countries during war time and that can easily lead to conflict between them (Yoshino, 2015; Hujiiwara, 2001). For the author and the woman, the only way they came to understand the other’s perception was to listen actively. From this realization, the G-PACS developers decided to introduce issues of daily life as well as game scores into their own simulation game.

In addition to the valuable insights gained from such interpersonal experiences, the difference in academic major at university between the author and the codeveloper of G-PACS proved useful for game development. The different areas of specialty in Comparative Politics and International Relations of the author and codeveloper, respectively, enabled them to combine their specialties into creating an effective simulation game.

#### **Results: Contents of G-PACS**

G-PACS consists of two simulation games: Introduction Games, which include negotiations mainly about daily life, and the Main Content, which deals with political issues.<sup>1</sup>

#### **Introduction Games**

The Introduction Games are aimed at helping participants understand basic concepts of negotiation and conflict resolution with issues related to daily life. For example, they negotiate about issues in planning school festivals, such as what to sell and the selling price of goods. Topics here vary depending on participants’ majors and interests. In the

introduction games, two parties play these negotiations using a point system. They must come to agreement within a set time limit in selecting one of giving choices which have varying numbers of points attached for each party. At the same time, the players have a vested interest in choosing the options which maximize their score.

### Main Content

The Main Content game consists of six countries with seven global issues. Whereas these countries are imaginary states, developers aim for these issues to cover some contemporary global issues, such as the Syrian Crisis, compensation issues between Japan and China, military base issues, and trade friction issues. Each country gets a game score depending on its choices, with 5000 points maximum. For example, in terms of the Syrian Crisis, the main issues from which are included in G-PACS, the points earned differ for each country depending on whether and how intervention is executed, for example, with 1000 points, 100 points, -1500 points, -1000 points, -5000 points, and 800 points, respectively, for the option of intervention by land forces. This crisis is set to emerge in conflicts between imaginary supporting countries (e.g., countries similar to the United States, Japan, etc.) and opposing countries (e.g., countries similar to China, Russia, and Syria). This content expects participants to become interested in politics and use the basic skills they learned in former simulation games to maximize their points. They begin to negotiate after short lectures by the organizers to enhance their basic understanding of real international problems that are occurring throughout the world.

### Conclusion

This paper examined and reviewed the possible benefits of making and playing G-PACS, especially for the field of political education and English Language Teaching. This paper also reported the background and origin of G-PACS, which was inspired by insights gained in a seminar and students' study abroad knowledge and experiences. However, this paper did not provide enough data about the results due to experimental limitations. Further research is needed to collect more data for quantitative and qualitative analysis.

### Note

All content can be accessed through the G-PACS website:  
[http://seesaawiki.jp/gpacs\\_edu/d/Examples](http://seesaawiki.jp/gpacs_edu/d/Examples)

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# Making Academic Writing Interactive

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This paper describes the process of revising the writing materials of a pre-intermediate L2 English writing course at a private Japanese university to encourage more interaction among students. This process involved four steps: a) Students were surveyed about the quality of the materials. b) Results were analyzed identifying a lack of interactivity as a key shortcoming. c) The materials were revised according to the theoretical models of the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1934/1978) and collaborative dialogue (Swain & Wigglesworth, 2013). d) A second survey about the revised materials was administered. More students responded that the revised workshops were both more interactive and helped them notice their mistakes, improve their content, and organize their writing than in the previous survey.

この論文は、日本の私立大学における準中級レベル (L2)の英語ライティングコースで、受講生同士の協働学習を促すために実施する、教材の改訂過程を説明するものである。

この改訂過程には、4つのステップが含まれる。まずはじめに、教材の質について受講生にアンケート調査を実施した。続いて、その教材が使われた授業の中で、協働学習が活発であったかどうかを重要な判断基準とし、アンケート結果の分析を行った。3つ目に、教材を最近接発達領域(Vygotsky, 1934/1978)と協働対話(Swain & Wigglesworth, 2013)の理論に基づいて、協働学習が促進される内容に改訂した。最後に、改訂された教材を使用して授業を実施した後、2度目のアンケート調査を実施した。この調査で、受講生の多くが2度目のアンケート調査に協働学習がより活発に行えたと答え、教材の改訂が受講生同士の協働学習促進に寄与したことがわかった。

## Introduction

Why should EFL instructors endeavor to promote collaborative learning through interactive tasks? Particularly, how can they develop materials which promote such interaction? The present study describes the development of the writing materials of a pre-intermediate English course at a Japanese university to make them more interactive. This was achieved by surveying students and teachers about their impressions of the course materials, identifying that the materials of the time were not sufficiently interactive enough, revising the materials to make them more interactive, and administering a second survey to gauge the extent to which this aim was achieved. In the end, it was found that the revised materials were indeed better received by students in the program than the earlier versions. The following study will review the advantages of revising writing materials to get students working and learning together.

## Literature Review

Exploring findings from sociocultural research provides justification for situating interactive and collaborative tasks within a writing curriculum as such tasks can cultivate a supportive environment where knowledge is developed and expanded on over time. This environment is commonly referred to as a learner's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which is defined as the difference between what a learner is capable of achieving individually in the L2 compared to what they can accomplish if aided by others (Vygotsky, 1934/1978). However, before considering the research findings on the effectiveness of collaborative tasks, a reflection on some of the challenges facing EFL writing instructors at Japanese universities provides some needed context.

One challenge is that many learners have not received formal expository writing instruction in their L1 or

L2 and are mostly acquainted with emotive forms of writing in which they discuss their subjective feelings about a particular subject instead of writing an objective description or argument. Many Japanese high school students do not learn how to compose introductory or concluding elements of an essay, and do not understand how to logically develop an argument and support their positions with reasons and examples (Mulvey, 2016). Therefore, university instructors in Japan cannot simply assume learners have any formal knowledge of writing in Japanese or English, and must surmise learners' writing abilities using instruments such as diagnostic or placement tests. Ideally, learners will have had some formal writing instruction in their L1 and L2 by the time they reach university, but this does not seem to be the norm at present.

One possibility instructors may face is that learners have zero to limited formal schemata. Another is that they may have adequate knowledge of formal writing in Japanese but not in English. In either case, cultural or educational factors could account for difficulties they face in producing writing in the L2 (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). At the same time, individual learner differences that are not easily measured or inferred, such as motivation (see Dörnyei, 1998) and aptitude (see Robinson, 2001), could be the primary cause of difficulty learners face when writing in their L2. Combine these potential influences on language acquisition with what Brown (2007) cites as the complexity of written versus spoken language—the various rhetorical structures, removal of redundancy, high frequency of subordination, references to other parts in a text, and requirement of syntactic and lexical variety—and it becomes clear that developing Japanese learners' writing skills in English is a complex task requiring expert knowledge, guidance, and judgment on the part of the instructor.

Fortunately, pedagogical interventions exist to help develop writers' skills through collaborative interaction. These methods will require both instructors and learners to see writing as more than an individual task; Brown (2007) cautions against only approaching writing as an exercise to be completed individually, and posits that learners benefit from developing as writers within a community of learners. Given

the complex nature of writing, providing a supportive atmosphere where learners can develop writing skills is crucial to their success. One often untapped potential source of learning for students is their peers. Implementing tasks that require discussion, negotiation, problem solving, and teamwork to accomplish a goal can lead to collaborative dialogue, which Swain and Watanabe (2013) state can be about anything, and will refine knowledge and promote a deeper understanding of a phenomenon. The authors go on to explain that in collaborative dialogues, language is used to mediate thought, and as group members turn their thoughts into shared utterances, meaning is co-constructed and becomes a source of language learning and development for the group.

Collaborative tasks, specifically, tasks that involve a writing component, provide a variety of cognitive benefits and enable learners to do more together than they could individually. This view has held true in the classroom experience of both authors, and it has been validated in the literature (Kim & McDonough, 2007; Swain & Lapkin, 2001; Watanabe & Swain, 2007; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). The benefits of collaboration can be accounted for from a sociocultural perspective in that the interpersonal interaction that occurs in the environment during collaborative learning gives impetus to new knowledge and learning. In successful instances, learners who take part in these dialogues internalize the new knowledge over time, enabling them to complete tasks, for example, writing a paragraph, on their own (Swain & Watanabe, 2013). In light of the research findings mentioned in this literature review, providing collaborative tasks where learners can work together seems to be an effective and interactive way to improve their writing abilities.

## Methodology

The pre-intermediate writing program referred to in this paper requires students to produce six pieces of writing. Of those pieces of writing, four are paragraphs which students complete as assignments and two are in-class writing tests, in which students have 30 minutes to produce a paragraph based

on a prompt given in class. The writing tasks are divided into two discussion types: comparative paragraphs and advantages and disadvantages paragraphs. In the first half of the semester, students must produce two comparative paragraphs as homework assignments before taking an in-class writing test in which they can demonstrate the skills they have learned from completing the assignments. In the second half of the semester, they must do the same with advantages and disadvantages paragraphs.

The process which students undergo to complete these assignments is quite heavily scaffolded. Students are given a topic and are asked to write interview questions about it. They then use those interview questions to interview an international student on campus. After that, they take those notes from the interview and compose an outline which is checked by the teacher to determine if the student has a sufficient grasp of the organizational structure of the discussion type they are writing in and that the content is appropriate. Finally, they produce a paragraph based on what they learned from their international partner.

As a supplement to help the learners in producing the final draft of their paragraph, there are a series of activities called "writing workshops." These are designed to help students understand the expectations of the assignment, the grammatical and lexical structures often used for their topic, appropriate cohesive devices, as well as how to organize ideas and support them with reasons and examples. While the interview and outline stayed more or less the same throughout the development of the writing curriculum, the workshop portion changed considerably.

## Researchers

The researchers were also teachers in the pre-intermediate course. They administered the surveys for the purpose of developing the materials for the writing workshops.

## Surveys

Two surveys were created in Google Forms. They were distributed to all of the students in the program using the course Learning Management System, Manaba. Participation in the survey was voluntary. The first survey was distributed at the end of the Fall 2016 semester before the main changes described in this article. Its purpose was to discern the changes that needed to be made to the writing materials in the course (See Appendix A for a sample of the main questions in the survey). During the Winter break of 2017 the researchers developed materials according to the results of this survey. The second survey was distributed at the end of the Spring 2017 semester after students used the new materials, and the aim of that survey was to determine the level of satisfaction that students had with the changes. The same questions were asked in both surveys.

## Participants

The participants in each survey were students in the pre-intermediate course. Because the survey was administered in two different semesters, the participants in each survey were different. In the first survey, 115 students took part, and 59 students participated in the second survey.

## Revision of the Writing Materials

During the Winter break of 2017 the workshops were changed in a number of ways. The first was to move from activities at the sentence level to the paragraph level to give students a better idea of the overall structure of the paragraph. More important to this project, activities were adjusted to get students talking about the material, thus raising their awareness of various elements of writing. One example of this is activities that teach cohesive devices. *Figure 1* shows a typical activity from the workshops before the revision.

Figure 1. - Typical pre-revision activity teaching cohesive devices

**Activity 2** Choose the correct answer.

1. Tokyo has an amazing subway and train system. \_\_\_\_\_, Osaka has a very convenient transit system.

a. Likewise      b. Conversely      c. In a similar fashion

Figure 2. - Revised paragraph organization activity (excerpt)

Organization Activity

*Instructions: Work with a partner or small group to put the following paragraph in order. Write the correct number (1) to (5) beside each section. Also, use the phrases in the box to fill in the missing words.*

one similarity is      differ      are different      In summary      However

# \_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_, the festivals also \_\_\_\_\_ in some ways. The first difference is activities. At the Quebec Winter Carnival all of the activities are winter related. For example, there is snowboarding, ice canoe, snowshoes, dogsledding, and many beautiful ice sculptures are on display. On the other hand, the Kern county fair features dancers, bands, and magicians. There are also a lot of farm animals and children can pet them. The main event is a Rodeo, and you can see cowboys riding bulls and trying to catch cows with a rope.

Figure 3 - Pre-revision sentence corrective activity (excerpt)

**4 Understanding Teacher Comments: Word Forms**

When you make a mistake with word forms your teacher will write “WF” (which means “Word Form”) above the mistake. Look at the following examples and correct them.

WF

1. My hometown, Tokyo is very convenience, but my partner’s hometown, Beppu is not.

Figure 4 - Revised pair error correction activity (excerpt)

A Wildfire to Remember (Partner A)

One of the scariest story from my childhood is about the time I survived a wildfire with my family in a California forest. I had gone camping with my family for one week in this forest. It was

A Wildfire to Remember (Partner B)

One of the scariest stories from my childhood is about the times I survived a wildfire with my family in a California forest. I had gone camping with my families for one weeks in this forest.



Though this activity does require the student to understand the meaning of the cohesive device and select the correct answer, it does not require them to understand how to use it in the context of a longer paragraph. Moreover, it does not lend itself to pair or group work because all the student is required to do is select the correct answer and move on to the next question. For this reason, an ordering activity such as the one sampled in Figure 2 was introduced (see the full activity in Appendix B)

In addition to encouraging students, not only think of how the cohesive devices work within the larger context of paragraph organization, it also encourages students to work together to complete the activity.

Another important activity type that underwent some large scale changes was one that dealt with evaluating and revising writing samples. Although the pre-revision workshops contained activities in which students were given a sentence and asked to find the error and correct it, they were mostly composed of decontextualized sentences in which the students individually found the error and moved on to the next one. Moreover, these errors were mostly grammar and vocabulary errors. Figure 3 provides an example of this kind of activity.

In addition to being very individual, this activity doesn't help students to notice error types as the error type has already been selected and identified for them. Moreover,

it doesn't give them an idea of what it is like to correct mistakes within a larger piece of writing.

The revised activities, in contrast, were more multifaceted and required student interaction to complete the task. Figure 4 shows a sample of an activity similar to an information gap. Students were given two different versions of the same model paragraph that contained different errors related to vocabulary, grammar, unclear or insufficient details, word order, sentence order, missing transitions, missing conjunctions, and punctuation (See the full activity in Appendix C)

They took turns reading each sentence aloud to each other and decided which paragraph contained the correct information. Students would then correct the mistakes in their own paragraph. Thus, by the end of the activity, both students would have identical correct paragraphs in their possession. They were not only able to discern the positive examples from the negative ones, but they were also able to do it through collaborative interaction.

Along with the formal aspects of their writing, students were also encouraged to think critically about the depth and acceptability of the content of the paragraph. Figure 5 shows an excerpt of an activity in which students were given a paragraph with various deficiencies, such as details that were irrelevant or insufficient (See the full activity in Appendix D)

Figure 5 - Revised focus and details activity (excerpt)

**Focus and Details Activity**

*Instructions:* The paragraph below got a very bad grade in the "Focus and Details" section of the rubric. The teacher wrote question words over each section where information is missing. Read the paragraph and talk with a partner about what kind of information is missing.

*For example:*

S1: Why do you think the teacher asks this "Who" question?

S2: Because the student didn't write his partner's name.

S1: I think so too.

**Who?**

My festival and his festival are similar and different. My festival is the Onsen festival and his

**Where?**

**Where?**

**What?**

festival is the Tenjin festival. First, the festivals are similar in food. Both festivals sell

Figure 6 - Writing Workshop Process

Writing Workshop Process: Repeated for Each Discourse Type		
Features of Writings 1 and 3	Features of Writings 2 and 4	Assessment of Production
receptive and controlled tasks: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• labeling</li> <li>• matching</li> <li>• organizing</li> <li>• running dictation</li> </ul> students produce process paragraph for writings 1 and 3, each with two drafts	productive tasks collaborative writing based on prompts given by teacher students produce process paragraph for writings 2 and 4, each with two drafts	In-class writing based on a single sentence prompt

Students were required to work as a group, discuss the parts of the paragraph that were poor and work together to rewrite the paragraph with more acceptable content. This allowed students to realize that writing is not just about correct grammar, but also about communicating a relevant message with sufficient depth.

As explained, the program dealt with two pieces of writing completed as homework assignments, followed by an in-class writing test. To fit with this structure, workshops followed a progression from passive controlled and semi-controlled activities in the first workshop for each, like the ones just described, to more active and productive tasks that required collaboration to complete successfully. *Figure 6* explains the types of tasks contained in each workshop. The second workshop for each genre was composed of a collaborative task in which students worked together in groups of five to produce a paragraph. They were given a prompt as well as five strips of paper, markers, and a large poster sized piece of paper. Each student chose a part of the paragraph to work on: the topic sentence, first supporting point, second supporting point, third supporting point, and concluding sentence. They then looked at the prompt which contained information about a certain topic. Together they decided which three sub-topics they would write about and used the information provided on the prompt to write supporting details, such as reasons and examples. Appendix E

provides an example of a fact sheet given to groups to help them complete the paragraph.

Each student wrote their part of the paragraph in pencil. When they finished writing, they assembled their compositions together and gave each other advice about what may needed to be changed. Once they decided that they are happy with what they had written, they “published” it by tracing over it with marker, pasting each strip of paper to the poster, and agreeing on a suitable title. They then gave the teacher the poster to evaluate. The teacher then took it home, gave feedback and brought it to the next class. The students then worked together to address the teacher’s feedback. Appendix F shows an example of a paragraph that students collaborated on to complete.

This task represents an optimal way of reaching a Zone of Proximal Development. Students who may be struggling to understand the various elements of the paragraph, or how to write supporting details, can get assistance from students who have a better understanding of these elements. There is also a motivational aspect embedded in this collaborative task. It is one that extends beyond simple interaction and which is different from the teacher-student interaction as the student must do his or her best to fulfill their role within the group to meet its expectations and achieve its goals. Donato (2004) emphasizes that group goals and processing, positive interdependence and mutuality of

learning, individual accountability, and collective human relationships are essential aspects of successful collaborations. It is the authors' experience that these factors generally motivate learners to participate actively during collaborative tasks.

## Results

The following table shows the results of both the Pre-revision and Post-revision surveys. There is a general indication throughout the survey that more students perceived the revised materials as interactive, they also perceived them as being more helpful in improving their skills.

*Table 1. - Survey results*

Questions	Pre-revision Survey			Post-revision Survey				
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Gave students chances to interact with classmates.	5.2	24.3	50.4	20	1.7	10.2	59.3	28.8
Students benefit from interactive workshop activities.	4.3	15.7	51.3	28.7	3.4	6.8	47.5	42.4
Improved overall writing ability	1.7	10.4	61.7	26.1	0	6.8	54.2	39
Improved paragraph organization	4.4	4.4	52.6	38.6	0	10.2	47.5	42.4
Improved content	3.5	7.8	62.6	26.1	0	5.1	61	33.9
Improved ability to notice errors	1.8	21.9	52.6	23.7	0	10.2	69.5	20.3
Improved ability to correct vocabulary mistakes	3.5	18.6	59.3	18.6	0	8.5	67.8	23.7
Improved ability to correct grammar mistakes	4.3	14.8	61.7	19.1	0	11.9	62.7	25.4
Improved ability to correct mistakes in punctuation, capitalization, and spelling	2.6	12.2	56.5	28.7	0	6.8	62.7	30.5

There was a marked increase in the number of students who either agreed or strongly agreed that the workshops were interactive, improved their content, ability to notice errors, and their ability to correct vocabulary mistakes and mistakes in punctuation. However, the increase in percentage of students who believed the workshops helped them improve their organization, and ability to correct grammar mistakes was less marked.

### **Discussion**

The fact that more students perceived the workshops as interactive is not surprising given the extent to which the researchers worked to design materials that facilitated interaction. Nonetheless, it is surprising that the changes in student perception of their improvement in organization and ability to correct grammar mistakes were less noticeable, especially considering that research on collaborative learning has focused on how collaborative dialogue improves the formal aspects of student writing. This could be due to the fact that, though all of the activities gave examples of paragraph organization indirectly for the simple reason that they were in paragraph form, the number of activities which focused specifically on requiring students to order the parts of a paragraph were few. Indeed, the example activity given in this paper was the only activity which focused specifically on organization. As for grammar, it should be noted that the pre-revision materials were quite heavily grammar focused. It could be argued that the shift in focus from grammar to a wider range of writing elements made it seem that grammar was less emphasized. Nonetheless, though the change is not as clear as the other items, there was an increase in the students' perceived improvement in these areas as well.

### **Conclusion**

Student perception of the writing materials discussed in this project improved greatly due to this change in approach from individual to interactive and collaborative activities, as well as from activities which focused on writing at the sentence level to writing on the paragraph level. The main reason for this is, as the research has also stated, students work better when they are given a clear idea of the task that is expected of them and a chance to talk with their peers to complete it. This can be

seen by the student satisfaction indicated by the survey. Therefore, the author of this paper strongly encourages the use of collaborative tasks in approaching L2 English writing due to its increased learner engagement during tasks and improved learning outcomes long-term.

### **Limitations and Considerations for Further Study**

The data collection for this study focused solely on student perceptions of the extent to which the materials were more interactive and helped improve their writing. It does not, however, provide empirical evidence of the extent to which students actually improved their writing skill. The reason for this limitation is that it was a classroom study and research activity was not allowed to interfere with the overall workings of the course. Indeed, participants in the study changed from one semester to the next making it unclear as to whether the increased level of satisfaction was due to actual improvements in the materials, or just the individual differences of the students. If the same participants used both the pre and post revision materials it would give a clearer indication of student perceptions of the improvement of the material. An experimental study measuring the improvement of students on a specific writing task, with one group using the pre-revision materials, another group of equal proficiency using the revised materials, and a control group using neither would give information about the actual gains of the interactive approach.

The studies reviewed for this paper stated that collaborative dialogue can be especially beneficial when groups are composed of members of varying proficiency levels. Though this was a justification for the design of the materials, an inquiry into whether or not teachers grouped their students based on proficiency and the extent to which this was effective was not explored because the university in which the study took place grouped students according to their placement test scores and grades in their previous classes. As a result, students in the classes tended to be very similar in level. It would be useful to explore the extent to which mixed proficiency pairs and groups helped their composite members to improve.

Finally, there were fewer participants in the second survey than in the first. This was unfortunate considering that the second survey was the most important gauge of whether or not the materials were successful. This was the result of a limitation of the method of distributing the survey to be taken voluntarily on the school LMS which can result in a large variation of the number of participants from one semester to the next. Therefore a more controlled data collection method is recommended.

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## Appendix A - Survey questions

All questions asked students to respond using a 3 point likkert scale ranking: 1 - strongly disagree, 2 - disagree, 3 - agree, 4 - strongly agree.

1. The workshop activities gave me a chance to interact with my classmates.
2. I would like more interactive workshop activities.
3. I could improve my overall writing ability thanks to the workshops activities.
4. The workshops helped me organize my paragraphs well.
5. The writing workshops have helped me to become better at noticing errors in my own writing.
6. The workshops help me understand the kind of details I needed to include in my writing.
7. The workshops helped me understand how to fix common vocabulary mistakes in my writing.
8. The workshops helped me understand how to fix common grammar mistakes in my writing.
9. The workshops helped me understand how to fix common mistakes in punctuation, capitalization and spelling in my writing.

## Appendix B - Revised paragraph organisation activity

### Organization Activity

#### Instructions:

The following paragraph is out of order. Write the correct number (1) to (5) beside each section to put the paragraph in order. Also, use the phrases in the box to fill in the missing words.

one similarity is	differ	are different	In summary	However
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# \_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_, the festivals also \_\_\_\_ in some ways. The first difference is activities. At the Quebec Winter Carnival all of the activities are winter related. For example, there is snowboarding, ice canoe, snowshoes, dogsledding, and many beautiful ice sculptures are on display. On the other hand, the Kern county fair features dancers, bands, and magicians. There are also a lot of farm animals and children can pet them. The main event is a Rodeo, and you can see cowboys riding bulls and trying to catch cows with a rope.

# \_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_, the Quebec Winter Carnival and the Kern County Fair both have interesting mascots that teach the meaning of the festivals. However, they have some differences in what people do and when they started. If you like winter sports and ice sculptures, I think the Quebec Winter Carnival is a great event for you. If you like animals and watching rodeos, perhaps the Kern County fair is best for you.

# \_\_\_\_ The festival in my country, called the Quebec winter carnival and the festival in my partner Francisco's country called the Kern County are both very popular festivals. Both events have mascots that show the meaning of the festival, but they differ in activities and history.

# \_\_\_\_ Secondly, the histories of the two festivals \_\_\_\_\_. The Winter Carnival started in 1894. In contrast, the Kern County fair started in 1925. Therefore the Quebec Winter Carnival is 31 years older than the Kern County fair.

# \_\_\_\_ Firstly, \_\_\_\_\_ that both festivals have a mascot. The Quebec Winter Carnival has Bon homme and in French this means "good fellow". He is a snow man with a red and a large smile and he represents winter. The main meaning of the festival is a celebration of winter sports, so Bon homme shows the meaning of the festiva. The Kern County Fair also has a mascot that shows the meaning of the festival. It is a bull named KC which means Kern County. Because the meaning of the festival is to show the achievements of Kern County, this mascot shows the meaning of the festival.

## Appendix C - Revised pair error correction activity

### **A Wildfire to Remember (Partner A)**

One of the scariest story from my childhood is about the time I survived a wildfire with my family in a California forest. I had gone camping with my family for one week in this forest. It was my first camping trip ever. We did many things like fishing, hikings, hunting, canoeing in a river, and swimming in a lake. The mountain air was fresh and we felt the beauty of nature every days. This continued until the last day of our trip when my cousin, Hector, saw some smoke on the horizon. Before we knew it, we were surrounded by a fire and it was hard to breathe due to the smokes. We even saw a few wild animal running away from the fire. It was frightening. Fortunately, one firefighters came quickly to the forest. They ran to our location and rescued us from danger. We lost a great number of expensive things in the fire, for example, our car and our tent, so it took a great number of money to replace everything, but we were alive. We will always remember the firefighters' bravery and how they saved our lives.

### **A Wildfire to Remember (Partner B)**

One of the scariest stories from my childhood is about the times I survived a wildfire with my family in a California forest. I had gone camping with my families for one weeks in this forest. It was my first camping trips ever. We did many things like fishing, hiking, hunting, canoeing in a river, and swimming in a lake. The mountain airs was fresh and we felt the beauty of nature every day. This continued until the last day of our trip when my cousin, Hector, saw a few smoke on the horizon. Before we knew it, we were surrounded by a fire and it was hard to breathe due to the smoke. We even saw a few wild animals running away from the fire. It was frightening. Fortunately, some firefighters came quickly to the forest. They ran to our location and rescued us from dangers. We lost a great number of expensive thing in the fire, for example, our car and our tent, so it took a great deal of money to replace everything, but we were alive. We will always remember the firefighters' braverys and how they saved our lives.



### Focus and Details Activity

*Instructions:* The paragraph below got a very bad grade in the "Focus and Details" section of the rubric. The teacher wrote question words over each section where information is missing. Read the paragraph and talk with a partner about what kind of information is missing.

*For example:*

S1: Why do you think the teacher asks this "Who" question?

S2: Because the student didn't write his partner's name.

S1: I think so too.

**Who?**

**Where?**

My festival and his festival are similar and different. My festival is the Onsen festival and his

**Where?**

**What?**

\_\_\_\_\_ festival is the Tenjin festival. First, the festivals are similar in food. Both festivals sell similar festival food.

Secondly, they are similar about activities because they both have a water race. However, the Onsen

**How?**

**How?**

festival's race is about going to onsens and the Tenjin festival race is about boats on the river.

Finally,

**When?**

they are different in history. The Onsen festival started a long time ago, but the Tenjin festival started a

**When?**

**How?**

longer time ago. In conclusion, the Onsen and Tenjin festivals are the same, but also different.

**Fact-Sheet - "The Running of the Bulls" and "Cooper's Hill Cheese Rolling and Wake"**

<b>Subtopic</b>	Running of the Bulls	Cooper's Hill Cheese Rolling and Wake
<b>Setting (where and when)</b>	Pamplona, Spain; 6 July 12:00 - 14 July 24:00	Cooper's Hill, <u>Shurdington</u> , England
<b>Activities</b>	Runners sing prayer => Run with bulls => Bull fight	9 pound cheese rolls <u>down hill</u> => People race after it => First person wins cheese
<b>Clothes</b>		
<b>Meaning</b>	Move bulls: field => bullring	Ancient Britons: Rolling things = encourage fertility
<b>History</b>	Northeastern Spain 1400s -Farmers use fear and excitement => Move bulls quickly => became competition	Origin unknown but very old -Local event until 2009 -After 2010 became world famous

# Exciting Events In Spain and England

Coopers Hill Cheese Rolling and

There are many festivals in the world. Today we focus on Running of the Bulls and Wake. They are <sup>different</sup> ~~difference~~ <sup>in terms of</sup> ~~in~~ <sup>Setting, clothes and history.</sup> ~~Topic~~

<sup>First</sup> they ~~may~~ have ~~different~~ ~~setting~~ <sup>word order</sup> ~~is~~ held, while in England Cooper's Hill Cheese Rolling and Wake is held. The major difference is that <sup>they</sup> ~~the~~ <sup>time</sup> ~~decide~~ clearly in Spain but ~~is~~ <sup>isn't</sup> ~~decided~~ in English festival.

what?

<sup>white shirt and trouser called</sup> At Running of the Bulls people wear Bull fighting wear but at Cooper's Hill Cheese Rolling and Wake people don't have any special things to wear.

change order  
Clothes

Cooper's Cheese Rolling and Wake and Running of the Bulls have different history. Cooper's hill cheese Rolling origin is very old ~~and~~ <sup>but</sup> ~~it has~~ <sup>uncertain</sup> date and this event had been held as local event ~~but~~ <sup>before</sup> ~~now~~ this event became a world famous event. On the other hand, Running of the Bulls started <sup>in the</sup> 1400s in northern Spain. <sup>This event became a competition with enjoying fear and excitement.</sup>

Above the three, Running of the Bulls and Cooper's Hill Cheese Rolling and Wake have all differences. If you want to run, you should go to Running of the Bulls and if you want to fall down, I recommend Cooper's Hill Cheese Rolling.

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## Author Biography

*Kent David Jones* is a lecturer at the Center for Language Education at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Beppu, Japan. He has taught ESL at universities and colleges in Canada, as well as EFL in universities in Japan. His curriculum development and research work is largely related to writing, particularly feedback.



# Parents' Interpretation of the Hafu Referent

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Most parents of mixed-race children living in Japan recognize the inescapably mainstream usage of the word *hafu* in reference to their children. This study therefore investigated parents' interpretation and perception of the word *hafu* as used within Japan to describe their children's appearance and whether parents' interpretation affected their strategies in raising their children in Japanese society. Nine parents living in the Kansai and Chubu area participated in a semi-structured interview. Thematic analysis revealed four major themes: rejection, acceptance, reluctant acceptance, and deliberate racial socialization. Parents in the study recognized that because others see their children as different, they must make an effort to teach messages that racially socialize them. This research can be useful for new parents or intercultural couples thinking about settling and starting families in Japan.

日本に住む人種の異なる親の間から生まれた子供の大部分の親は、わが子に対してハーフという言葉が必然的に主流であることを認識しています。本稿では、日本で用いられているハーフの言葉の解釈と認識を調査し、両親の解釈が日本社会における子育て方針に影響を及ぼしているかどうかを議論しました。関西と中部エリアに住む9人の両親が、半構造化面接に参加しました。テーマ別分析では、拒絶、受け入れる、消極的受け入れ、意図的な人種社会化の4つの主要テーマに分かれました。研究対象の親は、他人が自分のハーフの子供を生粋の日本人とは異なると見なすため、様々な人種の人たちと触れ合う必要を教える努力をしなければならないことを認識しています。この研究は、新しい親や異文化のカップルが日本の家族を持つことについて考えるときに役立つと言えます。

Embracement of multiethnic and multicultural people in Japan has seen slow and there have been varied reactions throughout history (Törngren, 2017). These slow and varied reactions have been influenced by an education system that emphasizes similarities rather than differences (Okano & Tsuchiya, 1999). Among individuals in Japan, homogeneity and conformity are valued and individuals who are different in any way are considered "less Japanese" and even "non-Japanese" (Oikawa & Yoshida, 2007). Children with one Japanese and one non-Japanese parent are a good case in point. The visible differences in the appearance of some of these children have determined different attitudes by multiethnic people themselves, as well as how people and society treat them as belonging to neither the minority nor the majority (Oshima, 2014). One way in which they are excluded from the majority is by the most commonly used

label in present day Japan "*hafu*" ("half Japanese"; Greer, 2003; Kamada, 2005; Oshima, 2014). Greer (2003) stated that although the *hafu* referent "enjoys many positive nuances, conferring on its recipient cosmopolitan qualities of internationalism, elite bilingualism and worldly experience" (p. 18), some parents and their multiethnic children have contested and rejected this explicit ethnic categorization. Many recipients of the *hafu* referent believe, when it is used by a Japanese speaker, the label constitutes "half Japanese-ness" or "foreignness," which some parents and their multiethnic children see as positioning multiethnic individuals in a subtractive manner (Greer, 2003; Kamada, 2005).

When individuals are described as *hafu*, they may be stereotyped in Japanese talk as *gaijin* [foreigner], lacking knowledge of Japanese culture, language, and sociocultural norms. (Kamada, 2005; Kashiwazaki, 2009). This may

influence some multiethnic individuals to hide their true identities and attempt to pass themselves as Japanese because they want to fit in, as many only know Japan as their homes. Almonte-Acosta (2008) interviewed 30 Japanese-Filipino children in Japan. Twenty-seven of the 30 children wished to be identified as only Japanese and not as Japanese-Filipino. Participants described and identified themselves as Japanese by virtue of being born and raised in Japan and only understanding Japanese. The children in the study were believed to have internalized the ubiquitous theme of conformity in Japan: that being different was not always valued (Almonte-Acosta, 2008). Similar behavior was seen in another group of multiethnic children who preferred to hide their non-Japanese identities to fit in: Takeshita (2010) interviewed 59 Japanese-Brazilian children who revealed that they idealized English over their heritage language and tried to pass as Japanese or hide their identities.

Multiethnic individuals in Japan are not given the ability to identify as persons from more than one ethnic background (Shigematsu-Murphy, 2001). This can be problematic for many parents and their children who want to identify as Japanese or as a multiethnic individual, and the use of labels such as *hafu* can only seem to further marginalize and discourage them from choosing an ethnic identity. Some parents have tried to correct the negative nuance of this term and coined the term *daubaru* (“double”) as an alternative and more idealistic term than *hafu*. However, the term has failed to catch on in Japanese vernacular and *hafu* is used by many Japanese and non-Japanese. With this paper, therefore, I seek to add to the literature on the *hafu* referent in Japan by interviewing parents about their perceptions and interpretations of the term *hafu* when used to describe their multiethnic children.

### Theoretical Background

In this paper, Day’s (1998) framework of negotiating identities and the concept of being ascribed and resisting an ethnic identity will be incorporated. In Day’s study investigating linguistic ethnic group categorization at two work places in Sweden consisting of a large number of immigrants, he showed how people were categorized into ethnic groups and described ways in which people resisted

ethnic categorization. According to Day, ‘ethnic group’ categorizations were often...treated as inappropriate and were contested.’ (pp.154) He further found that, individuals may react against the categorization altogether since these categories and who they apply to are contestable in themselves. Day found five ways in which resistance to ethnic group categorization was done verbally at the two workplaces he studied: (a) one can dismiss the relevance of the category; (b) one can minimize the supposed “difference” between categories; (c) one can reconstitute the category so that one is excluded; (d) one can ethnify the ethnifier; and (e) one can resist “ethnification” by actively avoiding it. Although Day’s study wasn’t conducted in the context of Japan, it, however, shed some light on being categorized and labelled. In this paper, I assume that parents interpret the term *hafu* in different ways when used towards their children. I also assume that their interpretations will have an impact on their parenting strategies. The first place children learn the meaning of race and racial labels is within the family (Roth, 2005). Therefore, parents’ interpretation of the term will be passed on to their children. This study will seek to answer the following two questions:

1. How do parents interpret the label *hafu* when used to describe their children?
2. How do parents’ interpretation affect the strategies taken in raising their children in Japanese society?

## Method

### Participants

Nine parents living in the Kansai and Chubu areas in Japan participated in the study. Participants consisted of one Japanese, one Canadian, one British, one Italian, three Jamaicans, one Australian, and one American. The median age was 35 years old. Eight participants were married and one was single and they all had children below the age of 5. Parents with children under the age of 5 were selected because of the newness of their parenting journey, and initial thoughts and strategies could be communicated. Moreover, only parents with biologically related mixed-race children participated in the study. Therefore, a purposive sampling method was used to recruit participants.

## Procedure

A semistructured interview was developed for the study. The interview focused on three areas of parents' interpretation of the *hafu* label: (a) frequency of use of the term *hafu* towards their children; (b) parents' interpretation of the term; and (c) its impact on their parenting goals. Examples of the questions include the following:

- What do you know about the label *hafu*?
- How often is it used to describe your child?
- How do you feel when you hear this word used to describe your child?
- How does your interpretation of the term *hafu* impact the values instilled in your child?

A total of 16 questions were asked. Interviews were conducted at a mutually agreed-upon location. The interviews were recorded with a digital audio recording device and were transcribed verbatim. All names were changed to protect participants' identities.

Thematic analysis was used to analyze the data. Thematic analysis is the process of "identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns [themes] within interviews" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.79). Each interview was read several times line by line before the initial themes were created. Memos were created to keep track of significant events, concepts, and ideas. Initial codes were created during the data analysis. Themes were developed and defined to represent participants' interpretations of their experiences.

## Results

Four major themes emerged from the analysis of parents' interpretation of the *hafu* referent and the influence of their interpretation on their parenting strategies. The themes were rejection, acceptance, reluctant acceptance, and deliberate racial socialization.

### Rejection

The theme rejection refers to parents' interpreting the term as either an inaccurate description of their children or a term that connotes differences or excludes their children from being considered Japanese. Parents who saw *hafu* as an inaccurate description believed that the label limits the true nature and complexity of their children's ethnicities and diverse backgrounds. One parent explained, "I think they

must use a more encompassing word because I think the word *hafu* neglects one side of the parent" (Tina). Similarly, another parent said, "I believe it's too broad and simplistic. I would rather her identify with all of her racial identities so ... I don't want her to just be in this box that's half when she is more than just *hafu*" (Aiko). Parents also spoke passionately about using a term that was more inclusive and highlighted their children's multiethnicity. One parent mentioned, "I would prefer the term 'mixed' as opposed to *hafu*. If I know the person, I let them know he is mixed and not half and that he is a whole person, just with parents from two different nationalities" (Kelly).

Other parents interpreted the term as connoting distinction between their children and general population. One parent described her child as Japanese and believes that the term is unhealthy and unhelpful for her child. The parent said, "I feel like *hafu* is kind of dividing you from Japanese. She has Japanese nationality, so she is not *hafu*; she is Japanese" (Yuki). The parent went on to describe an occasion when she was questioned about whether her child was Japanese because of her daughter's appearance:

A woman asked me, "Are you Japanese?"  
Then she asked about her: "Is she Japanese?"  
I said, "Yes." She said again, "No. Is she Japanese?" I said "Yes! She is Japanese." I don't know. If I'm Japanese, then of course she is Japanese. It's difficult to make people understand. (Yuki)

### Acceptance

The theme of acceptance consists of parents' interpretation of the term as a positive linguistic discourse. For these parents, the term was complimentary and empowering for their children. One parent reported, "I take it like a compliment, as I think he has got something more, right? Like having half vanilla and half chocolate ice cream. It's better than having just vanilla ice cream" (Liz). Another parent said, "My wife said it's actually a compliment to say that a baby is [*hafu*] even if you know both parents are Japanese" (Andrew).

Some parents explained that some Japanese were fascinated and intrigued by mixed-race children because their features were different than those of the majority. One parent listed

the comments made about his child by Japanese speakers when they ask if she is *hafu*:

Things like, “She looks like a model,” “looks like a doll,” “looks like an angel,” “unbelievably cute,” “eyes are so big,” things like that. High school girls tend to go crazy when they see her when we’re walking in the morning. (Andrew)

Another parent believed that mixed-race children are liked in Japan and believes it is the same in other places. He said:

Everybody likes them. People want to be them or, yea, for the most part. You hear a lot of Japanese female saying, “Yes, I want a have mixed kids” or “*hafu ga hoshi* [“I want a mixed child”]; *yappari hafu kawaii* [“as always, mixed children are cute”]” ... I think it is the same everywhere. Mixed- race kids are coveted. They get the best of both world. (Frank)

Another parent mentioned that before the interview, she consulted her Japanese husband about the use of the word in Japan: “I think it is a way to say it for them. It is normal. I asked my husband if he thinks Japanese use it as a bad word. He said it is the first word that comes to mind” (Lola).

Parents reported that questions about their children were usually directed in a curious way, so they believe that most people in Japan have no emotional attachment to the word. “Japanese people don’t think about it, and they just take the word that’s been given to them, and they use it completely in a benevolent way. I have no problem with it; neither does my wife” (Andrew).

### Reluctant Acceptance

The reluctant acceptance theme includes parents’ description of finding themselves in a position where they were uncomfortable about the use of the term *hafu*, but they reluctantly accepted it to avoid conflict. One parent reported that he believes the word implies that his children aren’t Japanese, but the longer he lives in Japan, the more he realizes that people will continue to use this word, even his spouse:

But as I have lived here longer, I’ve come to realize, native Japanese, many of them don’t think it’s a bad thing to say, right? I have even heard my wife referred to them using that term, and I am thinking it is ok. They have this image: If you aren’t fully one of us, then you are half. So, this is their word for the Japanese. (James)

Parents reported that they understand that multiculturalism is yet to be fully understood in Japan, so the comments and questions about their children are expected. One parent reported, “Because Japan is 99% Japanese, homogenous, so they stick out so obviously. They are going to say he is foreigner or he is *hafu*” (Frank). Another parent reported that she is also uncertain of how to reply, and to avoid further discussion of the *hafu* label, she says her child is such:

When people ask “*hafu*?” I am not sure which half are they asking. Does that make sense? Because I am also *hafu*, so that will make her three fourths Japanese. But there isn’t a term in Japan for that, so I just say she is *hafu*. (Aiko)

### Deliberate Racial Socialization

Parents in the study recognized the use of the term *hafu* meant that others in society have mixed perceptions of their children. Therefore, they described making a deliberate attempt to socialize their children to accept themselves and their ethnicity, which influenced their parenting strategies more profoundly than Japanese parents without mixed-race children. One parent reported that the label *hafu* means that her child must know she is Japanese: “I want to teach her that there isn’t much difference between Japanese and her and other people. We are one people” (Yuki). Another parent spoke of preparing her child for the rejection she may face in society because she is seen as different: “I have to instill values of self-worth, inner strength, and courage in her, the need to achieve despite obstacles, because they will become affected by the subtle discrimination they will face in Japan” (Tina).

All parents mentioned that they would like to provide a multicultural experience to their children by meeting different people or being raised outside of Japan



because it is difficult to do in Japan. One parent said, “I want her to meet many different people” (Yuki). Another parent described her intentions of returning home, so her child can have a broad experience. Parents believed that exposing their children to their culture was important for their confidence and personalities:

My goal will be to raise her in America and not Japan—just where it is multicultural and not everyone is Japanese. Not saying anything is wrong with this country, but I am American; I want her to grow up with Americans, which is quite difficult to Japan. There is a certain mentality that doesn’t sit well with me—just conformity, think the same. I really want her to be an individual and not be afraid to be unique. (Aiko)

All parents mentioned that bilingualism was the goal for their children. They believe that for mixed-race children, it is important to be able to communicate in both parents’ languages. The parents believed that their children would be at a disadvantage if that were not achieved, especially in Japan where the perception of children born into intercultural marriages is that they are fluent in English and Japanese. One parent said, “I want him to be bilingual. I think it is important. He needs to know about both sides of his culture. He needs to be able to converse. It’s *mottainai* [a waste] if he knows one and doesn’t know the other” (Frank).

## Discussion

In this research I sought to answer two questions: How do parents interpret the use of the term *hafu* when used to describe their children, and how do parents’ interpretation affect the strategies taken in raising their children in Japanese society. As predicted, I found different interpretations of the term *hafu* by parents. Some parents interpreted it as a positive referent, others rejected its use and interpreted it as an inaccurate and an exclusive label, and some reluctantly accepted it to avoid further discussions on the topic. Parents in the study who accepted the *hafu* referent believe it infers a positive characteristic on their children such as beauty and biculturalism, which are objects of adoration in Japan. This was similar in the Kamada (2005) study of six multiethnic

girls in Japan, which showed how the participants chose to celebrate and embody the cultural capital of bilingualism and biculturalism of being *hafu*.

The parents who rejected the *hafu* referent viewed the use of the term as inaccurate and aimed at categorizing their children. One parent faced questions about her child’s nationality and ethnicity because the child’s facial features were not the accepted color, face shape, and hair of the Japanese. Rockquemore and Laszloffy (2005) noted that society will reject multiethnic individuals based on their appearance. Other parents are still uncertain about how to respond or feel about the term when used towards their children, so they reluctantly accept the use of the term. This experience was confirmed by Singer (2000), who said that parents who accept the word *hafu* often prefer not to make an issue out of it for the sake of their children. In applying Day’s (1998) framework, I saw two out of the five ways in which parents rejected the ethnic categorization. Some parents dismissed the relevance of the category, stating that their child is another ethnicity such as Japanese. Others reconstituted the category so that one was excluded, as one parent said, “I let them know he is mixed and not half and that he is a whole person” (Kelly).

The research further showed that parents in the study recognize that the use of the term *hafu* meant others see their children as different, so they must make an effort to teach messages that racially socialize them. Parents spoke of teaching age-appropriate messages of self-worth and egalitarianism. One parent insisted that her child must know she is Japanese and is no different, while another parent mentioned teaching her child self-worth. This experience was consistent with Hughes and Chen’s (1997) revelation that parents communicated racial messages to their biracial children and that when parents communicate about race to their children, it promotes positive development and well-being. This idea is suggested by symbolic interactionist that “racial socialization is primarily contained within nuanced microsocial exchanges between parent and child (Hughes & Chen, 2003, p. 471). Other parents revealed that raising their children to be less Japanese was important for them. Hughes and Chen’s (2003) studies on racial socialization have shown

that parents who themselves identify with an ethnic or racial minority intentionally socialize their children as such.

Conclusions were drawn from a small data analysis; however, it does contribute to the discourse surrounding mixed-race individuals in Japan and also contributes to an understanding of parents' voices on the use of *hafu* towards their children. For future research, perspectives from children may be investigated to understand their interpretation of the *hafu* referent and show whether they confirmed their parents' beliefs. I will be conducting further investigation into parents' interpretation of the *hafu* referent. With the increasing figures in interracial marriages and mixed-race children in Japan, it is important to create a better understanding of issues that affect these families to create an environment that welcomes all individuals. Living as mixed-race can be challenging for children as well as parents in homogenous societies such as Japan. This study can be helpful for new parents or individuals thinking of settling and starting families in Japan.

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# New and Old TOEIC L&R: Score Comparison and Test-Taker Views on Difficulty Level

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New question formats for the TOEIC Listening and Reading test were introduced in May 2016. Due to the complex nature of these formats, learners preparing for the test were concerned that the changes might negatively affect their performance on the test. This study was aimed at determining whether the new and old versions of the test are comparable in terms of scoring and difficulty level. The scores of 141 university students who took both versions were analyzed using descriptive statistics and paired-samples *t* tests, and correlations were examined. The average score for the new version was 12 points higher, which is statistically significant but small, and the scores for the two versions correlated at .87. Also, 56 participants responded to a 5-item questionnaire designed to elicit their perception of the difficulty level of the new version. The majority of the respondents indicated that they believed the new version was more difficult.

