

The 2015 PanSIG Journal

Narratives: Raising the Happiness Quotient



Raising the Happiness Quotient
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Message from the editors:

The *14th Annual PanSIG Conference* was held at Kobe City University of Foreign Studies on May 16th and 17th, 2015. The theme of the conference was, “Narratives: Raising the Happiness Quotient.” 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.

With this year conference the name of the post conference publication has been changed to the *2015 PanSIG Journal* to reflect the work that the authors’ put into their papers. With a blind peer review process and dedicated reviewing and editing committees, along with motivated and professional authors, the quality of the papers submitted to the post conference publication is consistently very high. The same is true for the papers that have been included in the *2015 PanSIG Journal*. This year’s publication is a representative effort from the conference in Kobe and 30 papers from a number of different SIGs on a diverse range of topics were accepted for publication in this year’s volume. These include papers that focus on both research topics and teaching practices and serve to highlight the effort and creativity of the participants of the conference and the members of the SIGs involved. The quantity of presentations and published papers from the conference are increasing year by year and show the professional determination of talented individuals who have shared their thoughts and insights on teaching languages. We are honoured and proud to have been a part of this process.

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

Gavin Brooks
Mathew Porter
Donna Fujimoto
Donna Tatsuki
May 14, 2015

Message from the conference chairs:

All good stories have an ending, and this publication of the *2015 PanSIG Journal* marks the successful final closure of the *14th Annual PanSIG Conference* held at Kobe City University of Foreign Studies. The theme, “Narratives: Raising the Happiness Quotient” resonated positively throughout the two-day conference with the plenary and featured speakers all demonstrating how stories and storytelling can create successful and happy outcomes in the classroom. There was drama as well, with some doubting that we could pull off a conference in only six months. Having worked at the university for years, we (the Conference Co-Chairs) were familiar with the campus, and, most importantly, the faculty and administrative staff had had experience holding important events, and, thus, had no hesitation in giving their full support to acting as the host institution. Once the decision was made, many SIG leaders and members came on board to work on all the details that are essential for a solid conference. The feedback from many conference goers was favorable, and many loved the idea of exchanging stories of all types. Happily, the conference was quite profitable contributing not only to SIG coffers, but, of course, to their happiness quotient.

For some presenters the end of the conference was not yet the end of their efforts, as they continued working on their presentations by submitting articles for these proceedings. During the school year and even during their breaks, they worked closely with the editors revising, sometimes multiple times. All of this collaborative work has paid off, and there is no doubt that with the completion of this *2015 PanSIG Journal* the happiness quotient of the writers, the editors, and readers has increased significantly. We congratulate the writers, and we wish to thank everyone who contributed to the conference. It is indeed a great pleasure to see that now these proceedings are a happy reminder of the *2015 PanSIG Conference!*

Donna Fujimoto
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May 19, 2015

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An Extensive Reading and Extensive Listening Program in a Japanese Elementary School

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There is a growing amount of research supporting the use of Extensive Reading (ER) and Extensive Listening for improving second language competence. In Japan, most ER studies have focused on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners at high schools or universities. There is a lack of research involving younger EFL learners. This paper describes a pilot study carried out on a group of children attending a semi-immersion elementary school in Tokushima and discusses the impact of the ER/EL program on the 27 participating fourth graders over the course of one year.

第二言語の能力向上のために「多読」と「多聴」が効果的であるとする研究が多くなってきている。日本では「多読」に関する研究の多くが、高校や大学レベルの語学教育に焦点を合わせて行われている。それ以前の、年少の英語学習者についての研究が、不足しているのではないかとと思われる。本稿は、イメージ方式を部分的に採用している徳島の小学校の児童を対象にして行った実験的研究について述べ、1年間にわたって「多読／多聴」プログラムに参加した27名の4年生にどのような効果が見られたかを報告し検討する。

Extensive Reading has been gaining popularity in EFL teaching in recent years and has also become a popular research topic. It is now commonly believed that foreign languages can be acquired faster and more effectively when the learning experience is an enjoyable one. The focus of ER is on pleasure, motivation and low anxiety. ER is a method in which the learner reads large amounts of easy material of his choice “with the intention of obtaining pleasure from the text” (Susser & Robb, 1990). Currently many ER practitioners complement reading with the process of listening to audio-books “as a means of supplying the prosodic features of spoken English which are absent from the written text” (Stephens, 2015). The prosodic features

of a text are paramount to its meaning, but may not be apparent from the written form. EFL learners, who do not yet possess a memory of spoken English, do not have the ability to superimpose rhythm and intonation onto a written text without audio support.