2016年5月にTOEIC Listening and Reading Testの試験形式が更新された。新形式問題は複雑なので、TOEICに備えて学習している学習者は形式変更がテスト結果に負の影響を及ぼすのではないかと懸念していた。本研究は新旧両形式のスコアと難易度に互換性があるか見極めることを目的として行われた。両形式のTOEICを受けた141人の大学生のスコアに対して記述統計分析および対応のある*t*検定を行い、さらに相関関係を調べた。新形式版の平均点の方が12点高く、これは統計的に有意であるが小さい。また、新旧両形式版のスコアの間には.87の相関があった。さらに56名の参加者が新形式の難易度に対する見方を探るための5項目の調査票に回答した。過半数の回答者は、新形式の方が旧形式より難しく感じたと答えた。

In November 2015, Educational Testing Service (ETS), the creator of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), announced that question formats in the TOEIC Listening and Reading test (TOEIC L&R) would be changing and that a new version of the exam would be introduced in May 2016 (ETS, 2015a). ETS provided sample questions online (ETS, 2015b), and the Institute for International Business Communication (IIBC), the Japanese administrator of TOEIC programs, posted descriptions of the changes in Japanese on its website along with example questions (IIBC, 2015). When Japanese learners of English who were preparing for the TOEIC L&R reviewed the sample questions, some expressed concern that the changes might negatively affect their performance on the test, resulting in a lower score, as the new question types appeared to be more complex and difficult. In addition, Parts 1, 2, and 5, which are relatively easier than the other sections,

would have fewer questions, whereas the harder sections of Parts 3, 6, and 7 would have more.

ETS stated that there would be “no change to the difficulty level” and that TOEIC scores would “continue to be comparable” (ETS, 2015a). However, these assertions cannot be taken at face value, as the organization has a vested interest in maintaining the popularity of the TOEIC L&R. Research was therefore needed to verify their claims.

One way to determine compatibility between the two versions of the test is to have learners take both and then compare their scores. This was possible while the old version continued to be used in the Institutional Program (IP) until the end of March 2017. This is one of two TOEIC programs through which an institution sets the exam time, date, and location, and only those who belong to the institution can take the test. The other program, namely the Public Testing Program (PTP), through which IIBC sets the exam time, date,

and location, administered the new TOEIC L&R in May 2016 for the general public. With two programs simultaneously offering different versions of the test, Japanese learners of English were able to take both up until March 2017, allowing for score comparisons over a short period of time. Taking advantage of the situation, this study was designed to answer the following research questions.

RQ1: How comparable are scores for the new and old versions of the TOEIC L&R?

RQ2: Do test-takers find the new version more difficult than the old version?

## Methods

The new and old versions of the TOEIC L&R were administered to 141 university students; 81 of these participants took the tests in July 2016 and the other 60 took them in January 2017. Their test scores were analyzed for descriptive statistics, and paired-samples *t* tests were performed. Correlations between the listening and reading scores for the two versions were also calculated. In addition, 56 of the 60 participants in the January 2017 sessions responded to a 5-item questionnaire, the results of which were compiled and examined.

## Participants

The participants of this study were 141 university students (121 female and 20 male) who were attending a private Japanese university specializing in foreign languages in the Kanto region. Fourteen of the participants took part in both July 2016 and January 2017, but the related data were treated as if obtained from different individuals on the assumption that their English levels must have been different after 6 months, and therefore they were, in effect, different learners due to the 6-month gap between tests. The participants took part in the study on a voluntary basis and received a 3,000 yen discount on exam fees; the total cost of taking the TOEIC IP test and TOEIC PTP test for each participant was reduced from 8,200 yen to 5,200 yen. Among the participants, 12 were in their first academic year, 26 in their second, 77 in their third, and 26 in their fourth. As for their fields of study, there were 53 English language majors, 52 international communication majors, 12 international business majors, 11

Spanish language majors, four Indonesian language majors, three Vietnamese language majors, three Portuguese language majors, two Chinese language majors, and one Thai language major.

## Materials

The new and old versions of the TOEIC L&R and a questionnaire were used in this study. The new version was administered in the Public Testing Program (PTP) and the old version in the Institutional Program (IP). IIBC provided the results for both versions, and the scores were analyzed using Microsoft Excel 2013 and IBM SPSS Statistics 23. Those who took part in the January 2017 sessions received the questionnaire online via Google Forms, and 56 of the 60 participants responded. The survey data were then entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet for analysis.

## Two Versions of the TOEIC L & R

Both versions of the TOEIC L&R are composed of two subtests: the listening test and reading test. These subtests each consist of 100 multiple-choice questions, and raw scores of between 0 and 100 are converted to scaled scores of between 5 and 495. The listening test has four parts and the reading test has three. What especially makes the latest version of the TOEIC L&R different from the previous version are its new question types and new formats, which are:

1. Conversations with three speakers in Part 3
2. Questions asking the meaning of a phrase or sentence in a given context in Parts 3, 4, and 7 (e.g., What does the woman mean when she says, "I'll be using the projector a lot?")
3. Questions with a graphic, such as a table, floor plan, or coupon, that require the test-taker to connect what they see in the graphic with what they hear, in Parts 3 and 4
4. Questions in which the test-taker chooses a sentence that fits in a blank in a Part 6 passage
5. Questions in which the test-taker chooses the right place to insert a particular sentence in a Part 7 passage
6. Text message chains in Part 7
7. Sets of three related passages with five questions in Part 7

Compared to the questions and formats of the previous version of the test, the new additions appeared to be more complex and difficult.

Another major difference between the test versions are the numbers of questions in each part, except Part 4. Table 1. lists the tasks that test-takers perform in each part and the number of questions for each section in the two versions. Where there are fewer questions in the new version (i.e., Parts 1, 2, and 5), the tasks are relatively simple, whereas in the parts with more questions (i.e., Parts 3, 6, and 7), the tasks are more demanding.

Those who participated in July 2016 took a PTP test (new version) on July 24 and an IP test (old version) on July 29. Those in the January 2017 sessions took an IP test on January 26 and a PTP test on January 29.

### 5-item Questionnaire

A 5-item questionnaire was administered to elicit the participants' views on the two versions. The questions were:

1. Which listening test was more difficult, the new (PTP) or old (IP) test?
2. Which reading test was more difficult, the new (PTP) or old (IP) test?
3. Overall, which version was more difficult?
4. When you prepared for the exam, which version did you focus on?
5. Which version of the TOEIC L&R do you prefer?

The questionnaire in this study was in Japanese (see Appendix) and administered via Google Forms so that participants could fill it out online.

*Table 1.*

*Tasks and Number of Questions in Each Part of the Two Versions of the TOEIC L&R*

Part	Tasks	No. of Qs in old version	No. of Qs in new version
1	For each question with a photo, listen to four sentences and choose the one that best describes the image.	10	6
2	Listen to a question or statement followed by three responses and choose the most appropriate response.	30	25
3	Listen to a conversation and answer comprehension questions. Some questions in the new version include a graphic.	30	39
4	Listen to a short talk and answer comprehension questions. Some questions in the new version include a graphic.	30	30
5	Choose a word or phrase to fill in a blank in a sentence.	40	30
6	Choose words, phrases, or sentences to fill in blanks in a passage.	12	16
7	Read a passage or a set of two or three passages and answer comprehension questions.	48	54

Table 2.

Descriptive Statistics for the Scores for the Two Versions of the TOEIC L&R (N = 141)

Test	M	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
Old L	370.74	55.94	185	495	-0.35	0.82
New L	371.70	59.56	150	495	-0.62	1.11
Old R	295.21	73.76	120	480	-0.23	-0.37
New R	306.67	71.65	95	440	-0.59	0.14
Old LR	665.96	120.72	330	970	-0.20	-0.05
New LR	678.37	122.75	245	930	-0.60	0.43

Note. Old = old version; New = new version; L = listening; R = reading; LR = listening and reading combined; Min = lowest score; Max = highest score.

## Results

### Descriptive Statistics for the Scores for the Two Versions

Scores for the two versions of the TOEIC L&R were examined in three categories: listening scores, reading scores, and total scores (i.e., the listening and reading scores combined). Table 2. shows the descriptive statistics for the three categories. The average scores for the new version were higher in all the categories; the average listening score was 0.96 points higher, the average reading score was 11.46 points higher, and the average total score was 12.41 points higher, compared to the old version. Histograms, normal Q-Q plots, and box plots for the six sets of scores were created to gauge the normality of score distributions, and a visual inspection of these confirmed that the scores were approximately normally distributed. However, the box plots indicated several outliers: For the old version there were two in the listening scores and one in the total scores, and for the new version there were two in the listening scores, two in the reading scores, and one in the total scores, and all were below the bottom boundary. These outliers were not removed from the study so as not to reduce the number of participants.

### Paired-Samples T Tests

Paired-samples *t* tests were conducted to compare the scores for the old and new versions in terms of listening, reading, and total scores. On average, the listening scores for the new version were higher ( $M = 371.70$ ,  $SD = 59.56$ ) than those for

the old version ( $M = 370.74$ ,  $SD = 55.94$ ). This difference,  $-0.96$ , BCa 95% CI  $[-7.82, 5.50]$ , was not significant,  $t(140) = -0.31$ ,  $p = .759$ , and represented a very small effect size,  $d = 0.02$ . In other words, there was no significant difference between the listening scores for the two versions. The reading scores for the new version were also higher ( $M = 306.67$ ,  $SD = 71.65$ ) than those for the old version ( $M = 295.21$ ,  $SD = 73.76$ ). This difference,  $-11.45$ , BCa 95% CI  $[-18.37, -4.82]$ , was significant,  $t(140) = -3.30$ ,  $p = .001$ , but represented a small effect size,  $d = 0.16$ , which was below Cohen's (1988) convention for a small effect ( $d = .20$ ). This means that there was a statistically significant difference between the reading scores for the two versions, but its effect was small. Similarly, the total scores for the new version were higher ( $M = 678.37$ ,  $SD = 122.75$ ) than those for the old version ( $M = 665.96$ ,  $SD = 120.72$ ). This difference,  $-12.41$ , BCa 95% CI  $[-22.39, -2.74]$ , was also significant,  $t(140) = -2.42$ ,  $p = .017$ , but represented a small effect size,  $d = 0.10$ . Again, between the total scores for the two versions, a statistically significant difference was found with a small effect size.

### Correlations

The scores for the two versions were significantly correlated in all three categories; the listening scores,  $r = .80$ , the reading scores,  $r = .84$ , and the total scores,  $r = .87$  (all  $ps < .001$ ). Figures 1, 2, and 3 are scatterplots of the listening, reading, and total scores, respectively, for both versions and show how closely the two sets of scores correlated.

## Questionnaire

The questionnaire was used only for the January 2017 sessions, and 56 participants responded. Table 3. shows the descriptive statistics for their scores, for both versions and the three categories. Again the average scores for the new version were higher in all categories: The average listening score was 5.98 points higher; the average reading score was 7.76 points higher; and the average total score was 13.78 points higher, compared to the old version.

The first item on the questionnaire asked the participants which listening test they found more difficult (see Table 4. for responses). Nearly three quarters of the respondents indicated that the new version was more difficult.

The second item on the questionnaire asked the participants which reading test they found more difficult (see Table 5. for responses). Nearly two thirds of the respondents indicated that the new version was more difficult.

The third item on the questionnaire asked the participants which version they found more difficult overall (see Table 6. for responses). More than three quarters of the respondents indicated that the new version was more difficult.

The fourth item on the questionnaire asked the participants which version they focused on while preparing for the test, and about three times more of them had focused on the old version, compared to the new version (see Table 7. for responses).

The fifth item on the questionnaire asked the participants which version they preferred, and there were almost twice as many participants who preferred the old version as there were those who preferred the new version (see Table 8. for responses).

## Discussion

First, according to the data obtained in this study, the average listening, reading, and total scores for the new version were higher than those for the old version by 0.96, 11.45, and 12.41 points, respectively. The results of the paired-samples *t* tests indicated that there was not any significant difference between the two sets of listening scores, but the differences between the reading scores and between the total scores were statistically significant. However, these statistically significant differences are almost negligible in practice for

two reasons. One is that their effect sizes were small; Cohen's *d*s for the reading score comparison and the total score comparison were 0.16 and 0.10, respectively, which means the differences were a 0.16 standard deviation for the reading scores and a 0.10 standard deviation for the total scores. Their effects are therefore limited. The other is that, as a measurement instrument, the TOEIC L&R is not very accurate when measuring such small differences. ETS (2015c) reports that the standard error of measurement for the TOEIC L&R is about 25 points for each of the listening and reading sections, which means a test-taker's true total score could be  $\pm 50$  points of the reported score they receive. Since measurement errors cause a difference of  $\pm 50$  points to a total score, a difference of around 10 points is not so important by comparison.

Second, the scores for the two versions significantly correlated for the listening subtest,  $r = .80$ , for the reading subtest,  $r = .84$ , and for the whole test,  $r = .87$  (all  $ps < .001$ ). Usually, this level of correlations is considered to be strong; however, one could argue that the figures should be higher because two versions of the same test were compared, and ETS claims that the two versions are equivalent. It must be remembered, though, that the TOEIC L&R is not a highly accurate measurement instrument, and measurement errors of  $\pm 50$  points out of 990 points are reported (ETS, 2015c). Spearman (1904) suggested that raw correlations are lower than true correlations because of measurement errors and, therefore, in order to estimate the real correlations, the raw figures need to be corrected on the basis of reliability estimates. ETS does not disclose reliability estimates for the scores of a particular test form, but it reports that the KR-20 reliability index for the listening and reading scores across all forms from their norming samples "has been approximately 0.90 and up" (ETS, 2015c, p. 22). If reliability estimates for the scores of the two forms used in this study were .09, then the raw correlations of .80, .84, and .87 could be corrected to .89, .93, and .97, respectively, by using the formula for correction for attenuation proposed by Spearman (1904). Therefore, considering measurement errors, the figures obtained in this study could be considered high enough to support ETS's claim that the two versions are equivalent.



Finally, 44 of the 56 respondents to the questionnaire survey indicated that the new version was more difficult. One could argue that the new version was more difficult due to the fact that nearly 80% of the respondents believed it to be so. However, people use their subjective judgment to determine which version is more difficult, and therefore responses can vary from person to person, even among those who have taken the same tests. In addition, two respondents indicated that the old version was more difficult, and 10 respondents were unable to say which version was more difficult.

Even though nearly 80% of the respondents considered the new version to be more difficult, their average score for the new version was higher than that for the old version, which may seem counterintuitive. One reason for this is that ETS made some adjustments to offset the difference in the overall level of difficulty when converting raw scores to scaled scores, as ETS (2015c) explained:

Scaled scores are transformed and derived from test takers' raw scores through a proven statistical procedure called "equating." This procedure adjusts for test-form difficulty and establishes the relationship between test takers' raw and scaled scores so that the scaled scores from different test administrations are comparable. (p. 4)

Thus, even if the new version was more difficult and the participants performed poorly, this was not necessarily reflected in their scores. For example, on an easier test form, test-takers need to get 53% of the questions correct in order to score 500, but on a more difficult form they can get the same score with a lower percentage of correct answers. Considering the results of the score comparisons in this study, it seems that ETS is capable of making these adjustments with a high degree of accuracy.

In conclusion, scores for the two versions could be considered comparable because the score differences were almost negligible, despite their statistical significance, and the correlations between the scores seem reasonably strong. Also, as the majority of the participants thought the new version was more difficult, it is likely that the difficulty level of the

TOEIC L&R has increased. However, because ETS makes sufficient adjustments based on test-form difficulty when converting raw scores to scaled scores, TOEIC-takers should not worry that their scores will be negatively affected by the question and format changes.

### Acknowledgments

This study was supported by the Center for Foreign Language Proficiency (FLP) at Kanda University of International Studies. The author wishes to express his gratitude to Professor Nobuko Hasegawa, the Director of the FLP, for providing financial aid and useful advice, without which this study would not have been possible.

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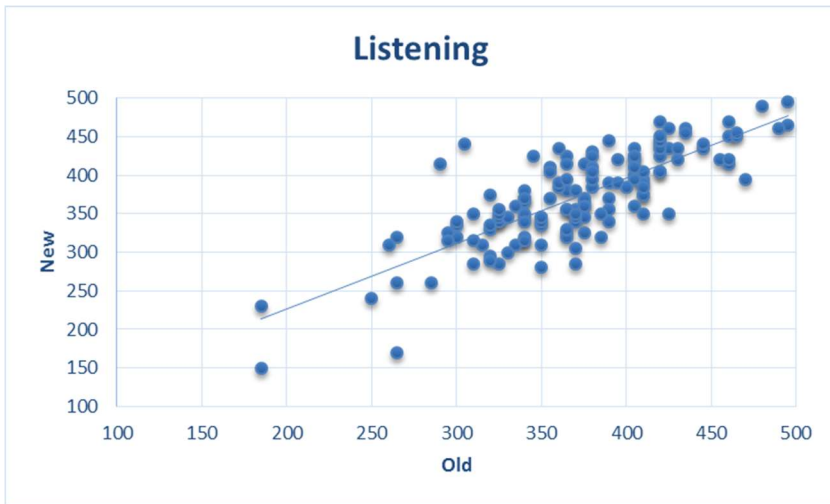


Figure 1.  
Scatterplot of the listening scores for the two versions of the TOEIC L&R (N = 141).



Figure 2.  
Scatterplot of the reading scores for the two versions of the TOEIC L&R (N = 141).

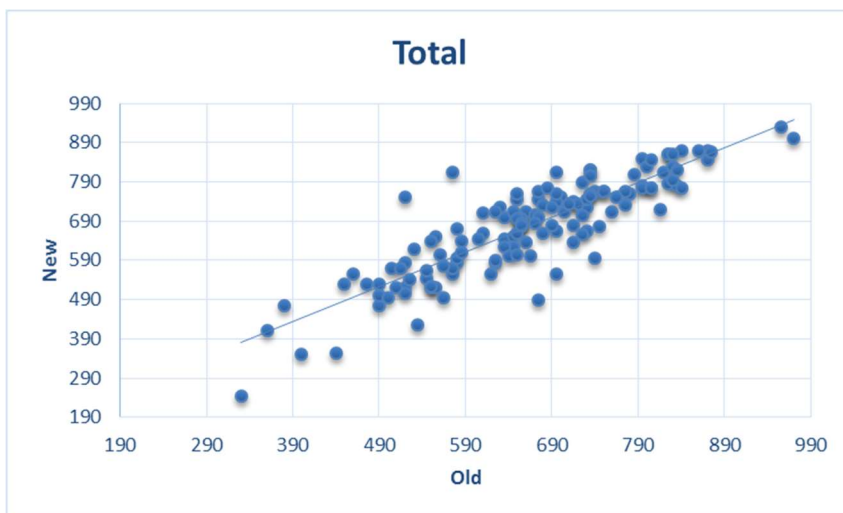


Figure 3.  
Scatterplot of the total scores for the two versions of the TOEIC L&R (N = 141).

Table 3.

*Descriptive Statistics for the Scores of the 56 Participants Who Responded to the Questionnaire*

Test	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
Old L	374.11	52.56	250	495	0.25	0.35
New L	380.09	61.04	170	495	-0.85	1.59
Old R	309.29	65.85	150	480	0.00	0.52
New R	317.05	67.10	110	440	-0.78	1.01
Old LR	683.39	109.18	400	970	0.24	0.77
New LR	697.17	117.72	350	930	-0.63	0.60

Note. Old = old version; New = new version; L = listening; R = reading; LR = listening and reading combined; Min = lowest score; Max = highest score.

Table 4.

*Responses to Question 1 (n = 56)*

New (PTP)	Old (IP)	Unsure
41 (73.3%)	3 (5.4%)	12 (21.4%)

Note. Question 1 = Which listening test was more difficult, the new (PTP) or old (IP) test?

Table 5.

*Responses to Question 2 (n = 56)*

New (PTP)	Old (IP)	Unsure
36 (64.3%)	6 (10.7%)	14 (25.0%)

Note. Question 2 = Which reading test was more difficult, the new (PTP) or old (IP) test?

Table 6.

*Responses to Question 3 (n = 56)*

New (PTP)	Old (IP)	Unsure
44 (78.6%)	2 (3.6%)	10 (17.9%)

Note. Question 3 = Overall, which version was more difficult?

Table 7.

*Responses to Question 4 (n = 56)*

New (PTP)	Old (IP)	Both equally	Didn't do much preparation
7 (12.5%)	23 (41.1%)	6 (10.7%)	20 (35.7%)

Note. Question 4 = When you prepared for the exam, which version did you focus on?

Table 8.

*Responses to Question 5 (n = 56)*

New (PTP)	Old (IP)	Hard to say
13 (23.2%)	25 (44.6%)	18 (32.1%)

Note. Question 5 = Which version of the TOEIC do you prefer?

## Appendix

### Original Questionnaire in Japanese

Q1. リスニングはどちらが難しく感じましたか。

1) 公開テストの方が難しい。2) 学内 IP の方が難しい。3) どちらとも言えない。

Q2. リーディングはどちらが難しく感じましたか。

1) 公開テストの方が難しい。2) 学内 IP の方が難しい。3) どちらとも言えない。

Q3. 総合するとどちらが難しく感じましたか。

1) 公開テストの方が難しい。2) 学内 IP の方が難しい。3) どちらとも言えない。

Q4. テストに向けた学習は新旧どちらの形式がメインでしたか。

1) 新形式がメイン。2) 旧形式がメイン。3) 両方同じくらい。4) テスト対策は特にしなかった。

Q5. 新形式と旧形式ではどちらが好きですか。

1) 新形式の方が好き。2) 旧形式の方が好き。3) どちらとも言えない。

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### Author's Biography

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# Extending Class Presentations beyond the Classroom With Moxtra

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The student presentation is a common and usually satisfying classroom activity. Whole class talks, however, take time and limit individuals' speaking opportunities. Poster presentations, or presentations made in small groups, allow more speaking time, but restrict the chances for each presentation to be seen. Using the mobile app Moxtra allows, and encourages, student interactions and appreciation of each other's work beyond the classroom. Students upload their presentations for others to watch, and give feedback on, as well as learn from. Teachers can also keep these digital presentations as a record, which is helpful for grading.

学生によるプレゼンテーションは授業活動としてはよくあるもので、大抵満足度も高いものである。しかしながら、教室全体で行う場合は時間の関係で、一人ひとりが発話する機会が限られる。一方で、ポスタープレゼンテーション又は小グループ内でのプレゼンテーションは発話時間が多く取れるが、それぞれのプレゼンテーションを視聴する機会が限られてしまう。携帯アプリの Moxtra を利用することで、学生が教室外においてもお互いにプレゼンテーションを評価し、やりとりすることができ、またそれを促すことができる。学生は、自分のプレゼンテーションをアップロードし、他の学生のプレゼンテーションを視聴し、フィードバックを行い、そこから学ぶことができる。教員にとっても、これらのデジタルプレゼンテーションを保管できるため成績評価の際に便利である。

This paper describes the use of Moxtra to extend class presentation projects beyond the classroom and argues that its use enhances a typical presentation course. Moxtra is an app, available for smartphones (iPhones and Android) and as a cloud-based computer software. Moxtra was used in this project following individual student presentations in small groups in a round-robin style. It was found to have several benefits.

First, it gave a chance for all class members to see, in their own time, all their classmates' presentations. Second, Moxtra allowed students directly to give, and receive, feedback from their peers, even promoting interaction between students after classroom activities had finished. Third, it encouraged students to have meaningful speaking practice out of class. Students needed to record their presentations in Moxtra outside of class time and were able to make as many efforts to complete the work as they wished.

Finally, the software allowed the teacher to collect a digital portfolio of work from each student. This helped the teacher when grading, as it was something the teacher could refer to at the end of the course in addition to notes taken during the presentation tasks performed in class time.

The main purpose of using Moxtra, then, was to add an extra dimension to a presentation course. It can, in fact, be used as a way for students to share their presentations without any classroom performances. In the courses outlined below, however, it was used to augment and extend the activities restricted to the classroom.

## Background

Having students make presentations in their English classes is a common task set by teachers in all kinds of courses. Recent exhortations from Japan's Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEXT) for more "Active Learning" (Jones

and Palmer, 2017) mean that this activity is likely to become more prevalent in a range of courses rather than less. According to Prince (2004), “Active learning is generally defined as any instructional method that engages students in the learning process... The core elements of active learning are student activity and engagement in the learning process” (p. 1). A presentation task undoubtedly involves students in an active learning process.

One thing teachers have to decide, though, is how students make their presentations. There are various formats. One student, a pair of students, or a small group of students, presenting to the whole class is one way. There are clear benefits to this method. For example, making a presentation to the whole class gives the student presenters a sense of occasion. It is clearly a performance, and it brings together all the elements of public speaking while displaying visual aids on a big screen. It also allows everyone in the class to see, and listen to, each presentation.

There are, however, some downsides to the whole class presentation style, which have made other formats popular. As King (2002) argued, “oral presentations can be a time-consuming project with no guarantee of a satisfactory performance” (para. 2). An alternative to having students stand in front of the whole class is the poster presentation format (Bayne, 2005). There are two key benefits to this: first, it is less stressful for student presenters; and second, it gives presenters several chances to make their presentation. As the number of students involved in each poster presentation is small, it increases each student’s chances to speak, both as a presenter and also as an audience member.

Even more mobile and quicker to use than posters, however, are the iPhones and Android smartphones that students now bring to class as a matter of course. These “Bring Your Own Device” policies (BYOD) are perfect for “Blended Learning” activities, which combine the use of technology with more traditional classroom tasks (Brown, 2016). Smartphones are perfect research and display tools for students who are preparing, and then making, presentations to small groups. In addition, as the students’ use their own devices, in the words of Hockly (2013), “to practise, record, and re-record until they are happy with the final version” (p. 4) of their presentation, it fits the Modifications stage of

Puentedura’s (2010) SAMR model of technology use in education. Hockly (2013) neatly explained that the SAMR model “describes the use of technology in learning tasks, from the simplest (substitution) to the more complex and innovative ones (redefinition). The SAMR model sees Substitution and Augmentation as ways to enhance learning tasks, whereas Modifications and Redefinition allow for transformation” (p. 3). Regarding the use of Moxtra in this project, I would argue that as the presentations can be recorded for homework, and feedback can be given and received out of class, which is not possible in traditional class presentations, the final part of the activity even fits the Redefinition stage of the SAMR model.

### Context

The university-level courses in which my students use mobile phones for presenting are called Digital Presentation, or Oral Communication. The first time students in those courses use their mobile phones is for an audio-only self-introduction task (Knight, 2015). Then they use their phones to show pictures as visual aids to accompany talks to audiences of between one and three classmates. By switching groups around, the teacher can give students several chances to practice and give their talks so that they gain confidence, fluency, and even accuracy (Nation & Newton, 2009). Then, for later presentations, students learn how to make slideshows, using one of the main apps available: Keynote, PowerPoint, or Google Slides. Many of them can already make basic slides on a computer, but need guidance in using the apps.

The bigger challenge for me in this 2nd-year university course is to build the students’ confidence and enjoyment in making presentations at all, whether they were using slideware or other visual aids or not. This was clear from the responses to a questionnaire I gave the students on the first day of the course. In April 2016, at the start of the course dedicated to presenting, 64% of the students in two classes (25 out of 39) agreed clearly that it was “useful to have good presentation skills.” Only five students did not agree. However, just under half answered that they outright did not like presenting (17 out of 39). It was even worse in April 2017: Only 55% of the students (20 out of 36) agreed that

having good presentation skills was useful, and more than half (19 out of 36) declared they did not like presenting.

It was pleasing to note that there was a change in attitude towards presenting among a large number of students at the end of the first semester in 2016. The outright dislikes for presenting had fallen from 43.6% in April at the start of the course to 11.8% in July at the end of the semester. There was no chance on that occasion to follow up with interviews, and it has to be noted that there were five fewer students taking the course by then, but I believe one big factor for the drop was the predominant use of *round-robin-presenting-to-small-groups* tasks rather than the more stressful *memorizing-a-speech-for-the-whole-class* type presentation the students had mostly done in their first year. Several of the students also noted that learning how to use various apps on their phones had also been enjoyable and useful, including Moxtra.

### **Moxtra**

This section will explain what Moxtra is and how teachers can use it for online presentations. Moxtra is available as an app on all mobile and computer operating systems and is basically a place where people can share and collaborate online. According to the company's website, it is widely used in business and education and claims its mission "is to enhance education for global communities" (Moxtra, 2017). The free version is enough for most teachers' needs and was used for this project. Although it works very well from a computer, I was attracted by its mobile-friendly nature; indeed, what Moxtra calls its "mobile-first architecture." My classes are held in normal classrooms with reasonably reliable Wi-Fi, so the focus is utilizing apps that are available for students' own devices. The use of Moxtra comes only at the end of a normal presentation process of choosing a topic; researching it; making notes; doing interviews to practice speaking and exchanging opinions on the topic; organizing the material; preparing visual aids; writing an outline or part of the script; and practicing, before doing classroom presentations.

In order to use Moxtra in this presentation project, there is no doubt that teachers as well as their students need to be familiar and comfortable with using mobile devices in class. However, as Hockly (2013) has pointed out, "This

familiarity, which we can refer to as 'mobile literacy', is an increasingly important skill" (p. 4).

After downloading the Moxtra app, it is easy for anyone to sign up with an email address and a password. In the early stages, though, the teacher needs to be organized, firstly by making sure all the students join what Moxtra calls a Group Conversation. To do this, the teacher creates and names a conversation (probably an assignment such as "Travel Presentation") and then invites the students to join it. This is the only slightly awkward part. The most straightforward way to do this is to type each student's email address into the invitation. With, say, a class of 20, this is a little time-consuming, and the teacher has to be careful to, first, get the email addresses, and second, to type them in correctly. This is the only time in the project when I suggest it is better to use a computer rather than a mobile device.

The first thing the students should do once they have joined the Group Conversation is to make their own folder under their own name. If this stage is omitted, the conversation gets disorganized as files and recordings are uploaded and get mixed up. Individual folders keep everything in good order. Inside the folders, students upload their visual aids. Moxtra accepts PDFs, PowerPoint and Keynote files from anywhere, including linked apps, such as Dropbox or Google Drive, as well as separate photos from the phone's picture gallery.

Once students have their visual aids in their folders, in the form of either a single file or separate photos, they can easily record over them. To make a smooth presentation, while recording, the presenter simply swipes left to move to the next slide. As with creating the personal folders, the teacher can demonstrate this through a projector on the classroom's large screen. There is a recording time limit of 10 minutes in the free version of Moxtra, which is ample for the online presentation tasks I set. It is possible both to pause while recording and to discard a finished recording if the speaker is unhappy with it and wants to try it again. Students, therefore, can feel safe in the knowledge that only the work they are happy with will be seen and heard by others.

Finally, after the students have recorded their own presentations, they are required to make a comment on at least three of their classmates' presentations. As they have

usually done their presentation in class to several of their classmates, I further stipulate that they make these comments on presentations they did not have the chance to see in class. This makes the task more meaningful. Again, I demonstrate on the big screen how to make the comment. It is possible to comment by typing or by a recorded message. I usually let the students choose how they make their comments, but sometimes I make it a rule that one of the comments should be voiced, as this is the option rarely, if ever, chosen freely by students, in my experience. Presenters are notified within Moxtra when comments are made, and the keener students sometimes reply to the comments.

### **Peer Feedback in Moxtra**

Comments made by students on their classmates' presentations are almost always positive and supportive. As it is the end of the project, this is probably a good thing, and certainly something I, as the teacher, am satisfied with. More critical comments and suggestions about how to improve the presentation are more useful earlier in the process and are made in other ways, such as by face-to-face interaction, on paper, or in Google Forms. These final comments in Moxtra are also on display at the end of the recorded presentations for everyone in the Group Conversation to see. There is some variation, though, in the style of the comments. Some comments concentrate on praising the way the presentation was done, while others comment on the content. Some manage to do both. Some typical examples following a presentation around the theme of travel are:

"Your English is very good! And I surprised at most people want to go Europe as honeymoon trip. Thank you for your interesting presentation."

"Thank you for interesting talk! It was a very nice presentation. The graph was also easy to understand."

"I was very excited about this survey. Your English pronunciation was very good! I like your English."

"You talk very well and the accent is really clear! Besides, the information is given in detail and the pictures are all very

beautiful! I want to go to Hawaii someday too."

"It takes only about 6 hours to get to Bali, so we can go there easily. Your visual aids helped me to understand the place. I want visit there!"

"My second language is also Spanish. Your speech interested me so much and made me want to go there! I'd love to see the beautiful view and the food recommended."

Here is an example of a rare, slightly critical comment among the positive feedback:

"Your voice is easy to listen but I felt it was a little fast: ( I interested in your topic."

This should be useful for the presenter to bear in mind the next time she presents, especially in Moxtra. Some comments following presentations about more serious social issues are below. They show that students are able to reflect on the content and the activity, both requirements of active learning. These were about English education in Japanese elementary schools:

"I agree that Japanese students should start studying second language in elementary school."

"The comparison with other countries is effective to think about this topic! I also think Japan should start second language learning from earlier age."

The last group of comments is on a presentation about the freedom of Japanese married women to choose their surname:

"Thank you for your presentation! Your topic was interesting for me because I had to change my last name because of my mother's second marriage. As you said in the presentation, one's name is closely



connected with his/her identity, so I think it should be free to choose which name to use.”

“It is interesting that all of the people in the class think we can choose which name to use.”

“I also think married woman don’t have to change name by force. Some people want to live with their own name.”

“Thank you for your great presentation. I was surprised at the results of this topic.”

It was gratifying to see how these comments were made after the classroom activities were finished. Students were encouraging their peers in their work and also learning from each other’s presentation content.

### Course Feedback

At the end of the first semester of the course, a survey was given to the students in a Google Form. Thirty-four students in two classes answered the questions, one of which was specifically about using Moxtra. The question simply asked, “What did you think of using Moxtra?” and allowed respondents to choose one or more of the following four options: *useful*, *fun*, *not useful*, *not fun*. The answers were overwhelmingly positive. There were 19 selections of the option *useful*, and 14 for *fun*. In contrast, only one choice was made for the option *not useful*, and five for *not fun*.

The 20 students in a different oral communication (OC) course also gave overwhelmingly positive responses to a similar survey question (also asked in a Google Form) afterwards. The question this time was, “Did you find using Moxtra useful/enjoyable?” and gave them a choice of *yes* or *no* for their answer. 17 students chose *yes* to answer that question; three students answered that using Moxtra had been neither useful nor enjoyable.

These results were not a surprise to me, but they did confirm my belief that Moxtra has attractions for students and has benefits as a tool for extending class presentations.

### Grading Assistance for Teachers

A further benefit of using Moxtra in a course is that the teacher can collect a digital record of the students’

presentations. They, along with the comments made by their classmates, are all accessible in the individual folders within the Group Conversation created for the presentation project. Thus, the teacher can refer to them at any time to assess each student’s voice work, slides, and content. The teacher can also look at the comments to assess the effort each student has made in giving feedback. These assessments can add a further dimension to the task of grading at the end of the course.

### Conclusion

In this paper I have discussed different formats of presenting for university students, and then described how the free app Moxtra can be used to extend classwork into online presentations. The activities described tie in well with blended learning and active learning, which are both being increasingly recommended to, if not demanded from, educators. The main advantage of making and sharing online presentations for students is that they have a chance to do their presentation once more, thereby gaining further speaking practice out of class, and to get direct feedback from classmates and the teacher. They also have a tangible record of their work in digital form. The teacher also has a record of the students’ work, which can help with grading at the end of the semester. Both teachers and learners can also develop their mobile literacy through the activities described, which will be useful from now on.

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# Discovering Students' Needs for a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Course

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This study reports on the findings of a needs analysis (NA) for a content and language integrated learning (CLIL) based advanced English university course. The goal of the NA was to inform an alignment of the course content with the students' major subjects and future career needs. The NA consisted of interviews of a stratified sample of both English and Japanese language basis students. The results showed that the course needed more content relevant to the participants' subject areas of management and international business in order to support their language needs for their major courses and career tracks. This paper synthesizes the participants' responses and discusses the next steps in reforming a CLIL course.

本研究では、CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) ベースの上級英語コースのニーズ分析 (NA) の成果について報告します。NA の目標は、コース内容と学生の主要科目と将来のキャリアニーズとの整合性を知らせることでした。NA は、英語と日本語の両方の基礎学生の層別サンプルのインタビューから構成されています。結果は、参加者の戦略的管理と国際ビジネスの分野に関連したより多くのコンテンツが必要であることを示しました。本稿では、参加者の反応をまとめ、CLIL コースの改革における次のステップについて説明します。

Assessing the needs of a content and language integrated learning (CLIL) course requires careful attention to the target content, the objectives of the course, and the needs of the students. One of the first tasks of a CLIL course designer is to identify what level and type of content is appropriate for the students. Whilst teaching a CLIL-based advanced English course, it became apparent that a greater understanding of the type of content the students' required for their major subject courses was needed. One objective of the advanced English course was to help EFL students prepare for their English medium instruction (EMI) major subjects. This was done by engaging in advanced and controversial issues in-depth with mini lectures, critical reading of journal articles, writing academic summaries, and participating in debates. The course content focused on social issues such as the legalization of prostitution, gun control laws, euthanasia, and capital punishment. A needs analysis (NA) was instigated to provide a greater understanding of the students' major course content requirements in order to review and revise the advanced English course content to

ensure appropriate major course preparation was being successfully provided. A secondary objective of the course was to help the students' career-based English needs, and it was determined that understanding their career needs should also be included in the NA as well.

The NA was part of a faculty initiative project (FIP) to make CLIL modules for use at various levels within Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University's (APU) English Program related to the students' major subjects. APU is divided into two colleges, Asia Pacific Management (APM) and Asia Pacific Studies (APS). The cluster subjects for the APM College are accounting and finance, marketing, and strategic management and organization, and the cluster subjects for the APS College are culture, society and media, international relations, and tourism. APU is a dual English- and Japanese-based university where it is compulsory for domestic students to study English up to an upper intermediate level (B1 on the CEFR scale) and take major and cluster subjects in English as well. APU has a "3 *fifty*" vision of internationalization whereby international students

are admitted from 50 countries and regions, a 50% ratio of international to domestic students is maintained, and a 50% ratio of foreign to Japanese faculty is also maintained in order to create a multicultural campus (“Ritsumeikan University and APU House,” 2009). The advanced English course under review accepts both international and domestic students coming from a wide range of nationalities, English learning backgrounds, and language proficiencies. It was within this international learning context that a review and reform of the content was identified as necessary to ensure the course objectives of providing a CLIL-based course which fused English language instruction with content relevant to the students’ major subjects and career needs was undertaken.

### **What is CLIL?**

CLIL is a term created by Marsh (1994) to encompass pedagogies that combine foreign language immersion and content-based instruction. As such, CLIL includes a mix of educational practices from bilingual education and immersion programs (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010). It simultaneously attends to language learning and content instruction. In this context, language learning relates to activating prior knowledge, guiding understanding, focus on language form, and the four key skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Content-based skills involve scaffolding, social interaction, cognitive engagement, problem solving, and higher order thinking. CLIL is not a new form of content or language instruction, but an innovative fusion of both as Coyle, et al. (2010, p. 27) noted “all learning is complex, and understanding the potential of integrating content and language demands an exploration of emergent synergies where the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.”

CLIL sees language as just one part of a student’s learning process and is guided by a *4 Cs* framework consisting of content, cognition, communication, and culture (Coyle, 2008). Utilizing this framework, teachers should integrate content from across the curriculum through language interaction (content), engage learners through higher order thinking (cognition), use language to express ideas and values (communication), and interpret the significance of content and language in relation to cultural identity (culture) (Coyle, 2005). Dale and Tanner (2012) listed some of the key

benefits of CLIL as increased motivation, deeper cognitive processing, improved communicative skills, stronger personal connections, intercultural awareness, and language learning strategy development. Through collaborative CLIL classes, language teachers and content lecturers can work together and create a program that improves the quality of the institution as a whole. This can foster new and innovative teaching strategies that might not be known outside of the disciplinary field. It was with this collaborative approach in mind that the FIP and NA focusing on the needs of the students in both the English Program and their major subjects were born, in the hope that a greater awareness and interaction across departments within the university would streamline and benefit the students’ learning.

### **Needs Analysis for CLIL Course**

Any studious course designer should, if possible, undertake some form of NA in the initial stages of course design. In order to design a course that is relevant, appropriately graded, and efficient, it is essential that the course designer understands the learning needs of the students. According to Richards (2001), a NA is a procedure for compiling and analyzing data about learners in order to set goals and contents of a language curriculum based on the needs of those learners. Mackay and Mountford (1978) contended that all language instruction should be designed for the specific purposes of the students taking the course. To understand these specific purposes, a systematic analysis is necessary and is a prerequisite in designing the content of a language program relevant to the learners’ needs. Brindley (1984), stated that in the EFL context, the language attitudes, course expectations, and learning habits of the students should be analyzed when conducting a NA. Furthermore, the students’ interests, their age, and their social and career ambitions should also be assessed when selecting course content (Kayi, 2008). The importance of personal relevance when designing a course is a recurring theme in the NA for EFL courses research. Kayi’s (2008) study of 46 EFL students’ reasons for studying English found that educational purposes and job requirements were considered the most important and concluded with the recommendation that a CLIL curriculum

must include content that is directly related to the students' personal lives and their specific educational, social, and career challenges.

One feature of the advanced English course under examination was the inclusion of student voice and autonomous learning. The students were asked to put forth ideas for debate topics and reading material and the ideas would be voted on by the students to determine content for the course. In keeping with this approach, it was decided the NA would consist of qualitative student interviews to ensure student voice was heard in regards to the type of content they perceived themselves to need. Although students sometimes may not fully understand their learning needs (Long, 2005), a stratified sample was taken to mitigate this problem and ensure a diverse range of students were interviewed. In particular, interviewing students from a range of age groups and year levels ensured expectation-based needs and retrospective-based needs were included. From the interview data, a content analysis (CA) was undertaken to observe important themes and trends.

### *Research Questions*

After careful consideration of the objectives of the advanced English course and its role in bridging the students from EFL instruction to EMI major course content, two research questions were devised:

1. Does the current advanced English course material provide broad support to the students' major course content?
2. Does the course content equip the students with the necessary skills to achieve their future career goals?

### **Methods**

In order to provide a representative picture of the culturally diverse and international context at APU a stratified sample was selected from the participant pool. Prospective participants were randomly recruited during their attendance at the university's Self Access Learning Center (SALC) by the student peer advisors. Twenty-five participants were finally

selected, with 14 male and 11 female participants represented. There were 18 English-basis students and 7 Japanese-basis students. There was broad representation from 1st- to 4th-year students and the APM and APS colleges and major subject areas. Ten nationalities were represented (see Table 1.)

The data collection method consisted of one-to-one semi-structured interviews. This interview format was selected to allow for open-ended questions and responses to engender deeper reflection from the participants. Furthermore, two research assistants were employed to conduct most of the interviews and as Bernard (1988) notes, semi-structured interviews are appropriate when a number of interviewers are involved in collecting data and there is only one chance to interview each participant. There were 20 main questions accompanied with additional sub-questions guiding the interviewers, starting with basic biographical data, leading into questions about the participants' current learning needs, their difficulties and challenges with their major and cluster subject content, and finally questions relating to their perceived future career needs (see Appendix for interview items). The interviews were recorded and extensive notes were taken by the interviewers during and after the interviews. The responses from each interview were written into separate documents under the question items.

A content analysis (CA) was conducted on the interview responses using the Atlas.ti qualitative data analysis software ("Atlas.ti8", 2017). According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), CA is a "research method for subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns" (p. 1278). The CA methodology for qualitative data analysis focuses on extracting categories from the data (Cho & Lee, 2014) and "systematically describe the meaning" of the data in relation to the research questions (Schreier, 2012, p. 3). The first step in the data analysis was indexing, whereby all relevant and reoccurring words and phrases were coded. Any responses that the interviewer noted as important, surprising, or repetitive were coded. The data analysis was guided by grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), where codes emerge naturally upon reading and

interacting with the data. After the first indexing process, the codes were moved into metacodes, that is, larger themes that emerged from the initial codes. By isolating each question type across all responses, emergent themes and key variables were clearly identified. To provide a quantitative analysis of the responses as well, the number of times a content area was recorded in the answers was tallied for each content based item type, to analyze the frequency of responses.

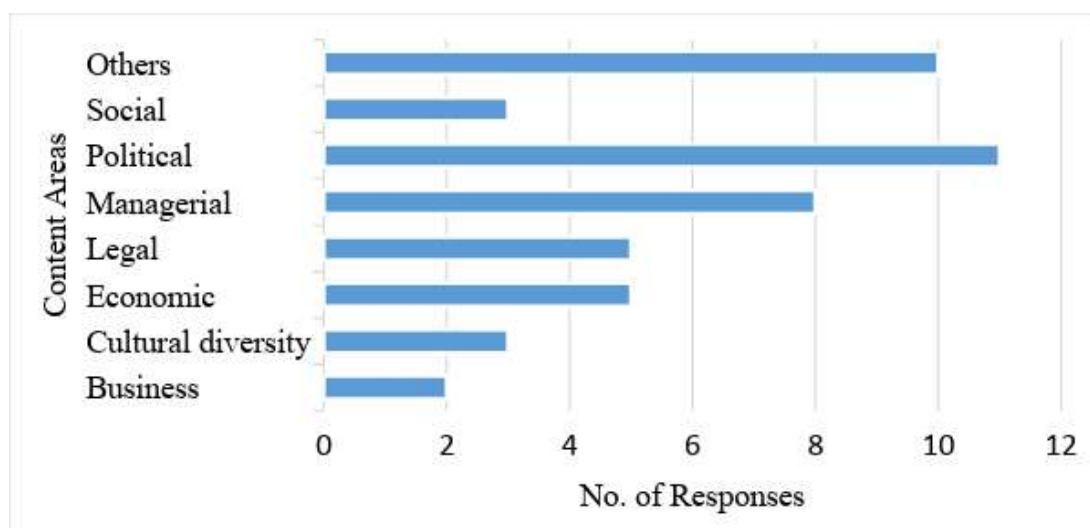
## Results

The interview data delivered a wide range of responses which exposed the breadth of content knowledge required of the participants. In terms of future career needs, the responses were less diverse with some clear trends towards international business and communicative fluency. The content areas that the participants found most difficult were maths, finance, economics, media, international marketing, human resources management, environmental studies, and statistics. The content areas that participants had not already learnt about but would like to study were business ethics, politics, computer science, cross-cultural consumer behaviour, economic history, governance, insurance, intercultural communication, investment, and journalism. Some of the participants noted that more in-depth instruction was desired. For example, the rudimentary aspects of investment would be covered but they wanted to know more about the ethics and history of investment.

For specialized vocabulary needs, it was clear that political, legal, economic, and managerial terminology was a high priority. Participants noted that such specialized terms were vital for their understanding of lectures yet they were aware of their lexical shortcomings in these content areas (see *Figure 1*). The *others* category included a wide array of areas including academic, administrative, financial, gender-related, literary, marketing, media, statistical, and theoretical terms which exposed the extent of the vocabulary learning needs imposed on the participants.

*Table 1*  
*Needs Analysis Participants' Nationalities*

Nationality	No. of participants
Vietnamese	4
Uzbek	1
Taiwanese	1
Singaporean	1
Japanese	7
Iranian	1
Indonesian	6
Indian	1
Fijian	2
Chinese	1



*Figure 1.* Content areas with difficult specialized vocabulary.

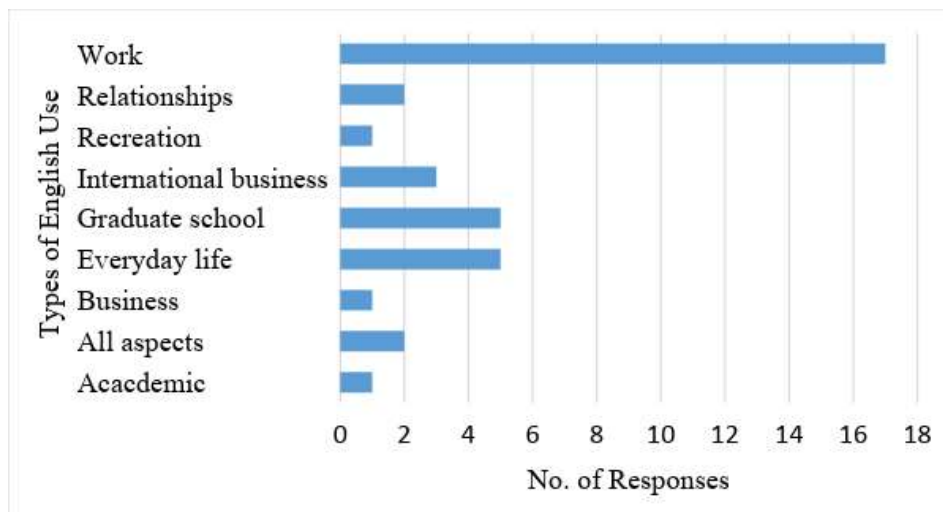


Figure 2. Intended use of English after graduating.

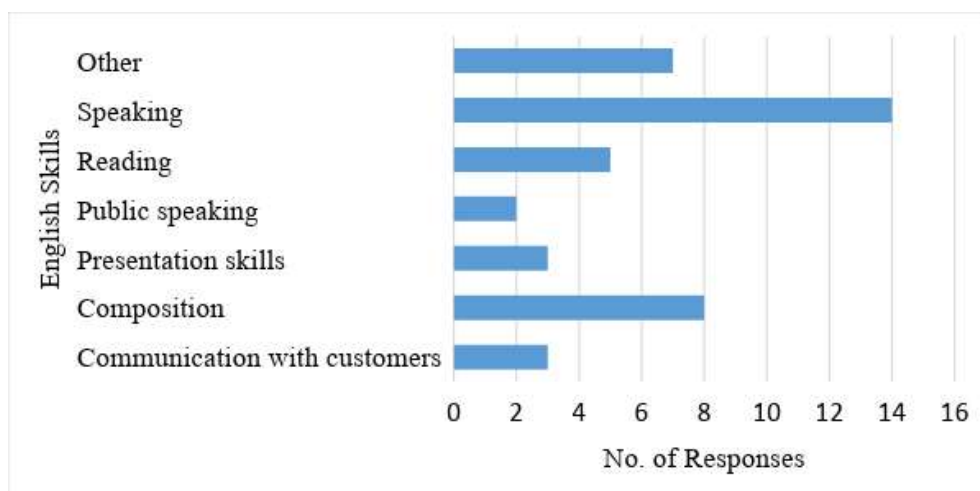


Figure 3. English skills considered important for future careers.

When asked what topics the participants thought were important, interesting, and relevant for use in debates, more specific issues were elicited. Suggested topics were coded by college and subject area. Under the environment and development code, topics such as rural development in Japan, debt cancellation for developing nations, and the prioritization of climate change policies were offered as possible debate topics. Under the hospitality and tourism area, hunting endangered animals, sex tourism, and unethical forms of tourism were suggested as debatable issues. For the international relations subject area, negotiating with terrorists, imposing democracy, and the impacts of globalization on traditional culture were areas of interest.

Under the culture, society and media code, public surveillance, inequality in familial structures, and the banning of publishing personal photos were suggested as possible areas for debate. Topics that fell into the finance and accounting subject area included white collar crime, rural development, and universal healthcare. Marketing related topics included targeting advertising to children and inappropriate images of women. Strategic management and organization related themes consisted of offshore manufacturing and international business ethics. Under the economics code, topics such as universal income and zero fees for university tuition were put forward as interesting areas for debate. Despite the wide variety of responses, the topics chosen were

globally current, geopolitically specific, and had major subject relevance.

The question items which attended to the second research question about the participants perceived English and content needs for their future careers showed some clear trends towards speaking skills, business acumen, and native-like English proficiency. Figure 2 displays how students intend on using English after graduating from university, clearly showing that work is a top priority. International business was identified separately as a specific type of work which was considered important and was also a prominent answer when participants were asked about their intended career tracks.

When asked about which English skills are important for their careers, speaking was the most prominent answer (see Figure 3). Presentations, communication with customers, and public speaking were identified as specific speaking skills that were considered imperative for their careers. In the *others* category, negotiation and pronunciation were also present, adding weight to the importance of speaking skills. Moreover, when asked about their ideal self in regards to English usage, native-like proficiency was the most popular choice which indicates a desire for communicative fluency as well. In addition to speaking, composition was also reported as an important skill which may be related to their focus on English usage in work environments.

## Discussion

The results clearly indicate a strong desire to use English in an international work environment. Whilst a wide variety of important content was reported, APM College related content, particularly international business, was the most frequent. Political and legal themes and vocabulary were also reported as relevant. When reviewing the current content of the advanced English course in comparison to such results, a shift from APS College-related content, or more social and cultural issues, to more APM College-related content appears necessary. Topics that attend to current issues in international management, marketing, and finance may better suit the content needs of the students. Readings and lectures that incorporate managerial, economic, political, and

legal terminology may also prove beneficial to the students based on the specialized vocabulary results.

Given speaking skills were considered of primary importance for the participants' careers, the focus on debating was validated. As debate incorporates negotiating and rhetorical skills, its central role in the course design and assessment remains secure. Tasks that require small group negotiation and consensus decision-making based on management related topics would extend the students' speaking skills on content that is required for their major subjects as well as their future careers. The desire for native-like proficiency implies that spoken fluency and communicative confidence is highly prized, showing that activities that engender real-world communicative contexts will aid students in achieving their ideal English identities.

Whilst one course cannot attend to all the content deemed necessary, a fine-tuning of the current content towards the management major and cluster subjects will help the advanced English course come closer to its objective of providing a practical and relevant bridge from English language instruction to the students' major course content. Expanding the speaking tasks and assessments appears to be the most important reform in terms of skill-based change. Given written composition was also identified as important, its role in the course should stay consistent. The current course requires a large amount of academic reading but this skill was not reported as important as the other skills, and the question remains if reducing the focus on reading is a necessary reform. Another difficult matter is that of vocabulary instruction. Attending to the diverse vocabulary required of a wide array of subject areas is a daunting task but explicit instruction in specialized political, economic, managerial and legal terminology as well as targeted graded and glossed readings may go some way in addressing the students' vocabulary needs.

## Limitations

In reflecting on the limitations of the NA, the small sample size must be taken into consideration. The stratified sample helped mitigate this issue as well as the semi-structured nature of the interviews which allowed participants to delve into



extended responses. Having a range of ages allowed for retrospection, and anticipation of content difficulties. Given the participants only consisted of students, other stakeholders' voices, such as professors and teacher assistants, was not included in the study. Interviewing a more diverse pool of participants might garner more valid results as students may not be able to clearly identify what their learning needs actually are. Asking questions relating to what content would be appropriate for debate topics helped the participants identify specific topics for consideration rather than just broad subject areas. More follow-up questions that furthered their responses in terms of specific content areas would have been beneficial in identifying specific areas of interest and difficulty beyond more general subject content.

### Conclusion

Undertaking a NA gives students a voice in course design and illuminates the personal needs of students for teachers. Some students may not clearly know what content and skills they really need, but eliciting responses based on their own current educational journey and perceived future needs offers genuine engagement and reflection on their behalf, as well as providing potentially crucial information for course designers. This study revealed the challenges involved in EFL students taking EMI major subjects and elucidated the need for a broad shift from social to management related content and vocabulary in the advanced English course.

The importance of speaking skills was clear from the results, which allows for the course to extend its focus on debating to incorporate presentation and negotiation skills as well. Based on this NA, several steps have been taken to advance these reforms in the course design, such as additional speaking tests and more regular debates on APM College-based content. Further student engagement from new students to gauge the relevancy of these reforms will help assess whether these changes have been successful in helping their content- and career-based needs. Whether a course designer or teacher is creating a course from scratch or reviewing current content, it is important to engage the learners and reflect on their personal needs when evolving one's own course.

### Acknowledgements

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## Appendix: Needs Analysis Interview Items

### Biodata:

Name:

Nationality:

English Proficiency Level:

Gender:

Language-basis:

Year and Semester at APU:

Major:

### Interview Questions:

1. When did you first become interested in studying English? Why?
2. Can you imagine your ideal self with regard to English skills in the future? How close to native level do you want to be? Is that regarding speaking? Taking academic content courses at APU? In graduate school?
3. Why did you choose APS/APM?
4. What preliminary content or subject matter in high school or in your first years at APU were most helpful in preparing you for the content of your major and cluster area? What courses were most valuable?
5. What content areas do you expect to learn about in (your cluster)?
6. Which content areas are the most interesting for you? Why?
7. Which content areas are the most difficult for you?
8. Are there any issues or content areas that you have not learnt about but would like to study? (If they are APS and want to learn APM topics or vice versa that is interesting to us)
9. Which specialized vocabulary do you feel is the most important to learn?
10. What are some key issues facing the Asia Pacific region at the moment?
11. Have you been to an English speaking country? Why? Do you see yourself going to an English speaking country in the future? What do you see yourself doing? (Work/study abroad/graduate school?)
12. How do you see yourself using English after graduating from APU?
13. After you graduate, do you have a specific career track in mind already? How do you see English fitting into this?
14. What specific English skills do you think will be necessary for your career? Which of those skills do you need to improve the most?

15. Is there a first or second year course at APU that you would recommend to students interested in your cluster? What course is that or what courses are those?
16. What have been some of the most commonly recurring topics you've encountered in your time at APU?
17. Can you think of some content areas that might help your studies in your cluster?
18. More specifically, can you think of some controversies that you have noticed in one of these areas?
19. Can you frame one or two of these topics in a statement for or against one side of the debate?
20. Thank you for your time today. Would it be okay to contact you if I have follow up questions? Could I get your email address?

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### Author Biography

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# How Do Self-Directed Learners Keep Going? The Role of Interest in Sustained Learning

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In a 4-year longitudinal study, the researchers track nine learners of English at a university in Japan in order to investigate the extent to which they engaged in self-directed language learning outside of class. Drawing on the self-regulation of motivation (SRM) model (Sansone, 2009; Sansone & Thoman, 2005), this paper will present some of the data from the first three years of the study collected from annual interviews with learners. It will focus in particular on the role of interest and the learners' developing awareness of how they learn. This paper will present case studies of three learners and show how motivation and self-regulation have developed from year 1 to year 3.

4年間の横断研究の一環として研究者達は、日本の大学で英語を学習する9人を対象に、彼らがクラス外で自主学習にどのように従事するかについて追う。この論文ではモチベーションにおける自己調整モデル(self-regulation of motivation)(Sansone, 2009; Sansone & Thoman, 2005)を利用し、学習者との年に一度のインタビューから得られたいくつかのデータを以下の二点、興味の担う役割、且つ、学習者がいかに学ぶのかという自覚の発達、に特に注目しながら述べる。この論文で取り扱うのは3人の学習者の事例研究における研究1年目から3年目迄の学習者のモチベーション及び自己調整がいかに発達したかについてである。

This paper explores how language learners sustain and regulate their motivation to persist in out-of-class learning. It is part of a 4-year longitudinal study that investigates the motivations of nine university students pursuing self-directed English language learning. In this paper, the authors will present some results from the first 3 years of the project. In the initial stages of the study, the importance of *interest* as a source of motivation became clear (McLoughlin & Mynard, 2015). The self-regulation of motivation (SRM) model (Sansone, 2009; Sansone & Thoman, 2005) was used as the theoretical framework because its focus on goals-defined and experience-defined motivation encapsulated the experiences of the participants. In the 2nd year of the study, the authors explored how learners' motivation had developed by examining multiple case studies from among the original participants (Mynard & McLoughlin, 2016). In the present paper, the authors examine whether the participants' self-

regulation of motivation and awareness of learning has developed or changed over the 3 years of the study.

## Self-Regulation of Motivation

This study uses the self-regulation of motivation (SRM) model (Sansone, 2009; Sansone & Thoman, 2005) to examine learners' motivation. This model presents motivation as a dynamic process, in which the amount and direction of motivation are not seen as static but as features an individual can regulate over time and across contexts (Sansone, Thoman, & Smith, 2010). In other words, motivation needs to be understood as a self-regulatory process (Sansone et al., 2010). As previously reported (McLoughlin & Mynard, 2015; Mynard & McLoughlin, 2016), according to the SRM model, individuals maintain their motivation in two different, but interrelated, ways. *Goals-defined* motivation (Sansone, 2009) is directed towards the achievement of particular goals. According to Sansone

(2009), such goals can be *target goals*, which reflect the *what* of activity engagement (completion of task, high scores in a test) or *purpose goals*, which reflect the *why* (to achieve, to enjoy). Although many theories of motivation have tended to focus on goals (Hidi, Renninger, & Krapp, 2004), this type of motivation is not the only one. Equally important is *experience-defined* motivation (Sansone et al., 2010). As Renninger and Hidi (2011) pointed out, “experience” here refers to the experience of *interest*—how engaging an activity is—and the concept draws on previous interest research (such as Hidi, 1990). The ability to persist with learning may depend not only on regulating goals-defined motivation, but also on the regulation of experience-defined motivation (Sansone, 2009; Sansone, Smith, Thoman, & MacNamara, 2012).

The self-regulation of motivation (SRM) model aims to integrate goals-defined and experience-defined motivation within the one self-regulatory process. The two interact in complementary and opposing ways. If a student has clear goals and is interested in the activities that help her progress towards those goals, the two types of motivation are complementary, both orienting the student’s actions in the same direction (Sansone, 2009; Sansone et al., 2010). However, the student’s experiences of learning may be uninteresting, thus orienting her in the direction of quitting instead of persisting unless her goal-directed motivation is stronger than her experience-defined motivation (Sansone, 2009; Sansone & Thoman, 2005). For example, if the student strongly values her goals and has high expectations that she will reach them, she will be more likely to stay motivated and persist (Sansone et al., 2010).

In the SRM model, as part of the self-regulation process, learners can use strategies that help them regulate both their goals-defined motivation and experience-defined motivation (Sansone, 2009; Sansone et al., 2010). For example, they might engage in goal-oriented self-talk to keep themselves on track (Wolters, 2003). In such a way, goals-defined motivation can be maintained and even strengthened, despite a lack of interest. These types of strategic actions can also have an effect on experience-defined motivation. Learners may come to value their goals more and consequently become more involved and interested in

learning activities. However, focusing on the importance of a goal such as a good grade may increase anxiety and therefore lower interest (Sansone, 2009; Sansone et al., 2010).

Instead of persisting with uninteresting tasks through the use of strategies for enhancing goals-defined motivation, learners can change how they perform learning tasks, using strategies to make performance of the task itself more interesting (Sansone & Thoman, 2005). For instance, learners can creatively alter some aspect of a task to make it more challenging, or they can try to make studying more like a game (Wolters, 2003). While strategies that make learning more interesting may have the negative effect of diverting learners from their goal and lowering performance, in the long run they may lead to greater persistence and ultimately improved performance (Sansone, Weir, Harpster, & Morgan, 1992; Sansone, Wiebe, & Morgan, 1999).

McLoughlin and Mynard (2015) found that some learners in a course of self-directed learning were regulating their experience-defined motivation. For these learners, doing interesting activities was a better way to stay motivated than focusing solely on their learning goals, so they used strategies to enhance their experience-defined motivation. Interest has been shown to enhance motivation and performance: Interested learners study more, read more deeply, persist longer, remember more, and get higher grades (Silvia, 2008). Though short-term goals may be enough to initiate learning behaviour; over long periods of time “interest may be necessary for goal-directed action to continue” (Hidi & Ainley, 2009, p. 83).

Regulation of experience-defined motivation would involve exposure to engaging stimuli over the short term and the ability to sustain interest over the long term. These are essentially two distinct types of interest: *situational interest* and *individual interest* (Hidi, 1990; Hidi & Renninger, 2006). Situational interest refers to a psychological state triggered by a specific stimulus at a particular moment in time (Ainley, Hidi, & Berndorff, 2002). Individual interest refers to one’s relatively enduring predisposition to reengage with particular content(s) (Hidi et al., 2004) and is “associated with a psychological state of positive affect and persistence” (Ainley et al., 2002, p. 545).

As Hidi and Renninger (2006) pointed out, teachers often think of interest as fixed: Students either have it or not.

However, the distinction between situational and individual interests suggests not only that interest can be triggered where it previously did not exist but also that “momentary experiences of interest” (Sansone & Thoman, 2005, p. 177) can develop into an enduring individual interest.

Hidi & Ainley (2009) presented a model of interest development with four phases that individuals go through, from situational interest to individual interest. Phases 1 and 2 are situational interest: *triggered situational interest* and *maintained situational interest*. In both these phases, interest has to be externally supported and can be developed through working with others (Hidi & Ainley, 2009). Phases 3 and 4 are *emergent individual interest* and *well-developed individual interest*. Interest becomes more self-generated, and there is evidence of greater self-regulation and self-reflection (Hidi & Ainley, 2009).

### Context

Participants of the study are all full-time undergraduate students at a small private university near Tokyo. The university specialises in the study of languages and international cultures. The self-access learning center (SALC) offers courses and self-directed learning modules designed to introduce learners to key concepts connected with planning, monitoring, and evaluating language learning, and supporting learners’ developing autonomy. With help from a learning advisor, students can create and implement a self-designed language program over several weeks according to their needs. There is also a professional one-to-one advising service which supports learner autonomy through dialogue.

### The Study

The overall research project will continue for at least 4 years and a brief overview of the project is provided in Table 1. In order to situate the research in the present paper (phase 2 in years 1-3). The broad research question for phase 2 is: How did the learners generate and maintain motivation for

learning English? This research question is being investigated through annual semistructured interviews held near the end of each academic year for 4 years.

### Participants

There are nine participants in the study, three males and six females; however, some students are at times unavailable to be interviewed. All nine students completed two SALC modules in their 1st year and volunteered to be interviewed each year. Eight participants were Japanese, and one was Chinese.

### Methods

Annual semistructured interviews are conducted in English by one of the researchers (the same researcher for all of the interviews in the study) and last around 30 minutes. Three questions (below) are emailed to each participant in advance of the interview and these questions form the starting point for the interviews. However, the semistructured nature of the interviews allows for other ideas to emerge.

- Do you do any independent English study these days (apart from homework)? Why/Why not?
- How do you study English?
- How is your motivation for studying English independently? Why?

Each participant’s interview is then transcribed and analysed by the two researchers in order to establish whether the motivation and self-regulatory behaviors could be described as goals-defined motivation and/or experience-defined motivation according to the SRM model (Sansone, 2009; Sansone & Thoman, 2005).

### Results

The SRM model facilitated the analysis of the data and the researchers were able to agree on whether participants mainly sustained their self study through experience-defined motivation, goals-defined motivation, or a combination of both. A summary of the analysis of the interviews over the 3 years is presented in Figure 1, and a discussion of the results of the first 2 years can be found in previous papers (McLoughlin & Mynard, 2015; Mynard & McLoughlin, 2016). Each of the participants has a unique narrative of their

self-regulation of motivation for self study, so the researchers are not attempting to suggest overall patterns at this stage.

The research approach used to understand the individual participants' motivational orientation is exploration in the form of multiple case studies. Three case

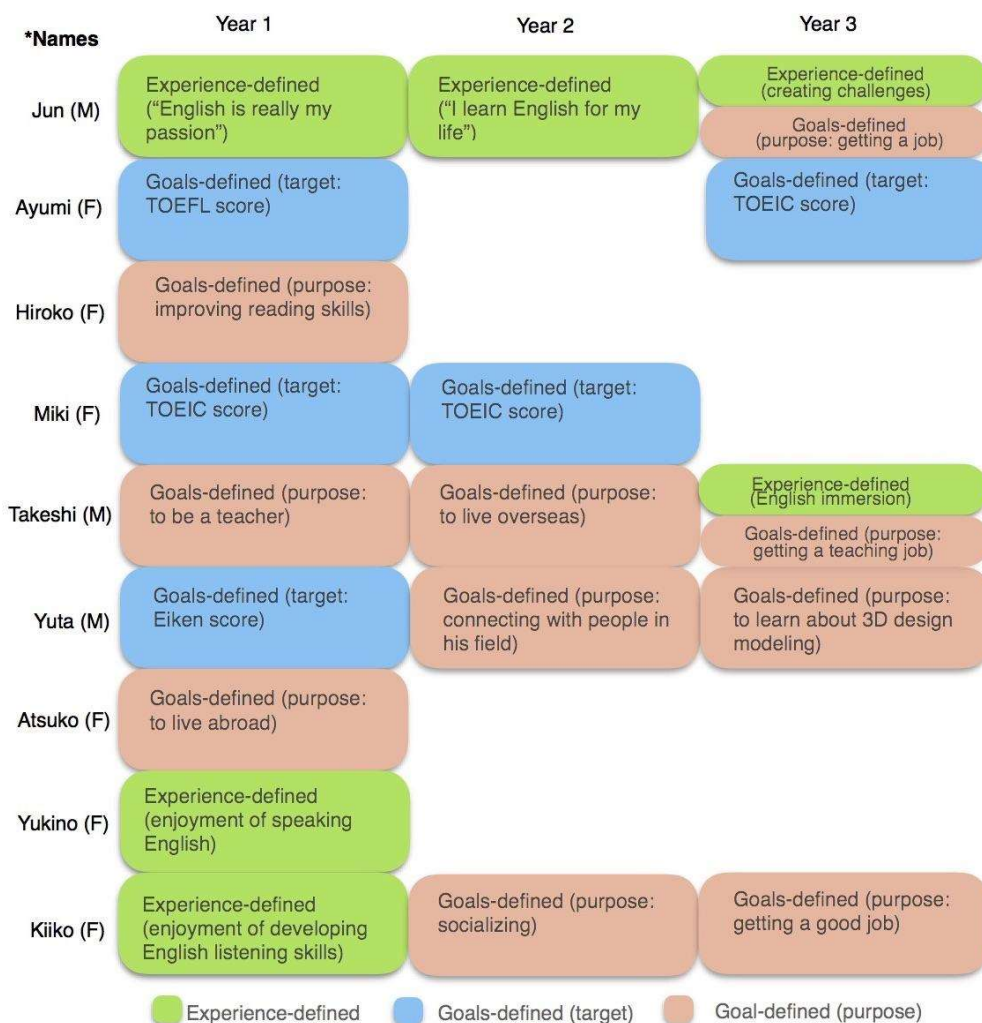
studies are presented in this paper. The reason that three cases, rather than just a single more detailed case, have been chosen is to illustrate the diversity of motivations among learners from the same context. The cases chosen provide rich data from a full set of interviews spanning the 3 years of the study.

Table 1.

Overview of the Overall Research Project

Phase 1		Phase 2		
April 2014 to March 2015	*November 2014 to January 2015 (year 1)	*November 2015 to January 2016 (year 2)	*November 2016 to January 2017 (year 3)	November 2017 to January 2018 (year 4)
Analysis of 89 weekly reflective journals of students taking SALC modules	Interviews with nine participant volunteers who took a second SALC module	Interviews with five of the original nine participants.	Interviews with five of the original participants.	Interviews with as many of the original nine participants as possible.

\*The focus of this paper.



\*All names are pseudonyms    \*\* Blank spaces indicate missing data

Figure 1. Summary of three years of motivation orientations.

## Case Studies

The three case studies discussed in the remainder of the paper allow the researchers to understand the motivational orientation and self-regulation of the three participants over the 3 years. The researchers draw on a narrative inquiry approach (Barkhuizen, Benson, & Chik, 2014), which allowed for a rich understanding of each learner's case in their own words. However, in order to highlight the diversity of motivations in three participants, these narratives are necessarily brief in this paper. Once the project is complete, detailed single case studies may be published as separate papers.

### Case Study 1: Jun, M

**Year 1.** Jun had not thought about motivation before being interviewed for the first time in year 1, but he already had a strong and established sense of what Hidi and Ainley (2009) termed individual interest as this extract indicates: "English is really my passion and I want to learn and that's why I can keep myself motivated."

He had a long-standing interest in English songs, movies, and dramas and English has always been an integral part of his life. In the first interview, Jun does not mention goals at all.

**Year 2.** Jun maintained his individual interest for learning English through many daily activities that used as much English as possible: "There are a lot of things you can do, for example, I like games. I play mobile games now and I always set the language for the game - always English. I'm trying to do what I like to do in English like live streaming while I'm cooking."

Again, Jun did not mention goals in the second interview until the interviewer asked specifically whether he had any goals. At this point, he mentioned that he needed to take the IELTS exam, so his strategy was to work on that intensively for a month through necessity only; IELTS study was perceived to be a stressful inconvenience. Sansone and Thoman (2005) suggested that this kind of external goal can decrease interest. However, Jun recognizes this and manages

his self-regulation by limiting the amount of time spent focussing on IELTS study.

**Year 3.** In his 3rd year, Jun talks about his upcoming year of studying abroad: "... some things change because, um, maybe this year is different because, you know ... I'm going to New Zealand, I think that's a way to push me out, outside of the comfort zone."

The main reason that Jun decided to study abroad was to be in a new environment in order to push himself to progress in English: "I want to be strict to myself because, um, I need to learn fast ... Japanese students around me ... it's just I don't feel I can learn a lot from whatever they are talking, like, um, ... like, we'll use similar simple language, words, every, all time, and it's just not a challenge for me any more ... so, yeah, I think going abroad is quite a big opportunity to me."

Jun appears to be developing his individual interest in learning English by finding ways to enhance the learning experience. His decision to go "outside of the comfort zone" and challenge himself is a choice to develop his knowledge of English and is indicative of an evolving individual interest (Hidi & Renninger, 2006). At the same time, Jun needs to achieve certain test scores for future job hunting, so goal-defined (target and purpose) motivation emerged in year 3: "I'm thinking if you want to stay in Japan you need to get these certifications ... that's why I'll take TOEIC though I don't want to, to take TOEIC test ... and maybe one more IELTS. So I do have a goal ... I want to have job, a good decent job here."

### Case Study 2: Kiiko, F

**Year 1.** Initially, Kiiko had a strong experience-defined motivation for learning English and focussed on enjoyable experiences. Although she was generally aiming to improve her listening skills, the resource or content matter was more important for regulating motivation than specific language goals as these excerpts show: "I choose enjoyable resources and new topics ... difficult resources make motivation go down ... When I have previous knowledge of a topic, that make motivation goes up."



\*I change resources so that I don't get bored.

Kiiko shows signs of maintained situational interest (Hidi & Ainley, 2009), in that she is actively seeking resources that are likely to trigger interest.

**Year 2.** In year 2, Kiiko was studying abroad and due to her new environment, her motivation for learning shifted to becoming goals-defined with the purpose of being able to meet people. She found that she had a lot of free time and she used this time to talk to people from different countries in English: "You know I studied abroad for one year and I talked with a lot of native speakers or people from different countries to I had to speak English of course and also I wanted to talk with people from different countries like Vietnam and Thailand and of course American and I wanted to talk with people from different countries so I had to study English more. My motivation was really high."

**Year 3.** Kiiko was now back in Japan and the focus again shifted, this time to job hunting. Job hunting is another purpose that provides a source of goals-defined motivation; but it is quite different from what sustained her motivation in year 2 because it is accompanied by a strong focus on specific targets: "I have my goal. Maybe I feel I really focus on job hunting and some of the company decide the score like TOEIC score or TOEFL score and so I have to get the exact score to get the job so it is like my motivation."

As her motivation was strongly experience-defined in her 1st year, this was discussed in the interview in year 3. It seems that Kiiko still considers English to be part of her life, but the focus on getting a job is her priority, which seems to be inhibiting the interest she used to experience in studying. "Learning English is part of my life. It's going to be forever, so I'm not pretty sure, but I think I'm going to continue to study English of course in fourth grade (senior year), but I don't know how to study English. I don't decide how to improve English."

### **Case Study 3: Yuta, M**

**Year 1.** Yuta's initial focus was to get a good score on the Eiken test (a Japanese test for English often required by employers) for job-hunting purposes. His motivation was

strongly goals-defined (target). Although ultimately, his Eiken score would be useful for future jobs, part of his motivation was sustained by imagining the deep sense of intense satisfaction he would feel when he achieved his ideal score. Even in year 1, Yuta's approach to studying English was "like a job," that is, not something enjoyable, but a series of tasks you were obliged to complete every day. He established a daily routine in order to keep going and achieve his goal in year 1. "I study 2 hours everyday. Study has become my custom."

**Year 2.** There seemed to be a shift in motivation from year 1 to year 2 as this extract from the second interview indicates: "English is just a tool. In the first year I just focussed on studying and exams, but now I focus on people, connections and what I want to do in the future (3D design modelling for movie making)."

Whereas in year 1, Yuta's self study was an individual project, something that he alone needed to work on, in year 2, he emphasised the important role of others in this purpose and process. This includes connecting with people in his chosen field and asking for introductions and having an influential mentor. Such behaviours "can contribute to the maintenance of situational interest" (Hidi & Renninger, 2006, p. 114). His self study has shifted from focussing on an exam to teaching himself skills he will need in the future related to design and computer skills. Yuta still recognises that English proficiency tests are important, but he has developed a deeper awareness of purpose—that he will need to use English if he achieves his dream to work for a large international company in the future.

**Year 3.** In the third interview, Yuta's interest in the field of design has further matured, yet he seemed to have lost the motivation he once had for learning English or taking exams. He reflects on how he used to approach language study in his 1st year as "learning useless and difficult vocabulary for Eiken" and described it as "narrow study." However, he now watches substantial amounts of online videos in English as a way to learn about design skills.

"I don't study English recently like I was in high school. Like write words, words, words, meaning, meaning,

meaning, I don't do that . . . I always watch English video, I think it's study . . . maybe? . . . The purpose in learning how to make how to do [3D] modelling, the main purpose is not English, the secondary purpose is English."

### Summary and Conclusions

In the 1st year of the project, the researchers established that, in a self-directed learning context, goals and interesting experiences are both important for maintaining motivation (McLoughlin & Mynard, 2015). In the 2nd and 3rd years of the study, the focus was on investigating whether participants' motivational orientations had changed and how they regulated their motivation. In the case of Jun, his motivational orientation had stayed the same, yet while he appeared to be moving closer to well-developed individual interest, he also recognized the need to regulate his goals-driven motivation. In Kiiiko's case, her motivation is largely determined by the pressure to compete in the job market after graduation, which had reduced the enjoyment she had once felt for learning English. Yuta had strengthened his purpose goal and was now using English as a tool for learning something else. He developed a deep sense of awareness of the purpose of self-directed study along with an emerging individual interest in the field of 3D modelling. One more round of interviews is planned as the participants enter their 4th year, with the possibility of further interviews after they graduate.

Although this project was initiated in a self-access context, looking exclusively at learning outside the classroom, the findings may also have implications for teachers working in more traditional classroom settings as a lot of language learning takes place outside the classroom. The research highlights the diversity of motivations that teachers can consider when encouraging learners to take charge of their language learning outside the classroom. For example, not all learners are motivated in the same ways; some are driven mainly by goals, and others mainly by interest. However, there may be merit to exploring sources of motivation with learners, encouraging them to develop an awareness of what motivates them and how interest is an important driver for sustained learning. In addition, it is worth noting that motivations may change over time due to priorities in

students' lives and a developing awareness of what drives them. Teachers have a role to play in this development of awareness.

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## Author Biographies

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## Supervising “Sotsurons” (Japanese Graduation Theses)

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As a result of the Global 30 program, the follow-up Top Global University Project and other initiatives to offer content courses in English at Japanese universities, an increasing number of non-Japanese are supervising graduation theses (*sotsurons*) at Japanese universities. Given the differences in the academic traditions of Japan and the West, instructors may feel at a loss: What are the requirements for an acceptable *sotsuron*? How can instructors help students find an appropriate topic and reading materials? How can research methodology be taught? Based on years of experience as “*sotsuron* advisors,” the authors will try to answer these questions and share ideas that they have used in their seminars.

グローバル 30 やスパーグローバル大学創成支援のような国際化のためのネットワーク形成推進事業など、日本の大学における英語で行う授業のために提供する様々な企画結果によると、卒業論文を指導する西洋人の専任教員数が増えつつある。日本と西洋の学問の伝統が大きく異なっている故、卒論指導を課された西洋人教員はそれをどうすると良いか、迷うこともあるだろう。つまり、基準を満たす卒論とはどうあるべきか、学生が適切なテーマと資料を探すに当たって、教員はどのように指導できるか、研究方法をどのように導くか、などが不明瞭であろう。本論文では、長年にわたり卒業論文指導の経験のある著者二人が、これらの質問に答え、著者たちのゼミで使ったアプローチを共有する。

Non-Japanese citizens have been teaching at Japanese colleges and universities for over 100 years, dating back at least to the time of Lafcadio Hearn, a Greek-born British citizen who later became a Japanese and taught in Japan during the last two decades of the 1800s (Tramore Development Trust, 2017). However, the percentage of non-Japanese holding tenured posts at Japanese universities has remained small; Appleby (2014, p. 778) pointed out that they represented only 3.8% of the full-time teaching staff in Japanese colleges and universities in 2012.

Nonetheless, Japan undertook a number of initiatives to “internationalize” Japanese society starting in the 1980s and 90s, including the increased hiring of native speakers of English at all levels of education. More recently, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) established the Global 30 program to make Japanese universities more competitive. Launched in

2009, this program was tied to the government plan to attract 300,000 international students to Japanese universities and was designed to “welcome” large numbers of “international students and professors” (Higher Education Bureau, 2012). Among the Ministry’s goals for 2020, the year the Olympics will be held in Japan, are the “Internationalization of universities and nurturing global human resources” by increasing the number of “degree programs taught in English only” (MEXT, 2014). Under the “Top Global University Project,” which commenced in 2014 after the conclusion of the Global 30 program, extra funds have been allotted to hire non-Japanese faculty and Japanese who have graduated from foreign universities (MEXT, 2017). As a result, more westerners are being hired to fill tenured positions at Japanese universities, and often as part of their positions, to supervise graduation theses.

Yet the academic traditions of the East differ a great deal from those of the West. Based on a large volume of empirical evidence, Nisbett (2003) argued that in general, patterns of perception, cognitive orientation, and even the use of logic differ greatly between East Asia and the West, both in daily life and in the field of education. Whereas in the West, the emphasis in education tends to be on critical thinking, and plagiarism is strongly condemned, problems with copying in Japan, China, and other countries have been widely reported (e.g., LoCastro & Masuko, 2002; Pennycook, 1996; Scollon, 1994). In addition, expectations of the role of college itself as well as appropriate attitudes of students in class tend to be quite different between Japan and the West (see, e.g., Kelly, 1993; Anderson, forthcoming).

Thus, non-Japanese suddenly put in charge of supervising graduation theses—*sotsuron*s in Japanese—may be quite at a loss: What are the requirements for an acceptable *sotsuron*? How can instructors help students find an appropriate topic and reading materials? How can research methodology be taught? Based on years of experience as “*sotsuron* advisors,” the authors will try to answer these questions and share ideas that they have used in their seminars.

### **What is a *Sotsuron*?**

The short answer to this question is “it depends”. In general, a *soturon* is the final product of a student’s senior year *zemi*. “*Zemi*” refers to a series of courses that serve as a kind of “homeroom” or base in the student’s major course of study. Usually students are required to take one such seminar each school term, and in these courses, they typically learn research and presentation skills and may also gain some knowledge of the instructor’s specialty.

An informal survey of acquaintances supervising seminars at various types of colleges and universities—both public and private—around Japan showed that there is a great deal of variation in terms of whether a *sotsuron* is required at all, and if so, what the requirements are. It would appear that *sotsurons* are a tradition and are required at many but not all university departments in Japan. In many English departments, they must be written in English, but a large number of English departments allow graduation theses to be written in Japanese. At most schools, students get an extra 4

or 6 credits for writing a thesis. Also, it appears that many schools are getting stricter about requiring students to give oral presentations about their research and/or undergo questioning by one or more professors.

However, it seems that supervisors are given a great deal of leeway in setting their own standards for their students, so even in the same school, each seminar may have different rules. Thus, potential *sotsuron* supervisors need to find out their school and department requirements and then decide what goals and standards they themselves want to establish for their students.

In the Faculty of Letters at Kansai University, where both of the authors teach, students are required to submit a thesis of approximately 20,000 characters in Japanese or 7,000 words in English and undergo a 10- to 15-minute oral interview with their supervisor and one other professor from their department. In addition to these general guidelines, the authors have developed some special guidelines for their seminars. To encourage reading in the field, the students are asked to write a long literature review, preferably based on five or more sources and preferably not from the Internet. In addition, they are expected to conduct a study based on independent field work or analysis of texts. Both authors also insist on thorough citation of sources, teach APA style, and refuse to accept papers that contain plagiarism.

### **How Can Instructors Help Students Find an Appropriate Topic and Research Question?**

Helping students find appropriate *sotsuron* topics is surprisingly difficult. The topic needs to be sufficiently limited in scope to lend itself to a relatively short thesis, and it must also be one that is “researchable.” Johnstone (2000, p. 34) provided suggestions as to “what makes a workable research topic” that can be applied to Japanese *sotsuron* research. The following is a somewhat abbreviated version of Johnstone’s criteria:

- A well-focused idea that can be phrased as a question or a set of related questions
- A clear idea of what the research methodology will be for answering the questions
- An understanding of why the questions are important in a wider context

- A familiarity with the research site
- Sufficient time to realistically carry out the research, analyze the results, and write the report
- Ways of collecting and analyzing data with which one is comfortable and at which one is competent

The last two criteria are particularly worthy of note in supervising undergraduate thesis research, as students are apt to be unaware of the constraints posed by time and relative competence. Often, students begin with an idea that could easily be the subject of multiple book volumes: for example, “American slang” or “cultural differences between Japan and America.” Just as often, students approach the *sotsuron* as a way to find a definitive answer to an existential question such as, “Why are Japanese poor language learners?” or “What is the ‘best’ way to learn (or teach) English?” While questions of this nature may be interesting for classroom debate or discussion, they are hardly topics that can be investigated empirically within the time and length constraints of a *sotsuron* project.

Our approach, therefore, centers on trying to lead students to reframe their broader interests into narrower, doable topics. For example, a broad interest in cross-cultural differences might be realized as a pragmatic study comparing, say, compliments or refusals in Japanese and English. Data could be gathered and analyzed through questionnaires administered to university students, or through film clips selected for their comparative value that show contrasts between the Japanese and English usages of the speech act involved.

As an important part of the process of narrowing the topic, we encourage students to formulate one to three specific “research questions,” which can then be studied using a particular research method. Research questions are generated from a variety of sources. A question may be based on something that the student encountered during reading about a more general topic that seemed interesting and worth further study, or, similarly, something that the student has learned in a class but would like to pursue on a deeper level. It may also be based on something that the student has experienced, for example, through studying foreign languages or living in a foreign culture. More generally, the student may

have observed something in life that makes him or her ask questions about a specific issue.

However, it is important for students to understand that, while experience is valuable, it is not on its own enough to write a thesis about. They will still need to read what others have written about the topic and include this information as a “literature review” at the beginning of the paper.

Another point that many students have trouble understanding is that a “research question” is not the same as an item on a questionnaire or a question in an interview; rather, it is something that gives direction to the thesis as a whole and directs the researcher to ask further questions. In simple terms, a research question should ask, “What am I trying to find out through this research?”

Let us, then, consider an example of how research questions might assist one in narrowing an otherwise overly broad topic. Suppose that one is interested in “English education in Japan.” After discussions with the instructor, reading some materials, and considering his or her specific interests, a student might narrow the topic to something like the following: “beliefs of Japanese elementary school teachers about English language teaching.” This is still somewhat broad, but it can be narrowed down further by formulating research questions such as the following:

1. Do Japanese elementary school teachers agree with the teaching of English to 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grade children; why or why not?
2. Do Japanese elementary school teachers believe that English education should begin earlier than the 5<sup>th</sup> grade?
3. What do Japanese elementary school teachers believe is the best way for children learn English?
4. What is the range and diversity of beliefs of Japanese elementary school teachers in relation to the teaching of English in elementary school?

Each of the questions suggested above presents a problem that could be investigated using specific methods. One could get answers to questions 1-3 by giving a questionnaire to groups of elementary school teachers or by interviewing some of them individually (or, better yet, by using a combination of questionnaire and interviews), after locating teachers who are willing to participate. Question 4 would be difficult to answer through a single questionnaire but could be answered after

looking at the results of questions 1-3 and finding general patterns.

### **How Can Instructors Help Students Find Appropriate Reading Material?**

As mentioned above, in writing their theses, students in our seminars are required to read published works on their topic and summarize them in a “literature review,” which generally comprises about half of their thesis. One problem that often comes up is the fact that many Japanese works in the field of comparative culture are not founded on research, but instead, are based on personal impressions and anecdotes. Although the Kansai University Library is reputed to be one of the best libraries in western Japan, many of the books written in Japanese about American or Western culture and intercultural communication in the library contain sweeping overgeneralizations such as “Americans never apologize” or “There is no way to be polite in English.”

To avoid having students spend a great deal of time reading unscholarly material, supervisors can give them a recommended list of research-based references from which to start their literature review. Works such as Nisbett (2003), Yamada (1997), and Barnlund (1989) have been translated into Japanese and offer many insights into cultural differences that are backed by rigorous research.

Other tactics that can help include warning students to avoid anecdote-based works and teaching them how to use the bibliography at the back of solid reference works to learn about other reliable books and articles in the field. In addition, taking time in class to discuss how to find reliable sources on the Internet can help steer students away from personal blogs and other unreliable sources of information.

### **How Can Instructors Prevent Plagiarism?**

Another problem thesis supervisors often encounter is plagiarism, which has been found to be a widespread phenomenon in universities in Japan and other East Asian contexts (LoCastro & Masuko, 2002; Pennycook, 1996; Scollon, 1994). To help students avoid it, non-Japanese supervising graduation theses are advised to spend a good deal of time on multiple occasions teaching their students the

meaning of plagiarism. Related skills, including paraphrasing and citation methodology, also need to be taught and practiced repeatedly.

Over the years, JALT publications have contained a number of articles about this topic that include definitions of plagiarism, examples of what it entails, ideas about how to avoid it, and accompanying worksheets (e.g., Iijima & Okamoto, 2004; MacGregor, 2002). Many American universities also have good pages on their websites in which plagiarism is explained and concrete examples of what is and what is not plagiarism are presented (e.g., The Writing Center, University of Wisconsin, 2017).

In the authors’ department, students enroll in the seminar in which they will write their sotsuron in the fall of their junior year. They can therefore be taught about plagiarism from this time on or in earlier writing courses, with review sessions fortifying their knowledge in their senior year. One helpful activity involves asking students to summarize a few pages of a book they have brought to class, then exchange papers with another student, who is asked to read the same few pages and then check their partner’s summary for plagiarism.

Supervisors should be aware that the risk of plagiarism rises as the deadline for submitting the thesis approaches. It is therefore wise to have students submit summaries of the works they read as early as possible and also to require that they submit their entire literature review early as well—if possible, as summer homework in their senior year. This allows teachers enough time to go over the literature review carefully and identify any problematic sections so that they can have students revise them before submitting the thesis itself.

### **How Can Instructors Teach Research Methodology?**

Research methods have been alluded to earlier in relation to choosing topics and formulating research questions. In the present section, we would like to suggest some ways for instructors to help students develop actual research skills. As is well known, the Japanese secondary school system is largely geared toward passing tests, especially university entrance exams, rather than promoting critical thinking. Thus, it is not

surprising that when they enter university, students tend to lack the academic writing skills necessary to produce an extended paper, even in their native language. Similarly, as already suggested, they have little idea of how to delimit and conduct research on a scale necessary for a *sotsuron* project.

Three general research methods that we have found useful for our *sotsuron* students are questionnaires, interviews, and various types of linguistic (or sociolinguistic) analysis. As a part of our 3rd- and 4th-year *zemi* classes, we engage students in a variety of group projects to practice some of these methods. The purpose of these projects in the 3rd year is not to actually produce a *sotsuron* (the students will do this individually by the end of their 4th year), but for them to practice in supportive group-work situations applicable methods that can later be transferred to their individual projects. In the discussion that follows, we will describe some activities that one or both of the authors have used to help students develop their research acumen at a basic level.

In one project, groups create and administer questionnaire surveys to address a research question of their choosing. Since the purpose of the activity is simply to get a feel for questionnaire research, the topics do not have to be as closely related to English linguistics as we require for their *sotsurons*. In recent classes, the students have addressed questions such as how international exchange students learn Japanese *kanji* characters, how Japanese students view English education, and what Japanese attitudes toward international marriage are.

In priming students for this activity, it is useful to differentiate between “closed-ended” and “open-ended” questions. Closed-ended means that respondents choose from among a number of fixed responses; this includes Likert-scale items, where respondents indicate numerically the degree to which they agree or disagree with specific statements. In contrast, open-ended questions allow respondents to express their opinions more freely and at greater length. We encourage the groups to include both types of questions in their questionnaires. Closed-ended questions are usually a more comfortable entry point into doing research, as they yield responses that can be counted and quantified easily without complicated statistical analysis (which is beyond the scope of what would normally be taught

within an undergraduate humanities curriculum). Open-ended questions yield a wider variety of responses and hence often contain more interesting data, which can be analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Yet open-ended questions are generally more difficult to analyze effectively, as their analysis entails the discovery of patterns in the data that may not be obvious at the outset.

Another type of research activity that one of the authors has recently introduced into his 3rd-year seminar class, and has found to be useful to develop students’ skills in analyzing naturally occurring data, is a “linguistic landscape” project. Linguistic landscape is a relatively new but burgeoning area of study in sociolinguistics that explores the use of written language in urban environments, such as the language on shop signs, directional signs, and restaurant menus (see Backhaus, 2007; Blommaert, 2013; or the journal *Linguistic Landscape* published by John Benjamins).

In the author’s class project, student groups are assigned to study different neighborhoods in the Osaka area. The first stage of the project is to visit and describe the neighborhood in a general sense, in terms its physical characteristics and the kinds of people who live or visit there. In the second stage, students look specifically at the landscape of written script, taking notes as well as photos. Written script here means not only the use of foreign languages (e.g., English as opposed to Japanese) but also the use of the different Japanese scripts—*kanji*, *katakana*, *hiragana*, and *romaji*. The goal, however, is not simply to describe what they see, but to discover patterns and to try and explain them.

This combination of description plus explanation is in fact a foundation of any good qualitative research project based on observation, though it is easy for novices to overlook the “explanation” aspect if not coached adequately. In the linguistic landscape project, a key question would be, “Why is one type of script used rather than another?” For example, English or French may be selected to convey a message rather than Japanese, or *katakana* used rather than *kanji*. An additional question might be, “Why is the same script sometimes used for different purposes in different contexts?” A related issue is that English writing in Japan has at least two quite different functions: to provide important information to non-Japanese, and as an “emblem” aimed at a Japanese



audience, such as to signal westernness, non-Japaneseness, or just “coolness.” In a third and final stage of the research, the groups relate their linguistic observations and analyses from the second stage back to the general description of the neighborhood with which they began. Here, it is hoped that they will reach a deeper level of analysis by explaining how the use of written language seems to reflect the broader social characteristics of the neighborhood.

The activities described above are for students who are being primed to write a thesis but are not yet at the stage where they are preparing for their individual projects. Once they begin working on their individual research, seminar time can be used effectively for the piloting of questionnaires and peer review of texts and movies under consideration for analysis. Students who plan to conduct a survey using a questionnaire are asked to bring copies of a draft to class. Their classmates and the supervisor then fill in the draft questionnaire and offer feedback and possible alternatives for questions that were difficult to answer or for which the wording was unclear.

Student progress reports documenting their successes and challenges in their individual studies are another tool that can be used to encourage the seminar participants to provide assistance to each other. For example, students frequently have trouble locating English-speaking respondents for surveys involving cross-cultural research questions. However, one year, a student discovered a conversation exchange app called “Hello Talk” that enabled him to make friends with a large number of native English speakers and get them to fill in his questionnaire. He told the other students in the seminar about this app, and as a result, all of the students using cross-cultural questionnaires were able to obtain sufficient data from non-Japanese respondents.