Around the world, EFL learners of all ages have been the subjects of ER studies. In one study in Yemen, Bell (2001) measured the reading speed and reading comprehension of a group of children who had read graded readers extensively for two semesters. When their scores were compared to a control group that had engaged in “intensive” reading (slow and careful word for word analysis of a text) for the same period of time, the ER group was reported to have gained significantly higher scores. In addition to reading fluency and vocabulary acquisition, improved writing skills have also been attributed to the inclusion of ER into EFL programs. In a study at a Taiwanese university involving over 200 students, Mermelstein (2015) found that notable progress had been

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achieved in the students' writing ability following 29 weeks of extensive reading using graded readers. In another Taiwanese study, Sheu (2003) successfully implemented a beginner ER program into a traditional school setting. The native-Chinese-speaking second-grade junior high school students who participated in the program showed significant improvement in language proficiency tests, reading speed and general attitudes towards reading after participating in weekly 45 minute ER sessions for two semesters. A control group that was engaged in other language activities, such as vocabulary and grammar learning during this time, showed no improvement (this group even appeared to have made a significant drop in a test measuring vocabulary).

ER is rapidly spreading through secondary schools and universities in Japan (Claffin 2012a). Kyoto Sangyo University (the university that hosted the first World Congress on Extensive Reading in 2011) began ER back in 1988, pioneered by Dr. Thomas Robb, and much research has been done there since its introduction (Claffin 2012b). At the National Institute of Technology in Aichi Prefecture, a four-year study was carried out on "reluctant engineering students" (Nishizawa, Yoshioka & Fukuda, 2003). The researchers found that students who had reached a reading amount of 300,000 words were starting to show significant increases in their TOEIC scores. A study by Nakanishi and Ueda (2011) indicated that ER combined with shadowing could have even more benefits than ER alone.

Although ER research at secondary and tertiary institutions is bountiful, data on younger Japanese EFL learners is scarce. A possible explanation for this deficiency might be that most researchers tend to be employed at high schools and universities, where they conduct studies on the students in their classes. That is not to say that ER for younger learners is not popular in Japan. On the contrary, *tadoku* (reading extensively) is widely discussed in teaching blogs, and private language schools have taken a great interest in it. ECC Junior, the largest chain of franchise English schools in Japan, has included ER in its "Super Learning Plan." Students are encouraged to read 30 books per year from a graded reader series called *Page Turners*. An

"Extensive Reading and Shadowing" program (*ondoku to shadooingu*) is also available for children from as early as grade one. Students using this method imitate native-speaker English through listening and reading (eccjr.co.jp). Teachers are required to participate in numerous training seminars each year depending on the number and types of classes they teach. An acquaintance of mine who runs an ECC classroom attends more than 10 training workshops per year in order to maintain her qualifications as a Home Teacher.

Smaller private schools catering for young learners have also adopted extensive reading schemes. Cynthia Akazawa (2016) has been incorporating extensive reading and extensive listening strategies in a literacy program for six-year-old children at her school since 2007. She has developed an innovative way of using singing and reading with exaggerated intonation to create audio CDs of storybooks that her young pupils can enjoy with their caregivers outside of class to complement the pre-literacy activities they do in her lessons. Akazawa's school has a reading library with 100 books appropriate for pre-school-aged children. She has observed that young children interact with books more than older children and believes that enjoyable shared reading experiences at a young age will increase children's chances of becoming early independent readers.

In 2020, all Japanese children will start obligatory English classes from grade three as part of a government program to boost Japan's global competitiveness (MEXT). Fifth and sixth graders, who currently have 45 minutes of English per week focusing on simple verbal activities, will then have full-fledged language classes including reading and writing three times per week. Most elementary school teachers in Japan have had no specialized training in EFL, their English is inadequate, and they are not well prepared for the sudden increase in language classes (Yoshida, 2013). Bringing easy children's books with audio support into the classroom might be an effective way to alleviate the situation.

Establishing the Pilot Program

In April 2014, I received a research grant for a proposal

entitled “How effective is an Extensive Reading/Extensive Listening program for young Japanese EFL learners.” The two-year project involves a group of pupils at a private elementary school in Tokushima. The school has an integrated English program running alongside the Ministry-approved regular curriculum. There are several native-English speaking teachers employed at the school who teach subjects such as Math, Science, Social Studies, Art and Music entirely in English. By the time they reach third grade, most of the children have basic English communication skills and are able to read and understand simple picture books and other age-appropriate reading material. One of the school’s policies is for all students at the school to pass the Grade 3 EIKEN test by the time they are in grade six. The EIKEN test has become one of the most popular English proficiency tests in Japan. According to the EIKEN Website, 332,790 children of elementary school age or younger took the test in the 2014 academic year. Since English classes became a requirement for fifth and sixth graders in 2011, the number of young children taking the EIKEN test has risen rapidly.

As the school is small and has only one class in each grade, it was decided that the ER/EL project would be carried out on the entire fourth grade class. At the beginning of the school year, parents and guardians of the participating 27 children were informed of the program and their cooperation solicited. The children would be doing their reading and listening at home, as their busy school timetable did not allow the inclusion of Sustained Silent Reading time during school hours. It was therefore up to the parents to provide a home environment that enabled the children to read quietly for longer periods of time as well as a CD player for the listening component of the program. All the books acquired for the program came with an audio CD. We anticipated that the audio support would pull the weaker readers along at a more natural speed. We also hoped that listening to the CDs while following the text in the book would help the children learn the correct pronunciation of any new words they encountered. The audio CDs also model English rhythm and intonation and they are sometimes enhanced with interesting sound effects.