Another possible source of materials for cross-cultural analysis is written texts or movies from the cultures to be compared. If these are used, students should be advised to avoid choosing fantasies as well as materials with extreme situations and characters. For example, a student studying Japanese and American pragmatics may want to compare orders given by female bosses and decide to use *The Devil Wears Prada* as one source of material, since it centers on a powerful woman boss. However, since the theme of this

movie is the “devilish” behavior of the boss, her language cannot be considered typical of American female bosses, so this choice of material should be discouraged. Moreover, students also need to ensure that their Japanese and English materials are similar in terms of setting, character relationships, and the time period in which the material was made. As with questionnaires, it can be helpful for students using this kind of methodology to present their ideas in the seminar and get feedback about the appropriateness of their material.

## Conclusion

The above is a summary of some of the many challenges that westerners supervising *sotsurorns* may encounter and some of the techniques the authors have developed for dealing with them. It is hoped that this will make the challenge of supervising *sotsurorns* a little easier for those non-Japanese who are new to the task.

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# Survey on Americans' Understanding of Made-in-Japan English Words

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Although knowledge of English-based loanwords in Japanese facilitates various aspects of learning English, errors of various sorts originate from false cognates and can be disruptive to communication. In a previous survey (Norman, 2012) conducted on 285 Japanese university students, found that in general the students were not very aware that many of the vast number of *katakana* words and phrases in the Japanese vernacular are actually of Japanese and not English origin. This study examines the results of a two-part survey conducted on 198 Americans gauging their understanding of common made-in-Japan English words (*waseieigo*) in the Japanese vernacular, both with and without sentence context clues. Results indicate large positive statistical differences in understanding when given context clues, thus stressing the importance of Japanese students using full sentences (versus singular word utterances) when trying to communicate common *waseieigo* terms with native speakers of English.

日本語の中の英語由来の借用語を熟知していれば、英語のアウトプットだけでなく、いろいろな面で英語の学習が容易になる。一方で、英語の様々な間違いは、それらの誤用が原因であり、意思の疎通を困難にする可能性がある。以前、筆者が285人の日本人学生を対象に実施したアンケート調査 (Norman, 2011) で、日常的な日本語に見られるカタカナ語の多くは日本語由来であり英語由来ではないことを、一般に学生があまり知らないことが分かった。本研究では、198人のアメリカ人を対象に実施した2部構成のアンケートの調査結果を考察した。アンケートでは、日常的な日本語で使用される一般的な和製英語について、文章的な手がかりがある場合とない場合とで、その和製英語に対するアメリカ人の理解度に差が生じるか否かを測った。その結果、手がかりがある場合の方がはるかに理解が進むことが統計的に示され、日本人学生が英語の母語話者とコミュニケーションを取る場合には、単語だけを口にして意思の疎通を図るのではなく、しっかりと文章で意思を伝えることの重要性が明確になった。

Japanese students of the English language often struggle to make themselves understood in English due to a fear of making mistakes. Instead of using complete sentences to express themselves, students often resort to one or two word utterances, which can make it difficult for native speakers of English to understand what meaning they are trying to get across. Johansson (1978) has pointed out that the fact that native speakers of English rate lexical (i.e., word choice) errors as being more disruptive and more serious than grammatical errors is a troubling fact for the Japanese. Things can get even further complicated when such short utterances consist

exclusively of made-in-Japan English (called *waseieigo* in Japan) terms that sound like proper English but are often difficult to understand or even incomprehensible to native speakers of English.

This paper will first give a brief background on *waseieigo*. After briefly summarizing the author's previous survey done on Japanese university students' awareness of *waseieigo*, the methodology behind the survey on Americans' understanding of *waseieigo* used in this paper will be given. The results of the survey itself will then be followed by some

final comments and considerations for possible future research.

### Background on Made-in-Japan English

*waseieigo* (和製英語), literally translated as “made-in-Japan English,” are constructions based on English words or parts of word combinations that are not used by English native speakers or whose meanings differs from the words they were derived from. Other names for *waseieigo* that have been commonly used in academic research thus far include “Japanized English words” (Zhang, Tamaoka, & Hayakawa, 2014), “pseudo-loanwords” (Miura, 1985), and “pseudo English” (Quackenbush, 1974). Japanese often have difficulty in distinguishing between *waseieigo* and true Anglophonic English because *waseieigo* words and phrases are written in katakana, which is the script typically used for foreign loan words (Norman, 2012). Common examples of *waseieigo* in everyday conversation would be the terms *furaido potato* (フライドポテト) [“fried potato”] for French fry and *bebii kaa* (ベビーカー) [“baby car”] for stroller. The amount of *waseieigo* terms in use is considerable and continues to increase on a yearly basis (Olson, 2004).

Certain types of cognates, defined as words having related forms and meanings in two or more languages (Anthony, 1953), can certainly be helpful for beginning learners of a foreign language. But other types of cognates can often hinder communication and cause misunderstandings. A vast amount of research has been done thus far on cognates and their accompanying pitfalls (see Daulton, 1998; Hatch & Brown, 1995; Shepard, 1996). Uchida (2001) attempted to rank the difficulty of different types of cognates for Japanese learners of English and found that the most difficult types were close false friends (words having meanings clearly different but close to one another), followed by distant false friends (words having meanings that are distant or totally unconnected). Daulton (2008) later posited that *waseieigo* would fit in somewhere between these two most difficult types of cognates.

Here the importance of distinguishing *waseieigo* from such other terms as *gairaigo* (foreign loanwords) should be noted. Whereas loanwords are simply borrowed words from another language, *waseieigo* takes it a step further by

reworking and experimenting with loanwords in a way that completely changes their meaning and often makes them completely incomprehensible to native speakers of English.

The ever-expanding number of English loanwords in the Japanese vernacular has in turn given rise to an increasing number of *waseieigo* terms. While the myriad of possible reasons behind this increase in *waseieigo* terms has been widely researched and thus beyond the limited scope of this paper, the influences of the media (see Miller, 1997) and advertisers (see Hogan, 2003) in particular are worth noting. The increasing popularity and use of *waseieigo* by the Japanese, even though often Japanese equivalents already exist, can be ascertained from such examples as *charennji suru* (チャレンジする) = to attempt a difficult task, which is often used in everyday conversation in place of *chousen suru* (挑戦する), and *faito* (ファイト) = work hard/keep trying, in place of *ganbaru* (頑張る).

### Summary of Previous Survey Results

In a previously published paper (see Norman, 2012), the results of a three-part survey conducted on 285 Japanese university students at two universities (one high level and one low) to gauge their awareness of *waseieigo* in the Japanese vernacular were examined. The first part of the survey asked respondents whether they knew the *waseieigo* term given was in fact *waseieigo*. The second part directly tested respondents’ knowledge of *waseieigo* terms by mixing loanwords and *waseieigo* terms together and asking if they thought each term was *waseieigo* or not. The last part required respondents to translate the given English into Japanese using the *katakana* script. (All terms in the final part of the survey had *waseieigo* equivalents in Japanese.)

Although it had been hypothesized that there would be statistical differences between the two types of universities on a large number of survey items for all three parts of the survey (which theoretically would have been reflecting the difference in English ability between students of the two universities), in reality there were large statistically significant differences found on only many (12 out of 14) items of Part 3 of the survey. In contrast, Parts 1 and 2 of the survey only showed statistically significant differences for a few items each (4 out of 20, and 1 out of 20, respectively). It

was hypothesized that one possible reason for this was that *waseieigo* words and phrases are not taught or emphasized at the junior high or high school levels nearly as much as common vocabulary words and phrases that are likely to appear on entrance tests.

Overall, survey results suggested that Japanese students at the university level are not very aware that many of the vast number of *katakana* words in the Japanese vernacular are of Japanese and not English origin. An electronic adaptation of this study conducted by Goddard (2017) had almost identical results.

### Current Survey Methodology

With the results of this previous survey in mind, it was pondered how well some of the more common *waseieigo* terms from the survey would be understood, both with and without sentence context clues, by everyday native speakers of English. Out of the 50 possible *waseieigo* terms found on the original survey, 15 were chosen based on those that were thought to be the most likely to be used in everyday conversation. The current survey consisted of two parts (see Appendix A), and both parts contained the exact same *waseieigo* terms. Part 1 asked respondents to write out what English word(s) they thought the *waseieigo* term was referring to with only the *waseieigo* term itself given (i.e., with no clues). Then in Part 2 respondents were asked the same question for each *waseieigo* term, but this time were given sentence context clues to aid in guessing what each term meant. The term “made-in-Japan English” was used in place of *waseieigo* in the title and throughout the survey itself because it was felt this was the easiest term for the average American to understand. In addition, for authenticity, *waseieigo* terms on the survey were written in Japanese *katakana* script followed by their English phonetic equivalent. (Possible issues with how the Japanese sounds were transcribed into English will be discussed in the summary section.)

A total of 198 Americans (71 males, 123 females, and 4 unknown) of various ages (under 20 = 3, 20-29 = 43, 30-39 = 43, 40-49 = 36, 50-59 = 28, above 60 = 41, and unknown = 4) participated in the survey in the span of 2 weeks during the summer of 2016. The survey was conducted at a local library (Hillsboro Brookwood Library, Hillsboro,

Oregon, U.S.A.) as well as a popular local communal area (Pioneer Courthouse Square, Portland, Oregon, U.S.A.) in order to get a variety of participants from different walks of life. It was confirmed beforehand that all participants were native speakers of English. In addition, they were asked if they had ever studied the Japanese language previously and were excluded from participating if they answered “yes” since prior knowledge of Japanese would likely skew the results. Due to the nature of the survey itself and for research purposes, participants were asked to complete Part 1 first and then turn the paper over to complete Part 2 without referencing or going back to change their answers for Part 1 in any way. Participation in the survey was completely voluntary and anonymous, with participants receiving only some wrapped candy afterward if they wanted some as a small compensation for their time. Answers to the survey can be seen in Appendix B. It was hypothesized that there would be a statistically significant difference in the percentage of correct answers for each *waseieigo* survey item when given in a sentence (part 2) versus word only (part 1).

### Survey Results and Discussion

Part 1 aimed to gauge participants’ understanding of each *waseieigo* term with the difficulty of having only the *waseieigo* term itself given. As can be seen from the results for Part 1 (Table 1.), correct responses for each item varied widely from 0% for four items (*konsento* [コンセント] → outlet/socket, *plus alpha* [プラスアルファ] → something extra, *karute* [カルテ] → medical chart, and *posuto* [ポスト] → mailbox) to 78.3% (fried potato [フライドポテト] → French fries), with an overall average of only 15.7%. (The written responses “no idea” and “don’t know” were treated as blank for both parts of the survey.) Ten out of 15 of the *waseieigo* terms were practically not understood at all with less than a 5% correct response rate. Of the remaining five terms, respondents were able to guess correctly slightly well for three of the terms (22% for *jet coaster* [ジェットコースター] → roller coaster, 31% for *dust box* [ダストボックス] → trash can, and 36% for *baby car* [ベビーカー] → stroller) and quite well for two of them (78% for *fried potatoes* [フライドポテト] → French fries and 60% for *back mirror* [バックミラー] → rearview mirror). Analyzing these results, it was noticed that

all the five terms with a medium or high correct response had either close phonetic equivalents in English (such as with *back mirror*) or were easy to create an image in one's mind of what the other person is talking about (such as with *fried potatoes*). However, even with the word "coaster" contained in the *waseieigo* term *jet coaster*, the somewhat low 22% correct response rate was surprising.

In addition to the low average percentage of correct responses, the high average percentage of blank responses (32.5%) is equally worth noting. In these situations, native speakers couldn't even fathom a guess as to what a Japanese speaker would be trying to communicate, which in real life would likely result in miscommunications or total communication breakdowns.

In Part 2 of the survey (Table 2.), which contained the same *waseieigo* terms as Part 1 but this time with sentence context clues, correct answers on each item also ranged widely from 9.1% (*plus alpha* [プラスアルファ] → something extra) to 92.9% (*fried potato* [フライドポテト] → French fries). However, the average percentage of correct responses surged to 58.1% compared to just 15.7% on Part 1. In addition, the average percentage of blank responses decreased from 32.5% on Part 1 to just 15.6% on Part 2, indicating more willingness by the native speaker of English to communicate (regardless of whether the respondent's guess was correct or not). Furthermore, the average percentage correct on the 10 survey items which had been understood by less than 5% each on Part 1 jumped to 46.7% on Part 2, with some rising as dramatically as 0.5% to 61.1% for *refomu* [リフォーム] and 0% to 79.8% for *posuto* [ポスト]. Although presenting the *waseieigo* terms in sentences in Part 2 certainly helped with comprehension on most items, there were still five terms (*skinsip* [スキンシップ], *plus alpha* [プラスア

ルフア], *karute* [カルテ], *manshon* [マンション], and *noto pasokon* [ノートパソコン]) that were still quite misunderstood with correct response rates of less than 50% each.

In order to test the previously stated hypothesis that there is a statistically significant difference in the percentage of correct answers for each *waseieigo* survey item when given in a sentence (Part 2) versus the word alone (Part 1), a one sample *t* test between percentages using correct versus wrong or blank answers was carried out for each item individually (see Table 3.).

The *p* value for 14 of the 15 survey items was < 0.001, indicating we can say with 99.9% confidence there is a significant difference between the percentage of correct responses for these items when given sentence context clues versus without them. The one exception was item #2 (*fried potato* [フライドポテト] → French fries), which had a *p* value of 0.058 and was still very close to the standard *p* < 0.05 threshold. It is worth noting that the failure of this one *waseieigo* term to have a statically significant difference between Parts 1 and 2 was most likely caused by the high percentage (78.3%) of respondents who answered correctly on Part 1, thus leaving less room for improvement in the percentage of correct answers for Part 2 (92.9%).

These results indicate large statistically significant differences in comprehension of *waseieigo* terms when given sentence context clues, thus stressing the importance of Japanese students using full sentences (versus singular word utterances) when trying to communicate to native speakers of English common *waseieigo* terms they do not know the correct English for.

Table 2.

Survey Results (Part 1, Only Words Given)

Question	Correct	Wrong	Blank
1	3.0	69.2	27.8
2	78.3	15.7	6.1
3	0.0	76.8	23.2
4	0.0	58.6	41.4
5	0.5	64.6	34.8
6	36.4	49.5	14.1
7	0.0	63.6	36.4
8	0.5	84.8	14.6
9	31.3	43.4	25.3
10	2.0	27.3	70.7
11	0.5	57.6	41.9
12	60.1	21.2	18.7
13	0.0	43.4	56.6
14	22.2	46.5	31.3
15	0.5	55.6	43.9

Note. All numbers are percents. Some columns do not add up to exactly 100% due to rounding. Correct average = 15.7%; wrong average = 51.9%; blank average = 32.5%

Table 3.

Survey Results (Part 2, With Sentence Context Clues)

	Correct	Wrong	Blank
1	22.2	66.7	11.1
2	92.9	4.0	3.0
3	54.0	19.7	26.3
4	9.1	48.0	42.9
5	61.1	23.2	15.7
6	65.7	23.2	11.1
7	36.9	22.2	40.9
8	26.8	68.2	5.1
9	67.2	17.2	15.7
10	40.9	38.4	20.7
11	56.6	30.3	13.1
12	90.4	3.0	6.6
13	79.8	11.6	8.6
14	87.9	4.5	7.6
15	79.8	15.2	5.1



Table 4.

## Statistical Analysis

	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
1	197	5.825	0.000
2	197	1.580	0.058
3	197	15.246	0.000
4	197	4.452	0.000
5	197	17.097	0.000
6	197	4.263	0.000
7	197	10.760	0.000
8	197	8.197	0.000
9	197	5.460	0.000
10	197	10.387	0.000
11	197	15.593	0.000
12	197	3.587	0.000
13	197	27.968	0.000
14	197	11.300	0.000
15	197	26.739	0.000

Note 1. One-tailed test since percentage correct is theorized to be higher for part 2 than part 1

### Issues Regarding Survey

Several issues were encountered when developing the survey and tallying the results. First, during the development stage, it was a struggle to determine how to transcribe the *waseieigo* terms (written using the *katakana* script in Japanese) used in the survey into English while keeping in mind that the survey was trying to gauge how well these terms could be communicated by Japanese when trying to speak in English. For example, instead of simply transliterating the *katakana* for item #1 character by character as *sukinshippu* [スキんシップ], it was decided to write it as “skinship” not only so that native speakers of English could easily read it, but also because it was theorized that it would be much more likely that a Japanese person would say “skinship” versus *sukinshippu* when trying to communicate that word in English.

However, transcribing all the *waseieigo* terms this way would have skewed results in an unfavorable way. Take for instance the survey item *sain* [サイン]. Writing the word as “sign” on the survey would likely have caused all respondents to write “sign” as their answer and rendered the result meaningless. The fact that the word “sign” has many different meanings in the English language (depending on

context as well as what part of speech it is being used as) also was an issue. So in this case, a direct character by character *katakana* transcription was used.

A second issue with the development of the survey regarded the example sentences that were used in Part 2. Realistic conversation-style sentences that didn’t give too big of a hint were come up with as much as possible, but it cannot be denied that the results for each *waseieigo* term could have differed depending on the sentences used. For instance, in the case of Item 14, there likely would have been a somewhat lower percentage of correct answers had the sentence been shortened to just “I like to ride on jet coasters.” It is hoped that this effect was minimal. It is very likely that the large statistically significant differences previously discussed in the results section would still have been found regardless of the example sentences used.

Two issues were noticed when tallying survey results. The first was that a handful (2%) of respondents did not try to guess at all for any of the survey items on Part 1 (perhaps because they had felt overwhelmed) even though participants had been verbally encouraged before starting the survey to guess.

Furthermore, there was a small group (3%) of respondents that did not complete Part 2 of the survey, perhaps because they did not remember there was a Part 2 to the survey even after being given a verbal explanation. This issue did not appear to have any discernible impact on survey results due to the limited number of people and the fact that approximately the same number of people forgot to do Part 2 as answered none of the questions in Part 1.

The second issue was the discovery that some respondents wrote more than one guess for some of the survey items. This was not an issue when both guesses were incorrect. However, if one of the two guesses was deemed correct, it was only counted as correct if it was the one written first. Having clearly stated “write only one response per item” in the directions to the survey would likely have avoided this problem.

### Conclusions and Suggestions for Future Research

Survey results suggest that a large number of *waseieigo* terms cannot be understood by native speakers of English, especially when used as stand-alone words (i.e., without any type of context). It had been hypothesized that there would be meaningful statistically significant differences between the percentage of correct answers for *waseieigo* terms when used by themselves versus in sentences with context clues. This indeed was the case with 14 out of the 15 survey items, with even the lone nonstatistically significant term being very close to the  $p < 0.05$  threshold. These results stress the importance of Japanese students using sentences (versus single-word utterances) when trying to communicate *waseieigo* terms to native speakers of English. It should be noted that even if a full sentence with various context clues is not produced, the recipient may be able to guess the meaning of a word or phrase based on the situation. However, the survey demonstrates that there is a much better chance of being understood when using full sentences in conjunction with context clues.

Since the survey was all done on paper, it is hard to draw definitive conclusions regarding how well the *waseieigo* terms in the survey would be understood by native speakers of English in real-life communication situations, especially considering the issue regarding transcription of the *waseieigo* terms previously discussed. It would be worthwhile to do a

similar survey all orally in the future to see if the results are similar to those garnered here. However, the time factor and not putting any pressure on respondents are two concerns regarding this type of survey method. It might also be interesting to gather information on the education level of respondents and see if it has any meaningful impact on comprehension of *waseieigo* terms.

Considering the results of the survey and the fact that many Japanese students do not speak using full sentences when trying to communicate in English, it would be worthwhile to investigate what coping strategies Japanese students of English employ during conversations to try to explain *waseieigo* terms that at first are not being understood properly by native speakers of English.

With an ongoing increase in the number of loanwords as well as *waseieigo* terms in the Japanese vernacular, it would be beneficial for English teachers at all levels of instruction to find ways to raise their students' awareness of *waseieigo* so that misunderstandings due to production errors can be lessened. This in turn can help Japanese students feel more confident about their English communication ability.

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## Appendix A

### Survey

Part 1: Can you guess what English word/phrase the Japanese speaker is trying to say with only the Made-in-Japan word/phrase given? (Please guess freely. If you have no idea, it is okay to leave it blank.)
1. スキンシップ (“skinship”) →
2. フライドポテト (“fried potato”) →
3. コンセント (“konsento”) →
4. プラスアルファ (“plus alpha”) →
5. リフォーム (“refomu”) →
6. ベビーカー (“baby car”) →
7. カルテ (“karute”) →
8. マンション (“manshon”) →
9. ダストボックス (“dust box”) →
10. ノートパソコン (“noto pasokon”) →
11. ビル (“biru”) →
12. バックミラー (“back mirror”) →
13. ポスト (“posuto”) →
14. ジェットコースター (“jet coaster”) →
15. サイン (“sain”) →

Part 2: Now can you guess what the Japanese speaker is trying to say with the words/phrases from Part 1 in a sentence with context? (Please guess freely. If you have no idea, it is okay to leave it blank.)
1. I believe <b>skinship</b> is important in a romantic relationship. →
2. I like to eat <b>fried potatoes</b> with my hamburger sometimes. →

3. Could you please put this plug into the <b>konsento</b> ? →
4. The store wanted to do <b>plus alpha</b> for its customers. →
5. I decided to do <b>refomu</b> on my house. →
6. Oh look, what a cute <b>baby car</b> that mother has! →
7. The doctor looked at the <b>karute</b> for his patient. →
8. I live in a 15-story <b>manshon</b> in Tokyo. →
9. Could you please put this into the <b>dust box</b> for me? →
10. I use a <b>noto pasokon</b> to do my homework. →
11. I work in a large <b>biru</b> in downtown Tokyo. →
12. Be sure to look in the <b>back mirror</b> before you pull out. →
13. I need to put this letter in the <b>posuto</b> before tomorrow. →
14. I like to ride on <b>jet coasters</b> at amusement parks. →
15. Could I please get your <b>sain</b> on this document? →

## Appendix B

### *Survey Answers*

1. body/physical contact / intimacy
2. (French) fries
3. (plug) outlet / socket
4. something extra / more
5. renovation(s) / remodeling, etc.
6. (baby) stroller/carriage/buggy, etc.
7. (medical) chart / file / record, etc.
8. condo/apartment building / high-rise
9. trash/garbage can / wastebasket, etc.
10. laptop computer / note(book) PC
11. building
12. rearview mirror
13. mailbox / postbox
14. roller coaster
15. signature / autograph

*Note: Answers are the same for both parts of the survey*

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### Author Biography

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# Approaching L2-Only Classrooms With Real-Time Anonymous Self-Reporting

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In the debate over the merits of second language (L2) only classrooms, a growing body of evidence suggests that first language (L1) use may be both useful and inevitable. The questions of whether and how broad compliance with L2-only policies is achievable or beneficial remain unanswered. The author proposes that L1 use may be partly due to habit and that anonymous self-reporting of language use might help learners remember to use the L2 enough to develop new habits. The paper describes a controlled preliminary experiment that showed the intervention reduced L1 use and increased L2 use in a 1st-year four-skills English communication courses in a Japanese university. In addition, the author tested a sampling procedure for monitoring class language use. The success of the intervention and sampling procedure point to the possibility of answering a variety of questions about the feasibility and merits of L2-only classes.

クラスルームのみでの第二言語 (L2) のメリットについての議論では、第一言語 (L1) が有益で、必然的であると数多く証明で示唆しています。L2 のみの政策を広く順守することが、どのようにして達成可能で、有益なのかについての問題は答えが出ないままです。作者は、L1 の使用は部分的には習慣によってであり、匿名による言語使用の自己報告によって学習者が新しい習慣を作れるほど L2 を忘れずに使用するのに役立つのではと提案します。論文では、ある日本の大学の 4 技能英語コミュニケーション授業の 1 年目に、L1 を減らして L2 を増やす介入を表す管理予備実験について説明しています。さらに、作者はクラス言語の使用を監視するために抜き取り手順をテストしました。介入と抜き取り手順の成功は、L2 のみのクラスの実現可能性とメリットについての様々な質問への回答の可能性を指し示します。

Many language teaching professionals believe that students benefit from using only the target second language (L2) in the classroom setting, but is this an achievable goal? There is a growing body of research documenting the uses of the students' first language (L1) in L2 classrooms. Antón and Dica-milla (1999), Swain and Lapkin (2000), Storch and Wigglesworth (2003), Moore (2013), and Bao and Du (2015) all found that the L1 was used in L2 communicative tasks for various task-related functions, such as task management and clarification, as well as social communication. These researchers concluded that L1 use serves important functions and should not be forbidden. Swain and Lapkin (2000) and Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) took a middle ground, adding that it ought not be encouraged. On the other hand, Moore (2013) suggested that

for some functions it might be appropriate to encourage L1 use. However, these papers do not address whether it is possible to motivate or train students to use the L2 for the functions in question.

Some researchers have partially addressed this question. For example, writing about the context of emersion classrooms for children in North America, Tarone and Swain (1995) observed the phenomenon that learners use the L2 for class activities but switch to their shared L1 for off-task communication. They concluded that this is because the students lack the vernacular needed for nonacademic peer-to-peer interaction, a problem they believed cannot be solved by the teacher. They suggested that it might help if students had social interaction with native-speaking peers. Carless (2008) interviewed secondary school teachers in Hong Kong about

how they try to get their students to use English in class and found that task design was a common consideration. Ford (2009) looked at the beliefs and practices of university teachers in Japan concerning enforcement of English only policies in EFL classrooms and noted that teaching communication strategies and cajoling were among the methods employed to accomplish compliance. However, neither of these made any attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of the reported strategies. This seems to be a major gap in the literature. Questions of the relative merits of using or not using the L1 is moot if broad compliance with an L2-only policy cannot be achieved.

One possible solution to the problem comes from the neuroscience of habit formation. According to Duhigg (2012) *habits* are behavioral chunks encoded in a brain region called the *basal ganglia* and associated with a specific cue and reward. When the cue arises, the habitual behavior is carried out more or less automatically. Changing the behavior requires the intervention of another brain region called the *prefrontal cortex*, which requires energy and attention and is subject to fatigue. The habit is essentially a way to save energy and speed responses to routine situations. It seems possible that students develop a habit of using the L2 for classroom activities based on the cue of the teacher giving instructions but then fall back to the previously established habit of using the L1 when other cues arise. A possible solution might therefore be to help the students develop a habit of using English in response to various cues that arise in the classroom. How might this be accomplished? Duhigg (2012) described how businesses train people to respond to specific problems by planning a response and practicing until the response becomes a habit. However, in my experience this is not sufficient in L2 classrooms, perhaps because class time does not allow for sufficient dedicated practice. It is possible that students need something to help them remember to respond to classroom cues in the L2 during regular class activities to get enough practice to develop a habit. Students also need some kind of reward to complete the cue–reward cycle. An obvious solution might be for the teacher to monitor the class and remind the students to use the L2. However, realistically a teacher cannot function as the prefrontal cortex for 20 or

more students. Something is needed to help the students monitor themselves and reward themselves.

This paper is a report on a preliminary experiment to solve two problems before researching how to develop a habit of using the L2 in class. The first was to test self-reporting as a solution to helping students self-monitor their language use, avoiding their L1 and using their L2 more. At pseudo-random times, I asked the students to anonymously self-report about their language use in that moment. The classroom projector displayed the results in real time so that the students could see how their peers responded. The second problem was to find an effective way to measure the students' language use that is economical in terms of the researcher's time. The attempted solution was to frequently sample the students' language use by walking among the students during pair work and recording which language each pair of students was using. This sampling approach was successful and the experiment showed that anonymous self-reporting with real-time feedback may be very effective in motivating students to use the L2 in the classroom. These results opened the door to testing the hypothesis that L1 use is the result of habits and other questions about L1 and L2 use.

## Method

The experiment was a controlled blind trial. Before the experiment, the participants signed consent forms informing them that one of two classes would do experimental activities designed to help them use more English but not which class was the control group nor which activities were connected with the experiment. I collected preintervention data about their language use by systematically observing them in class and then chose the experimental class based on that class having used less English and more Japanese. I did a trial run of the intervention with the experimental group in the class meeting before collecting the in-intervention data. Finally, I collected the in-intervention data on a day when we were doing the same set of activities as preintervention data collection day. Details about the participants, intervention, and data collection and analysis follow.

## The Participants

The participants were two classes of 1st-year university students in the British and American studies department at a small Japanese university specializing in foreign language studies. The experiment was conducted in a twice-weekly 90-minute, four-skills, communication-based English as a foreign language course called Core English taught by this researcher. The students also take a once-weekly small-group conversation course called Power-up Tutorial (PUT) in which they primarily practice conversation strategies. These two courses constitute the bulk of their communication in English in the 1st year. They also have opportunities to interact with native speaker peers.

The two classes are from somewhat different populations. The experimental group were a class of 20 students taking the British and American Studies standard curriculum. The control group were 19 students in a class of 22 students taking a curriculum with more emphasis on communication and less emphasis on culture in the 3d and 4th years. The two curricula are identical in the 1st year. However, the later curriculum is popular and was planned to be more selective so there may be some differences in average abilities as well as interests and motivations between the two classes.

## The Intervention

In the intervention, at the sound of a bell, the participants anonymously self-reported their language use three times during the class using an application called Socrative on their smartphones. The projector displayed the class results so they could see the result. If the participants used mostly English, the teacher praised them. To report, the students answered one question, "What language were you using to communicate?" The students could select either "English," "Japanese," or "I was not conversing."

In the two class sessions of the intervention the bell rang three times. The teacher made sure the bell rang both during and between activities, but pretended that the bell rang at random times by setting a timer and walking away. This was to insure that the participants would think the bell might ring at any time and that they should do all their communication in English.

## Data Collection and Analysis

Data was collected about the participants' language use in two class meetings, once before and once during the intervention. On these days, the classes did a routine set of linked-skills activities in which the students communicated in pairs and changed partners frequently, doing three iterations of each activity. While circumambulating the classroom, the teacher recorded what language each pair of students was using at the time he passed. One circumambulation of the room recording data for each pair constituted one sample. The data generated consisted of a simple code: "E" for English, "J" for Japanese, "S" for silent, and "I" for indeterminate. Silent meant that the students were not communicating. Indeterminate meant that the students were clearly communicating but it was not possible to determine what language they were speaking. For the control group, the record included "N" for nonparticipant if a nonparticipant was speaking or the pair was silent. The data did not include any information about the identity of the participant or the content of the communication.

To limit sources of error, the data includes the same number of samples for each class, each collection day, and from corresponding iterations of each activity. On each data collection day the classes did four communicative activities. The first was a warm-up discussion. In the second activity, students compared and discussed answers to homework consisting of true-or-false reading comprehension questions with the goal of reaching agreement on all answers. This was followed by a discussion of open-ended reading comprehension questions and a discussion of personalization questions. Whenever possible the samples recorded consist of two samples from each iteration of each activity and one sample between each activity. In any case when it was not possible to collect the same number of samples for an iteration between the two classes or the two data collection days, the discarded samples were those collected last as these were most likely to have been from students finished with the activity.

Data analysis was a straightforward calculation of the difference in the means for each population of samples and of statistical significance. The first step was to calculate percentages for each sample and then the means for each class

and data collection session. This was followed by calculation of the difference between the means for the two data collection days for each class and *p* values using a paired, two-tailed *t* test.

### Results

There are three important results from this experiment, two regarding the intervention and one in connection with the method for sampling language use. To begin with, the experimental group increased their English use while decreasing their silence and use of Japanese. Table 1. shows that the percentage of observations in which the experimental group were using English to communicate rose dramatically on the intervention day. There were corresponding changes in percentage of observations in which the participants were speaking Japanese (which fell to zero) and in which participants were silent. All these changes in the experimental group were statistically significant to a high degree of confidence. In contrast, the control group had no statistically significant changes in their language use.

The data also reveal that the largest changes in participants' behavior occurred in the time between activities

and iterations and in true-or-false answer discussion. Table 2. shows the mean language use by activity. The preintervention data show that much of the Japanese use and much of the silence came in the true-or-false answer discussion activity and between activities. Japanese use decreased 18% and 32% respectively and silence decreased 22% and 31% respectively. These changes were statistically significant. For the control group, the silence in particular was also concentrated in these times. There were no statistically significant changes in the control group. It should be noted that the true-or-false answer discussion is an activity that some pairs finish very quickly while others have long discussions. Basically, the between-activity time is from when the pair finishes the activity to the time they change partners. Therefore, some portion of the true-or-false answer discussion represents in-between time. The changes are likely at least in part to be from the same cause. Although, the data do not include information on the content of their communication, I noted that many participants in the experimental class engaged in social interaction using English in this time on the intervention days.

Table 1.  
*Difference in Mean Language Use*

Class	Language	A: Preintervention	B: In-intervention	A-B
Experimental	English	55.2%	85.4%	30.2%*
	Japanese	13.7%	0.0%	-13.7%*
	Silent	29.5%	10.5%	-19.0%*
	indeterminate	1.6%	4.1%	2.5%
Control	English	61.5%	67.0%	5.5%
	Japanese	2.9%	1.6%	-1.2%
	Silent	33.3%	28.3%	-5.0%
	indeterminate	2.4%	3.1%	0.7%

Note: n = 35; \* = statistically significant ( $p < .0001$ ), all others ( $p > .05$ ).



Table 2.

Mean Language Use by Activity

Day	Language	Warm up	True or false	Reading comp.	Discussion	Between iterations
	n	5	10	6	6	8
Experimental						
Pretreatment	English	87%	41%	80%	85%	13%
	Japanese	2.2%	18%	3.7%	1.9%	32%
	Silent	8.9%	37%	17%	13%	56%
	indeterminate	2.2%	4.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
In-treatment	English	100%	82%	91%	93%	71%
	Japanese	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
	Silent	0.0%	14%	1.9%	1.9%	25%
	indeterminate	0.0%	3.3%	7.4%	5.6%	4.2%
Control						
Pretreatment	English	93%	58%	92%	92%	0.0%
	Japanese	5.0%	2.5%	0.0%	0.0%	6.3%
	Silent	0.0%	33%	7.9%	7.9%	92%
	indeterminate	2.2%	6.1%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%
In-treatment	English	100%	68%	91%	83%	14.1%
	Japanese	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.8%	3.6%
	Silent	0.0%	25%	8.6%	4.8%	82%
	indeterminate	0.0%	6.7%	0.0%	7.0%	0.0%

Finally, there are several useful observations about the sampling method. First, it was easy to walk around the class and record the information on either a tablet or paper. However, hearing which language the students were using was sometimes impossible with soft-voiced students in a noisy classroom. Another problem was that sometimes a student asked a question interrupting sampling. Stopping to answer student questions prevented taking sampling a few times. Finally, in practicing data collection it was difficult to assess the contents of the students' communication due to difficulty hearing. It was therefore necessary to restrict data collection to language only.

### Discussion

There are three findings regarding L1 and L2 use in the classroom from this experiment. First, it may be possible, at

least in the specific context, to achieve broad compliance with L2-only policy. This is demonstrated by the experimental group reducing their Japanese use to zero or near zero while increasing their total communication. Second, the intervention probably played a causal role in the changes.

This is demonstrated by the large statistically significant changes in the experimental group and the lack of statistically significant changes in the control group. However, there were initial differences between the two groups. If some other factor such as practicing conversation strategies, or interaction with native speaking peers, contributed to changes in the experimental group, whatever caused the initial difference may be masking those changes in the control. Thus, the experiment shows it is very likely that something close to an L2-only environment can be achieved, but the intervention's contribution is less certain.

The third finding is that the students did not accomplish their decreased use of the L1 by cutting their social interaction. In fact, they appear to have increased their social interaction as is demonstrated by the decreased silence and Japanese use and increased English between activities. The concern raised in the literature by Antón and Dicomilla (1999), Swain and Lapkin (2000), Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) and others that L1 use serves important functions and therefore should not be banned implies that learners might be harmed if they don't use their L1 for these functions. One might expect that, in the case of social communication, if they avoided it to avoid L1 use they might be a less cohesive group. This experiment constitutes one data point that the concern about L1 use in the case of social communication may be unfounded.

Turning now to the method for sampling the classes' language use, the method has weaknesses but may be very useful for exploring ways to increase L2 use in classes. It has the advantage that it is simple and easy to implement. Teacher-researchers can use the method to evaluate the effectiveness of interventions without spending time transcribing recordings. However, one needs to be careful about biasing one's results when the language students are using is difficult to determine. This problem could be avoided if a third party collected the data before and after an intervention so the person collecting data does not know which group is experimental. This approach might have its own problems, however, because participants might behave differently with an unfamiliar person walking around writing information about them. Finally, the method has limitation - at least when implemented by this researcher- that it is difficult to record data about what kind of communication the participants are engaged in. To answer questions about how an intervention affects specific kinds of communication, actually recording student conversation may be necessary. Nevertheless, the technique shows promise in that it will be useful to quickly evaluate whether an intervention leads to changes in how much L1 and L2 communication takes place and to monitor the same over time.

The apparent effectiveness of the intervention and the ease of use of the sampling method mean that a study to test the author's hypothesis regarding L1 use and habits can

be done. This would involve doing the intervention for an arbitrary number of class sessions and then periodically sampling the students' language use to see how it changes over time. If habits contribute to when and how students use their L1 in class one would expect that the control group would gradually use more Japanese and less English over the course of the term as they become tired. The experimental group, being more habituated to using the L2, would do a better job of maintaining their L2 use over time.

The possibility of having classes that broadly comply with L2-only policies raises the possibility of controlled experiments that could address various questions about L1 use in the classroom. For example, an experiment could shed light on Tarone and Swain's (1995) hypothesis that students do not use the L2 for social communication in class because they lack vernacular language needed to communicate at the desired register. To test this, the effects of the intervention could be compared on two otherwise similar classes, one of which engages in extensive communication with native speaker peers. Similarly, questions about the merits of L2-only policies or of using L1 in the classroom might be answered, but comparing classes that get the intervention to classes that do not. Researchers could collect a variety of data to see how they solve communication problems and how their learning and language acquisition outcome differ. Answering these questions will be challenging and the answers may differ for different contexts. This experiment provides hope for a beginning.

### **Conclusion**

The present experiment shows that anonymous self-reporting may help L2 learners pay enough attention to their language use in class that they can approach a L2-only class environment without the teacher engaging in unpleasant and possibly futile policing of language use. However, it is not clear how much the conversation strategy practice portion of the curriculum or interaction with native speaking peers contributed to the students' success in increasing their English and decreasing their Japanese usage. It may be that these factors are co-requisite. It is also unclear whether the intervention will result in the students developing a lasting habit of using only the L2 in class or whether, on balance, that

would be beneficial to them. Answering these questions will require extensive additional experiments. That said, the apparent success of this experiment raises the possibility that controlled longitudinal studies of L2-only class environments can be carried out.

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### Author Biography

*Michael Ellsworth Rector* has taught English as a foreign language in various Japanese contexts for 15 years. An avid fan and aspiring practitioner of science, his ambition is to test our beliefs about best practices with controlled experiments. In his free time, he enjoys bicycling and traveling with his wife.



# Developing Academic Lexis: An Interactive Approach

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For many teachers and course designers, deciding what vocabulary to teach can be difficult; designing efficient strategies that allow large numbers of words to be acquired without being too time-consuming or burdensome on students can also be challenging. Based on a promising pilot study, this paper explains an updated teaching method employed and the research methodology utilized to evaluate it. The teaching method involves group study and student creation of assessments with intermittent teacher feedback. The research method compares a class receiving additional retrieval activities, a class without them, and a control group without the activities or the teaching method.

教師や講座詳細の作成者はどの語彙を教えるかという問題点は常にある。それに語彙を習得させる効率的で、あまり時間を取らず、生徒にも負担させすぎないような教授法を導き出すのも問題点である。有望なパイロット・スタディを基にする当研究は、パイロット・スタディの最新教授法とその評価を説明する。教授法は生徒がグループで勉強したり、教師の断続的なアドバイスで生徒が作成した試験を受けたりする事である。当研究方法は、教授法と追加の復習活動・教授法・教授法と追加活動なしの対照群という三つの授業のグループの結果を比較する。

## Introduction

There are challenges to the explicit teaching of vocabulary, not least among which are knowing what words to teach, how to teach them, and allocating time to dedicate to it within an already dense course. This paper along with a previous study represent our ongoing attempt to meet these challenges. As such, this paper is a follow-up study to a previous paper in which a new method of teaching vocabulary and the effectiveness of additional retrieval exercises were investigated. Owens and Reed (2017) was a response to the need for improvement to the vocabulary component in a new course designed for freshman university students in Japan. The impetus for the study was a wish to know what words we should teach, what methods are effective, and what it means to “know” a word. The emphasis of this paper is on the changes made to the original study, so a cursory familiarization of the previous study is recommended to the reader, but it is briefly summarized in the next section.

## Previous Study Summary

For more detailed information about the previous study, please see Owens and Reed (2017). However, a rudimentary summary of the study is necessary here in order to provide the context of this paper. Previously, we looked at the effectiveness of a new method of teaching selected vocabulary from the New Academic Word List or “NAWL” (Browne, Culligan, & Phillips, 2013) in advanced-level freshman university courses. The name of this course is Foundational Literacies (FL), in essence a reading and writing course consisting of 180 minutes of taught classes per week with two 15-week semesters and a curriculum inspired by a multiliteracies-based pedagogy (New London Group, 1998).

One measure used to investigate this effectiveness was a comparison of learning vocabulary under two conditions. One class of students studied words from the NAWL (Browne et. al., 2013) using the new method coupled with additional review exercises, whilst another used the same method but had no review exercises. The review exercises

consisted of a variety of different activities, for example the memory-based “concentration” game, in which students had to match words with their meanings. Other examples of review activities included Pictionary, crosswords, and various “guessing” games in which a student holding a secret card containing one of the target vocabulary had to elicit the word from group members without explicitly referring to it. While it could be argued that each game had its own strengths and weaknesses, and that this variety could therefore be seen as an interfering variable, the important distinction is that one class *was* purposely re-exposed to the target vocabulary and the other *did not* experience review.

### Method

The method involved breaking a list composing the 250 most frequent words from the NAWL into 10 subsections. A class on the FL course contains about 20 students; these were then divided into 5 groups of 4 students. Each group was given 2 subsections of words to look at, in order to create a test that would focus on any 10 of the 25 listed items in each subsection. These student-designed tests were reviewed and edited by a teacher and then taken by all students as a whole every week; each group attempted the test together and received a collective score. Collective scores were used as a way to encourage students to bond and study together outside of the class, as their scores would in part be determined by team effort. It is also arguably an effective way of motivating students to work harder in the Japanese context, where people might be said to take their group responsibilities more seriously than their own selfish interests (Davies & Ikeno, 2002). The average score for each group after taking these tests comprised the vocabulary component of each individual’s grade (10%) for the semester.

### Research Questions

Separate to these student-designed tests, the researchers collected results of pre- and posttests for both classes at the beginning and end of a semester to see the extent to which their vocabulary scores had improved. Additionally, a survey was used to gauge student perceptions of the new method, especially in comparison to the former method.

The research questions in this previous study were thus:

1. Did the new method have any significant impact on the retention of academic vocabulary? That is, was there a significant difference between pre- and posttest scores (taken in Week 1 and 15 of a 15-week semester)?
2. Did the class that had experienced review activities make significantly more gains than the class that did not?
3. Was the new method rated more favorably than the old by students?

### Results and Limitations

According to the data processed in Owens and Reed (2017), both classes made significant gains but this could not be conclusively ascribed to the new method used. As far as the review exercises were concerned, there was no significant difference between the two classes suggesting that they had any positive effect. The surveys generated less ambiguous results, with the vast majority of students appraising the new method positively, especially when compared with the older method. However, students were less keen on the group-testing of the method, in as far as they did not want to share the same grade as those within their group who they perceived as weaker, or less diligent than themselves.

There were other limitations to the study that provided the impetus for the same researchers to carry out this current study. For example, the pre-/posttest utilized to measure improvement was itself imperfect. It comprised only 10 questions, and whereas the student-designed, weekly tests typically looked at in-depth productive knowledge of form, meaning, and use by using a variety of question types, the pre-/posttest only tested only one kind of receptive knowledge (simple definitions) using the New Academic Word List Test (NAWLT) available from the NAWL website (Browne et. al, 2013).

### Current Study Overview and Changes

The current study thus employed the same method but with some decisive changes. Similarly to the initial study, students looked at words from the NAWL. The reason we decided to focus on the NAWL is because it is an updated version of the

original Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000) which was not only drawn from a much larger corpus (288 million words versus 3.5 million), but was created without using word families, which have been shown to be problematic for learners (Schmitt & Zimmermann, 2002).

A list of 250 words from the NAWL was, as in the initial study, broken down into subsections and administered to different groups of students. In the weekly student-designed tests, they were encouraged to employ a variety of question types to more thoroughly test deeper knowledge of each word, as outlined by Nation (2013). However, while in the first study students also took these tests as groups and shared a common grade, in the current study students instead took the tests independently and were responsible only for their own grade. This was a direct response to feedback in the initial survey: “confident students did not wish to share a grade with ‘weaker’ students, who in turn felt that sharing a grade with ‘stronger’ students meant they were less motivated to study hard for themselves” (Owens & Reed, 2017, p. 247).

As in Owens and Reed (2017), one class of students experienced additional review exercises and one did not. However, this time an additional control group was looked at. This class of students had no retrieval exercises or experience of the new method, that is, they had no review or weekly test exercises. They were however given the list of 250 words and were subject to the same pre- and posttests. This was in order to test a hypothesis that it was merely access to the words that had led to improvements in the pre-/posttests in the initial study, irrespective of any explicit teaching of vocabulary.

Thus this time three different classes were looked at: a class that employed the new student-designed tests method and had exposure to review activities, a class that utilized the new method but had no review activities, and a class that were merely provided with the list and had no instruction in any method or review activities.

Finally, the pre-/posttest was adjusted to include 20 words rather than 10 and to more closely resemble the kind of questions students would use in their weekly tests by using a greater variety of question types to better test in-depth productive knowledge of words (see Appendix).

## Research Questions

The research questions for the current study were as follows:

1. Would the groups with testing have significantly higher scores than the control group?
2. Would the group with review perform significantly better than the Tests-Only group?

## Participants

All three classes of students were from the advanced stream of a freshman course within the English department of a foreign languages university in Japan. All were thus aged similarly (18-20 years old) and of similar language ability; proficiency tiers are decided by combining student TOEFL scores with their grades on an internal entrance exam. The gender dynamic was also similar in each class with approximately 75% of each class being female.

## Method

Students in all classes were given a pretest (see Appendix), which also functioned as an example of the types of quizzes they would be making in the Tests-Only and Tests-Plus-Review groups. They were also given a list of 25 words each week to study on their own or with their quiz teams.

Students in the Tests-Only and Tests-Plus-Review groups took turns in their classes to make the weekly 10-item quiz with their quiz teams. After finishing making the quiz, they would send it to their teacher for accuracy and suitability review. During the following class period, the students would take the quiz individually. We decided to have the students take the quizzes individually because of the comments in the previous study expressing dislike of group scores contributing to individual grades.

At the end of the year, all students in all groups took the posttest, which was the same as the pretest. Their final scores were compared with their pretest scores to see the extent to which the tests and/or the review exercises had had a significant effect on their vocabulary.

Finally, the teacher in charge of the Tests-Only group asked for students’ feedback on all parts of the course

through an end-of-course survey. One part asked them to rate the vocabulary lists and tests that they used in class on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = *not at all useful* to 5 = *very useful*. Data listing all the above results are provided in the next section.

### Results

Looking at descriptive statistics, all three groups increased their mean scores, with the largest gain by Tests-Only group and the smallest by the control group. Table 1. summarizes these findings. Table 2. shows the results of statistical analysis of the mean Post-Test scores.

Performing statistical analysis using ANCOVA and post-hoc pairwise comparisons revealed no significant differences on the mean posttest scores between the Tests-

Plus-Review group and the Control group. In other words, the data show that the Tests-Only group significantly outperformed the Tests-Plus-Review and Control groups on the posttest, and the Tests-Plus-Review group's mean score was not significantly different to the Control group. An analysis of these mixed results is part of the discussion in the following section.

The results of an end-of-course survey conducted by the teacher of the Tests-Only group included an item wherein students could rate the vocabulary portion of the course on a scale of usefulness from 1 to 5. The results of the 19 students who answered the survey indicated that most students who used the vocabulary lists and tests found them to be 4 = *quite useful* to 5 = *very useful*, with a mean rating of 4.32 out of a maximum of 5 points.

Table 1.

Pretest and Posttest Mean Scores

Group	Pretest <i>M</i>	Posttest <i>M</i>	<i>SD</i> of Posttest scores	<i>N</i>
tests-only	11.41	16.35	2.760	17
tests-plus- review	10.89	12.42	2.317	19
no tests (control)	12.06	12.81	2.786	16

Table 2.

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) group	(J) group	Mean difference (I-J)	<i>SE</i>	<i>Sig.</i> <sup>b</sup>	95% <i>CI</i> for Difference <sup>b</sup>	
					lower bound	upper bound
no tests (control)	tests only	-3.924 <sup>a</sup>	.779	.000	-5.489	-2.358
	tests plus review	-.296	.769	.702	-1.843	1.251
tests only	no tests (control)	3.924 <sup>a</sup>	.779	.000	2.358	5.489
	tests plus review	3.627 <sup>a</sup>	.745	.000	2.130	5.125
tests-plus-review	no tests (control)	.296	.769	.702	-1.251	1.843
	tests only	-3.627 <sup>a</sup>	.745	.000	-5.125	-2.130

<sup>a</sup> = The mean difference is significant at  $p < 0.5$

<sup>b</sup> = Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

## Discussion

The statistics showed that the Tests-Only group performed the best on the posttest relative to the other two groups, but a glaring question remains: Why did the Tests-Plus-Review Group perform no better than the control group? If these results are to be taken at face value, it would imply that review activities, or at the very least the review activities employed in this study, are not only ineffective, but inhibitory to vocabulary acquisition to the extent that they counter any of the benefits of creating and taking the weekly tests.

However, accepting such a simplistic conclusion based on insufficient data would be ill-advised because it is likely that the statistics are not telling the whole story. For instance, issues such as individual differences in study habits among the groups, the timing of the posttest administration, and the fact that the groups were taught by different teachers all could have affected the results. Furthermore, the study itself was conducted as part of an ongoing course and was therefore not as controlled as a laboratory setting might be. Qualitative differences between the groups such as these may have been substantial.

One other difference between the groups is the issue of word exposure. All groups were exposed to the same list of words and encountered all of the words at least one time when the list was given in class. However, because the student-made quizzes comprised only 10 of the 25 words given each week, and were chosen by the students, it is possible that the quizzes for the Tests-Only group coincidentally exposed students to more of the words that appeared on the pre-/posttest than the Tests-Plus-Review group, thus explaining their higher final scores. The reasons why students chose some words over others can only be assumed. For instance, it is possible that some students would favor words that they felt would challenge their peers, and others might choose words that they already knew in order to reduce the study burden. This is yet one more variable that lies beyond the scope of the present study.

In short, there are various confounding variables involved and any one of them might have had an impact on the posttest scores that the statistical analysis used cannot detect.

On the other hand, considering the results of the Tests-Only group is equally important. The fact that their scores were significantly higher compared to the other groups coupled with the overwhelmingly positive appraisals given on the survey both indicate that continuing to use the testing format while subjecting it to action research or perhaps formalized laboratory inquiry is a worthy pursuit.

To conclude, the results and statistics were mixed: One group using the Tests performed very well, and another with the Tests and Review activities performed no better than the control group. The reasons for this difference are unclear because the statistics cannot assist us in identifying and measuring the qualitative differences between the groups. Nevertheless, because the Tests-Only group seemed to benefit a great deal from the testing format and the use of the NAWL, it is possible to recommend experimenting with this testing format to others who desire that their students engage with and learn more academic lexis.

## Limitations

While the test format and the NAWL were highly appraised by the students in the Tests-Only group, one might worry about students' beliefs regarding language learning being used to advise curriculum. It is nevertheless important to consider what they say given that students arguably have the most at stake in a Japanese university setting.

Additionally, even though the Tests-Only group performed significantly better on the posttest, we cannot claim that the testing format encouraged or facilitated long-term retention of the vocabulary. It is possible that students simply became better at taking the tests themselves as opposed to actually acquiring the words (e.g., process of elimination in multiple choice questioning).

Unequal exposure to the words was touched on in the discussion section, but it is worth reiterating this point. We expected that students in both treatment groups would have similar scores, and one possible explanation is unequal exposure on account of the quizzes being student-created. Because the quizzes made by the students were not the same between groups, this could call our reliance on a standardized posttest for comparative analysis into question. In other



words, if students in both groups were exposed to the exact same vocabulary appearing on the posttest to differing degrees, then the results of the posttest are suspect and unreliable. Caution should be exercised if attempts are made to extrapolate any of the results of this paper.

### Conclusion

Although this study's results and analysis do have some glaring weaknesses, the authors' goal is not to create a perfect instrument for assessment. Rather, we are attempting to improve upon the vocabulary component of the Foundational Literacies course by drawing on a corpus-based, academic word list (NAWL) and by empowering students to be able to choose which words they would like to engage with and learn more deeply. In these goals, we have been largely successful. Finally, it is the hope of the authors that other second-language teachers and researchers will also take charge by experimenting with and reporting on the vocabulary learning and studying methods that they use in their own courses.

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# Developing a New Locus of Control Instrument: The Abridged Kambara Scale

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This paper reports on the results of a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using survey data collected with an abridged version of the Kambara Locus of Control Scale (K-LoCS; 1982, 1987). Previous work on the K-LoCS, using CFA (Rupp, 2016a), exploratory factor analysis (EFA; Rupp, 2017b), and qualitative focus group studies (Rupp, 2016b), all provided evidence that a modified and abridged K-LoCS may produce scores with improved psychometric properties. A subset of items, informed by findings in the previous work, was assembled under a two-construct measurement model, and this model was tested a priori, using a new dataset ( $N = 211$ ). The results, in terms of the  $p$  value for the chi-square and the model fit indexes, indicated considerable improvement over results in previous studies.

本論文は短縮型の鎌原氏のローカス・オブ・コントロール(統制の所在)尺度 (K-LoCS; 1982, 1987)、によって収集した調査データの確認的因子分析(CFA)結果を報告するものである。以前鎌原の尺度を対象した研究の CFA(Rupp, 2016a)、探索的因子分析(EFA; Rupp, 2017b)、及び定性的なフォーカス・グループ法(Rupp, 2016b)の全ての研究結果が尺度の変更と短縮することによって尺度から得られるスコアの心理測定的に改善見込みがある証拠を示した。以前の研究の結果を考慮した一部の項目を集め二つ構成概念モデルを構築して新データ・セット( $N = 211$ )を分析・検証した。結果は、カイ二乗及びモデル・フィット指数の  $p$  値に関して、これまでの研究結果よりも著しく改善されたことが示された。

Locus of control (Rotter, 1966) is a psychological construct in which people are seen to vary along a continuum ranging from internal locus of control (I-LoC) to external locus of control (E-LoC). An internal orientation is associated with a belief that outcomes in one's life are mostly due to internal factors and are within one's own control. Conversely, an external orientation means that one tends to believe that it is factors beyond one's control which dictate the course of one's life. These external factors might include such things as fate, luck, and influence from other people, among others. This construct has an important place in the field of language teaching and learning, because having a high degree of I-LoC is arguably aligned with having a strong sense of personal agency and self-efficacy and a greater degree of learner autonomy (Oxford, 2003; 2008); of course, these are qualities which are seen as beneficial to language learners. A number of studies with EFL students have demonstrated a correlation between a high I-LoC orientation and more successful

language learning outcomes (Chang & Ho, 2009; Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2012; Ghonsooly & Moharer, 2012; Ghonsooly & Shirvan, 2011; Peek, 2016).

In the Japanese context, the 43-item Kambara Locus of Control Scale (K-LoCS43, Kambara, 1987) has had a presence in the literature for many years. The 43-item scale has its roots in an earlier 18-item scale (K-LoCS18; Kambara, 1982) and represents significant lengthening of the original instrument by simply adding further items. Since its creation, the K-LoCS43 has been used in a wide variety of domains including, but not limited to, studies on employee psychology (Kanda, 2006), developmental psychology (Fushimi, 2011), and, more recently, in secondary-level English education studies in Japan (Hosaka, 2007). The construct of locus of control clearly has a strong notional relationship to learner autonomy (Oxford, 2003; 2008), and given that learner autonomy has proved difficult to measure (Horai, 2013a, 2013b; Macaskill & Taylor, 2010), Rupp (2016a, 2016b,

2017b) proceeded with a line of research into the psychometric properties of scores produced by the K-LoCS43, under the theoretical rationale that locus of control might stand in for an important aspect, or dimension, of learner autonomy. This work was conducted in the context of Japanese tertiary education, and it was initially necessary to test the model hypothesized for the instrument (both the 18-item and 43-item version) by Kambara (1982, 1987) using CFA. To date, such a test had not been conducted anywhere in the literature and in any domain; only EFAs had been conducted (Kambara, 1987; Hosaka, 2007). Scores produced by the K-LoCS43 were shown to have poor fit (Rupp, 2016a) with the model hypothesized in a study of Japanese high school students ( $N = 1125$ ). A test of the 18-item version produced slightly better results than for the 43-item version, but were still unsatisfactory overall. These findings were later more fully explored through a focus group study (Rupp, 2016b) and an EFA-based analysis (Rupp, 2017b). The overall evidence from these various studies was combined in a mixed-methods analysis (Rupp, 2017a), which showed numerous areas of potential improvement for the K-LoCS43.

The results reported in this paper represent a continuation of this trajectory of research using new data. An abridged version of the K-LoCS43 was assembled by selecting a subset of items from the original scale. Previous research in the trajectory (Rupp, 2016a, 2016b, 2017b) had indicated that (a) the scale was too long, (b) items were repetitive and operationally redundant in cases, and (c) the 4-point Likert scale should be more refined. With respect to the length of the scale, other studies (Dragutinovich, White, & Austin, 1983; Ross, Kalucy, & Morten, 1983) on other locus of control instrumentation have reported better psychometric results after the number of items has been reduced in an instrument. Given this previous experience in the literature and the significant length of the K-LoCS43 for only two measured constructs (I-LoC and E-LoC), an abridged version was expected to have better prospects. The second point concerning operationally redundant items (i.e., near-repetitions of other items) corresponds with the first, because many of the items were not actually expanding the operational bandwidth of the two measured constructs. With respect to the third point, many focus group students

complained that the 4-point Likert scale was too restrictive (Rupp, 2016b), so for this study a 5-point scale was adopted. In order to reduce the number of items, five items per construct were chosen (see Appendix) under the criterion that they not be operationally redundant in terms of any other item. Additionally, and using results from the previous EFA (Rupp, 2017b), items which had better loading coefficients on the two factors representing I-LoC and E-LoC were selected. Finally, participants in the focus group discussions reported that it was more natural for the Likert scale to range from positive to negative; in other words from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Kambara constructed the Likert scale to range from negative to positive, and previous studies by Rupp (2016a, 2016b, 2017b) had preserved this formulation. In this study, the outcome from the focus group study was observed, and the scale was reversed to align with what participants had indicated a preference for.

## Methods

The revised instrument comprised ten items (see Appendix) for which the students responded on a 5-point Likert scale. Five items were hypothesized to measure the I-LoC construct (Items 02, 05, 06, 09, and 10) and five items the E-LoC construct (Items 01, 03, 04, 07, and 08). The survey was administered in Japanese, using the original Japanese phrasing from the K-LoCS43 for the selected items. The survey included a Japanese consent form informing the students of the voluntary nature of the questionnaire and that participation would not affect their grades. The abridged instrument created for this study was designated as the Kambara Locus of Control 10-Item Scale (K-LoCS10).

## Participants and Procedure

There were 213 total participants in this study with two responses removed for having incomplete data, leaving 211 usable responses ( $N = 211$ ). The data was collected from students attending three Japanese universities, two public (32%) and one private (68%). Males represented 55% and females 45% of respondents. Ages ranged from 18 years to 24 years with a mean age of 19 years. The majority of respondents (95%) were between 18 years and 20 years. The faculties represented were agriculture (35.5%), business

administration (20.4%), engineering (11.4%), literature (8.5%), and management (24.2%). It required approximately 5 minutes to administer the survey.

### Analytical Procedure

The data collected from participants was entered directly into IBM/Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS; Version 20). Descriptive statistics (means, score distributions, and normality) and reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha and the confidence intervals for alpha) were calculated using SPSS. The CFA was conducted with Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS; Version 21). Item responses were given numerical values ranging from 1 to 5 with 1 being *strongly disagree* and 5 being *strongly agree*. The data was first analyzed with a focus on univariate normality; i.e., skewness and kurtosis. The critical ratios for skewness and kurtosis were compared against two criterion levels (stipulated in advance). These levels were less than 3.0 (more relaxed), and less than 2.0 (more rigorous), with the latter assisting with identifying meritorious results.

With respect to executing the CFA and assessing model fit, the analytical procedure went beyond merely relying on the chi-square statistic and its associated probability level, because the various researchers in the literature caution that this statistic tends to over-reject models (Byrne, 2001; Hu & Bentler, 1999). In this regard, four indexes of model fit recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999) were adopted and used in triangulation. These included two absolute fit indexes (the SRMSR and RMSEA) and two incremental fit indexes (the TLI and CFI). An absolute fit index indicates how well the observed data fits the specified model, whereas an incremental fit index gives a comparison of how much improvement there is in model fit when the model specified is compared with a more restricted baseline model. It is important to note that these are indexes and not test statistics (like the chi-square), and therefore they are not interpreted in terms of probability (i.e., a *p* value), but rather are interpreted on a continuum using cutoff criteria that are empirically informed and available in the literature. The cutoff criteria for interpreting the values produced for the model on these indexes were adopted from Hu and Bentler's (1999) study. These were as follows: CFI, > .95;

TLI, > .95, SRMSR, < .08; RMSEA, < .06. These cutoffs were empirically derived, using a Monte Carlo or simulation analysis, and under the rationale of minimizing Type I and Type II error, that is, the mistake of rejecting a model when it should have been accepted or accepting a model when it should have been rejected. It is important to note that Hu and Bentler recommended using these indexes in triangulation. In other words, in order to claim model fit, a model has to satisfy the cutoffs on all of the indexes and not just one, or some, of them.

### Results

The results, presented below, are reported in terms of descriptive statistics for items scores, reliability estimates for the two subscales, and model fit assessment consequent to the CFA.

#### Descriptive Statistics

Table 1. indicates the means and standard deviations for each item. From Table 1. it can be observed that means tended to fall in the positive range (or agreement range); that is, above 3.0. Only Item 04 and Item 08 presented with means falling in the negative range (or disagreement range).

Table 1.  
*Item Means and Standard Deviations (SD) for Scores Derived on Items Comprising the K-LoCS10 (N = 211)*

Test items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Item 01	3.02	1.248
Item 02	4.09	1.036
Item 03	3.69	1.116
Item 04	2.55	1.184
Item 05	4.09	1.000
Item 06	3.61	1.227
Item 07	3.04	1.294
Item 08	2.33	1.332
Item 09	4.43	0.925
Item 10	4.14	0.993

Table 2. shows the critical ratios for skewness and kurtosis for each item. Skewness and kurtosis are essentially measures of the spread or distribution of scores. If, for example, there

were an excessive number of responses around 4 or 5 on the Likert scale and very few around 1 or 2, the data would be positively skewed, and an associated loss of information would occur because part of the scale is essentially not used, meaning that variability does not extend into this part of the scale. Kurtosis is similar to skewness, but refers more precisely to the extent to which distribution is concentrated towards the means, and if it is excessive, it is also associated with a general loss of information. The asterisks indicate whether the absolute value of the critical ratio fails to meet the more relaxed criterion of 3.0 (two asterisks) or the stricter criterion of 2.0 (one asterisk).

Table 2.  
*Values for Critical Ratio for Skewness and Kurtosis*

Test item	Skewness	Kurtosis
Item 01	-0.802	-3.778**
Item 02	-6.683**	1.562
Item 03	-4.359**	-1.087
Item 04	4.024**	-1.465
Item 05	-7.533**	3.913**
Item 06	-3.778**	-1.877
Item 07	-0.503	-3.691**
Item 08	4.120**	-2.351**
Item 09	-12.455**	13.285**
Item 10	-7.323**	4.003**

Note. \*Item is skewed at a threshold of 2.0.

\*\* Item is skewed at a threshold of 3.0.

As can be seen in Table 2. only two items met the threshold for skewness of 2.0, with the remaining eight items all failing to meet even the more lenient threshold of 3.0. In general, it can also be seen that there is a tendency for negative, rather than positive, skewness. With respect to kurtosis, four items met the 2.0 threshold, with the remaining six items failing to meet the 3.0 threshold. With a 5-point Likert scale, the data may be considered rather coarse for this sort of analysis, but it is clear that the distributional properties of scores on many of the items is not satisfactory and is contributing to information loss.

Multivariate normality was assessed using Mardia's coefficient (16.53), and this was relatively high indicating

nonnormality. Multivariate normality becomes important when the statistical procedures to be conducted are multivariate rather than univariate, and CFA (the centerpiece of the analysis in this paper) is a multivariate technique. The multivariate nonnormality found in the data affected the subsequent CFA procedure through the decision to use the Bollen-Stine bootstrap procedure (Bollen & Stine, 1992), which assists in accommodating for these negative distributional properties of the data.

### Reliability Estimates

Although the CFA that follows is the more powerful analytic tool with respect to assessing the structural or dimensional properties of the scores produced by the K-LoCS10, Cronbach's alpha was also calculated. This was calculated in terms of the value derived for alpha (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) on each subscale (I-LoC and E-LoC), as well as the associated confidence intervals for alpha (95%). Reporting of confidence intervals was recommended by Fan and Thompson (2001), and these intervals are important because they express the range within which the true value, or population value, for alpha lies, with an associated level of confidence (usually stipulated as 95%). One benefit of this is the possibility of more accurate comparisons of alpha results across different studies. In terms of Cronbach's alpha, the results were as follows (95% confidence intervals in brackets): .53 (.43 - .63) for the I-LoC subscale and .68 (.60 - .74) for the E-LoC subscale. These values are not satisfactory.

Typically, .70 is taken as a rule-of-thumb cutoff for interpreting alpha, with values below this threshold indicating an unsatisfactory result. However, the value for alpha is also positively biased by the number of items appearing in the subscale, and thus the rule of thumb needs to be treated with considerable care in these results, because the number of items in each subscale of the K-LoCS10 is only five, which is very few.

### CFA Model Results

The model tested was based on the original conception of the instrument wherein items are hypothesized to measure either I-LoC or E-LoC, with the difference here being the reduced number, and particular selection, of items. A two-factor correlated model tested. The model had 55 distinct sample

moments with 21 distinct parameters to be estimated and therefore 34 degrees of freedom (55-21). This met the criterion of overidentification; a criterion which has to be met for a model to be testable. The chi-square value was 49.64 with an associated probability level of  $p = .04$ . This is a relatively positive outcome because according to the logic of CFA, which is counterintuitive to usual statistical thinking, models are rejected when you get a significant result, because this means that the hypothesized model is different from the dimensionality of the data and thus does not fit (Byrne, 2001). In the case of this result, and if we presume a threshold of  $p < .05$ , the probability level was almost nonsignificant. This means that only slightly better properties in the data would have resulted in model fit according to this criterion, that is, if the  $p$  value had risen to above .05. This result is also much better than that achieved in Rupp (2016a), where the chi-square was 4344.26 with an associated probability level of  $p = .000$  and much further away from rising above a  $p$  value of .05. However, it should be noted that the previous study used a larger sample, which affects statistical power. In other words, a larger sample makes the chi-square test more sensitive and more likely to reject models, which is another reason why the indexes reported below are necessary.

The results for the model indexes were as follows, with cutoffs (Hu & Bentler, 1999) provided in parentheses: TLI = .90 (> .95); CFI = .93 (> .95); RMSEA = .05 (< .06); and SRMSR = .06 (< .08). We can see that the absolute fit indexes, RMSEA and SRMSR, both indicated model fit, however the incremental fit indexes both narrowly failed the model fit criteria. In fact, under an earlier version of Hu and Bentler's work (Hu & Bentler, 1998), the TLI and CFI results would have indicated fit because the cutoffs at that time were recommended to be .90. In the case of CFA, however, and as mentioned above, results of the various indexes must be triangulated; under this direction, the model cannot be said to fit, because results were not satisfactory on all indexes at once. However, the departure from model fit in terms of these indexes is relatively narrow. This interpretation of narrow departure from the model is further supported by the results from the Bollen-Stine Bootstrap procedure (Bollen & Stine, 1992), which was adopted to accommodate for the nonnormal properties of the data. In

terms of this procedure, the model fit better in 444 bootstrap samples and fit worse in 56 bootstrap samples, and the associated probability level for this analysis was  $p = .114$ , which is nonsignificant, and thus indicates model fit according to the inverse logic for CFA discussed above.

## Discussion

A triangulation of the CFA indexes of model fit indicated that the model did not quite meet the requirements for acceptance as a plausible explanation of the dimensionality of data generated by the K-LoCS10. However, in comparing these results with the previous CFA results for the widely used K-LoCS43 (Rupp, 2016a), it is also clear that progress has been made in improving the scale and that the information gained from the focus group study (Rupp, 2016b) and the EFA (Rupp, 2017b) have contributed towards this result.

In the case of the K-LoCS43, from which this abridged instrument was created as a potential replacement, the chi-square value was 4344.26 ( $p = .000$ ), indicating rejection of that 43-item model. Notably, the chi-square was much smaller in this study (49.64) and the associated probability level ( $p = .04$ ) closer to nonsignificance, which in the logic of CFA is desirable, because a nonsignificant result indicates model fit. The fit indexes for the K-LoCS43 (Rupp, 2016a) were also significantly worse than those derived for this abridged version of the instrument (for ease of inspection, those derived for this study are in square parentheses and cutoffs are in round parentheses): TLI = .60[.90] (> .95); CFI = .62[.93] (> .95); RMSEA = .06[.05] (< .06); and SRMSR = .07[.06] (< .08). The improvement in the absolute fit indexes (TLI and CFI) is quite noteworthy. The older version of the K-LoCS43 with 18 items (K-LoCS18) had also been previously tested (Rupp, 2016a), and similarly failed the chi-square test with a value of 967.20 ( $p < .01$ ). Index values for the old 18-item version were as follows: TLI = .71 (> .95); CFI = .75 (> .95); RMSEA = .07 (< .06); and SRMSR = .07 (< .08). These are slightly better than for the 43-item version on the incremental fit indexes, slightly worse for the RMSEA, and the same for the SRMSR. However, the results for the CFA in the present study register an improvement on the older 18-item version as well.

One analysis of the progression of fit indexes, for the 43-item and 18-item versions in Rupp (2016a) and for the 10-item version in this study, would appear to be that the shorter the scale, the better the results with regards to the fit indexes. This has explanatory value to the extent that long instruments lead to fatigue, false answers, and pattern responses. Participants may be able to give more thoughtful and sincere answers when not feeling harried by numerous questions. The K-LoCS43 is indeed a long instrument.

Overall, it would appear that the nonnormal distributions of scores present a continuing problem for this iteration of the instrument in the continuing trajectory of its abridgment and revision. One possible solution to this, in terms of future research, would be to slightly rephrase certain items, which in the worst cases can read like truisms which are hard not to endorse, so that better distributional properties are obtained. This would proceed beyond revision of item selection to actual revision of the items themselves. Another solution would be to further extend the length of the Likert scale to 6 points, in an even greater accommodation of results which came out of the focus group study (Rupp, 2016b).

This endeavor to refine the K-LoCS43, which has a significant presence in the literature, to arrive at a measurement model with plausible fit to the dimensionality of scores it produces is not complete but significant progress has been made. In the absence of good measures of learner autonomy, an evidence-based approach to developing and refining other instruments that have clear notional and theoretical relation to learner autonomy, like locus of control, is imperative. This provides alternatives to measuring learner autonomy more directly and also provides avenues for the theoretical and empirical elaboration of learner autonomy, provided, of course, that these notionally associated constructs can be measured appropriately.

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## Appendix

The 10 items of the K-LoCS10 (Rupp's translation into English followed by original Japanese) along with indications of internal (I) and external (E) locus of control, followed by the original item number in parentheses from the K-LoCS43.

Item 01	E	It is best just to go with the flow. (1 E) 何でも成り行きまかせが1番だ。
Item 02	I	My happiness depends on my own efforts. (13 I) 幸福になるか不幸になるかは、自分の努力次第だ。
Item 03	E	My future depends on luck and chance. (15 E) 自分の将来は運やチャンスによって決まる。
Item 04	E	I cannot change what happens to me. (16 E) 自分の身に起こることは自分の力ではどうすることもできない。
Item 05	I	If I am careful about my actions, people will trust me. (19 I) 自分の行動に注意していればいずれは人から信頼される。
Item 06	I	If I work hard, I can get the job I wish for. (21 I) 努力すれば希望の職につくことができる。
Item 07	E	Maintaining long friendships depends on the situation. (27 E) 友人とのつきあいが長く続くかどうかは周りの状況による。
Item 08	E	We cannot change how smart we are. (33 E) 頭の良し悪しは変えることはできない。
Item 09	I	I can get a much better result on tests if I plan my studies. (38 I) 前もって計画的に試験勉強をすれば結果はずっと良くなる。
Item 10	I	If I am kind to my friends, someday they will help me. (42 I) 友人に親切にしていればいつかは友人に助けられる。

### Authors' Biographies

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# Students as Content Teachers: Peer-Taught Lessons in EFL Classes

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This paper outlines a way to engage learners and promote real communication through the use of peer-taught mini lessons. After a brief background and rationale, the author details the steps for implementing a project in which students serve as content teachers on a topic they are knowledgeable about. During the planning and presentation of the lessons, the teacher acts as a guide, scaffolding the students through the process. Both motivation to communicate and engagement with the course content improve during this project. This activity can easily be used in a variety of contexts and classes, both content-based and language-based, and is recommended for any teacher who wants to help students improve their understanding of course content as well as their confidence in the second language.

本稿では、小規模共学習を介した、学習者を授業に惹きつけ、言語によるコミュニケーションを促進する方法を紹介する。本活動では、学習者である学生は、自身の見識ある情報を共学習者である学生に対して発表する。その企画や発表準備過程において、教師は学習者がそれを達成するための土台作りを援助する。学習者のコミュニケーションをとるためのモチベーションや発表のための準備に対する努力は、本プロジェクトの価値を高め。この活動は、言語習得目的に関わらず多くの授業などで簡単に利用でき、学習者の授業内容の理解と第二言語の習得を願う教師に薦めることができる。

The author teaches a content-based university course in English in which there is almost no explicit language instruction. This elective course, entitled “Discussing Entertainment,” covers basic topics in art, music, and film appreciation. It is usually a small class with fewer than 16 students from departments throughout the university. The first time this course was taught, the instructor selected all the topics, and they seemed to be enjoyable for the students. However, it quickly became apparent that the students were even more interested and engaged when discussing artists, musicians, and movies that the instructor was not familiar with. While they enjoyed lessons on Beethoven, Miles Davis, and The Beatles, they were the most energetic when given the opportunity to discuss their interests in Taylor Swift, EXILE TRIBE, and AKB48, for example.

Students seemed to almost instantly overcome any shyness or lack of confidence when talking about their favorite entertainment. As the author’s ultimate objective is

to build students’ comfort using English communicatively, making use of their enthusiasm in class was a natural next step in meeting this goal. The author thus began a class project in which students design and teach mini lessons on a film, artist, or musician that they are passionate and knowledgeable about. After guided planning and preparation, students are able to teach a 20-25 minute content lesson to their classmates. Overall, this has been a highly successful activity that is recommended for a variety of contexts.

## Content-Based Instruction

Content-based instruction (CBI) is a general term for a variety of approaches to language teaching in which language and content instruction are integrated. Instructional approaches falling under the umbrella of CBI range from the heavily content focused (e.g., total immersion), to supportive language courses provided alongside content courses, to language classes organized into thematic units (Brinton &

Snow, 2017; Lyster & Ballinger, 2011). CBI provides a variety of benefits for language learning in both ESL and EFL contexts as it supplies authentic input and numerous opportunities for negotiation and production of meaningful output (Brinton & Snow, 2017). Content-based courses present a context for students to use the target language in a highly communicative and meaningful way. The more meaningful content is emphasized in the classroom, the less students focus on language form and instead focus on the meaning of the language, resulting in greater interest and motivation (Amiri & Fatemi, 2014).

Not only does CBI support language acquisition, it has also been found to enhance critical thinking ability (Tsai & Shang, 2010). Learners are given many opportunities to connect new information to their existing knowledge, and they are asked to explore the information from different perspectives. When students are presented with increasingly challenging content in CBI courses and asked to reproduce what they learn, they are able to engage more deeply with the information (Kong & Hoare, 2011). This deep content processing leads to deeper engagement with the language and a deeper understanding of the relationship between language form and meaning.

### **Peer-Taught Lessons**

Classmate tutoring and peer-taught lessons have been used successfully in a variety of contexts (Stigmar, 2016). When students are required to teach other students, they are required to think more critically about the content and process it more deeply than in traditional teacher-led lessons (King, 2002). The students have to decide what aspects of the content to cover, how to teach it, and how to solve problems that might arise during their lesson. Mastery of content knowledge is thus one of the greatest benefits to having students teach others (Mynard & Almarzouqi, 2006). Students are rarely required to learn content as deeply as they do in the process of planning and teaching lessons to their peers.

In addition to improved content knowledge, well-planned peer-led lessons can also result in greater motivation and improved willingness to participate (Assinder, 1991). In the foreign language classroom, this means increased use of

the target language to communicate. In the process of teaching content, learners must use the language communicatively to help their peers, resulting in improved second language skills in addition to deeper knowledge of the subject they are teaching (Luk & Wang, 2011; Mynard & Almarzouqi, 2006). In the present course course, the first few weeks are spent with the instructor teaching content and using the entertainment-related language students will need to teach their own lessons later. The students are therefore able to combine the language that they have heard their instructor use in class with their prior knowledge in order to teach their classmates about a topic.

## **Methodology**

### **Introducing The Project**

The present project typically takes parts of two to three classes to plan. The amount of time spent on each step depends on the proficiency level of the students and the size of the class. As an introduction to this project, the last 20 minutes of one class are reserved for explaining the goals and planning process to the students. In this introduction class, the instructor guides them through brainstorming potential topics to be covered in their lesson. For example, if the teaching project for a given semester is to introduce a musician the class is not familiar with, a timer is set for 3-4 minutes and students are asked to make a long list of musical artists that they enjoy listening to.

After the students have listed their favorite musicians, they circle the ones that they think their classmates do not know about. They are then asked to choose the one among these that they are most knowledgeable about. Next, students share their choices with their classmates to check whether the musician is unfamiliar to the group. Commonly listed artists in recent semesters include Maroon 5, Justin Bieber, Morning Musume, and RADWIMPS. Typically, most of the musicians listed are familiar to the group, but there are always also less well-known groups listed. For example, topics selected in the most recent semester of this class included groups such as Busted, The Chopsticks Brothers, Green Day, and the Korean idol group TWICE. As a homework assignment, students are asked to learn as much

as possible about the musician before the next week's lesson and bring their notes to class.

### **Modeling and Planning The Lessons**

The following week, 45 minutes to an hour of class time are devoted to helping students plan their lessons. This class is typically started by asking them to write a content learning goal for their lesson. They are instructed to make this as simple as possible, the teacher explaining that more general goals will be hard to achieve in a short lesson. The students select the most important content that they want their classmates to learn, then they write a lesson objective statement beginning, "Students will be able to..." Example objective statements include "Students will be able to identify the stage name and mask of each of the members of MAN WITH A MISSION," "Students will be able to recognize and name the three most popular songs by TWICE," and "Students will be able to list the most important influences on Green Day."

On a planning worksheet (see Appendix), students copy their goal statement and write a plan for three parts of their lesson: presentation of information, practice with the information for their classmates, and an assessment of their classmates' learning. Before students complete the worksheet, the instructor presents a model lesson, drawing students' attention to each of the three main parts. During this planning class, the teacher also shows video clips of student lessons from previous terms and examples of materials that students have created. For lower proficiency groups, time is given in a subsequent class to practice teaching their lesson to a partner.

The planning worksheet prompts them to specify what they will do to execute each step. First, they list their goal statement, which will guide their lesson. Second, they determine how they will introduce the content in the first part of their lesson: "I will introduce the information to be learned by..." Students explain what they will do in the lesson to present the content. Third, the practice step begins: "I will lead the class in practice of the information to be learned by..." For this step, students are to design an activity that all students can participate in, either individually or in groups. Finally, students list how they will check their classmates'

learning of the information they presented. Students are given the option of assessing the learning of each student (e.g., with a written quiz) or the class as a whole (e.g., a whole-group game).

Because students in this class have never planned a lesson before, the teacher circulates as they complete their planning sheet and checks each step of their plan, guiding them towards more specific language. Before students leave class for the day, the instructor checks and approves each lesson plan. Occasionally, students who need extra help in this planning stage are asked to come to the instructor's office hour for more guidance.

### **Presenting The Finished Lessons**

Finally, students present their lessons on a pre scheduled day. This presentation typically takes place at least 2 weeks after the planning class so that students have ample time to prepare and practice for their lessons. Usually, three lessons per class are scheduled; although the students plan a 20 to 25 minute lesson, they sometimes take up to 30 minutes to complete. If there is extra class time after that day's lessons are finished, it is used to review content learned earlier in the semester or introduce the topics that will be covered in the weeks after the student mini lessons are complete.

By far the most common way students present information is by using PowerPoint and playing audio or video clips. In the practice phase of the lesson, students have given worksheets, made games for classmates to play individually or in groups, and asked the group to discuss questions they have prepared. The most common types of assessments include paper quizzes and whole class trivia or games. During the lesson presentations, the instructor sits with the class and acts as a student, only switching back into teacher mode to guide the students when they need it (e.g., "Would you like to call on a classmate to answer your question?" "Would you like to try explaining that a different way?").

### **Discussion**

#### **Avoiding Potential Difficulties**

As students are guided through each planning stage and the instructor is present during the lessons to facilitate as needed, students are usually able to get help working around potential

problems before they arise. The most common issue is that students choose a topic too broad to teach in a short lesson. Because the instructor spends the first few weeks of the course getting to know students' interests, the teacher is able to guide students to topics that they are an "expert" on and can help them choose a content learning goal that is specific enough to be covered successfully during their lesson time. Giving plenty of examples of presentation, practice, and assessment activities helps students to plan successful tasks for their lesson.

### **Quality of Student-Taught Lessons**

Overall, the students in this course have impressed their instructor with their creativity and ability to teach a simple lesson even with low English proficiency. Especially impressive is the variety of activities they create to use in their lessons. The author has used this project during five different terms, and it has been surprising to find that no two students have used the same method for the practice step. They are also able to lead the class in practice much longer than either the students or the instructor imagined before beginning this project. The interactive nature of the lessons seems to take some of the pressure off of the "teacher," and the students teaching lessons seem more confident with this format than with traditional presentations. As Assinder (1991) pointed out, increased confidence when teaching lessons to peers in this format may be due to the improved self-esteem that comes with being an expert on a topic. The learners seem eager to share their interests with others as well as proud of their knowledge of the topic.

Students are better prepared and practice more thoroughly for this project than for any other part of the course. This is likely due to the increased sense of responsibility and motivation student teachers have when they are responsible for the learning of their peers (Assinder, 1991; Mynard & Almarzouqi, 2006). To date, the author has only observed one unsuccessful student lesson; after the presentation, this student admitted that he had not taken time out of class to prepare or practice his lesson. This is the only project in the course in which the students who are presenting take the initiative to check the comprehension of their classmates and offer help as needed. The students participating as audience members also seem more eager to

engage with their peer teacher than when the instructor is leading a typical class. This may be attributed to the relative novelty of being taught by a peer (Luk & Wang, 2011). The students acting as learners ask more questions and are more willing to share their reactions or opinions without being prompted. It seems that having a classmate as a teacher is more interesting and less intimidating than having their regular instructor leading the lesson.

### **Student Feedback**

In a subsequent class, students are asked to answer a simple question about the project: "What did you think about the teaching presentation? As a presenter? As an audience member?" They are asked to write their response (in either English or Japanese) on a sheet of paper that the instructor later collects. With respect to acting as a teacher, students have responded overwhelmingly positively. Among the responses from the 10 students from the most recent semester's class, one typical comment was, "As a presenter at this class I got a chance to share my idea with other guys, and it also improved my English skill." Similarly, another student wrote, "It's good for me. I must try to talk English, so I think that my English skills improved!" One responder noted, "It's good education because when I work some society it's very important skill." Two students acknowledged that this project was challenging, with one writing, "When I teach something, I have to prepare so much." These comments are in line with findings of Bradford-Watts (2011) and Luk and Wang (2011), who found that even though this activity is difficult for students, peer teaching is a rewarding learning opportunity.

In response to participating as an audience member, comments were all positive. A common theme was about enjoying learning about new entertainment: "As an audience, I could learn some foreign singers and movies that I haven't known." Another frequent response was about learning more about their classmates, for example, "I had a chance to know the others." Students also mentioned liking the opportunity to practice listening to English, with one student writing, "I could put on listening ability to listen the presentation."

## Recommendations for Implementing Similar Projects

### Different Class Sizes and Proficiency Levels

This project works best in small classes. This course typically has between 8 and 16 students, but this project could be successful in slightly larger classes if students work in groups to prepare and teach their lessons. If students have lower English proficiency, it is helpful to break the planning stage into smaller parts spread out over more classes, give more examples of lessons and materials, and have them teach lessons of shorter duration. Advanced students typically need less scaffolding; they can plan their lessons with less instructor input and usually require less in-class planning time. They do not need as many examples and are often able to teach longer lessons. As Luk and Wang (2011) suggested, it may also help to schedule this activity as a final project after getting students used to talking in front of a group with presentations throughout the term. Working in pairs can also be helpful for nervous or lower proficiency students.

### Different Course Types

The success of peer-taught lessons over several terms and among learners with a variety of proficiency levels suggests that this will be an enjoyable activity to adapt for use in other courses. In coming semesters, the author is planning to use this project in non content based classes. In conversation courses, students will teach simple lessons about topics familiar to them (but not necessarily to others) such as their hometown or their hobbies. In classes with students from various departments, the instructor will have them introduce their classmates to something simple about their major. In classes where the instructor is required to use less-engaging textbooks, the author will ask students to learn a section of the course book (with instructor guidance) and teach it to their classmates.

### Conclusion

Common benefits to using peer-taught lessons include greater motivation, increased participation, and improved critical thinking (Stigmar, 2016). Students in the present course are more involved and enthusiastic and take initiative to analyze and discuss each topic more deeply with peer-taught lessons than with any other class project that has

been used in class. Further empirical research in this area might compare the volume of student speech during a teaching presentation with the amount of output produced during a traditional presentation. With adjustments, this project would be successful in a variety of both traditional language classes and content-based courses taught in the target language. This project is recommended to any teacher who is interested in engaging their students more deeply in the class content and encouraging use of the second language to communicate.

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## Appendix

Discussing Entertainment

Teaching Project Lesson Planning Sheet

Teacher: \_\_\_\_\_

Topic being taught: \_\_\_\_\_

### **Lesson goals:**

After this lesson, students will be able to: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

### **Presentation method:**

I will introduce the information to be learned by \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

### **Practice method:**

I will lead the class in a practice of the information to be learned by: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

### **Assessment method:**

I will check how well the students learned the information by: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_



# Using Modern Tabletop Games in Your EFL Classroom

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Games in the classroom have traditionally been seen as a reward after students finish their classwork, rarely as part of the actual work (Mayer & Harris, 2010). However, modern tabletop games, a far cry from the roll-and-move games of the past, can offer a highly interactive, collaborative, and communicative experience for the EFL classroom. While these games can also help students improve their interpersonal skills and develop their higher order thinking skills, perhaps the biggest benefit of authentic modern tabletop games in the EFL setting is their communicative nature. This paper looks at *cooperative games* and *social deduction games*—two genres of modern tabletop games in which communication is a key component of the game experience—and introduces an example game in each genre. The paper then describes ways in which teachers can use tabletop games to teach reading, listening, and speaking in their classes.

授業中のゲームについては、以前から課題を達成した後のご褒美として用いられてきており、ゲーム自体が課題として取り扱われることはほとんどなかった(Mayer & Harris, 2010)。しかし、最近の卓上ゲームは過去のすごろくゲームとは大いに異なり、英語の授業に導入した場合には、対話を促し、協力、コミュニケーションの機会を与えてくれる。最近の卓上ゲームは、生徒たちの対人コミュニケーション力や思考能力を高めるだけではない。英語の授業で導入する一番のメリットは、卓上ゲームのコミュニケーションを必要とする本質だと考える。今回はコミュニケーションが鍵となる協力を必要とするゲームと Social Deduction ゲームの2種の卓上ゲームを分析し、例となるゲームをそれぞれ紹介する。その後、リーディング、リスニング、スピーキングを指導する際の卓上ゲームの最も効果的な導入方法について述べることにする。

Many of us have fond memories of evenings spent playing classic tabletop games like *Monopoly*, *The Game of Life*, and *Clue*. While some of us would perhaps like to utilize these games in our classes, they tend to suffer from problems that in many ways render them unsuitable for the EFL classroom. Many classic games simply take too long to play, making it difficult to finish a game within a single class. The roll-and-move mechanics in many of the classics offer few opportunities for meaningful interaction between players, and often result in too much down time between turns. Player elimination, another common feature in older games, is another mechanic ill-suited for the classroom as it turns students into passive observers. However, modern tabletop games, also known as designer games, have successfully remedied many of these issues and offer a far more engaging and interactive experience (Nicholson, 2008; Mayer &

Harris, 2010). The problem of player elimination, for instance, has largely been done away with. Moreover, modern designs aim to ensure that all players remain engaged with the game experience throughout the game (Nicholson, 2011).

Since the early 2000s, we have been in a golden age of board games (Duffy, 2014; Hofer 2003). Thousands of new titles are published every year, and game designers are constantly creating more interesting and engaging game mechanics, even new genres of games. Some of these recent designs lend themselves particularly well to teaching English.

The aim of this paper is to illustrate why modern tabletop games can be great teaching aids in the EFL classroom. I will start by discussing the advantages and challenges of using designer games in class. I will then examine two particularly suitable genres of games for the EFL setting:

*cooperative games* and *social deduction games*. I will also briefly introduce two games, one in each genre, and look at the language skills students can practice while playing them. Finally, I will describe ways in which teachers can utilize games in their classes and show how games can be helpful tools when teaching reading, speaking, and listening, particularly within a task-based-learning lesson framework.

### **Advantages and Challenges of Modern Tabletop Games**

According to Henricks (2015), play is a fundamental form of human activity, and, as Harris (2009) asserts, engaging students to learn through play is hardly a new concept. In fact, tabletop games have been used for educational purposes for a long time. Monopoly was originally designed to educate the public about the evils of capitalism (Pilon, 2015). In the United States, organizations as varied as the Central Intelligence Agency, the Navy, and the Department of Agriculture use board games to prepare their operatives and analysts for real-world situations and tasks (Larson, 2017; “War Games,” 2015). But modern tabletop games can also have plenty to offer in the EFL classroom. They provide a social environment in which students interact and collaborate (Mayer & Harris, 2010).

Compared to many of the classics, modern tabletop games present a more open-ended play environment, rich in opportunities for negotiation and discussion. In this way, these games can “complement classroom activities and engage students in active learning” (Levine, 2008). There are often multiple ways to complete objectives and a wide variety of different strategies players can employ. Nicholson (2011) argued that games “in which the gameplay emerges from the content can create board game experiences that are vibrant, motivating, and provide opportunities for deep engagement” (p. 60). This open nature of these designer games is one of the qualities that make them powerful teaching aids (Mayer & Harris, 2010). According to Harris (2009), modern tabletop games challenge players to think critically through a sophisticated thought process that the games necessitate. He asserts that while playing, players engage in a research process in which they must apply skills like analysis, synthesis,

evaluation, and organization to information in order to construct understandings, draw conclusions, and create new knowledge. Well-designed games, therefore, demand the use of inquiry and information-processing skills from the players (Mayer & Harris, 2010). After all, players are constantly required to evaluate the ever-changing game state and the options available to them as the game progresses.

Another strength of modern tabletop games is their authenticity, and, as Oura (2001) argued, using authentic materials in class can be a meaningful experience for students. Nunan (1999) defined authentic materials as spoken or written texts produced in a genuine, communicative context; in other words, they have not been made specifically for teaching a language. Rulebooks, game components, player aids, and supplementary videos are all designed with one singular goal in mind: help players learn, play, and enjoy the game. Harris (2009) acknowledged the importance of authenticity, asserting that if teachers want students to immerse themselves in classroom games, it is vital to provide students with real games, as opposed to worksheets with dice masquerading as games. Similarly, Nicholson (2011) characterized this traditional question-and-answer model of dice-rolling classroom games as “one of the great failings in educational game design” (p. 60). Modern tabletop games provide players with opportunities to make interesting decisions (Levine, 2008) as opposed to random chance making those decisions for the player. Furthermore, modern designers place great emphasis on creating visually appealing games that look great on the table, which, combined with the tactile nature of these games, helps create a unique and engaging classroom experience.

One of the main challenges with tabletop games is the time it takes to play them. Harris (2009) argued that for a game to be suitable for classroom use, it must be played from the beginning to the end in about 40 minutes, including set-up and learning the rules. Large classes present another set of challenges. Very few games can easily accommodate groups larger than 10, necessitating the purchase of multiple copies of the same game or having some students engage in another activity while waiting for their turn. Observing students and making sure they speak English while playing a game can also

be a challenge. Students may switch back to their L1 if the teacher is not looking, but I find that pre-teaching some of the language required to successfully play a game can help remedy this issue. In general, I have found students to be more willing to try harder when they are genuinely engaged and immersed.

It is, therefore, critically important that teachers find games that are both thematically and cognitively appropriate for their educational setting. Finding games with suitable themes for your students is a manageable task due to the sheer number of games available. However, one of the challenges with modern games is their complexity (Levine, 2008) and especially those teaching young learners should bear this in mind. Finding games that both necessitate communication and challenge students cognitively without being so difficult that they cause frustration presents possibly the most significant hurdle in the way of successfully utilizing games in class. When searching for suitable games, the website BoardGameGeek ([www.boardgamegeek.com](http://www.boardgamegeek.com)) is an invaluable resource. It is an enormous database of tabletop games, documenting even the tiniest minutiae of virtually every game ever published. On BoardGameGeek, teachers can search for games based on factors such as their genre, theme, complexity, game mechanics, or playing time.

### Genres and Example Games

When using tabletop games in the EFL classroom, not all games are equal. Some genres of games are better suited for classroom use than others. In this chapter, I will discuss two genres that are suitable for language learners. I will also briefly introduce an example game in each genre—games that I have used in class myself. I considered the following factors when selecting the games: price, availability, playing time, and the language level required to play them.

The first category of games I would like to discuss is the cooperative game genre. While some older games like *Scotland Yard* (Ravensburger, 1983) feature some cooperative elements, truly cooperative games are a relatively recent invention. Cooperative games pit the players against the game. Players must work as a team to reach a goal or complete an objective, either winning or losing together.

Although cooperative games still often feature individual player turns, the collaborative nature of these games encourages players to plan their moves together. One player cannot solve the game on their own because players have access to different pieces of the main puzzle in the game and typically have unique abilities they alone can use, creating communicative gaps. Cooperative games, therefore, require players to share information and discuss, together as a team, the best course of action or negotiate towards a solution. According to Mayer and Harris (2010), the absolute necessity of communication in cooperative games makes them ideal for language-learning classes. Furthermore, they argue that cooperative games are especially effective at “building team skills and helping students see value in different opinions and approaches” (p. 113).

*Forbidden Island* (Gamewright Games, 2010, ¥3000, 2-4 players, CEFR A2+) is one of the easiest cooperative games to learn and, clocking in at 30 minutes, is relatively quick to play. It is suitable also for younger learners, both thematically and cognitively, but thanks to its adjustable difficulty level, it remains sufficiently challenging for adults as well. The small player count makes the game ideal for small classes, but thanks to its cooperative gameplay, pairing up does not significantly hurt the game experience. In *Forbidden Island*, players find themselves on an island trying to locate four legendary treasures. The island, however, is rapidly sinking into the sea and parts of the island soon become inaccessible. Players must discuss their options, make full use of their characters’ unique abilities, and work together as a team because every move counts. If players find all four treasures and make it back to their helicopter before the island submerges completely, they win.

*Forbidden Island* is excellent for practicing offering suggestions and giving opinions. The gameboard is in a constant state of flux as the island sinks further into the sea while the players desperately shore up key areas to maintain access to different sections of the island. The random nature of the sinking process leads to constant speculation, making the game ideal for practicing conditionals. The game is a non-stop barrage of conditionals like “If you move there now, then next turn I can...,” “You shouldn’t do that because if this area

sinks, we won't be able to...," or "If I go here, could you...?" Collaborative decision making is key, as players constantly formulate plans, evaluate them, and express agreement or disagreement. The cooperative nature of the game ensures that without good communication, players quickly find themselves in need of a life vest.

Social deduction games are another genre that can be effectively utilized in the language classroom. Most tabletop games feature at least some element of deduction, and in some games deduction is even the central element (Faidutti & Branham, 2000). However, social deduction games take deduction games a step further by introducing bluffing and deception into the mix. In social deduction games, or hidden role games as they are sometimes known, players are assigned secret roles and typically given a shared task to complete or a mission to accomplish. Some players, however, merely appear to be furthering the team goals while, in fact, actively working towards objectives of their own. The challenge comes from players trying to identify those working against them or their team, as the group discusses team goals and how best to accomplish them. Older classics in the genre like *Mafia* (also known as *Werewolf*) feature player elimination, thus making them less suitable for classroom use. However, modern hidden role games like *Deception: Murder in Hong Kong* (Grey Fox Games, 2015) have done away with player elimination altogether. Most social deduction games feature fairly simple rulesets and simultaneous, conversation-based gameplay. Social deduction games can often accommodate bigger groups of players, making them particularly suitable for classroom use.

In *Deception: Murder in Hong Kong* (¥5000, CEFR A2+, 20-30 minutes), players are investigators trying to solve a murder case. The twist is that the murderer is one of the investigators. Deception can accommodate up to 12 players, and if the teacher is willing to make a DIY version of a key component or two, there's enough content in the box to get two, possibly even three, games going at once. Despite the grisly-sounding theme, the game is silly rather than dark. Regardless, thematic appropriateness may still be an issue with younger learners. There are many different randomly assigned roles in the game, such as investigator, murderer,

witness, and accomplice, each requiring a slightly different play style. After the players have received their roles, the gameplay consists almost exclusively of discussion. One player, the forensic scientist, provides others with a steady drip-drip-drip of revelations, but the evidence is often ambiguous. Investigators try to interpret the clues, whereas the murderer's job is to obfuscate by attempting to steer the conversation away from the solution.

Deception excels at making players do their best to persuade others. Since the murderer could be anyone, players are all trying to convince others of their innocence. By comparing and contrasting evidence and the randomly assigned belongings of each investigator, players try to identify the murderer, the murder weapon, and a key piece of evidence left behind by the murderer. If the correct player, weapon, and key evidence are found, the investigators win—but each player gets only one attempt at solving the crime. If the murderer is successful in tricking the investigators to accuse innocent players of the crime, the murderer wins.

Cooperative games and social deduction games are ideal for English classrooms due to their highly interactive and communicative nature. In many games, like the two mentioned above, the gameplay itself revolves around conversation. The games provide students with structure and objectives, but much of the gaming experience—and the fun—is derived from the conversations players have as they navigate the game's challenges. However, not all games in these genres are suitable for classroom use; teachers must still make an effort to find games that work well for their group of learners.

## Utilizing Games in Class

In this section, I will describe different ways teachers can utilize designer games in their classes. Games are surprisingly versatile, and classes built around games can easily be modified to suit the needs of the students. Below I will give examples of how a game lesson can focus on reading, listening, and speaking.

### Rulebooks as Jigsaw Reading Tasks

Instead of teaching students how to play a game, students can learn the rules cooperatively through jigsaw reading tasks. In a jigsaw reading task, students are given different parts of a text. After reading their texts, students report back to their group, tell others what they learned, and, as a group, piece together the whole text.

Modern tabletop games have rulebooks that lend themselves well to this type of reading task. Most rulebooks consist of four distinct sections: the premise or idea of the game, set-up, game and/or turn structure, and end or win conditions. The sections on the premise and winning conditions are usually shorter and easier to understand, whereas the turn structure part tends to be longer and more complicated. Therefore, it is often beneficial to split the turn structure section into two parts or have two students work on it together. This also allows teachers some flexibility; while it may be worthwhile to have all students read about the idea or premise of the game, teachers may assign the easier sections to lower level students and have more advanced students tackle the challenging parts of the rulebook. Afterwards, the teacher can check understanding by confirming that the game has been set up properly, asking the students questions about the game, or even having the students prepare a short oral report on the basics of the game.

Jigsaws constitute a learner-centered, teacher-facilitated approach that fosters positive interdependence between students (Meng, 2010). Although this approach can take more time, it allows students to take ownership of the process of learning the game. The process of piecing together the rules of the game also provides an opportunity for meaningful communication with a clear, well-defined purpose.

### **Using Tabletop Gaming Videos for Authentic Listening Activities**

The rise of modern tabletop games has spawned a huge online community. Today, hundreds of blogs, websites, and companies are creating game-related podcasts or video content. On YouTube, for example, it is possible to find channels dedicated to game introductions, rules explanations, impressions and reviews, and play-throughs. For teachers,

these videos present an opportunity to supplement their game classes with authentic listening activities. Authentic video contents, according to Kwon and Kim, have positive effects on listening ability, particularly for learners of low proficiency (as cited in Song & Kim, 2010, p. 134). Although authentic listening materials can be more challenging for students, the scaffolding provided by the visuals and the context helps bring the difficulty level down a notch.

Starting a game class with a video introduction or impression can help activate schema by accessing students' prior knowledge of the topic or theme of the game and thus prime them for the main task. Instead of reading the rulebook, students can learn the rules by watching a rules explanation video, followed by, for example, comprehension questions or a group discussion to check understanding. In addition, listening activities based on video playthroughs provide a great way to introduce key vocabulary and useful phrases to students. Sometimes it can be beneficial to have the students play the game first—this way students are familiar with the game and the context for the language—and then follow up with a playthrough-based listening activity in which students are directed to pay special attention to key linguistic resources like signposting, agreeing and disagreeing, offering suggestions or opinions, and negotiation. Then, time permitting, students may play the game again, now armed with authentic language they gleaned from the listening.

Some of the online resources I have used are *Watch It Played*, *Shut Up & Sit Down*, and *TableTop*. *Watch It Played*, a YouTube channel by Rodney Smith, is great for concise rules explanations with helpful visuals. *Shut Up & Sit Down* ([www.shutupandsitdown.com](http://www.shutupandsitdown.com)) is a tabletop gaming blog by British tabletop enthusiasts whose entertaining game introductions, reviews, and play-throughs have generated a sizeable following in the gaming community. Their website is also a great resource for discovering new, classroom-friendly games. *TableTop* ([geekandsundry.com/shows/tabletop/](http://geekandsundry.com/shows/tabletop/)), a web series hosted by actor Wil Wheaton, focuses on play-throughs. Wil's short, often humorous introductions make for great primers.

### **Games as Communicative Tasks**

As mentioned before, modern tabletop games are communicative in nature. These games can also be utilized within a task-based framework as communicative tasks. Ellis (2009) has determined that tasks have four distinct characteristics. First, the primary focus of a task must be on message, not language. Second, tasks require some kind of a gap. Third, the language needed to complete the task is freely chosen by the learners. And finally, a task must have a non-linguistic outcome.

Modern tabletop games meet all these criteria. When playing games, the focus is always on conveying meaning: Players are communicating in order to escape from an island or to discover the identity of a criminal, for example, and not to practice grammatical structures or vocabulary. Likewise, games do not automatically give players the language to use while playing. Instead, the players themselves must decide which linguistic—or non-linguistic—resources to employ and how best to get their ideas across. Furthermore, the puzzle-like nature of modern games necessitates the formation of gaps. Prabhu (1987) has identified three different types of gaps: information, opinion, and reasoning.

Information gaps involve the transfer of information between two or more participants with access to different information. Reasoning gaps require students to analyze information available to them, derive new information from it by using reason and logic, and use it to resolve a problem or make a decision. Opinion gaps necessitate the expression of personal preferences, ideas, or feelings in response to a situation. Well-designed games make use of all three gap types. Games limit access to information, leading to information gaps and the need for communication. Reasoning gaps are a fundamental part of gameplay: Games constantly provide players with new information to process and analyze in order to solve problems or challenges. Opinion gaps stem naturally from information and reasoning gaps: As players are privy to separate pieces of information and thus come up with different solutions to the problems at hand, they must offer, discuss, and evaluate opinions and suggestions together in order to plan a move or reach a conclusion. Finally, games have two non-linguistic outcomes. The first one is simple: Were the students able to successfully

play the game? The second outcome is the result of the game and the events that occurred.

In the pre-task stage, short videos like the ones discussed earlier work well to activate students' prior knowledge or introduce key vocabulary and language. For the post-task review stage, I have found success with oral reports, discussions or stories based on the events of the game. Teachers willing to invest in a larger collection of games also have the option of having multiple groups of students play different games simultaneously. Afterwards, some students from each group can rotate, teach the rules to their new group members, and play another round. This makes for a great post-task activity as it truly checks students' understanding of the rules and content of the game.

## Conclusion

In the EFL classroom, games have often been used as a closer or a reward for students after they have finished the more traditional parts of the lesson, but very rarely as part of the actual classwork (Mayer & Harris, 2010). However, modern tabletop games can offer significant benefits in language classes. Modern games encourage interaction and communication, and their design ensures that players remain involved and engaged throughout the game. While these games can also help develop students' higher order thinking skills, their biggest advantage is their ability to foster genuine, goal-oriented communication. By combining games with authentic listening materials available online, teachers can create varied and effective lessons that enrich the students' classroom experience.

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# Multimodality and the Song: Exploiting Popular Song in the University Classroom

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ELT teachers have always been aware of the educational potential of music. Songs often embody values found in various cultures and subcultures, and, as such, can be used as tools to teach content-based material. This short paper looks at the use of pop songs in a four skills course that applied a multimodal approach to the analysis of songs. It aims to raise awareness of different modes found within a *pop song as a product* and the effects of combining them. Following a discussion of how multimodality connects to music, I explain how I used three songs to help teach three themes.

英語教育において音楽が持つ教育効果が確認されている。歌は、どのような形態であれ、様々の文化やサブカルチャーの価値を具現化しており、テーマ言語形式、世界観の肩幅を開く教材として広く認識確認されている。本研究の結果、営業英語教育において音楽を使用することは、生徒の興味を引き出すことができ、多くの生徒達は、彼らが感銘を受けた歌を通じて第二言語や文化に対する興味を探めることが確認された。本文では、日本の大学の授業で三つの歌が多様に使用された理由とその方法を考察する。

The song is a powerful tool to use in the classroom. Mainly used in fun and light activities that focus on lyrical meanings, it can support a variety of themes, projects or tasks. An individual song is chosen for its relevance to a teaching goal, but the linguistic meaning of the lyrics is only one way it communicates to us. It communicates aurally with music that suits or contrasts the lyrics, and visually through images in CD booklets, covers, and videos.

Lyric, sound, and packaging work separately, but together have a combined effect. The linguistic, aural, and visual modes of a song produce a multimodal whole, but if we isolate each mode and study their effects, it is possible to develop new insights into a song. This short essay considers how and why the song - as a multimodal text- can be exploited for teaching purposes. When seen as an artefact, a song or songs can be the focus of a class or a course. One song can illustrate an idea, represent a culture, or help evoke places or periods of time.

The study of song falls within the field of multimodality. Multimodal approaches to study consider

communicative situations as events which rely on combinations of forms to be effective (Bateman, Wildfeuer, & Hiipola, 2017, p. 17). When we listen to a song, we automatically attend to its aural and linguistic modes, but if we have purchased the song and communicate with it as a product, we engage with spatial, textual, and visual modes. The act of appreciating, consuming, and listening to a song is a deep, rich multimodal experience (Way & McKerrell, 2017, p. 14).

To simplify matters, we can say a modern pop song has internal *body* modes (i.e., linguistic and aural modes) and external *clothing* modes of packaging and promotion (i.e., spatial, visual, and textual). We might say it is a body made more attractive when fully clothed.

## Internal and External Modes

A student will become interested in a song, therefore, because of its body and clothing. S/he may become interested in one song because of its sound-based impact but interested in another because of the visual-based impact of the artwork or the video. A few years ago, many students



were enthusiastic fans of the British band, One Direction. Was their popularity due to an appreciation of their body of songs, or due to the carefully designed clothing of their product? Almost certainly it was both. Their songs communicated strong messages in both internal and external modes. Knowing this, a focus on a song (or songs) should hold potential interest with students. By analysing different modes, students may be inspired or stimulated to see new things within a song. The combination of multimodal effects may even lead us to see its essence.

Only a few generations ago, young people discovered pop songs on the radio. With that medium, a listener had no choice but to focus on internal modes. The present generation tend to discover songs online and on screen, a development which has increased the importance of external modes such as vision and gesture. A song's internal modes may still possess the most tangible communicative message, but the external modes communicate the first attraction. The physical appeal of a performer may provide the initial spark; an appreciation of product design may deepen the interest. The internal quality of a song may not be noticed until much later.

### **A Multimodal Approach Requires Multiliteracy Skills**

To encourage students to understand pop songs from a multimodal perspective we need to raise their awareness of multiliteracies. Multiliteracies is a pedagogical approach developed by the New London Group (1996) that asserts that teaching that covers multiple literacies or modes help students be prepared for life in the modern world. Each literacy has forms of expression that are related to an analysis of different modes. Multiliteracy is therefore related to multimodality. Knowing, performing, or studying a literacy involves the application, appreciation, and understanding of different modes.

Multiliteracy and multimodality both involve the search for communication and meanings within an artefact (Jewitt, Bezemer, & O'Halloran, 2016, p. 3). Thankfully, for ELT teachers, our students do not need advanced

literacy skills to study or critique the modes of a song. Students already critique images, lyrics, and performances of songs. They know that communication is multimodal. They know songs communicate meanings. They know that modes have specific possibilities and limitations. A teacher can build on their basic knowledge and explain why the study of combinations of modes (or semiotic resources) can lead to a fuller or deeper meaning.

The New London Group (1996) focused on five semiotic or meaning-making systems to talk about how meaning is created. Aural, gestural, linguistic, spatial, and visual modes all contribute patterns of meaning, and all are used with the song as a product. Aural and linguistic modes are found in its internal body; gestural, spatial, and visual modes in its external body. This can be shown with almost all songs in the modern world. One song that has proven popular with ELT students, *You Belong With Me* by Taylor Swift is a great example. It utilises multiple modes to create combined meanings. The body (lyric and music) provide ample meanings alone, and when combined with clothing (pose on the CD cover, choice of a font on the cover, the promotional video) a rich communicative effect is made. Some modes are more prominent and powerful modes than others, and a skilful teacher can find connections between modes to help students reconsider or deepen their understanding of a song.

### **Combining Modes**

Outside of ELT, a significant number of interdisciplinary studies have investigated how modes work together (e.g. Jewitt, Bezemer, and O'Halloran, 2016). There are three main approaches to multimodal research: systemic functional linguistics (SFL), social semiotics (SS), and conversation analysis (CA). SFL focuses on the organisation of language, SS on the agency of actors and on power relations, and CA on organisation in interactions. From these three, SFL and SS are the most useful when studying the song. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) have already shown how an SFL approach can help connect verbal and visual modes in analyses from still or moving images. This

and similar studies may inspire teachers to find ways to exploit songs in their own classroom.

As for social semiotics, Sellnow (2010) showed how music uses different modes to communicate rhetorically. She showed how discursual modes combine with nondiscursual modes to communicate and persuade. Lyrics are a construct of *virtual experience* and music is a construct of *virtual time*. Their interplay allow songs to function on a rhetorical level. Both vocals and music contain patterns of intensity and patterns of release that communicate emotional effects. If a lyric and music express similar emotions, the song communicates congruently; when they have contrasting emotions, they communicate incongruently.

Lyrics, however, provide more precise meanings than sound. The imprecision of music makes it necessary to use connotation signs or deictic signs to make meaning (Tagg, 2012, pp. 160-61). A promotional video can, however, provide even clearer meanings. It can build upon, ignore, or react against the bodily modes of a song. If the song lacks lyrical meaning, the video can combine modes and forge interrelationships. It can make narrow, defined meanings from a semantically ambiguous song (Moore, 2013, p. 14).

### The Course

Below I shall explain how I used a multimodal approach in a four skills music and communication course. The design of

the 30-lesson “English Workshop” course considered the following aims.

- i. The course will use a multimodal approach.
- ii. It will focus on combining the meaning of modes.
- iii. There will be five themes and 26 lessons based around each letter of the alphabet.
- iv. The five themes will be change, gender, literature, mode, and race.
- v. There will be a focus on themes of social power and protest.

The first aim covered the division between internal and external modes. It was easy to find resources on the Internet and in the author’s store of artifacts. The second aim relied upon knowledge of which modes best complemented another in a song. Because individual songs have modes that contrast, synthesize, and multiply a core message it is important to have a deep knowledge of the song as product.

The five themes were taught in 26 lessons over one academic year. Table one lists the first seven classes which were taught in alphabetical order, from A to G. The first seven classes include three songs discussed below: *Hurricane* by Bob Dylan, *Ain’t Your Mama* by Jennifer Lopez, and *I Feel Better* by Hot Chip. All three songs were taught differently, but all were taught using a multimodal approach.

Table 1. From A to G

Class Title	Example of song used	Main modes
A is for Androgyny	<i>Lola</i> by The Kinks	Aural, linguistic
B is for Boy Band	<i>I Feel Better</i> by Hot Chip	Aural, linguistic, visual
C is for Class	<i>Common People</i> by Pulp	Aural, linguistic, visual
D is for Dialect	<i>I Wanna Be Yours</i> by John Cooper Clark	Aural, linguistic, visual
E is for Evolution	<i>Freedom of Choice</i> by Devo	Aural, linguistic, visual
F is for Folk	<i>Hurricane</i> by Bob Dylan	Aural, linguistic
G is for Girl Power	<i>Ain’t Your Mama</i> by Jennifer Lopez	Aural, linguistic, visual

## The Songs

The discussion that follows focuses on three classes: F is for Folk, G is for Girl Power, and B is for Boy Band.

### F is for Folk: *Hurricane* by Bob Dylan

“Songs are unlike literature. They’re meant to be sung, not read. The words in Shakespeare’s plays were meant to be acted on the stage. Just as lyrics in songs are meant to be sung, not read on a page.” (Dylan, 2017)

Bob Dylan believes that song lyrics are not created to be read alone. They are created to be sung and not read as one might do for a poem. He stated this after being awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature, a prize many felt he didn’t deserve. In such a context, it is unsurprising that he distanced his texts from that of the full-time poet or novelist.

Lyrics are, however, a rich resource in our context. It is especially true with the folk song. The F is for Folk class began with a short reading on the meaning of folk and moved onto the role of Bob Dylan in American folk music. Electing not to use one of his celebrated acoustic songs, the teacher used his protest song, *Hurricane* (Dylan, 1975). *Hurricane* has a rich narrative that is challenging for any class. The lyrics alone are worthy of study. Prior to any linguistic analysis, however, the initial focus was on the record cover.

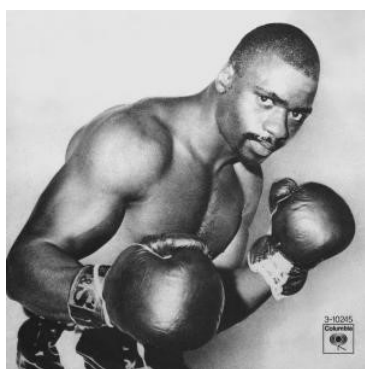


Figure 1. *Hurricane*: Rubin Carter. (Dylan, 1975)

The record cover uses a picture of the main character in *Hurricane*, Rubin Carter (see Figure 1). His pose and expression may act as a synecdoche for the overall message of the song. A student does not need knowledge about him, though, to make meaning. It is easy to imagine what the

picture could communicate and represent. This visual image can, therefore, be used to elicit responses from students. Rosenblatt’s transactional theory, usually associated with literature, is relevant here - as each student will respond to the picture according to his or her transaction with it. A teacher does not need to lead a class to a foreseen understanding; s/he will use the differences between students to craft out significant discussions or writings. Advanced students may come up with something like this:

“I notice a boxer in his physical prime. He is an athlete who wears boxing gloves and is ready to fight. His gloved right hand covers the centre of the bottom third of the picture. He stares at us but with a vulnerable look in his eyes. This may soften our perception of him. Spatially, his frame dominates the cover. Covering the page diagonally he commands attention.”

This could be the start of a semiotic analysis. Students will be primed to expect a protest song about a sport, a boxer, and, perhaps, an African-American. This priming will help them read the lyrics with intent. They can search for references to a character or a topic. Some may think it best to tell students the background to the story (an alleged account of racism and false imprisonment by the police) before seeing the cover, but because the lyrics are dense with imagery it makes sense for a teacher to present the storyline gradually. Beginning with visual input seems best. A teacher may even use the cover alone as a jump-off point to research cases of corruption and misuse of power. All of this can be done before listening to the song.

This analysis of lyrical and visual modes increase the chance of students forming understandings of the song. The teacher might also tell them of Dylan’s (2017) words in his acceptance speech for the Nobel Prize (see above), and discuss whether songwriting can be termed as literature. After listening to the song the class could consider whether there were contrasts, extensions or syntheses of meanings. It could consider whether some modes were more significant than others.

For literary and more advanced groups, there are other issues to be tackled. One is authorial intention and ownership. Bob Dylan wrote the lyrics to *Hurricane* with poet Jacques Levy, and his musicians came up with the music. We might ask how much of it belongs to Dylan. It is a question that can spark students off into an investigation of an artist's creative history and the notion of the ownership of ideas.

In Dylan's case, he has had indisputable control over songs that bear his name. A different picture emerges when we look at pop songs. It is not uncommon for professional songwriting teams to write for a singer whose contribution is a voice and an image. This seems to be the case with one song used in the G is for Girl Power class. How much of *Ain't Your Mama* came from Jennifer Lopez? It is an important question, as is the follow-up: Does the answer matter, anyway?

### **G is for Girl Power: *Ain't Your Mama* by Jennifer Lopez**

Jennifer Lopez is the singer of *Ain't Your Mama*, the face and voice of a song that was the product of a large team. Six writers wrote the lyrics (Trainor et al., 2015), and a professional filmmaker directed the video (Duddy, 2015). The lyrics concern a woman who is dissatisfied with her male partner. She states over 30 times that she isn't her partner's mother (ain't your mama) and voices dissatisfaction with his behaviour (playing video games, being late for work, complacency, and a lack of awareness of his luck to have her curves). She works, cooks, and does his laundry, while he lazes around and does little for her. The message is easy to understand and the lyrics have contracted words (ain't), new uses of words (crazy for deeply) and nonstandard American ethnolects.

The video, however, makes this song a useful one in the ELT classroom. The lyrics detail a woman's complaints, but the video is set to a backdrop of changing roles for women in the workplace. It shows how women have moved from traditional homemaking roles to more active managerial roles. This visual mode builds on the original

song and produces an equal or stronger message. As Lemke (2002) wrote,

Visual communication is at its most powerful, not when it retreats into the splendid isolation of an imaginary semiotic autonomy, but when it confronts verbal language head-on and challenges its hegemony, when it takes its place as an equal (and equally often as a leading) partner in multimodal communication. (p. 323)

Lemke referred to hypertexts, but his words may be appropriated to describe what happened when Cameron Duddy interpreted Lopez's song. Duddy did not synthesise the meaning of the lyrics; he transformed them into a visual text that could be an entry point into a discussion on feminism. The female characters in the video could be used to help describe the three waves of feminism (a floor-cleaning housewife from the 1950s, a sexually harassed office worker in the 1970s, and a beautifully-attired businesswoman from today).

Classroom use of this video, however, can begin with students reading the lyrics and summarising its meaning. Screenshots of the characters in the video can then be passed around with students requested to consider and discuss the potential roles of the characters. With *Ain't Your Mama* (and other videos) it is important for a teacher to scaffold understanding before viewing it due to intertextual barriers that impede understanding.

These barriers emerge at the start of the video with Lopez playing a tired-TV news anchor who is about to present the news. A Hillary Clinton speech on women's rights can be heard in the background while Lopez walks into the TV studio. Students are unlikely to realise it is Clinton; nor will they know that the studio scene parodies the 1976 US TV movie, *Network*. In that movie, a TV presenter has a meltdown live on air and screams that he is "not going to take it anymore." Lopez has a similar meltdown, but uses it to empower herself. Teachers who prime students to expect references to Clinton or *Network* will enable students to better understand the video. Indeed, the whole video resemiotises the lyrics. Knowledge of Clinton and *Network*

deepen cultural knowledge and what the song - as a product represents.

### **B is for Boy Band: *I Feel Better* by Hot Chip**

Students prepared for the Boy Band class by reading about the history of the modern boy band. Many students go through a phase of appreciating boy bands and most have an opinion on it as a genre. In an EFL class, an obvious choice of artist is One Direction or the Beatles when they were a boy band. In this course the song *I Feel Better* by Hot Chip was used. It is another song that has a video with a stronger communicative message.

Work on *I Feel Better* began with students listening to the opening section. A generic, expansive keyboard sound is heard before any lyrics are sung. It sounds like a typical boy band song with suggestions of love and romance. The opening lines confirm it: She said, "How did we get ourselves so lost?" And I said, "I don't know, but we will not be leaving tonight, tonight."

This opening is enough to construct a scenario. Students can envision the situation. They can consider what the content of the song will be about. Who is she and why will her friend not be leaving tonight? After students consider these lines, they are ready to hear the song or watch the video. In the video, we see a boy band, a crowd, a man in white, and a disembodied man of African ancestry. They each have identities that strike a chord in modern music culture. By giving students a picture of these characters, they will be able to predict what may happen in the video.

The video itself is original and striking. It is set at boy band concert at which the band perform to an enthusiastic crowd of screaming girls. The band stop playing when a white cloud signals the emergence of a new character. To the disappointment of the girls, a bald white man in shiny white robes moves toward the stage. Older and far less attractive than the band members, he could never be a boy band member. After much action on the stage, another character emerges at the end of the video: a disembodied head of a man who appears to be of African ancestry.

These are characters who represent tropes found in modern music. The boy band represent idealised handsome young men; the bald man is the antithesis of a boy band member, and the African may symbolise an authentic bluesman who helped create modern music. The video may be a comment on popular music today. A teacher need not inform students of what s/he thinks they represent, but by showing pictures discussion can be stimulated.

Students come up with creative readings of the song through pictures alone. By combining visual images with lyrics, students can strike into deeper veins of meaning. My students often claim the song is about a couple who are lost in love or lost in a city. They end up at a live concert where a robed man and a disembodied man fight over the girl. This is a conclusion that the final lines foster: "We are a violent race and we deserve what we get. When you hold me, when you hold me. I feel better, I feel better."

The video of *I Feel Better* is rich enough to be used alone. In fact, with the sound turned off, it can be used in a pair work exercise where one student faces the screen and dictates what is seen in the video. The storyline and expressivity of the characters make the external modes more important than the internal modes. Most importantly, though, the storyline opens up the opportunity to critique the boy band.

The video is of a live concert that falls into disarray. First, the white man in robes attacks the boyband, and later the disembodied head directs laser beams to destroy the concert hall. Students often wonder why such a video was made. Some believe the intention is to question the role of boy bands. Some male students respond by identifying with the robed man. One said, unprompted, that the saccharine image of boy bands alienated him and that he could understand the desire to destroy them.

As with all songs, there are several ways to get students to consider the multimodal construction. For *I Feel Better*, I gave the written exercises in Figure 4.

- 1 Describe the setting, characters, narrator, and events in *I Feel Better*. Where does the action take place and what are the main “events”? What and who causes these events? Does time change much in between the scenes?
- 2 Interpret the video in terms of morality or immorality. Why might the white man have felt that the boyband alienated him and represented something he disliked? Is this video a comment on the business of pop music? What or who might like this video?
- 3 What mode has the most powerful effect on you: the lyrics, the song, the video, or the promotional photos? Which modes work together and which modes do not? Try and describe a combined meaning of the song.

Figure 4. Written exercises for I Feel Better.

### Conclusion

Most teachers who use “the song” already use a multimodal approach. Too often though the focus remains on one mode, but as this short paper has shown we can use multiple modes in order to get a fuller picture of the communicative potential of a song. With time and the will, most ELT teachers could teach such a course. While it may be more applicable for higher level students or those interested in textual analysis, in an age when students focus on the visual over the word, it may be worth considering ways to use multimodality in the texts (and not just the song) we use with students.

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# A Case for Metaphor and Metonymy in the Classroom

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This paper presents a case for figurative language, particularly metaphor and metonymy, being taught in the classroom. It uses cognitive linguistic notions to demonstrate how figurative language can be conceptualised to make it easier for students to learn it. Teaching figurative language can be deemed important as it can have the knock-on effect of building students' vocabulary. Some practical examples of tasks that can be done in class are given.

本小論は修辞技法、特に授業で学ぶ比喩や換喩の一例を提示するものである。認知言語学的概念を用いて修辞技法がどのように体系化していくかを、生徒が理解しやすいように示すものである。修辞技法を教えることは生徒の語彙量を相乗的に増やす目的で重要とみなされている。授業ですぐ使える実践的例題も数例提示する。

Cognitive linguists (Croft & Cruse, 2004; Fauconnier & Turner, 2002; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) have contended that the knowledge used to understand language is highly conceptual and experiential; it is not limited to autonomous language cognition but linked to other cognitive faculties outside of language. Thus, an understanding of language and the concepts that it tries to convey stem from a (social) interaction with the material world. Language is grounded in lived human experiences and is crucial to reflecting how humans perceive, understand, and interact with them (Tyler, 2008). People do not rely solely on words as a means of conveying the whole idea as words provide only a limited and imperfect means of expression (Littlemore, 2011). Understanding what the interlocutor is trying to convey requires the listener to engage other spheres of knowledge to decode the message.

Langacker (2000) championed the ideas that grammar is conceptualisation and that there is a correlation between a language's grammatical structure and the way that a people conceptualise the world. Based on Langacker's supposition, it can be argued that aspects of grammar are not as innate or arbitrary as they appear but are rooted in a conceptual framework (Tyler, 2008). In other words, there is rhyme and reason as to why the language is constructed the way it is. If knowledge and awareness of the use of language

are rooted in experience, conceptualisation, and usage (Evans & Green, 2006), then at least experimenting with a cognitive linguistics (CL) approach may be of benefit to learners. Tyler (2008) advanced the view that "cognitive linguistics offers explanations that draw on learners' everyday real world experience by tapping into an intuitive reservoir of knowledge that facilitates an understanding of the systematic relationships among the units of language" (p. 462). In this paper, I seek to discuss the concepts of metaphor and metonymy and their role and implications in L2 language instruction as well as how teachers can use some cognitive linguistic notions to teach them.

## Why Metaphor and Metonymy

A refrain that might be frequently repeated by teachers when it comes to teaching abstract notions of language is, "I do not know. Just learn it as it is." However, CL may provide a solution to teaching these aspects because research has shown that some of the figurative conceptualisations behind these devices are *motivated*—they are there for a reason—and not arbitrary (Boers, 2000). The research (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008; Kovecses & Szabo, 1996; MacLennan, 1994) seems to strongly indicate that students who are exposed to the teaching and conceptualisation of figurative language have better retention of that knowledge. This is



accredited to the fact that interacting with figurative language encourages students to mentally engage in higher order processing. The engagement of a deeper / higher level of mental processing leads to better retention (Hedge, 2000). Thus, there is some merit in helping students develop their figurative competence.

Metaphor and metonymy may not be receiving due attention in the classroom because many teachers tend to view teaching them as a waste of time. This perspective may be attributed to the fact that metaphor and metonymy are most likely considered literary devices and not commonplace features of speech (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Littlemore, 2004; Littlemore & Low, 2006). However, work by the aforementioned researchers has shown to the contrary. It could be that teachers may not know how to develop their students' metaphoric competence, that is, their students' "awareness of metaphor and strategies for comprehending and creating metaphors" (Deignan, Gabrys, & Solska, 1997, p. 352).

It must be stated that when teaching figurative language, teachers will have to consider the level of the learner. Teaching students to understand figurative language may not be suitable for all levels of learners. It may be best geared towards intermediate and advanced learners or learners on examination courses, where a richer lexical knowledge is needed. Furthermore, metaphor and metonymy do not seem to be easily learnt incidentally. They seem to require a lot of explicit instruction on the part of the teacher (Boers, 2000; Littlemore & Low, 2006). Therefore, teachers would have to be aware of the metaphor, its motivations, and its significance.

Since CL contends that language is *motivated* and not *arbitrary* (appearing randomly), metaphor and metonymy are seen as key concepts in this field because they lie at the very core of how language is conceptualised and structured. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980),

"concepts that govern our thought are not just matters of the intellect. Our concepts structure what we perceive, how we get around the world, and how we relate to people. ... If we are right in suggesting that

our conceptual system is largely metaphorical, then the way we think, what we experience ... is very much a matter of metaphor." (p. 3)

The rewards that teaching of metaphor and metonym could reap in the classroom could be twofold. It could both offer students the higher level processing and engagement that they need to help them retain the new lexis better and assist students in coping with the abstract language notions of the L2.

## Metaphor

Metaphor can be considered a form of conceptual blending (Fauconnier & Turner, 2002). This entails the selection of elements of two conceptions that "are projected and integrated to form a third, which is often purely imaginative but nonetheless real as an object of thought" (Langacker, 2008, p. 71). Some examples of metaphor are: *Time is money*, and *I do not have time to waste*.

In metaphorical relations, "one thing is conceived in terms of another, and its primary function is understanding" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p. 36). It is the interpreter's role to determine how these concepts work together. For example, saying of someone, *he / she is bubbly* can be interpreted as a metaphor for being cheerful or being active. Abstract notions that are not easy to verbalise are conceptualised through imagery and can be done verbally through the use of metaphor (Langacker, 2008). In this example, the abstract notion of *state* is seen as a liquid in a container, which in this case, is the body. The **source domain** *liquid*, "the semantic field that is being used to describe the target" (Littlemore & Low, 2006, p. 272), is being mapped on to the **target domain** *state*, "the semantic field under discussion" (Littlemore & Low, 2006, p. 5) to bring two unrelated domains together to give the abstract notion more concreteness.

Grady (2007) stated that mapping is a key function in conceptualising metaphor and that "mapping refers to the systematic metaphorical correspondences between closely related items" (p. 190). An element is projected from one

conceptual domain into another. The mapping takes place from the **source domain** to the **target domain**. Grady (2007), however, cautioned that “the reverse metaphor is not possible, linguistically or conceptually” (p. 191). Even though it is quite possible to refer to a person as being bubbly, it would be rather strange to refer to a glass of water as being cheerful.

### Metonymy

Panther and Thornburg (2007, p. 240) defined metonymy as a “cognitive process that operates within one cognitive domain or domain matrix and links a given source content to a less accessible target content.”

Similar to metaphor, metonymy can be conceptual. However, it differs from metaphor in that metaphor represents the mapping of an element from one conceptual domain onto another separate and distinct domain while metonymy stays within the confines of “one cognitive domain” (Panther & Thornburg, 2007, p. 238) and “one entity can be used to refer to another” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 36). For example, *Chicago takes on Miami at 7 eastern, 9 central* illustrates the daily use of metonymy, especially when talking about sports. What is being referred to here is basketball teams. *Chicago* here stands in for the individual members of the basketball team from Chicago, the Chicago Bulls and *Miami* represents the individual members of the basketball team from Miami, the Miami Heat.

Another special feature of metonymy is the part of an entity can represent the whole. The following sentence highlights one such example. *The stadium was jumping for joy*, where *the stadium* represents the people that are inside of the stadium. As illustrated, figurative language is present in common everyday expressions and not confined to the scholarly or to literature.

### Metaphor, Metonymy and Their Applications in the ESL / EFL Classroom

An essential requirement to acquiring a second language is the building of vocabulary. As Thornbury (2002) aptly stated, “Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (p. 13). It is generally agreed that vocabulary learning depends on memorisation

and “if we accept there is a need for vocabulary instruction, then teachers should facilitate cognitively enriching engagements with the target vocabulary to help foster retention” (Boers, 2012). According to Schmitt (1997), research suggests that activities requiring a deeper, more involved manipulation of information promote more effective learning.

Nation (2007) outlined four key strands that he supports as being pivotal to good language instruction: meaning-focused output, meaning-focused input, language-focused learning, and fluency development. It is in the strand of language-focused learning that metaphor and metonymy may have their niche, particularly in the teaching of idioms, phrasal verbs, and polysemy (Boers, 2012). These aspects of the English language are especially difficult for L2 learners to master.

If there is a persuasion to agree with Lakoff and Johnson (1980) that language is highly conceptual and that conceptualisation is primarily based around metaphor and metonymy, it could be argued that it would be therefore wise to make students aware of such conceptualisations when the opportunity presents itself. If students are familiar with the concepts that underlie a particular language, this may help them in becoming familiar with how that language works.

Littlemore’s (2011) research into the use of metaphor in the classroom seems to augur well for its applications in teaching vocabulary:

Metaphor in the language classroom is significantly more effective than less systematic approaches to vocabulary teaching and those learners who have been subjected to such an approach are able to extrapolate from what they have learned to help them understand new vocabulary. (p. 91)

She seems to be suggesting that teaching figurative language in the classroom arms students with the tools to become autonomous learners. However, she cautions that more methodical research has to be effectuated to mark the long-

term gains that the approach of using metaphor in the classroom has on retention and production.

### Examples of the Use of Metaphor and Metonymy in the Classroom

There seems to be a strong correlation between teaching figurative language in the classroom and increased vocabulary input and retention, so this section will provide five activities that I have done in the classroom to get students to engage their higher thinking skills and to assist them in coping with figurative language. The focus will be on idioms, phrasal verbs, and polysemy (for reasons explained in the previous section).

#### Idioms

Biber et al. (1999) defined idioms as “relatively invariable expressions with meanings that cannot be predicted from the meanings of the parts. That is, idioms are expressions which have to be learned as a whole, even if we know the meanings of the individual words composing them.” (p. 988)

Even though it can be argued that some conceptual metaphors may be universal (Boers, 2012), students may be aware of the concept but may need to be made aware of the form as well because the concept may be expressed differently in another language. For example, in English, it can be said of someone who is extremely angry *he / she blew their top*. On the other hand, in Japanese this concept is expressed as *dohatsu ten wo tsuku*, which translates as *his / her angry hair spikes the heaven*. Illustrating the differences in form to students may impede interference from the first language. Moreover, Littlemore and Low (2006) highlighted the fact that “language learners may lack the cultural connotations that need to be activated in order to grasp the figurative meaning” (p. 273).

Glucksberg (2001) further supported this view by affirming that the students need not only become bilingual but also bicultural if they want to become fully competent in the use and understanding of figurative language. Teachers may feel hesitant in drawing students’ attention to the conceptual underpinnings of the senses of some words or phrases for fear of fossilising stereotypes (Lazar, 1996).

Besides drawing students’ attention to a different linguistic form of the idiom in the second language, it would also be beneficial to make students aware of its source domain. Boers (2012) opined that if students’ attention is methodically drawn to the source domain of metaphors and to vocabulary involving metaphor, their richness of knowledge of that language and their ability to recall it can be significantly improved. One of the activities that can be done to help students conceptualise the metaphors better is the grouping of idioms that share the same umbrella source domain. Allowing students to resolve the source domain for themselves may help improve their retention of the expressions. The following examples were chosen because they might be easier to visualise. The following is an example of a grouping activity that can be done in the classroom:

What is the source of origin for the following?

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He drove home the point.	We don’t always see eye to eye.
She does everything at full throttle.	I don’t see your point.
Liverpool is now in the driver’s seat at the top of the table.	You don’t see the possible danger.
Source of origin? (cars)	Source of origin? (sight)

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In this grouping activity, students are given some common conventionalised metaphorical expressions (idioms) governed by a similar concept and asked to identify the possible source domain for the expressions. Craik and Tulving’s (1975) psychological research on memory seemed to suggest that semantically processed stimuli engenders better memorization.

A variation of the grouping activity that could be done is an activity in which the teacher could present the students with a few examples of idioms within a text and ask the students to correctly match the idioms to their conceptualisation. For example, the students read the following sentence in a text: *The teacher barked at the student for not having done his homework*. At the end of the text, the

student has to choose the correct category for the idiom: ANGER IS FIRE; ANGER IS A HOT LIQUID; AN ANGRY PERSON IS A DANGEROUS ANIMAL. The teacher could focus on more than one categorisation of the idiom in a lesson.

## Phrasal Verbs

According to Biber et al. (1999),

phrasal verbs are multi-word units consisting of a verb followed by an adverbial particle (e.g. *carry out*, *find out*, or *pick up*). These adverbial particles all have core spatial or locative meanings (e.g. *out*, *in*, *up*, *down*, *on*, *off*); however, they are commonly used with extended meanings. (p. 403)

Phrasal verbs can be considered a bane for language learners and language teachers alike (Boers, 2000; Littlemore, 2004; Littlemore & Low, 2006). Boers and Demecheleer (1998) suggested that from a pedagogical standpoint it may be useful for teachers to explicitly draw the students' attention to the aspects of an adverbial particle's spatial sense that are especially relevant for its conceptual metaphorisation processes. For example, teachers can point out to students that MORE is UP; LESS is DOWN: *cut down expenses*, *fill up the car*, and *turn up the volume*; ACTIVE is UP; INACTIVE is DOWN: *shape up*, *look up*, *settle down*, and *listen up*; TIME IS MOTION: *reflect back* and *look forward to* (Kovecses, 2002; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Boers (2012) posited that the metaphors in these cases are *motivated* and not arbitrary and phrasal verbs can be given a sense of systematicity through teaching of the conceptual metaphor. When there is an increase, things go up, and when there is a decrease, things go down. Likewise, when something is active, it can be said to be up, and when inactive, down. Kovecses (2002) stated that past times are behind the observer while future times are in front of the observer. Hence, there seems to be some systematicity to the phrasal verbs.

## Polysemy

Fillmore and Atkins (2000) defined polysemy as the ability of a word to have multiple related meanings. The multiple

senses of a word have a central origin, the connection between these senses is related, and understanding the *inner* relationships between the words facilitates understanding the *outer* relationship.

The sense relation between polysemous words is often times metaphorical in nature. For example, *the head of a body* and *the head of a company*, or *the hand* and *give me a hand* are quite different, but the figurative use of the lexeme *head* in *the head of a company* or *hand* in *give me a hand* can be understood when mapped to the central origin meaning of *head* or *hand* as it relates to *head* or *hand* of a body.

Lazar (1996) gave some examples of activities that can be done in class to assist students in realising these conceptualisations. For instance, a teacher dealing with the topic of the parts of the body will be able to use that opportunity to introduce students to the metaphorical uses and senses of those words. As an illustration, the teacher can ask students to discuss the similarities between *the foot of the body* and *the foot of a mountain*. The teacher can also design riddles for students to solve using the parts of the body: *What has a mouth but cannot speak? \_\_\_\_\_* (Lazar, 2003, p. 9) \*a river\*

Teachers may give students a gap-fill activity and mime the missing words for students to fill in. For instance: *The politician used his rhetoric skills to s\_\_\_\_\_ public opinion* (the teacher mimes the word *sway*; Boers, 2012). These types of activities encourage engagement and semantic elaboration with the vocabulary, which may engender better retention and memorisation. However, the teaching of figurative language and the conceptualisations that support them do not have to be done in every class and not every expression lends itself to being explained easily through illustrating the root concept, but if the opportunity is there, it should be utilised. The explanations need not be elaborate. A simple mime, picture aid, gap-fill activity, or simple explanation would suffice.

## Conclusion

Language, it has been argued by cognitive linguists (Croft & Cruse, 2004; Lakoff 1987; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), is very

much interwoven into all facets of cognition and not a separate anomalous faculty. Much of how language is conveyed “is basically conceptual” (Croft & Cruse, 2004, p. 2). In cognitive linguistics, the significance of the conceptualisation of language is attributed to metaphor and metonymy. These “tropes are not merely ornamental figures of speech and writing, but they are crucially involved in human conceptualisation...they are rooted in human bodily experience and interaction with the environment” (Panther & Thornburg, 2009, p. 3).

Supplementary to their pedagogical practicality in helping students build and develop their vocabulary, metaphor and metonymy have also shown that “grammatical patterns are *motivated* at least partially, by conceptual and pragmatic factors” (Panther & Thornburg, 2009, p. 4). Some of these conceptualisations are highlighted when teaching phrasal verbs, where the use of the adverbial particle can be viewed as being metaphorically *motivated* and not arbitrary, and when teaching idioms, where the conceptualisation behind the idiom may be metaphorically or metonymically *motivated* (*all hands on deck / bite off more than you can chew*). If students are made aware of the figurative conceptualisation behind such devices, they might be better able to comprehend them. Kovecses (2001) claimed that pointing out the underlying metaphor to students can facilitate access to abstract lexical and grammatical items.

Helping the students’ to make metaphoric connections between ideas would set them on the path to improving their other competencies as “metaphoric extensions of word meaning are likely to account for many of the vocabulary items that they encounter” (Littlemore & Low, 2006, p. 273). Advertisements, newspaper headlines, jokes, novels, and daily speech are all full of figurative language and if students are to fully understand and cope with these, they would need to develop their figurative competence, which, in turn, positively affects the development of other competencies (principally the ones mentioned earlier).

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## Concept Mediation by Elementary L2 Learners

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A key goal of vocabulary acquisition is linking L2 words directly with mental concepts. According to the Revised Hierarchical Model (Kroll & Stewart, 1994), L2 learners' first only access mental representations of meaning via the L1, and direct links between L2 words and concepts develop only with time and practice. While the model has long been a focus of research, relatively little attention has been paid to its application to young learners. As young children are engaged in daily L1 vocabulary acquisition, it is conceivable that children would be able to forge automatic conceptual connections to newly acquired L2 words. This paper details a study of L2 concept development by Japanese elementary students. After a single vocabulary-teaching session, children displayed faster reaction times in matching L2 vocabulary with pictures than with L1 written words, thereby demonstrating conceptual access. Furthermore, this disparity in reaction time was affected directly by teaching methods.

語彙習得の目標の一つは、第二言語の単語と既存概念との連結である。Knoll & Stewart (1994)の改訂階層モデルによると、学習初期段階では第二言語学習者は第一言語を介してのみ第二言語の単語の概念にアクセスが可能であり、また時間をかけ練習を積むことでのみ、その能力が身につくと考えられている。このモデルが長く注目される中で、このモデルの児童への応用についてはあまり研究されていない。子どもは第一言語でも日常語彙獲得プロセスにあるため、第二言語でも自動的に概念連結ができる可能性がある。本論では日本人小学生の第二言語の概念形成についての研究を詳説する。第二言語語彙の授業を一回実施後に取得したデータで、日本語で示された単語よりも概念を表す絵への連結のほうが反応が早いという結果がでた。したがって、絵が示す概念の直接連結の可能性が判明した。さらに、この反応時間の差異は指導法が影響していると考えられる。

It is widely acknowledged that most of our knowledge and memory is not stored as verbal information, but rather, it is stored in a conceptual manner—often visually, albeit some ideas are purely abstract. While this sort of “mentalese” (Pinker, 1994) seems to provide the foundation of much human thought, nevertheless, these mental concepts are linked to verbal labels that further enable our ability both to classify concepts and to give voice to our thoughts. This conceptual level of the brain is where we make sense of the world and how we assign meaning to words, phrases, and sentences. The existence of a conceptual storage center that functions independently of verbal labels certainly has some intuitive appeal—for example, it helps to clarify the possible cognitive activities of preverbal children, as well as forcefully

exposing the shortcomings of a strong Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. However, the presupposition of such a storage center also immediately raises the issue of how those verbal labels become connected and how they are retrieved. This issue becomes particularly acute when discussing the acquisition of a second language (L2), which would necessarily entail the linking of a new set of verbal labels to pre-existing concepts. This paper explores whether or not elementary-aged children are capable of automatically connecting mental concepts with newly acquired L2 labels or if they initially have to translate L2 words to L1 labels in order to access those concepts.

### Study Background: Conceptual Access

Imagining a model conceptual access of word labels by monolinguals is a relatively simple process. Incoming stimulus (say, a picture of a tree) would be received and broken down via pattern and feature recognition processors; the “concept” whereby all knowledge, ideas, and so forth are stored would be consulted; and the stimulus would be matched with the mental representation of a tree. The “concept,” linked directly to the L1 lexicon, could then retrieve the verbal representation of the retrieved mental representation, thereby unlocking our linguistic knowledge of the word tree, including pronunciation, orthography, word class, and so forth. While the link between concepts and lexicon is widely assumed, the nature by which L2 is connected to the concept is a matter of some debate. Unlike in L1, where direct linkage between verbal representations and mental concepts could be automatically assumed, in L2 there was immediate disagreement over whether or not the L2 could be tied directly to the concept or if a learner could only access conceptual knowledge through the L1. Potter, So, Von Eckardt, and Feldman (1984) explained the two divergent models that framed this debate: the word association model (WAM) and concept mediation (CM). According to WAM (see Figure 1), L2 labels could only be retrieved via the L1. Stimulus would trigger a mental concept, which would then automatically trigger an L1 label. The L1

word could then be used to retrieve the L2 form. Note that WAM assumes no direct link between the concept and the L2 form. By contrast, CM (see Figure 2) asserted that both L1 and L2 had equal access to the concept, and therefore the route to L2 word retrieval was considerably shortened, looking exactly like L1 word retrieval (i.e., the stimulus is recognized via the concept, which then triggers the L2 word). Fortunately, both were testable hypotheses. If WAM were true, then translating an L1 word into the L2 should be faster than naming a picture of the same L2 word, as translation would enable the test-taker to bypass conceptual access, whereas picture naming would require accessing the concept (and then accessing the L1 word, and only then could the L2 word be retrieved). On the other hand, if translation from L1 to L2 required an equal amount of time as did picture naming, this would indicate that CM was correct. The Potter et al. study, proceeding according to these very assumptions, found that the answer varied according to L2 proficiency. Among students with advanced proficiency in the target L2, the time latency for L1 to L2 translation did not vary statistically from the time required for picture naming in L2, seeming to confirm CM; however, in low proficiency L2 students, the opposite proved true. Translations from L1 to L2 were statistically faster than picture naming, seeming to indicate that the concept could not directly access L2 word forms.

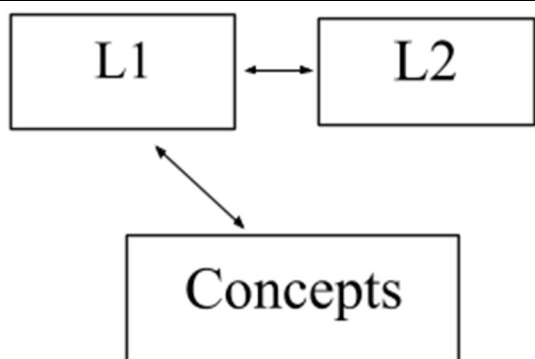


Figure 1. Word association model (WAM).

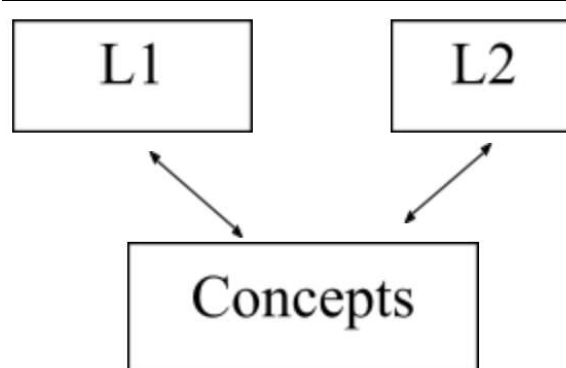


Figure 2. Concept mediation (CM).



### The Revised Hierarchical Model

This discrepancy in the results according to relative language proficiency ultimately led to the development of the revised hierarchical model (RHM; Kroll & Stewart, 1994), which was designed to account for proficiency differences directly by representing how direct links between the concept and L2 form could develop over time (see Figure 3).

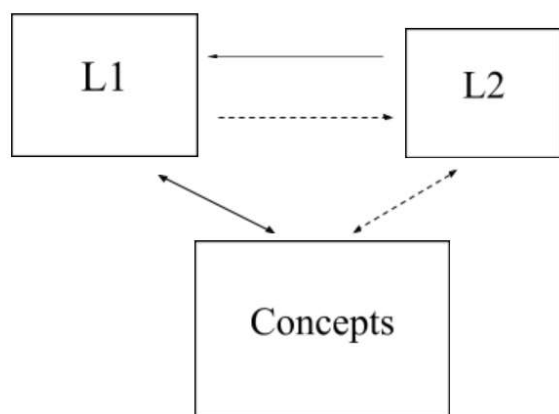


Figure 3. Revised hierarchical model (RHM).

In the model, one can see a strong, pre-existing two-way link between L1 labels and mental concepts; furthermore, newly acquired L2 terms are immediately connected to their corresponding L1 words. Links between the L2 and the mental concept as well as the ability to translate from L1 to L2 emerge more gradually, and the connection strength may never be as robust as L1→concept and L2→L1 links. This model provides a rationale for why whether or not L2 vocabulary can access the concept directly seems to depend upon relative L2 proficiency. The RHM was designed to account for the discrepancies in processing according to student L2 proficiency found in the Potter et al. (1984) studies, but other pieces of evidence have since emerged to support it. For example, Kroll and Stewart (1994) found asymmetries in categorical interference, whereby semantic interference effects would happen during L1→L2 translation, but not in L2→L1 translation. This finding strongly suggests conceptual access was occurring when translating L1→L2, but not when translating in the opposite direction. Likewise, Sholl, Sankaranarayanan, and Kroll (1995) found a similar asymmetry in susceptibility to priming facilitation during translation tasks. In the study, participants engaged in a picture naming activity (naming the pictures in

either L1 or L2). Subsequently, they took a translation test. Priming facilitation for the pictures they had previously named only occurred when translating from L1 to L2 and occurred regardless of whether the picture had been previously named in L1 or L2.

### Critiques of the Revised Hierarchical Model

Since its inception, the RHM has faced considerable criticism stemming from variability in the replicability of results. Some (e.g., Brysbaert & Duyck, 2010) have suggested rejecting the model entirely in favor of more connectionist models; however, adherents to the model claim that the variability can be simply explained by factors such as the relative frequency of test items (with relatively low frequency L2 terms being less likely to have developed a robust connection to the concept—e.g., Kroll, van Hell, Tokowicz, & Green, 2010). In a test designed to directly compare and contrast the claims of the RHM with the more connectionist “Bilingual interactive activation plus model” (Sunderman & Kroll, 2006), it was found that while form-relatives of target words were activated in readers regardless of relative proficiency level, activation of L1 translation equivalents in the presence of L2 stimulus was directly dependent upon the test-taker’s proficiency level. Additionally, new information has come to light since the original proposal of the RHM, which has prompted some reinterpretation of how we consider L1 and L2. In cases of immersion where the L2 becomes the dominant language, there is evidence that such translation asymmetries actually reverse, leading to a proposal that instead of L1 vs. L2, the RHM should be understood more in terms of dominant vs. additional languages (e.g., Heredia, 1997; Linck, Kroll, & Sunderman, 2009). While somewhat surprising, such results can still easily be accommodated by the RHM. Finally, there has been some recognition that the original hypothesis of a bidirectional initial weak link between L2 and concept may be incorrect, as the asymmetries are considerably more profound in production tasks (i.e., naming) than in comprehension (Kroll, van Hell, Tokowicz, & Green, 2010). Despite these critiques, the RHM remains an influential model that remains central to considerations on vocabulary acquisition and representation in the brain today.

## Child L2 Vocabulary Acquisition and Conceptual Access

In contrast to the robust debate and voluminous research on the RHM concerning bilingual adults, there has been considerably less focus on the issue of child L2 learners. Increased attention to these learners would be merited because preadolescent language learners bear some notable traits that differentiate them from adult learners. Elementary-aged children are still actively learning new L1 vocabulary at an astounding rate. Children between the ages of 6 and 8 are estimated to learn 6-7 new words each day, and this increases to 12 words per day from ages 8-12 (Bloom & Markson, 1998). If they are so deeply engaged in L1 learning, and as such, are daily creating links between new words and concepts, presumably they could be more receptive to forging direct links between concepts and L2 vocabulary as well. Comesaña, Perea, Piñeiro, and Fraga (2009) present evidence that this indeed may be the case. In a study of Spanish-L1 elementary school students learning Euskera (Basque), even after a single vocabulary session, learners displayed semantic interference effects (i.e., they had more trouble rejecting semantically related, but nevertheless incorrect, translations) in processing L2 words. This semantic interference effect was intensified when vocabulary was taught via pictures as compared to when taught via translation to the L1. The study methodology was repeated with native speakers of Portuguese, with Euskera again being used as the target L2 (Comesaña, Soares, Sánchez-Casas, & Lima, 2012). The children tested showed a similar pattern to the previous Spanish subjects: They displayed semantic interference effects for semantically related words, and the semantic interference was intensified when vocabulary was taught with pictures. Additionally, as the participants were tested at two times (immediately and one week later), the results revealed that the delayed test increased the degree of semantic interference effect regardless of teaching method.

### The Present Study

In the present-day Japanese context, amid plans to bring English into the lower elementary curriculum by 2020, and the accompanying concerns over what form such English studies will take and how to best go about teaching the

language at the elementary level, the question over how children forge L2 lexical connections to a concept is more pertinent than ever. The current study was designed to follow up on the Comesaña et al. (2009) study and to investigate whether young learners are able to establish near-immediate conceptual links to newly acquired L2 vocabulary. We additionally attempted to identify the age at which this ability (if, indeed, elementary school students *can* produce such immediate links between L2 vocabulary and the concept) would cease, giving way to the adult patterns predicted by the RHM. Finally, we sought to determine whether or not specific pedagogical methods would impact the relative strength of L2→concept connections.

### Subjects

One hundred and fifty-six elementary school students (grades 2-6) were recruited from two different schools in Akita, Japan. All students were native speakers of Japanese. The number of participants according to grade level was as follows: 2<sup>nd</sup> graders—6, 3<sup>rd</sup> graders—9, 4<sup>th</sup> graders—49, 5<sup>th</sup> graders—43, and 6<sup>th</sup> graders—49. The imbalance in number of students at the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grade levels is due to permission for testing at such low ages only being granted at one of the schools. All students below 5<sup>th</sup> grade had either no or minimal prior exposure to English. The 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> graders all received one 45-minute English class each week starting from the beginning of 5<sup>th</sup> grade. All students had normal or corrected-to-normal vision. Due to the ages of the study participants, parental consent for study participation was collected prior to the beginning of the study.

### Materials

A total of 42 vocabulary items were utilized. The vocabulary was chosen during consultation with the students' teachers in order to maximize the probability that the study participants had never heard the L2 vocabulary before. Nevertheless, the vocabulary items had to be concrete and familiar to the children recruited for the study, so the items tended to be physical objects that would be commonly found within the students' immediate environment. Social, affective, and nontangible L2 exemplars were explicitly avoided. Furthermore, the researchers made special effort to avoid any

vocabulary items that might be used (in any incarnation or for any purpose) as *katakana-eigo* (i.e., English loan words in Japanese). Two sets of laminated cards (A4 size) were created. One set featured pictures of the individual vocabulary items, and the other set featured a Japanese translation of the vocabulary items. Note that, as elementary school students in Japan are not taught English reading and writing skills, the cards did *not* feature any of the vocabulary items written in English.

### Procedures

The study followed a 2-day procedure for each class tested. Before meeting with study participants, individual classes were divided into two equal-sized groups by their homeroom teachers. On the first day of the study, the two groups would each go to a separate classroom, where they would receive a 45-minute English lesson taught by a graduate student from Akita International University's English Language Teaching Practices program. The first 20 minutes of the lesson in both groups was devoted to teaching and drilling the 42 vocabulary items; however, the teaching method used for introducing the vocabulary varied according to the group. One group (hereinafter, "Picture Group") were taught the L2 vocabulary using the laminated picture cards. The instructor was forbidden from using Japanese translation during the vocabulary session and was also discouraged from making any acknowledgement if students, looking at the picture, happened to say the relevant vocabulary word in their L1. The other group (hereinafter, "L1 Group") would be taught via the laminated cards featuring Japanese translation equivalents of the vocabulary items. The instructor of the L1 Group was free to say the L1 word and to acknowledge student queries posed in Japanese.

On the day immediately following the presentation of the vocabulary items, testing was conducted. Another English lesson was offered by an AIU graduate student—this time to the combined class—in order to keep the students occupied and together, but during the lessons, students were called out individually and taken to a separate room to undergo a short computer-mediated test of the vocabulary learned the previous day. The computer test was programmed using DMDX software (a free, Windows-based software package that can measure reaction time to auditory and visual

stimuli; Forster & Forster, 2003). The test presented spoken English vocabulary words (which the test participants listened to over headphones). After each vocabulary item, two choices were presented on the right and left sides of the computer screen, respectively, and the students were tasked with matching the correct choice with the vocabulary they had just heard via pressing one of the two specially designated RIGHT/LEFT 'SHIFT' keys. The choices presented on the split screen were either pictures (these were not the same pictures used to teach the vocabulary the preceding day) or L1 translations (written in *kana*). While all test takers were presented with both picture and L1 translation test items, only one option appeared at a time (i.e., each individual test item would only display either two pictures or two *kana* words—*kana* and picture response options never appeared at the same time). Items were counterbalanced, so for any given L2 vocabulary word, half of all test takers had to choose between two picture responses and the other half chose between two *kana* words. The presentation order was automatically randomized. Reaction times were recorded for analysis.

### Analysis

Participants were grouped: 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> grades being analyzed together, and 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, and 4<sup>th</sup> grades were analyzed together. This was done for two reasons. First, the number of students in the lower grades was much lower than those from the upper grades, so combining the three grades helped to make the numbers more balanced for analysis. Additionally, dividing the groups between 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades allowed comparison to be made between students who had previously studied English with those who hadn't. Across the board, the study participants were faster at matching the L2 vocabulary to pictures than to written L1 equivalents (see Table 1.). Item analyses revealed that the difference in reaction time was statistically significant—5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> Graders:  $F_2 = 6.60, p < 0.034$ ; 2<sup>nd</sup>-4<sup>th</sup> graders:  $F_2 = 11.03, p < 0.011$ ; all groups combined:  $F_2 = 10.65, p < 0.012$ .

Table 1.

*Reaction Times by Grade and Test Condition*

Grade level	Reaction time: L2 match to picture	Reaction time: L2 match to L1
5 <sup>th</sup> -6 <sup>th</sup>	1055ms	1345ms
2 <sup>nd</sup> -4 <sup>th</sup>	1488ms	1713ms

While all groups reacted more quickly to questions with response choices displayed as pictures than they did to response choices displayed as L1 words, still, a clear trend was found whereby the degree of difference between reaction times to matching the L2 vocabulary words with pictures and L1 words was significantly greater for those students who were taught using pictures. The average latency between picture matching and L1-word matching for students taught via L1 words was 166ms, whereas for students taught with pictures it was 352ms. This difference was statistically significant:  $F(1, 54) = 5.4, p < 0.01$ .

### Discussion

Initial results seem to clearly support the hypothesis that elementary school-aged students can create near-immediate conceptual links to newly acquired L2 words. Additionally, L2 vocabulary taught via pictures appears to result in more robust conceptual links, thus aligning with the results of the studies by Comesaña et al. (2009) and Comesaña et al. (2012), which similarly found that semantic interference (and, thus, conceptual access) was more robust for vocabulary taught via L2-picture association learning than by L2-L1 association learning. The conclusion is reached on the basis that if students could only access concepts via the L1, then picture matching would necessarily be either as slow as or even slower than L1 word matching; however, the significantly faster response to pictures would seem to indicate that the test-takers were able to tie the L2 form to the concept without L1 mediation.

In-depth analyses did, however, reveal some potentially complicating factors, which will be explained herein. Grade by grade analysis revealed a U-shaped development curve, with 2<sup>nd</sup> graders being overwhelmingly faster when responding to pictures than when responding to words written in L1. By contrast, 3<sup>rd</sup> graders' reaction time

was almost even between the experimental conditions (i.e., matching L2 words to pictures vs. to L1 translation), and then from 4<sup>th</sup> grade to 6<sup>th</sup> grade, there was a steadily increasing differentiation between the two conditions, with picture matching becoming progressively faster than matching to L1 translation. While this result may initially appear mysterious or even contradictory to the RHM, it was easily explicable by the relatively high error rates and slow overall reading speeds observed in the lower grades. This seems to suggest that the younger children's L1 reading skills are still underdeveloped, leading to overuse of guessing as a strategy to decrease reaction time (i.e., instead of reading both words on the screen, they may have read only one or neither and simply guessed). Regardless, as two subjects were eliminated from each of the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grade groups due to excessive error rates—a rather high rate of subject elimination when considering the already anemically low subject numbers at those grades—it appears that the appropriateness of the testing procedure for such young children should be called into question. The subject numbers for these two grade levels are simply too low to adequately evaluate separately; however, the data obtained seems to indicate that, as the current research paradigm is only effective for fluent L1 readers (which is why 1<sup>st</sup> graders were never recruited for the study), future testing of this type should eliminate 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> graders from analysis altogether as high-quality data (i.e., reasonable error rates and reading speeds) were only obtainable starting from the 4<sup>th</sup> grade.

### Conclusion

As Japan begins to implement English lessons at increasingly lower grades of instruction, it is vital to develop effective pedagogical methods and standards for vocabulary teaching to young learners. Such pedagogies can only be developed via a thorough understanding of how young brains process foreign languages. Even though the research to date seems to indicate that, fortunately, young learners may have certain advantages over adults for learning vocabulary, it is imperative to expand our knowledge of child L2 lexical representation in order to give future generations maximal opportunity to benefit from L2 instruction. While this study offers evidence that elementary-aged students are able to

create conceptual links to newly acquired L2 vocabulary, as the effect persisted through the oldest grades tested, it is still unclear at what age this ability to directly link L2 words to concept is lost. Further study with progressively older students may be warranted in order to ascertain an approximate measure of this. Another limitation of the study is its inapplicability to early elementary or younger students, as it requires some basic level of L1 literacy. The development of testing procedures that would enable L2→concept testing for ever younger children would be a welcome development.

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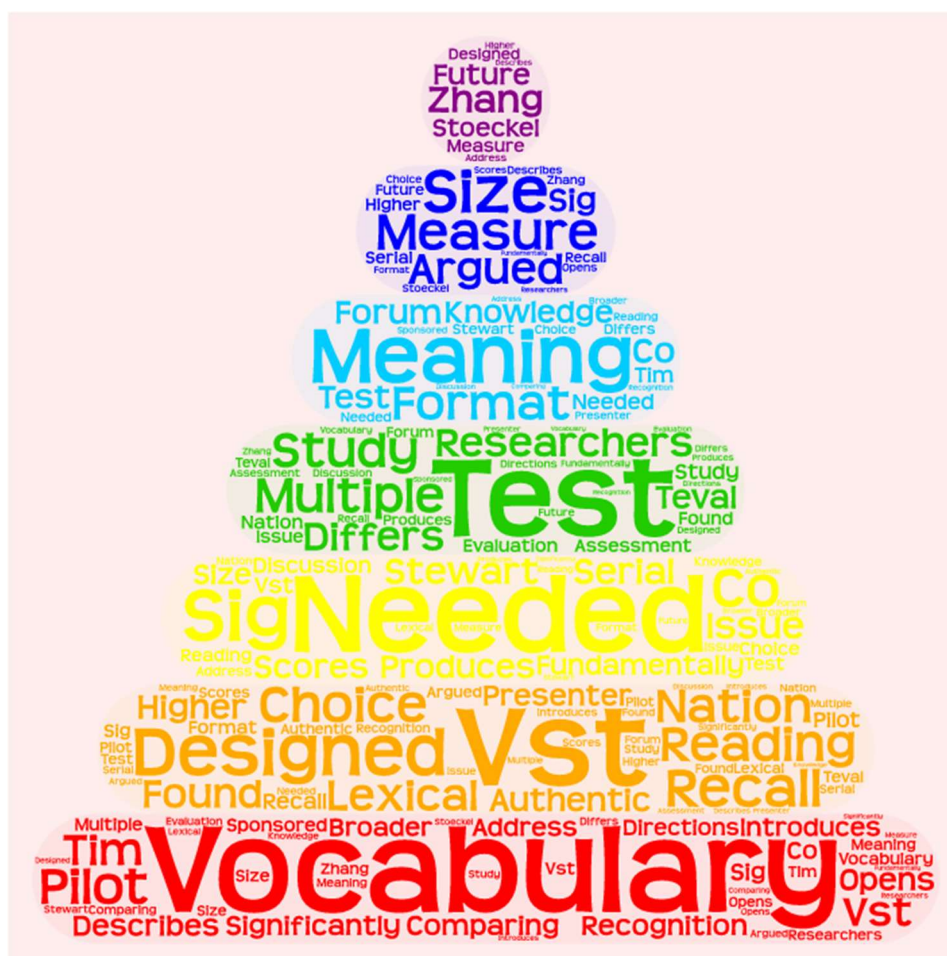


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# Promoting EFL College Learners' Language Learning Strategies Through Facebook Interaction

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The study aims to investigate the effect of task-oriented instruction and peer collaboration on EFL college low achievers' language-learning strategies. It integrates the principles of social cognitive theory and cooperative learning to examine the target learners' strategy application (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies) through this kind of learning. Two classes took a freshman English course for one semester; during the class time, only the participants from the experimental class were required to participate in Facebook groups and complete in-class tasks. The study results show that the participants in the experimental class applied more language-learning strategies and gained more self-confidence in English learning.

In Taiwan, English has long been a compulsory school subject; on average, students in Taiwan have learned English at least for 10 or 12 years, but unfortunately, most of the college students nowadays do not possess the ability or confidence to speak or write in fluent English. Students in Taiwan tend to view learning as memorization. For most of them, good memorization refers to good learning. To these students, especially the low achievers, English is merely a school subject, not a tool for them to explore the world outside. The majority are usually passive and sit quietly waiting for the teachers' instruction to take the next step. They gradually lose their confidence of using English and possess little passion to learn the target language.

Many studies investigating the relationship between learning strategies and language performance have found that proficient learners apply more strategies than less proficient ones (Bremner, 1999; Green & Oxford, 1995; Yilmaz, 2010). Compared with less successful learners, more successful learners are able to monitor their own learning process and performance and to overcome their learning and affective difficulties (Norton & Toohey, 2001). Some studies have shown that learners' studying behavior and reading comprehension could be enhanced through language-learning strategies (Carrell, 1989; Pintrich, 1999). Once learning strategies are enhanced, language learners do not feel

lost in learning and gradually they build up their level of self-confidence.

In light of this situation, the author would like to suggest a solution to guiding language learners towards learning the target language more effectively and efficiently and encouraging them to be responsible for their own learning. Therefore, this study was aimed at exploring the possibility of applying task-oriented learning and peer collaboration in a social networking environment to EFL curricula.

## Literature Review

Learning strategies are commonly defined as operations used by learners in the way to assist in acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information (Rigney, 1978). Oxford (1990, p. 8) expanded the definition to a "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations." In a similar vein, learning strategies were defined by Cohen (1990) as "learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner." (p. 5) Learning strategies, from the view of educational psychology, refer to "thoughts, emotions, and behaviours that facilitate the acquisition of knowledge and skills, or the reorganisation of one's knowledge base" (Weinstein and Meyer, 1994, p. 335). In short, learning strategies are not naturally acquired by learners but are something they learn and use for the purpose of enhancing

their learning performance (Cohen, 1998). Therefore, learning strategies could be learned (Oxford, 1990) and then be of assistance in mastering a target language (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003).

One of the primary features of language learning strategies is their focus on communicative competence (Oxford, 1990), as illustrated in Table 1. It takes meaningful and contextualized language to develop communicative competence. Language strategies provide learners with opportunities to participate actively in authentic communication, which also encourages the development of communicative competence (Oxford, 1990).

*Table 1.*  
*Features of Language Learning Strategies (Adapted from Oxford, 1990, p. 9)*

<b>Language Learning Strategies</b>
contribute to the main goal, communicative competence
allow learners to become more self-directed
expand the role of teachers
are problem-oriented
are specific actions taken by the learner
involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive
support learning both directly and indirectly
are not always observable
are often conscious
can be taught
are flexible
are influenced by a variety of factors

Language learning strategies, according to Oxford (1990), can be classified into two categories: direct and indirect. Direct strategies include memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies; indirect refers to metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Unlike the direct strategies, indirect strategies do not directly influence the learning itself. Rather, they are used to help learners control their own cognition, regulate their own emotions and attitudes, and learn from others through interaction and communication. In other words, indirect strategies “support and manage language learning without (in many instances) directly involving the target language” (Oxford, 1990, p. 35). Three

kinds of learning strategies are considered as indirect strategies. They are metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

Many studies investigating the relationship between learning strategies and language performance have found that proficient learners apply more strategies than less proficient ones (Bremner, 1999; Green & Oxford, 1995; Yilmaz, 2010). Similar findings are also reported by Gan, Humphreys, and Hamp-Lyons (2004) who found that more successful language learners use a wider range of strategies than less successful ones. On the other hand, less successful learners tend to rely more on memorization strategies than their higher level peers. Less successful language learners, moreover, are less flexible and less effective in the way of using strategies and applying them to their learning (Vann & Abraham, 1990). Compared with less successful learners, more successful learners are able to monitor their own learning process and performance and to overcome their learning and affective difficulties (Norton & Toohey, 2001). Some studies have found evidence to support the idea that learners’ studying behavior and reading comprehension could be enhanced through the metacognitive strategies (Carrell, 1989; Pintrich, 1999). Researchers have also reported that more successful L2 learners use more metacognitive strategies in terms of both amount and quality (Zhang, 2010). Compensation strategies, based on the findings, could enhance learners’ reading comprehension (Oxford, 1990) and increase their reading speed (Winstead, 2004; Zhang, 1992).

In a recent study (Lai, 2011), 418 EFL learners in Taiwan participated in a self-reporting strategy survey. The survey report showed that there was a significant influence of learners’ language proficiency level on their strategy choice and application, with the more proficient learners applying more strategies to their learning while the less proficient applied fewer strategies. The more proficient learners, moreover, used more metacognitive and cognitive strategies, compared with the less proficient learners who applied more memory and social strategies. In sum, there was a direct and positive effect of learners’ language learning strategy use on their language performance. The more strategies learners used, the better language performance they achieved. Similar



to the above study, Salahshour, Sharifi, and Salahshour's research (2013) showed that more proficient learners reported using more strategies, especially cognitive and social strategies. In sum, language proficiency seems to have influence on learners' application of strategies.

Skehan (1989) argued that the application of language learning strategies is one of the most important individual factors in language acquisition. Ellis (1985), in a similar vein, suggested that learning strategies are one of the essential processes for language development. Language learning strategies, in other words, enable learners to be more responsible for their own learning and they are more likely to become self-regulating learners (Dickinson, 1987; Dornyei & Skehan, 2003; Oxford, 1990). In a more self-regulating learning environment, learners would try out more methods or strategies to help improve their language development.

Facebook is a social networking service that has attracted at least 800 million active users. Through Facebook, users have opportunities build up their own personal space, exchange messages, and participate in any online social group (Goertler, 2009).

Social networking has been applied to higher education in recent years, strengthening peer-to-peer interactions and building up student communities in which learners can receive more social support to keep learning (Bateman & Willems, 2012; Grey, Lucas, & Kennedy, 2010). Social networking also plays a stimulating role for lifelong and autonomous learning (Lenartz, 2012; McLoughlin & Lee, 2010). Facebook, the most accessible social networking site (Ellis, 2011), is considered easier to use compared with institutional learning management systems (Grey, Lucas, & Kennedy, 2010).

The research questions were drawn from some empirical studies (Bremner, 1999; Chamot, 2004, 2007; Lai, 2011; Oxford, 1990, 2011; Yilmaz, 2010; Zhang, 2010) but were incorporated with the concepts of learner interaction and scaffolding. Therefore, two questions were formed to explore the possibility and advantages of applying Facebook for English learning purposes.

Research Question 1: Are there any significant differences between the experimental and control group in

the the number of learning strategies used after the Facebook-assisted learning?

Research Question 2: What are the participants' perceptions of their English learning?

## Method

This current study is a mixed study. Two out of 23 classes were selected on a basis of convenient sampling. One of the two classes was randomly chosen as the experimental group. During the 18-week (an academic semester) study, the participants from the experimental group took part in the Facebook activities while the control group only interacted with each other in a traditional face-to-face context. Apart from the instruction and face-to-face discussion, the experimental group members were required to work together to complete tasks. Every week, there were at least three Facebook discussion and cooperation activities for them to participate in. The discussion topics were related to the course book or their daily lives. Instead of emphasizing product or performance in their English writing, the instructor only played a role as a guiding and encouraging leader, without highlighting and correcting grammatical errors or sentence structure. The learners were not graded according to syntactic structures and grammatical errors. The goal was to make the learners feel less stressed and more willing to express themselves. The control group only received instruction from the researcher-instructor. There was no additional online interactional tasks assigned to the learners.

## Participants

The participants in the present study were 83 college students in northern Taiwan taking Freshman English as a mandatory course for one semester. They were randomly selected out of 1,205 students. Before the study, they were informed of the purpose of the study. The participants majored in Designing, Hospital Management, and Information Technology Management, but they all reported to be interested in English learning and expressed a desire to learn more about English.

According to the instructor-researcher's observation, the majority were highly involved in in-class English learning activities. The background information of the two classes

shows that there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of level (Table 2).

Table 2.

*The Participants' Backgrounds (Descriptive Analysis)*

	Group	No.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
GEPT	1	43	37.76	10.49
	2	40	41.47	11.49
age	1	43	18.40	0.54
	2	40	18.70	1.62
Learning years	1	43	10.16	2.56
	2	40	10.16	2.62

Note. GEPT = General English proficiency test, (a standardized English proficiency test in Taiwan); Group 1 = Experimental group; Group 2 = control group.

### Instruments

Three instruments were used in the study to collect data. They were (a) a background information questionnaire, (b) a General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) reading test, and (c) the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL; Oxford, 1990). The background questionnaire was adapted from the background questionnaire developed by Oxford (1990, p. 282), and all the questions, translated into Chinese by the researcher, were answered by all the participants in the two classes. The GEPT reading test chosen from the GEPT tests designed by The Language Training & Testing Center (LTTC) with approved validity and reliability was administered at the beginning of the study in order to examine the learners' general reading ability. Oxford's SILL consists of six strategy types: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social. The 50-item questionnaire, answered with a five-point Likert-type scale, has proved to be highly valid and reliable in a vast body of research (Chamot et al., 1993; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1986, 1990). This was applied to the study as one of the major instruments before and after the study.

### Results

The result of the participants' English proficiency tested by the GEPT reading test was an average score of 39.62.

Compared with the passing score of the test (72 scores), the target learners' English proficiency was far below that of intermediate-level learners (college students).

Table 3. illustrates the mean scores of six categories of language learning strategies by the two groups before and after the study. For all the strategies, Group 2 ( $M = 3.08$ ,  $SD = 0.57$ ) outscored Group 1 ( $M = 2.92$ ,  $SD = 0.53$ ). In order to find out whether there was any significant difference between Groups 1 and 2 in their use of the language learning strategies, an independent samples *t* test was conducted and the findings show that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups ( $p = .634 < .05$ ) before the intervention of the Facebook-assisted cooperative activities. After the study intervention, Table 4. shows that there was significant difference between the two groups in their application of all language learning strategies after the discussion activities ( $F(1,80) = 5.75$ ,  $p = .019 < .05$ ).

### Conclusions

Given the above results, the findings of the study indicate that the EFL learners' strategy applications could be enhanced through the assistance of Facebook collaboration and activities. Before the study, they seldom applied strategies to their language learning. However, learning a language does not simply involve obtaining satisfying scores, but it represents a useful tool for communication. Good communication could bring more chances for better interaction, businesses, and development. In this Facebook-assisted learning environment, the learners showed more engagement and participation. A virtual discussion space creates countless opportunities for language input and output; apart from these, it also presents learners with a learning path and an opportunity to progress. Through this kind of self-involved and self-discovery learning journey, the participants become more aware of their own learning, and through learning from others, they learned how to achieve their language goals more efficiently and effectively. Similar results are found in other studies exploring the use of Facebook for language learning (Lin, Warschauer, & Blake, 2016).

Therefore, it suggested that Facebook-assisted discussion could be applied to formal language education to

provide EFL learners with more language input and output chances and to promote their strategy applications. Note that the language-learning environment in Taiwan could possibly be shifted from a more teacher-centered to a more learner-directed context through this kind of Facebook discussion. Facebook, in this sense, does not just provide a platform for social interaction but also enables the teacher to establish a virtual classroom for peer-to-peer cooperation and learning strategy enhancement.

### Limitations and Implications

The findings of this current study suggest at least three pedagogical implications. First, for language learners, Facebook-assisted in-class activities could help increase their applications of language-learning strategies. Second, for language teachers, the study presents the possibility of inspiring learners to become more involved in English

learning activities and feel better about their English abilities. Lastly, Facebook-assisted in-class activities could be tailored to meet different types of curricula.

The limitation, first, is the external validity or generalizability of the study. The participants in the present study were probably not representative enough of the whole Taiwan EFL population to make generalizations from this study. It is suggested that future researchers include participants from diverse colleges from different geographical parts of Taiwan. Second, the study time was not long enough for in-depth investigation; therefore, it would be better to conduct the investigation over a whole academic year in order to gather data from different perspectives of the target learners.

Table 3.  
Levels of Language Learning Strategy Application by All Participants

	Group	n	Pre-activity		Post-activity		
			M	SD	n	M	SD
Memory strategies	1	43	2.82	.59	43	3.03	.59
	2	40	3.02	.60	40	3.03	.60
Part 2	1	43	2.87	.60	43	2.96	.56
	2	40	3.07	.61	40	3.05	.61
Part 3	1	43	3.16	.64	43	3.19	.66
	2	40	3.22	.63	40	3.22	.63
Part 4	1	43	2.98	.67	43	3.08	.65
	2	40	3.19	.79	40	3.19	.79
Part 5	1	43	2.78	.68	43	2.78	.68
	2	40	2.91	.89	40	2.91	.89
Part 6	1	43	2.95	.68	43	3.35	1.16
	2	40	3.10	.70	40	3.14	.67
Total	1	43	2.92	.53	43	3.06	.48
	2	40	3.08	.57	40	3.09	.57

Note. Part 1 = Memory strategies; Part 2 = Cognitive strategies; Part 3 = Compensation strategies; Part 4 = Metacognitive strategies; Part 5 = Affective strategies; Part 6 = Social strategies.

Table 4.

ANCOVA results of the six parts of language learning strategies. Dependent: All Strategies

Source	Type III sum of squares	df	mean square	F	Sig.	partial eta. squared
Corrected model	19.09 <sup>a</sup>	2	9.55	216.02	.000	.84
Intercept	.50	1	.50	11.40	.001	.13
All strategies	19.08	1	19.08	431.75	.000*	.84
Group	.25	1	.25	5.75	.019	.07
Error	3.54	80	.04			
Total	808.51	83				
Corrected Total	22.63	82				

Note. R squared = .844 (Adjusted R squared=.84); \*  $p < .05$ .

Analysis of the learners' reported learning orientation revealed that the majority of the experimental group (92.31%) had positive attitudes towards the Facebook-assisted activities. They felt that it was an interesting way of learning English, it provided chances to learn from peers, and it encouraged them to learn more about how to be able to express themselves well in English. The participants reported that they began to check the meanings of unknown words or phrases on their own, and they started spending coming up with their own English sentences. Although at first they felt that the interaction was a torture, they became used to the virtual environment in which they expressed themselves in English after an academic semester.

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## GILE SIG Forum: Educating for Global Citizenship

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Every year at PanSIG, the Global Issues in Language Education SIG holds a forum that aims to link the conference theme with the mission of the SIG. In Akita, the forum gave both students and teachers the opportunity to expand their potential regarding teaching for global education. This article introduces the SIG mission and summarizes the content from forum participants. A university educator, Emiliano Bosio spoke about implementing principles of global citizenship education into university curricula. Two students from Akita International University, Baku Matsui and Arisa Ibe, as examples of global citizens, shared their experiences with project-based learning activities and discuss how it linked with their language learning.

グローバル問題と言語教育部会は、毎年 PanSIG にて、SIG の役割と会議での議題を繋げる目的でフォーラムを開いている。秋田ではこのフォーラムが、グローバル教育において、教師と生徒に可能性を広げる機会を与えている。本論文は、SIG の役割を紹介し、フォーラム参加者から収集された内容がまとめられている。大学教授エミリアノ・ボッシオは、グローバル市民教育の原則を大学のカリキュラムに活用することについて話した。秋田国際大学の生徒 2 名、松井麦、井部有彩は、グローバル市民の例として、プロジェクトベースの学習アクティビティの経験を共有し、それがどのように言語学習と繋がっていったのかを議論する。SIG により共有されたグローバル市民としての経験とアイデアは、第二言語教育者全員にとり価値があるという可能性が考えられる。

*I am not an Athenian or a Greek, but a citizen of the world. - Socrates*

Since its inception in 1990, the JALT Global Issues in Language Education (GILE) SIG has worked to promote awareness of global issues and the concept of global citizenship through its large membership base. While being a global citizen may sound new in today's interconnected world, the concept has been around as long as civilization itself. As longtime SIG coordinator Kip Cates stated, "English language teachers are in a unique position to

promote the ideal of world citizenship through their work," because of English's presence as a global lingua franca and the use of language as a way to encourage cross-cultural understanding (1999, para. 3).

Cates went on to identify geographic literacy, world themes (religions, flags, etc.), and global issues as the central tenets of education for global citizenship. In order to gain an understanding of what is happening in the world and be an active force in potential solutions, students must possess certain knowledge. For example, they need to be able to identify where places are, as well as what common elements

may be impacting the circumstances. This leads to a deeper understanding of, for example, a war-torn region of the world, an area trapped in a cycle of poverty, or a country clogged with the pollution of development. Global citizenship also goes hand-in-hand with critical thinking because implicit in it is the act of “consider[ing] our own relationship to [an issue] and how we personally fit into the context of the issue” (Brookfield, cited in Halvorsen, 2005).

This year at PanSIG 2017, the GILE SIG held a forum comprised of three speakers, one educator and two local students, who spoke on the theme of global citizenship. As universities worldwide are seeking to develop global citizens, Emiliano Bosio surveyed a variety of models for curricular implementation, with the aim of developing his own model for application to Japan. This talk was complemented by that of two students at Akita International University who participated in the university’s project-based learning (PBL) program. This program allows students to actively become world citizens by sending them on short trips in multinational student groups, both domestically and abroad. Arisa Ibe shared her experiences of connecting elders in the Akita region with visiting international students. Cross-cultural understanding, and thus global citizenship, was built through the sharing of local food history. Baku Matsui shared his experience of becoming a global citizen as a result of a trip to Sabah, Malaysia where he was a part of a multinational team working with indigenous peoples and the Malaysian government to balance the twin goals of sustainable economic development and honoring government commitments to local populations. Together these three presentations illustrate the pathways universities are building towards global citizenship and showing what it looks like in action. The GILE SIG would like to extend its gratitude and appreciation to all three speakers for an illuminating forum at PanSIG 2017.

### **Emiliano Bosio: Global Citizenship in Higher Education**

The growing global interdependence that epitomizes our time calls for a generation of “fully human” leaders who can engage in effective global problem solving (Andreotti, 2010) and participate concurrently in local, national, and global civic life (Torres, 2017). Put simply, preparing students to be

“value-creators” and proactively contribute in the worlds of today and tomorrow (Ikeda, 2005; Oxfam, 2006) demands that universities develop their “global competencies” (Gaudelli, 2016). In this context, there is growing interest in Global Citizenship (GC) and its educational extension Global Citizenship Education (GCE), signaling a shift in the role and purpose of education to that of shaping more peaceful, tolerant, and inclusive societies (Burbules & Torres, 2004).

However, there are diverse interpretations of the notion of “global citizenship.” A common understanding, the one embraced in this article, is that it means supporting our learners to develop “a sense of belonging to a broader community, beyond national boundaries, that emphasizes our common humanity and draws on the interconnectedness between peoples as well as between the local and the global” (UNESCO, 2016, p. 6). In this perspective, GC is based on the universal values of human rights, democracy, nondiscrimination, and diversity. It is about civic actions that promote a better world and future.

Accordingly, GC’s educational annex GCE is defined in the UNESCO’s (2015) perspective as a form of civic learning that involves students’ active participation in educational undertakings that tackle global issues of a social, political, economic, or environmental nature (Bourn, 2015). GCE addresses themes such as peace and human rights, intercultural understanding, citizenship education, respect for diversity and tolerance, and inclusiveness, and it responds to globalization by

- Expanding the concept of civic education to global society;
- Adopting the ethical values of peace education and human rights education;
- Drawing upon the “global society” perspective, which not only investigates global topics, but more specifically merges the global and the local into the glo-cal; and
- Involving multiple stakeholders, including those outside the learning environment, in the community and in wider society.

Furthermore, GCE aims to be “transformative, building the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that learners need

to be able to contribute to a more inclusive, just and peaceful world” (UNESCO, 2014, p. 46). It attempts to enable learners to

- Develop an understanding of global governance structures, rights and responsibilities, global issues and connections between global, national and local systems and processes;
- Recognize and appreciate difference and multiple identities, (e.g., culture, language, religion, gender and our common humanity, and develop skills for living in an increasingly diverse world);
- Develop and apply critical skills for civic literacy, e.g., critical inquiry, information technology, media literacy, critical thinking, decision-making, problem solving, negotiation, peace building and personal and social responsibility;
- Recognize and examine beliefs and values and how they influence political and social decision-making, perceptions about social justice and civic engagement;
- Develop attitudes of care and empathy for others and the environment and respect for diversity;
- Develop values of fairness and social justice, and skills to critically analyze inequalities based on

gender, socioeconomic status, culture, religion, age and other issues; and

- Participate in, and contribute to, contemporary global issues at local, national and global levels as informed, engaged, responsible and responsive global citizens. Encourages learners to analyze real-life issues transformatively. (UNESCO, 2014)

Specifically, GCE entails three core conceptual dimensions (UNESCO, 2016):

- *Cognitive*: to acquire knowledge, understanding and critical thinking about global, regional, national and local issues and about the interconnectedness and interdependency of different countries and populations;
- *Socio-emotional*: to feel one belongs to a common humanity, sharing values and responsibilities, empathy, solidarity and respect for differences and diversity; and
- *Behavioral*: to act effectively and responsibly at local, national and global levels for a more peaceful and sustainable world (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1.** Global Citizenship Education core conceptual dimensions. Reprinted from UNESCO (2016, p. 8).





Moreover, I advise that the GCE approach does not mean that our students' national identities are deemed obsolete, just like the formation of nation states could not erase local and regional identities. Neither would it be appropriate to say that a parallel identity, namely a cosmopolitan or global one, is added to our learners' existing identities. GCE rather means transforming a paradigm (Bosio, 2017); the relevant frame of reference is no longer the nation state, but a large-scale society that is networked on multiple levels and equally localized and globalized (Gaudelli, 2016).

In this perspective, GCE has been an attempt by international institutions such as UNESCO (2014) to assist local and national policy makers and educators in addressing the multifaceted challenges of globalization that impact education and society. Particularly, the Global Education First Initiative (GEFI) launched in 2012 by the former U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon (United Nations, 2012), suggested GCE as a solution to boost global peace—in what Beck (1992) defined a “risk society”—improve the sustainability of the planet, and encourage the defense of a global commons (UNESCO, 2014). In other words, GCE addresses the intersection of globalization, education, and programmatic efforts to prepare young people to live in a more interdependent world (Gaudelli, 2016).

According to Torres (2017), there are at least three reasons that justify GCE in higher education (HE). First, GCE can support global peace. Second, it can help to positively intervene in social, cultural, and economic inequalities and diminish poverty globally. Third, it can offer concrete options and best practices to endorse civic virtues that will cultivate a more democratic society.

Consequently, the past decade has seen an increase in publications and discussions about GC and GCE in HE, attesting to the fact that these two concepts are of increasing relevance for today's universities (Oxley & Morris, 2013). Academics, policy makers, and practitioners have been describing, contributing to, and shaping interpretations of both phenomena, which has created a conceptual terrain that is diverse and varied (Reimers, 2006). Simultaneously, universities have been engaging in launching a broad array of graduate and undergraduate GC programs designed to foster students' appreciation of major global issues (Gaudelli, 2016)

in responding to the pressures associated with globalization (Reimers, 2009a).

In Japan, GCE in HE “has been embraced as a way of producing graduates capable of explaining their country to the wider world” (Trahar, 2016, p. 5). In Japanese universities, GCE is concerned with the dimensions of morality and social responsibilities as people in the world (Bosio, 2015). Indeed, it is difficult to find Japanese higher education institution websites these days that do not in some way address the issue of increased international integration and the emergence of a global community; many of them offer programs on global studies and their representatives are quite open to connecting their institutions to a global environment (Shattle, 2008). Sophia University in Tokyo offers a PhD and an MA in Global Studies examining “world systems, transnational processes, and global-local interactions from perspectives of anthropology, history, political science, religious studies and sociology.” International Christian University offers a major in Global Studies that aspires “to educate responsible, global citizens who can identify significant world issues, examine the structure and related phenomena of global governance using an interdisciplinary approach, and exercise leadership and create partnerships to promote conflict resolution in the global community of the 21st century.” Soka University's Faculty of International Liberal Arts (FILA) in Hachioji aims to “foster students capable of meeting the demands of our globalized society (“Message from the Dean”). And the Department of Global Citizenship Studies at Seisen University “established as the first department in Japan to specialize in global citizenship studies [aiming] to educate women who have global perspectives and can think as genuine global citizens” offers an MA Program for Global Citizenship Studies “designed for people who think globally and act locally.”

The Seisen's Department of Global Citizenship Studies case offers a basic pattern of GCE implementation where the dominant three features of the curricula are (a) global society, (b) multicultural understanding, and (c) fieldwork being the latter pivotal to their students' learning experience. According to this university website,

In the Fieldwork Course, the students are required to join in international or domestic

study tours, well planned by themselves and with the assistance of faculty members. This provides rich experiences to study and work in Japan and abroad. It also gives the students excellent occasions to deepen their understanding of different cultures and languages, as well as to develop good skills of communication with other peoples in the world. After finishing various surveys and interviews, the students are required to write reports about their research outcomes, which are usually published in both Japanese and English. Their fieldwork studies bring the students great success, based on their strong foundation in learning the appropriate theories and skills needed for conducting their surveys. In the classes they are also required to develop skills to present their research findings and analyses before an audience. (Seisen University, n.d.)

Thus, GCE in the Seisen's Department of Global Citizenship Studies outlook entails a fieldwork experience that encourages learners to open up to different cultures, think, act, and connect more widely in different ways. It is a learning progression concentrating not only on what students learn but also how they learn—about themselves and others, to learn to do things and interact socially—inspiring hands-on roles.

As illustrated in the previous section, it seems clear that universities worldwide, including those in Japan, aim to convey an international breadth to the knowledge content of the curriculum, enhance global skill building, expand intercultural relations in culturally mixed classrooms, and eventually foster globally disposed graduates. In a departure from the past, they want to move from rhetoric mission statements to changing the nature of the education that their learners receive (Bosio, 2017), although many advocate that it is not clear yet whether higher education institutions, particularly in Japan, are cultivating “global workers” who are readily employable for the job market or “global citizens” who should use knowledge, skills, and values learned in the GCE

programs to build more sustainable and peaceful societies (Hammond & Keating, 2017).

Indeed, reaching clarity on what such forms of GCE actually entail and what kind of global citizens higher education institutions aim to educate is not so simple and it involves complicated policies and well organized courses and ultimately that good assessment practices be in place (Shultz, 2011; Schattle, 2008). Policy-wise, the first issue is that many current prototypes of HE locate education primarily as a business and, as a result, universities are used for commercial purposes via marketing (Tawil, 2013). The second issue is whether GCE should adopt a combination of formal and nonformal education; for instance, Andreotti (2010) suggested that it is necessary to embed GCE in the “usual works” of the university through policy and programming (e.g., social justice is a key part of the university vision and is reflected across university programs). A third aspect is concerned with linking programs to strategic vision. That is, a university's intellectual, moral, and social mission in developing GC needs to be translated into concrete and sustainable policy and practice, and the goal of GCE is embedded within each of the university's core functions: teaching, research, and service (Rizvi, 2009).

In terms of GC program streams, one of the major trends that I wish to emphasize in introducing this brief review of literature on universities' GC programs relates to their location. It appears that the majority of “robust” global GC programs “are located in the United States and, to a lesser degree, in Canada, the U.K., and Australia. The use of GC to frame HE educational programs is scarcely found outside of these countries. Accordingly, Shultz (2011) implied that GCE is often the purview of Western, privileged students and universities. In response to this critique, some argue that this is just a matter of time, and attention to educating about the global context is beginning to take place in Southern institutions as well, for instance in Japan as examined in my previous section.

An additional major issue here is that, according to Shultz (2009), current programs of GC have gatekeeping mechanisms that might privilege a global elite. Study and volunteer abroad components that many of the GC programs involve and/or require for credits are often costly. As a result

of this, Taylor (2013) argued, “Individuals are constructed into global citizens through their ability to access elitist modes of attaining citizenship. . . GC, therefore, is an identity available and granted to some but not to others” (p. 21-22).

To conclude with further key concerns, we shall mention assessment/evaluation. Shultz (2011) concluded that because of resource dependency, evaluations are focused on satisfying funders. This means that the researcher’s impartiality might be influenced by specific interests of those who are funding the project. Another challenge of evaluating wide networked program approaches on GCE is that members leading individual projects or activities within the program tend to focus on results of their own work and fail to find opportunities to aggregate individual successes.

Further complicating GCE programmatic development in HE is the ongoing issue of defining in depth a multifaceted term global citizenship and the realization that colleges and universities have developed their own definitions as influenced by their mission statements, strategic plans, or even the discussions held around a meeting table (Torres, 2017). Perhaps, this area will be examined in further publications.

### **Arisa Ibe: My Challenges in Akita**

My presentation explained about my experience of an internationally collaborated research project through a PBL course as an opportunity to recognize the significance of language ability on translation in scenes of international cooperation. The project was offered in February 2017. The PBL course allows students to learn actively by identifying their research questions, designing their research methods, and trying to reach one conclusion. The theme of the research for this year was the sustainability of a rural community in Japan through examining local food habits and place attachment among local people. It took place in Gojome Town a small town in Akita Prefecture, northeast Japan. This program was in cooperation with four institutions: GPSS-GLI from the University of Tokyo, LUCSUS from Lund University, UNU-IAS from United Nations University, and Akita International University. The team members consisted of about 20 students from nine countries: Sweden, India, Pakistan, China, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia, Kenya, and

Japan. Since this project was conducted in Japan and most of the informants were local Japanese people who are not fluent in English, all Japanese participants were expected to take roles of translators in the interviews between international students and local people.

Our team was divided into three subgroups based on targeting generation—elderly, middle, and young—and each group had at least one student who is fluent in Japanese. Ultimately, we reached one conclusion that people embrace a certain degree of local attachment through affiliation toward traditional food culture passed down from generation to generation. However, there were remarkable gaps between elderly people and younger generations in that the elderly generation prefer more traditional Japanese food while younger people tend to accept Western food culture and the coexistence of Japanese and other countries’ cuisines on one table. This suggests a declining tradition of local food culture in the daily eating habits among the younger generation. It can be concerning that the tradition disappears in the future because of aging, depopulation, migration of young people to urban areas and the seeking of cost and time efficiency. One finding from this research was that the elderly do not always want young generation to inherit their traditions. Some referred to “room to let” young people who pursue their styles along with their desires. Thus, new culture or tradition of local food has been created in the current rural regions. Perhaps this situation is occurring in countries around the globe.

In my elderly group, all eight interviews required my translation, though it was challenging for me, as the only undergraduate participant, to keep up with advanced graduate-level content. There were several reasons related to my difficulties with translations. Firstly, it could be attributed to a low level of language competency regarding a lack of vocabulary of specific terms since I was not familiar with academic terminology for sustainability fields. Sometimes it took significant time to seek proper expressions for a natural translation. I was afraid of failing because low quality translation might lead to a smaller amount of analysis data and affect the final outcomes for the visiting students. I realized that, at the university level and particularly with international students, my role involved coping with pressure

to support high level research while bridging the cultural gaps we encountered. Also, sometimes it was hard for me to listen to local people because I was raised in central Japan where people mainly talk in standard Japanese. The Akita dialect contained unique expressions I had to first understand in Japanese before trying to pass on the ideas in English. Additionally, I found it challenging to manage interviews and further discussions for data analysis. My group members had different motivations and attitudes towards participation due to varied academic knowledge as well as personal backgrounds. Each student perceived interview content through their experience from their home country. As a translator I controlled the flow of interviews as well as how culture was understood. It was crucial that everyone agreed on the understanding of the information shared. These situations encouraged me in both my language and management skills.

These challenges provided opportunities to develop skills that can be further utilized in my future as a global citizen. For example, in the context of globalization, we might often encounter international interactions. In those scenes, language competence and management skills can be utilized to communicate with people from various backgrounds and thoughts in order to understand individuals. This contributes to uniting and keeping harmony within an international team. It is important to share the same understanding and come to one conclusion. Also, sharing the experience of participating in high level challenges can encourage other students to try and develop themselves.

### **Baku Matsui: Project-Based Learning in Sabah**

In August 2016, I participated in a project named “Multidisciplinary Approaches to Green Economy.” In this course, students literally explored a green economy in Sabah, Malaysia. The United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) defines a green economy as an economic system “that results in improved human well-being and social equity, while significantly reducing environmental risks and ecological scarcities” (UNEP, 2011). Unlike mainstream lecture-style classes, PBL is a course that aims to cultivate the skills necessary for work in the real world as in the project in

which I participated. In PBL, students are divided into small joint groups and make policy proposals to tackle specific local issues that exist in reality. The primary purposes of this report are to share my experiences from participating in this project and thoughts related to English education and global citizenship.

One of the biggest things I learned from PBL is that being able to contribute to international community requires practical English as a working communication tool in a real-world context. I realized that I perceived studying English as only for communicating with native English speakers and ruled out the possibility of communicating with nonnative speakers. My first stay during infancy was in the United Kingdom, as was my study abroad destination. Even in my home university, I was taught foundation by native speakers, and most of the professors in class were native English speaker. However, during the PBL, there were only nonnative English speakers so it was my very first time to use English discussing a highly academic topic with nonnative speakers. Apart from communication skills and English fluency, PBL was an impetus for me to be aware of the importance of English in a more realistic sense.

Another lesson I learned from PBL, related to the experience above, is the importance of adjusting to local varieties of English, or perhaps adjusting English to a mutually understandable ground. In the middle of discussions, I realized that our understanding was not always on the same wavelength. This was attributed to the usage of English by both groups of students, who used English in their own manner and varieties. Over time, by using simpler and easier vocabulary, grammar, and shorter sentences, we managed to understand each other. This does not mean that English was degraded so that others could understand, but it meant that we all attempted to find a common ground to spur mutual understanding.

Most of the classes I have taken were based on a style in which students do not necessarily have to be active; things are prepared and rehearsed to a greater extent. In PBL, on the other hand, there was nothing predictable or prepared. Under these circumstances, in order to develop real English as a working communication tool for global citizenship, PBL is the best educational resource and it should be made more

available. Indeed, since it is an unusual form of classroom, I firmly believe that there are other things that could be meaningful for students.

### Conclusion

There were three talks in the PanSIG 2017 GILE SIG forum, one by a university educator and two by AIU students. First, Emiliano Bosio showed a variety of models for global citizenship and introduced the manner in which universities are incorporating the concept into curricula. To demonstrate how one university is putting such citizenship into practice, two students from the host institution, Akita International University, then spoke about their experiences in the university's project-based learning (PBL) program. The program is designed to encourage students to become a part of a larger global community by mixing them with students from other countries. In the case of Arisa Ibe, this meant sharing what she learned by connecting elders in Akita with international students doing graduate work. For her, global citizenship came of sharing of local food history while simultaneously learning the importance of shared understanding across language. The second student speaker, Baku Matsui, spoke of becoming a global citizen on his trip to Sabah, Malaysia. He was a member of a multinational team that mediated between the Malaysian government and indigenous peoples to allow for sustainable economic development that honored the government's commitment to such populations. Through this, he learned that belonging to a global community required a commitment to varieties of English. The GILE SIG thanks these three speakers for showing us not only how universities are encouraging global citizenship, but embodying it in their experience.

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# Literature in Language Teaching SIG Forum Report

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At the 2017 PanSIG conference at Akita International University the Literature in Language Teaching SIG forum focused on recent activities by the SIG and SIG committee. Four speakers presented on their chosen topics for 10-15 minutes each. The topics were (a) publishing in journals related to literature and language teaching, (b) publishing in the SIG journal specifically, (c) examples of classroom activities using poetry and reader response, and (d) the background, current status, and future directions of the LiLT SIG. After the presentations there was an interactive question and answer session in which audience members were invited to comment on and talk with the presenters about their topics. This paper provides short sections by each of the speakers in order to document the forum.

本稿は、Literature in Language Teaching (LiLT) SIG フォーラムにおける 研究発表の報告書である。SIG フォーラムでは、4名の英語教師が登壇し、以下の題目でそれぞれ研究発表を行った。1) 文学・言語教育分野における学術誌への投稿 2) 特に、LiLT SIG ジャーナル発刊に際しての問題点 3) 詩を使った教育実践例と生徒の反応 4) LiLT SIG の背景、現状と今後の方向性。本稿では、これらの内容に焦点を当てながら、LiLT 分野における様々な問題を議論していく。

In this article we report on the talks given by members of the LiLT SIG at the PanSIG forum at Akita University on May 21st, 2017. In the forum, four presenters described a range of topics of direct importance and relevance to the continued activities of the SIG. These were all connected to the issues of teaching and learning using literature. This report aims to guide the SIG through its first year of having full SIG status, while also looking into future possible goals and challenges for the group. First, Atsushi Iida introduced advice for getting published in the field of literature and language teaching from his own research perspective, including a number of journals which specialise in empirical studies using literature.

Continuing the theme of journals, the SIG Journal editor Gregg McNabb talked about procedures involved in processing submissions for the LiLT SIG Journal and some advice for prospective authors. Quenby Hoffman Aoki gave a presentation on the methods she uses to teach texts such as poetry using reader-response theory. Finally, Tara McIlroy

talked about the current state of the SIG and future plans for the group.

We define literature as short stories, poems, novels, prose, or fiction of any kind, including movies. The brief outlines in this short article summarize the contributions by the members of the forum to help document the SIG's progress and activities. All speakers invited comments and contributions from the participants, which due to limitations of space were not possible to summarize in this article. It is hoped that in highlighting the work of the SIG and the current issues and trends related to the SIG's work, the progress can be shown for future use and will help motivate others to contribute to the SIG in the future.

Challenges and Issues of Publishing Second Language  
Poetry Writing Research  
*Atsushi Iida*



There is increasing pressure for scholars to publish English articles in academic journals (Flowerdew, 2008; Lillis & Curry, 2010). The same is true for nonnative English-speaking teachers and researchers at the tertiary level. The fact is that publication is one of the crucial requirements for getting a new (and/or better) position, tenure, or promotion in the university contexts. In this short article, I discuss some challenges and issues of publishing my second language (L2) poetry writing research by reflecting on my past 10-year experience of writing for scholarly publication.

I have published several articles on L2 poetry writing research in national and international journals since I was a doctoral student in the United States. I do not think writing for scholarly publication in this area is easy and less challenging than any other area. Since the study of literature in language teaching (LiLT) in the L2 context is comparatively new and interdisciplinary in nature, I have encountered some problems and difficulties in writing scholarly articles. Particularly, I have found three major issues when publishing my work in academic journals.

The first issue is to choose suitable journals (see Iida, 2016). Each journal has its scope, aim, and target audience. Contributors must incorporate these perspectives in their manuscripts, because writing for scholarly publication is “a disciplinarily situated literacy practice, and our message is for someone else in a particular discourse community” (Iida, 2016, p. 43). In other words, the contributors must become aware of a group of teachers and researchers who share the same goals and scopes in a particular academic community. No manuscript will be published unless it fits into the scope, aim, and target audience of each journal. In this sense, it is crucial to clarify who the article is for, what the purpose is, and what original contributions can be made in each study.

Self-positioning as a researcher is the second key issue in the publication practice. Because of its interdisciplinarity, teachers and researchers of English may have ample opportunities to submit their work in various academic journals, but at the same time, it makes their situation more complicated. For instance, my research on L2 poetry writing involves the following five areas of study: composition, stylistics, TESOL, literature, and psychology.

In each of the five areas, research interests of a group of scholars vary from the others. Likewise, the research methodology employed in each field is different. Of particular importance in this publication practice is to recognize where they position themselves in academia and to properly present their studies in a disciplinarily accepted manner.

The third issue involves a lack of existing empirical studies into the use of literature in L2 contexts (Hanauer, 2010; Iida, 2011, 2012; Paran, 2008). This situation makes it difficult for teachers and researchers to develop theoretical underpinnings and design empirical research in this field. Many teachers know that studying and composing literature and poetry promotes L2 learning (Iida, 2010), but they know very little about the potential outcome of writing poetry in the target language. Lack of previous studies and insufficient data further challenges them in justifying existing theoretical arguments.

In this article, I have discussed three major issues of scholarly publication in the field of literature in L2 education. It may be highly competitive when publishing our articles, but teachers of English still have a chance to do so by carefully looking at the target journal, understanding their positioning as a researcher, and critically reviewing previous studies published in this field. While many international, refereed journals (e.g., *Scientific Study of Literature*) tend to accept the submission of research-based, empirical papers, our own SIG Journal, *the Journal of Literature in Language Teaching (JLiLT)* accepts practical papers in addition to featured articles. I believe that submitting work to the *JLiLT* is a good start and it will provide teachers and researchers of English with an opportunity to expand knowledge about their studies by receiving constructive feedback through the peer-review process. Publishing each of our case studies or practical reports in the L2 classroom can be a great contribution to the field of literature in language teaching.

### Publishing in the Journal of Literature in Language Teaching

**Gregg McNabb**

In the past 2 years, *The Journal of Literature in Language Teaching* has somehow become known to researchers outside

Japan (e.g., Turkey, Singapore, Iran, the U.S.A., and others). As a result, compared to previous years, competition to be published has increased. As the editor of the journal since 2015, I have outlined ways for LiLT members to improve their chances of having their publications accepted.

In a general sense, perhaps the best way for contributors to approach writing an article for *The Journal of Literature in Language Teaching*, or any other journal for that matter, is to assume that their next job offer will depend on the quality of that article. Thus researchers should probably have a multimonth, multistage plan that allows several months for research, ample time for the first drafts, some time for trusted critical readers to offer constructive feedback, and finally several months for the editing process if their submission has been accepted. Regarding specifics, contributors should carefully proofread submissions to avoid various typing errors, spelling errors, formatting errors, and referencing problems (e.g., a source is cited in the body of the paper but not included in the references section) and to ensure that everything conforms to APA conventions. For example, after a city name, the state abbreviation is now required in upper case. For consistency, British writers must use American conventions and place the period before final quotation marks. Unfortunately, some submissions do not attend to these points of etiquette. As to content, statements should be well supported. One of the most common problems noted in the double-blind review process is that writers' ideas are not as fully supported as they could be.

Because we can reasonably assume that readers of the journal are educated and also have an interest in using or understanding literature in language teaching, it is not necessary to provide a lot of background or an extensive literature review. Writers should provide a concise background or introduction and then present the body of their article. Ideal articles maintain a judicious balance between research/theory and practical classroom applications, keeping in mind that the journal is also read outside of Japan. The journal does not accept submissions that are essentially extended lesson plans or which are longer versions of JALT's *The Language Teacher* "My Share" column.

As is the case for many aspects of life, good timing does matter. If in the previous issue someone wrote about *tanka* and you have a submission dealing with *haiku*, there is a fair chance that it will be rejected. There is no harm whatsoever in sending a brief message to editors of various journals to confirm whether your topic is timely.

### Revisiting Literature as Authentic Content and Encouraging Reader Response in Japanese University Students

*Quenby Hoffman Aoki*

An often-repeated phrase used by Japanese university students when discussing the meaning of a literary work is "what the author wants to tell." They also tend to focus on searching for the "message" or "hidden meaning" of a particular story or poem. According to students, this is on the entrance examinations. Emphasized by high school teachers, it becomes habitual. Furthermore, students are often reluctant to make a strong statement of response, because they are afraid to be wrong. The teacher is supposed to know the correct interpretation, and if she does not tell them the answer they become uncomfortable, even annoyed, and may simply give up. In this short forum talk I outlined some ways to overcome this limitation.

A TESOL-trained instructor may find this to be a top-down, hierarchical approach, which goes against basic principles of active learning or communicative language teaching (CLT). To focus on what a writer wanted to say assumes that a text has a message or hidden meaning and therefore a correct answer, putting accuracy before communication. In short, one is not taking responsibility for one's own reading process.

Teachers who majored in education, TESOL, or applied linguistics (including myself) may not have studied literary theory, but here is a situation where it becomes helpful, particularly reader response criticism, defined succinctly as a set of theories which view texts as "interaction between author and reader," and reading as "an act of creation, no less than writing" (Gardner, 2013, p. 198). In this approach, any attempt to state an author's intention is impossible to know, and because it is decades or centuries

after a work was written, may not matter that much, at least not in relation to students' language development. Any work of literature was written at a certain time and place, but is being read now in a very different setting by an individual who comes from a different background. The reader has to make sense of texts using his or her own cognitive, social, and cultural tools. Furthermore, the other readers in the classroom will probably respond in their own ways. Although knowing the historical context and the author's background may be useful and interesting, once the words are on the page they ultimately belong to the reader. Even the author is not always aware of a clear intention when writing. Human beings are complicated!

As a start, students can be encouraged to look at the text with a minimum of background information and share their responses to it. Poetry is particularly effective for this, because to really understand a poem requires discussion, negotiation, and analysis. One poem that has worked well in this context is "We Real Cool," a short, vivid, and rhythmical snapshot of life in an urban neighborhood just as the Civil Rights Movement was beginning, written by Gwendolyn Brooks, the first African-American to win the Pulitzer Prize. The poem is based on a true story. Brooks was walking near her home in Chicago during school hours and saw a group of young men playing pool. In a rare case of clearly stated authorial intention, Brooks said that "instead of asking why they weren't in school, I asked myself, 'I wonder how they feel about themselves'" (*Academy of American Poets*, audio clip at <https://www.poets.org/poetsorg/poem/we-real-cool>).

Poems can be seen as stories, having a setting and characters as fiction does. An effective exercise using the poem above is asking students to imagine themselves inside the poem with discussion or writing questions like the following:

- Imagine you are one of the pool players. What would you say if someone asked you about your life and thoughts? Imagine your life 10 or 20 years later; what have you done since that day in the pool hall?
- Imagine one of the pool players is someone you know and care about. What would you say to him?

- This poem describes a Black neighborhood in a city in the U.S. Consider how your reactions to the poem are influenced by racial and cultural stereotypes.
- This poem was written in the late 1950s as the Civil Rights movement was beginning. Would the situation be different now?
- How would you react if you saw a similar group of boys in your neighborhood?

Such questions encourage students to read actively and to value and express their own responses to literature. Furthermore, simply changing the words used to talk about literature can, in fact, create a major shift in perception. For example, instead of "Author A wants to tell us..." students can say "This poem describes..." Instead of "Author C's message is..." they can phrase it as "The theme of this story is..." These are simple but effective ways to use literature for communication, critical thinking, and active learning.

In conclusion, it is important to emphasize that reader response does not mean that historical, cultural, and biographical information is unhelpful or irrelevant. It does mean that, regardless, readers are bringing their own experiences and beliefs to the conversation. Placing meaning and learning with the reader helps students develop active reading and thinking skills that can be used in other classes across the curriculum and in the real world after graduation.

## The Literature in Language Teaching SIG's Current Position and Future Directions

*Tara McIlroy*

The LiLT SIG is special amongst the SIGs in JALT as being the only place for teachers interested in poetry, prose, film, and other types of creative texts such as songs to discuss their topic. Although literature in many language learning contexts is a marginalized source of material, interest in literature remains steady and is perhaps enjoying something of a revival. The LiLT SIG has been growing steadily since its creation in 2011 and in 2017 became a full SIG, meaning that the membership of the SIG was steadily above 50 for the past 12 months. The main reason for the creation of the SIG was that there was no existing research or presentation space for teachers of poetry, content-based literature programs using

literature to teach language, or for presentations that were directly related. Over the past 6 years the SIG has been able to produce a range of events which suit the size of the SIG and the availability of the SIG members to be able to participate. In this short talk about the SIG's background, current status, and future possible directions, I considered the SIG's guiding principles and ongoing development, concluding with an invitation to forum participants to discuss the latter aspect, that of future directions.

The first type of activity the SIG has been involved in is organising events. The SIG has had two conferences devoted entirely to literature both entitled *The Heart of the Matter*. The first of these was held in Aichi in 2014 and this location was chosen for its proximity to a number of committee members. There were concurrent sessions and a sponsored speaker for this event. In the second conference, in 2016, the main speakers were members of the SIG and the event was held in Kyoto. As well as special days with invited and concurrent sessions, we have been involved in several other activities also. These have included events at JALT International such as coordinating presentations at a forum and inviting a sponsored speaker to the event. In 2015 Jane Spiro was an invited speaker from the U.K., conducting several talks at the conference on the topics of creative writing and poetry in the language classroom. The SIG has invited a guest speaker to the JALT International conference again in 2017, in collaboration with the C-Group run by Alan Maley. This year's speaker will be Malu Sciamarelli from Brazil, and she will talk at Tsukuba as well as participating in the Four Corners tour. Presenting and organising events is part of an ongoing discussion amongst the committee and we welcome suggestions about how to manage events and other activities for the SIG.

As well as events such as conferences, the SIG has started to consider other ways to be active and serve the community of SIG members. One of these has been through increased promotion and publicity. Despite having a small committee, we are a dedicated group who are interested in promoting the SIG positively through our activities. We share local and international news related to literature in language teaching through our Facebook group and page. We have everything related to the SIG on the official webpage,

which also hosts the archived newsletters (*The Word*) with content written by the SIG committee. Next we are looking at ways to support attendance of conferences by setting up a grant system to support a member of the SIG to visit the JALT International conference for the first time. Although we are not receiving more interest globally, we remain a local group with our main interests related to the members of the SIG in Japan.

As for the future of the SIG and future goals, these are still being considered at the time of writing. The talk at the forum briefly introduced some suggestions for the SIG, including the possible increase of international support for visitors to Japan, making connections internationally with other groups connected to the goals of the LiLT SIG, and trying to continue connecting our interests with those of other SIGs in Japan also. Through these things we hope to continue to expand our interests.

Finally, as we consider the future plans of the SIG in the next few years, we welcome new members and those who may have time to offer the committee. While the SIG continues to grow and develop, we hope to have many opportunities to welcome new challenges and broaden our horizons in the world of the JALT SIGs and the field of literature.

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## Expanding Interests: Report on the Plenary Panel

Tara McIlroy  
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At the May 2017 PanSIG conference at Akita International University four invited speakers gave a panel discussion about the conference theme “Expand Your Interests.” Through this topic they highlighted current research trends and issues affecting language education in Japan. Next the speakers talked about future directions of language teaching. Focusing on individual interests and how they will affect the field in general, the speakers each introduced his/her area of special expertise including testing, educational policy in Japan, and the language teaching field. This paper reports on the talks given by each of the four invited presenters by providing a summary of each speaker’s ideas.

2017年5月に国際教養大学で開催されたPanSIGフォーラムにて“Expand Your Interests”のテーマで4人のゲストスピーカーによるパネルディスカッションが行われた。そのテーマを通して、日本の言語教育に影響を与える現在の研究の動向と問題が取り上げられ、続いて、言語教育の今後の方向性についても語られた。個々のスピーカーの興味とそれが分野全般にどのように影響するのかに焦点を当てながら、各スピーカーは自身の専門領域を紹介し、テストングや日本の教育政策、言語教育について話をした。本稿では今回のパネルディスカッションにおける4名のゲストスピーカーそれぞれの意見の要約を掲載する。

This is a report on the plenary panel of the 2017 PanSIG conference at Akita International University. The panel was held from 5pm-6pm on Saturday, 20th May, 2017. Four specialist speakers were invited by the conference planning committee to talk about their area of knowledge with a focus on current and future trends in language education in Japan. Their range of expertise covered areas including knowledge of ministry goals and policy and current trends in language testing and implementation. An additional aim of the panel was to give an opportunity for the plenary speakers to speak about their own interests and comment on the conference theme “Expand Your Interests.” The conference theme focused on professional development and growth, which

these plenary speakers also helped to encourage through a sharing of their ideas. This plenary report summarizes perspectives given from each speaker in the session.

The format of this paper is that each panellist relates their interests and research perspective to the conference theme in a short summary. The speakers then also link their research background to the topic of current trends in language teaching. This allows each speaker to focus on their ideas about research and language education in Japan at the current time. First, Tomoe Aoyama introduces 2017 MEXT guidelines and relates these to the current changes in testing which will affect education contexts in Japan. Next, Annette Bradford looks at the development of EMI (English

as a medium of instruction) as a pedagogy for language educators, describing her recent research into university environments and how this affects language educators in the tertiary setting in Japan. Naoyuki Naganuma discusses the impact of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) on teaching and learning practices with a special focus on the effects of testing. Finally, Naoko Ozeki introduces the connection between the CEFR and the guiding principles behind it that relate to the current challenges in English education today and in the future.

## **Language Assessment and Second Language Ability:**

**Tomoe Aoyama**

My interests lie in language assessment and, in particular, how we assess students' language ability. This includes considering how we can improve upon this, what effect assessment has on how English is taught in schools, and how practical assessment can bring positive change to English education in Japan. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) announcement, just 4 days prior to PanSIG, detailing their intention to reform the national unified university entrance examinations made "Expanding your Interests" an all the more relevant conference theme under which to discuss language assessment. The two proposals from the MEXT announcement are listed below:

1. From the 2020 academic year onwards, no English examination will be held as part of the common entrance test. When it comes to English, Accredited Examinations will be used for the selection of university entrants.
2. ... the English language component of the common entrance test will continue to be held until the 2023 academic year. Each university will make its own decision as to whether to use the common entrance test, Accredited Examinations, or both.

(MEXT, 2017)

The first proposal would see a full shift to third party exams, such as Cambridge English exams (KET, PET, FCE, etc.), being used to assess students' English language ability.

The second proposal would include partial usage of the current national exam but would also allow for accredited third party exam results to be accepted.

I think it is fair to say that a change in the way English is assessed at secondary level could allow for broad changes also in the way that English is taught at high schools and would ultimately affect English learning at each level of education from primary upwards. Of course, I would be delighted to see Cambridge English Exams being used as accredited exams and this is principally as I feel the learning-oriented assessment (LOA) model, which all Cambridge exams follow, would move the emphasis of learning English to enhancing lifelong skills from the current situation where students learn English primarily to pass a test.

I believe that choosing where to place emphasis in English education is very important. During the plenary discussion, Professor Naganuma talked about the "Five Domains" of CEFR, which are listening, reading, speaking (interaction), speaking (production) and writing. As we can see speaking is separated into two disciplines but we should be careful not to place all of our focus on improving speaking skills to the detriment of the remaining three skills.

If we look at the performance of secondary school students in East Asia who have taken KET/KET for schools (CEFR A2) in 2016, we will see that Japanese students score well in the speaking portion of the test, exceeding the pass mark on average. However, the same students have weaker listening, reading, and writing skills (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2016). Making sure that we enhance the four skills, or five domains, in a balanced manner is very important.

Looking further into the future, post 2020 problems for English education in Japan would revolve around the uncertainty of funding after the Olympic Games. Presently, there is an appetite amongst politicians for increasing the nation's English ability in preparation for hosting the Olympic Games but will we see a dramatic drop in funding for English education after 2020? I think it is important to invest in teacher training now while the funding is available. Teachers who can gain qualifications, such as CELTA and DELTA, will in the future be better placed to train other teachers internally.

## The Internationalization of Higher Education:

Annette Bradford

My research centers on the internationalization of higher education. In other words, I am interested in how higher education institutions (HEIs) are responding to the forces of globalization and positioning themselves and their students for success both domestically and internationally. In recent years, I've focused on issues surrounding student mobility and English-medium instruction (EMI) in Japanese higher education. These two topics go hand-in-hand. Over the last decade, the Japanese government has redoubled its efforts to both increase the number of international students studying in Japan and the number of Japanese students heading overseas. Simultaneously, the government and HEIs want to increase the global-mindedness and intercultural skills of Japanese students. EMI can be viewed as a tool to help achieve these goals.

The term EMI refers to the teaching of subject-content via the medium of English, with no explicit focus on language teaching or learning. In Japan, universities are now teaching various types of classes in English. The most recent information from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT, 2016) states that students can now study undergraduate classes in English at 274 of Japan's 781 universities and graduate classes at 204 institutions. It is possible to earn an entire undergraduate degree in English in at least 28 universities (Ota, 2017). Undergraduate EMI classes tend to focus on the humanities and social sciences, however those classes that make up entire English-taught degree programs are more likely to be in the fields of natural sciences and engineering (Bradford & Brown, 2017).

The student and faculty composition of EMI classes can vary greatly. Across Japan, most undergraduate EMI students are Japanese students taking a few classes in English as part of their predominantly Japanese-medium degree program. However, there are increasing numbers of international students enrolled in mainstream degree programs in Japan, and many will find their way into EMI classes. Short-term visiting exchange students and long-term international students enrolled in English-taught degree

programs will also take EMI classes. There may be a mix of these students in any given EMI class.

The faculty members teaching in EMI programs are similarly diverse. Both Japanese and non-Japanese faculty teach in EMI classes, although research indicates that EMI classes are more likely to be taught by Japanese faculty members (Brown, 2015). Many of these Japanese faculty members are younger and have overseas graduate school qualifications and work experience. Some will have been hired directly to teach in EMI programs, but many will already be teaching in Japanese-medium programs. Some of the non-Japanese faculty members involved with EMI are language specialists who are teaching EMI subject-content classes in addition to their language classes, while others are content specialists hired directly into EMI programs or taking on EMI in addition to their Japanese-medium teaching responsibilities.

The conference theme "Expand your Interests" is very relevant to the increasing interest in student mobility and EMI. Those involved in these new programs are experiencing new ways of learning and teaching. It is also relevant to language educators. As a language specialist in Japan, you may not be directly involved in leading trips abroad or teaching subject-content. However, it is probable that the students you teach will be enrolled in such programs. Many students are no longer learning English as a strictly academic exercise or to become merely conversational. Instead they have more focused language learning goals that may center on passing English proficiency tests to enter a foreign university or on academic skills and discipline-specific language to succeed in an EMI class. For the language teacher, this may mean expanding your professional interests to meet the needs of those students.

It can, however, be challenging to find out exactly what EMI student needs are. At many HEIs, there is disconnect between language and EMI programs, and language specialists often do not have direct lines of communication to those teaching subject-content. Yet, coordination and coherence are key elements in EMI programs. When language programs introduce and reinforce the language and skills needed in EMI classes, students are more likely to succeed (Iyobe and Li, 2017). It is therefore



essential to reach out informally to colleagues teaching EMI classes to find out what they expect from their students.

### **Language Learning Motivation and the Direction of the Next Course of Study:**

**Naoyuki Naganuma**

My research background has always been in the fields of language learning motivation and testing. The current direction of the MEXT's foreign language educational reform movement to promote setting achievement goals in the form of CAN-DO lists in the secondary schools is highly interesting. For me, a can-do oriented assessment is a motivational tool to promote learner autonomy, as suggested by the CEFR and the ELP (European Language Portfolio). At the same time, it is a tool to enhance self-efficacy of learners in future learning and use of the language. The idea of learning-oriented assessment (Jones & Saville, 2016) is essential when you set a can-do list in your class or school. Performance assessments based on can-do descriptors are not only important to give a final grade (as a summative assessment). They also give learners a chance and a feeling of confidence to perform a task with scaffoldings when necessary (as a formative assessment). Monitoring of task performance and adjustment of target attainment goal based on such monitoring during the process of learning needs to be emphasized. Otherwise you may demotivate learners by sticking to the prescribed and pre-set can-do list of goals to be achieved by the end of semester and ignore what they are becoming able to do through the task over the course of the class.

Another aspect of the reform movement which attracts my interest is the concept of active learning. What needs to be active is not just production but reception as well. Deep input processing is a key for deep output processing. Without a deep understanding of the text to foster thinking, you cannot expect much from learners when they produce their opinions. The focus of understanding changes and the input becomes more meaningful when you have a purpose of output. Taking perspectives from the texts can work as a scaffolding of thinking skills in output processing. Learners can internalize the value of the message in the texts from multiple resources and integrate them to develop their own

opinion in their output. Such deep input processing can be encouraged by deep involvement of learners into the theme of the text. We need to foster curiosity and develop the inquiry skill and learning attitudes of learners when they are facing a text. A situational interest of the topic may become more individualized and eventually a well-developed new interest when they try to internalize the value of the theme of the text. Teachers as well need to expand their interests, be open to new interests and values, and be willing to search for an interesting theme in the text to be shared with the students. The CLIL (content and language integrated learning) approach can be promising in the sense that it puts more focus on the content of the text and does not treat a text just as a source of language. Deep active learning will be facilitated when you have a cycle of deep input and deep output connected by deep involvement.

These two new directions of the next Course of Study may be challenging enough for teachers, but we must not forget about the coming change in the university entrance exam system. The four-skill entrance exams are going to be promoted and learners may have a positive washback effect in their learning, focusing more on productive skills. However, most of the high-stake external tests do not offer a chance to assess spoken interaction skills (as in the Cambridge English) while the Course of Study will emphasize five skill areas including both spoken production and interaction influenced by the CEFR. On top of that, integrated skills such as speaking or writing after reading a text or listening to a lecture (as in the TOEFL iBT integrated tasks) are missing and not a target of assessment in most of the cases in those tests. We should be careful to note that tests cannot simply be compared with the scores of other ones by referring to the CEFR levels, because individual test tasks are different across the tests, each of which has a different test construct. Teachers need to have assessment literacy to see the match (and/or gap) between the attainment goals and the final assessments and best elicit the possible washback effects from the external tests to motivate learners.

## Guiding Principles of the CEFR and the Course of Study in Japan: Naoko Ozeki

I am interested in ELT and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) because the guiding principle of the Course of Study in Japan, *zest for life*, is similar to that of CEFR. For example, *zest for life* consists of three components: (a) academic skill that includes the abilities to plan, think, and act independently; (b) human qualities that cultivate self-discipline together with consideration for others; and (c) health and physical fitness. The first two components correspond to intercultural communicative competence and learner autonomy, which are guiding principles of CEFR. Intercultural communicative competence includes the following abilities: (a) the ability to respond to others in nonjudgmental ways; (b) the ability to listen positively; (c) the ability to show respect and a positive attitude toward others; (d) the ability to tolerate ambiguity; and (e) the ability to participate in social interaction when learning (Verjans, Rajagopal, Baten, Dusat & Van Maele, 2011).

CEFR's guiding principle of learner autonomy entails understanding two perspectives. One is a cognitive-psychological perspective, and the other is a sociocultural perspective. The ultimate objective of both approaches is to foster learner autonomy. The cognitive-psychological perspective focuses on the individual's cognitive processes such as metacognitive and cognitive processes. This relates to researching and developing learning strategies. For instance, autonomous learners set learning goals, plan their learning, monitor their learning, solve problems while learning, and reflect on their learning after achieving their goals. On the other hand, the sociocultural perspective involves not only individuals but also the society around them and it focuses on the continuing relationship between society and the individual. It is based on Vygotsky's (1978) idea that social interaction is the basis for the development of an individual's higher level mental activity. He described this process using the metaphor *the zone of proximal development*. Therefore, from a sociocultural approach, autonomous learners are those who can develop constructive relations with others and proceed to the next level of learning with the help of others.

Academic skill, a key concept of the Course of Study, corresponds to learner autonomy from the cognitive-psychological perspective. Another concept of the Course of Study, human qualities that promote self-discipline together with consideration for others, is similar to learner autonomy from the sociocultural perspective. These findings suggest that the underlying educational principles of the Course of Study and CEFR are alike, regardless of the cultural contexts. The conference theme, "Expand Your Interests" is relevant to my educational perspective. For example, I became interested in CEFR because initially, I was a member of a research group (KAKEN) that focused on developing a Japanese version of CEFR, *CEFR-J*. I then investigated the principles of CEFR, and found similarities between CEFR and the Course of Study. Often when you are interested in one topic, you will also explore related areas, thereby deepening your understanding.

Regarding the challenges facing English language teaching in Japan today, there are two major issues. One is English education at the primary school level. In 2020, English will be a required subject for fifth and sixth graders. These students will learn English and be evaluated accordingly. Furthermore, foreign language activities, which are English activities conducted in many schools, will begin in grades three and four. In principle, homeroom teachers will teach English, regardless of their English proficiency levels or teaching experience. This is controversial.

The second major issue related to English teaching in Japan is the university English entrance exams. There is no consistency between the content of the Course of Study and that of university English entrance exams. The Course of Study states that the four skills should be integrated and taught accordingly, especially in the subjects "Communication English I, II, and III." A recent MEXT survey found that 88.1% of public high schools set their English education goals in the form of CAN-DO lists. To achieve these goals, they try to integrate the four skills using action-oriented teaching and then they use performance tests to evaluate students' speaking and writing. Nevertheless, the current national English center test involves only two skills, reading and listening. Private university entrance exams usually test only reading. On the other hand, universities that

were chosen by MEXT as super global universities have begun to use the results of achievement tests such as TOEFL, IELTS, and TEAP for university admission. As secondary school English classes have changed, university English entrance exams have also begun to change.

### Conclusion

In the plenary panel at the PanSIG conference a number of topics related to language learning and assessment were discussed in relation to the theme “Expand Your Interests.” This report brings together the summary discussions from the panel, bringing the research areas into focus. As a way of documenting the forum, this paper reports on the panel with the aim of reporting on the event to aide future panels and conference planning.

Finally, it is relevant to comment on the diversity of the group in the 2017 panel. Three out of four of the speakers were Japanese, a higher proportion of Japanese plenary panelists than usual for a JALT event. JALT has a number of Japanese members, but their presence can sometimes be in the minority at JALT events. There was a fifth speaker, Bern Mulvey, who was regrettably unable to attend the event. A number of conference attendees commented after the session that they appreciated the presence of female and Japanese plenary speakers this year, which reflects the changes occurring in educational contexts in Japan and internationally. Thus in selecting panelists and conducting the panel we hope that the event did indeed show JALT’s intentions to expand interests.

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## JALT Special Interest Groups and the PanSIG conference

### Extensive Reading SIG (ER)

The ER SIG exists to help promote extensive reading (ER) in Japan. Through our website, our newsletter, the ERJ Journal, and presentations throughout Japan we aim to help teachers set up and make the most of their ER programmes.

### Framework and Language Portfolio SIG (FLP)

FLP SIG wants to discuss the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) and European Language Portfolio (ELP), and other similar frameworks and their relevance for Japan. There is an emphasis on developing materials to support educators who would like to use these pedagogic tools. This is currently practically pursued in a Kaken Project. Also, the bilingual Language Portfolio aimed at Japanese universities is available on the SIG moodle.

### Gender Awareness in Language Education SIG (GALE)

The purpose of the GALE SIG is to research gender and its implications for language learning, teaching, and training. We welcome submissions for our newsletter (spring, summer, and fall issues) on topics, both theoretical and practical, related to the SIG's aims. Book reviews, lesson plans, think pieces, poetry -- basically anything related to gender and language teaching is welcomed.

### Global Issues in Language Education SIG (GILE)

GILE aims to promote global awareness, international understanding, and action to solve world problems through content-based language teaching, drawing from fields such as global education, peace education, environmental education, and human rights education. GILE SIG produces a quarterly newsletter, organizes presentations for local, national, and international conferences, and maintains contacts with groups ranging from Amnesty International to Educators for Social Responsibility to UNESCO.

### Japanese as a Second Language SIG (JSL)

日本語教育研究部会(JSL SIG)の役割は、第二言語としての日本語指導、日本語学習、日本語教育研究の向上を目指し、指導、学習、研究のための資料や情報を与えることです。日本語の指導者、学習者、研究者の皆様加入大歓迎です。発表の援助をし、ニューズレターと論文集を発行するので論文・記事の寄稿を歓迎します。

The mission of the JSL SIG is to serve as a resource for promoting JSL teaching, learning and research. We welcome JSL teachers, learners, and researchers to join and take an active role in our SIG. We sponsor presentations, and publish a newsletter and a journal.

### Learner Development SIG (LD)

The LD SIG is a lively energetic group sharing an interest in ways to promote learner (and teacher!) development and autonomy.

LD SIG は、多様な教育現場(大学以外)でご活躍の皆さんの参加を歓迎しています。小学校、中学校、高校、通信教育、大学院、語学学校での指導や、英語以外の言語を教えている教師の皆様、どうぞご参加ください。

## Lifelong Language Learning SIG (LLL)

We offer a bright future to our aging society. The energy of older learners who wish to lead active lives is flowing all over Japan. LLL is willing to help these older learners enrich their lives through language learning. LLL also provides resources and information for teachers who teach English to older learners by holding events and publishing online newsletters.

## Literature in Language Teaching SIG (LiLT)

LiLT started up to encourage and promote the use of literature in the language classroom.

Literature provides real content to engage and to motivate our EFL students.

## Materials Writers SIG (MW)

The MW SIG was established to help members turn fresh teaching ideas into useful classroom materials. We try to be a mutual assistance network, offering information regarding copyright law, sharing practical advice on publishing practices, including self-publication, and suggesting ways to create better language learning materials for general consumption or for individual classroom use.

## Mind, Brain, and Education SIG

The Mind, Brain, and Education SIG is a forum for language educators and researchers to share insights in neuroscience. We hope to be a driving force in bringing relevant new discoveries in psychology, cognitive neuroscience and neurolinguistics into language teaching in Japan.

## Other Language Educators SIG (OLE)

The OLE SIG was founded in 1996 in order to serve the special needs of learners and teachers of a wide variety of languages (German, French, Chinese, Korean, Spanish, and Russian etc.). OLE can also be considered part of peace education as languages are also thought to be instrumental in developing cultural empathy, opening up our minds to other concepts and ideas, and enabling us to reflect on our own.

## Pragmatics SIG (PRAG)

The Pragmatics SIG welcomes members who are interested in both research and practical teaching issues related to “how people do things with words.” The group’s newsletter, *Pragmatic Matters*, is published electronically three times a year. Our Pragmatics Resources series offers practical and theoretical articles on language in use. If you do anything with language, you are using pragmatics.

## School Owners SIG (SO)

Language School owners have always played a significant role in JALT both at national & local levels. The SIG functions as a private online forum where owners can share ideas, experiences & solutions to the academic and commercial challenges they face which cannot be addressed through other SIGs such as: recruitment & training; taxes, accounting, banking and bookkeeping; marketing & advertising; and partnerships & trade between owners.

## Speech, Drama, & Debate SIG (SD&D)

The mission of the SD&D SIG is to provide a forum for teachers and academics to discuss, research, and implement oral interpretation, speech, debate, and drama in language education. The main activities are creation of newsletters, two journals, and sponsoring a Speech, Drama, and Debate conference. Future activities may be sponsoring and supporting local and regional speech, drama, and debate contests or festivals.

## Study Abroad SIG (SA)

The JALT Study Abroad SIG was established in 2008 to promote research on overseas study and facilitate networking among those interesting in learning more about study abroad.

## Task-Based Learning SIG (TBL)

The TBL SIG is aimed at teachers who currently use, or are interested in using, task-based approaches in the classroom. TBL SIG focuses in particular on issues related to Task-based Language teaching and learning in the Asian EFL context, where TBLT has yet to enter the mainstream of language pedagogy. We hope that the SIG will serve as a useful forum for the exchange of practical teaching ideas, theoretical discussion, and academic studies of TBLT issues.

## Teacher Development SIG (TD)

The TD SIG is a network for those who want to help themselves and others become better teachers. Our activities include retreats, mini-conferences, social and networking events, and forums & presentations. TD's comprehensive newsletter, *Explorations in Teacher Education*, welcomes stimulating articles!

## Teachers Helping Teachers SIG (THT)

THT is a grassroots organization founded by members of the Himeji Chapter of JALT in 2004, out of the efforts of the late Bill Balsamo, longtime president of the Himeji chapter. THT is dedicated to the aid and assistance of fellow educators and students in and around Asia. We fulfill this mission by providing teacher-training workshops in Bangladesh, Kyrgyzstan, Laos, and Vietnam that exhibit practical, student and teacher-friendly approaches to language education that are informed by current research in the field.

## Teaching Younger Learners SIG (TYL)

The TYL SIG is for teachers of children of all ages. We publish a bilingual newsletter four times a year with columns by many of the leading teachers in the field. We are always looking for new ideas and new people to keep the SIG dynamic. With our bilingual newsletter, *The School House*, we particularly want to appeal to Japanese teachers and teachers who team teach.

## Testing and Evaluation SIG (TEVAL)

TEVAL SIG aims to provide avenues for research, information, and discussion related to foreign language testing and evaluation both from within JALT membership and with other professional organizations which have common interests and goals. Current and back issues of *Shiken*, the TEVAL SIG publication, are available on the TEVAL website.

## Vocabulary SIG (VOCAB)

The VOCAB SIG aims to provide a forum for focused research and discussion in specific regard to vocabulary acquisition. We aim to offer both teachers and researchers a place to connect regarding how learners improve vocabulary knowledge, how to test their knowledge, and how these theoretical aspects will connect to classroom practice. The VOCAB SIG aims to be a driving force for both current and future research in the field of how vocabulary can be taught, learned, and tested in an increasingly global context.

**Pan SIG**  
Expand Your Interests



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