In May 2014, the children were given a pre-program English proficiency test to determine their starting level. With permission from the EIKEN Foundation of Japan, the Grade Pre-2 EIKEN test was administered. I anticipated that this level would probably be quite challenging for most of the children at this stage, but that it would also give us a good indication of the children’s progress after one year. In June the first 40 books arrived and were sorted into four levels from easy to most difficult using a color-coding system. Much of the literature relating to ER recommends using only graded readers for EFL learners because authentic material that is designed for native-English speakers contains too many unknown words. Claffin (2012b), however, suggests that easy L1 children’s books can be useful as a bridge to more challenging native speaker literature (in Chaffin’s study a group university students benefitted from reading easy children’s books that were offered alongside graded readers).

When deciding on book titles to order, I found that a large number of L1 picture books for young children were well within the linguistic ability of the children in our program, and the language compared favourably. Subsequently, many popular L1 books (such as titles from the Oxford Reading Tree and The Magic Treehouse series) were included in the collection.

In June preparations were complete and the program began. Each participating child was given a starting color based on their test score and presented with a soft carry case. The carry case provides protection for the book and CD sets during transportation between school and home, and gives the children a sense that the books are special and should be treated with care. It also fits neatly into the firm-sided school backpack that Japanese children bring to school (*randozeru*). The children reading at the easy levels were required to take home two book sets per week while children reading at a higher level took home only one set. The higher level books were longer, had fewer illustrations and more text per page. Books assigned to the most difficult level included chapter books of various lengths.

On a designated day each week, the children would

return their book sets and borrow new ones. A weekly report form on which the children recorded the titles of the books they had read and the number of times they had read/listened to them was submitted on borrowing days. A space was provided for comments and requests for new titles, but this was optional. Many of the ideas for setting up the ER/EL program were inspired by Rob Waring's article "Getting an Extensive Reading Program Going" (2012).

By the end of the first year, the children had engaged in 38 weeks of at-home reading and listening. It was not surprising to find that most of them had improved scores when a second test was administered in March of 2015. Figure 1 shows the pre-and post-test results for each participating child (n=24, three children were absent on one of the test days).

Reflections on the first year and suggestions for improvements

March 2015 marked the end of the school year and the completion of the first year of the ER/EL program. A survey was conducted in which the children and their parents were asked to write about their experiences in the program thus far. Many who responded were keen to see the program continue for another year. The fourth grade homeroom teacher observed that the number of children passing the EIKEN Grade Pre-2 examination was much higher than in previous years. If the children continue to improve at the same rate, it is expected that half of them will be able to attain EIKEN Grade 2 level (the level aimed at Japanese high school graduates) by the time they reach grade six. Although many of the children showed dramatic improvement during the first 38 weeks, some changes and adjustments to the program may benefit those who seemed to have made little or no progress.

The ten principles of ER offered by Day and Bamford (1998) describe "the characteristics that are found in successful extensive reading programs" (p 7). These principles have often been applied by researchers as a guide to developing an ER program. In *The SSR Handbook*, Janice Pilgreen (2000) similarly identifies eight factors for maximizing the effectiveness of a reading program based on a study of common factors

of successful programs. Below I will attempt to rate our program with respect to these eight factors and suggest some improvements for the future.

Factor One: Access

In her study of successful reading programs, Pilgreen (2000) discovered that easy access to reading material was of paramount importance.

The key to providing access in all of these programs was that the researchers made sure that students were directly provided with a large number of readily available reading materials. The burden did not fall upon the readers to locate their own reading materials outside of school (p.9).

In our program, the color coded book and CD sets were stored in the children's classroom in plastic boxes of corresponding colors. Although borrowing day was once a week, the children were free to examine the sets at their leisure. Newly arrived titles were briefly introduced to the whole class before taking their place in the easily accessible color boxes. Currently about 400 book sets are available to the 27 children, who are now in the fifth grade and, at the time of writing, well into their second year of the reading program.

Factor Two: Appeal

Broadly defined, appeal means that reading material is sufficiently interesting and provocative enough for students to want to read them. A crucial element of book appeal is self-selection, or the opportunity for students to choose what they want to read regardless of the teacher's preferences... (Pilgreen, 2000, p.9).

After the first few sets of books had arrived, I was able to ascertain the kinds of books the children preferred to read. Many of the books they requested were not on my list of "wholesome reading material," but, as Pilgreen (2000) also points out, the teacher may not be the best judge of what children like to read (p. 49). In school, children rarely get the opportunity to self-select their reading material. This is usually done by adults and textbooks that dictate what is to be read.

Pre- and Post-Test Results by Student

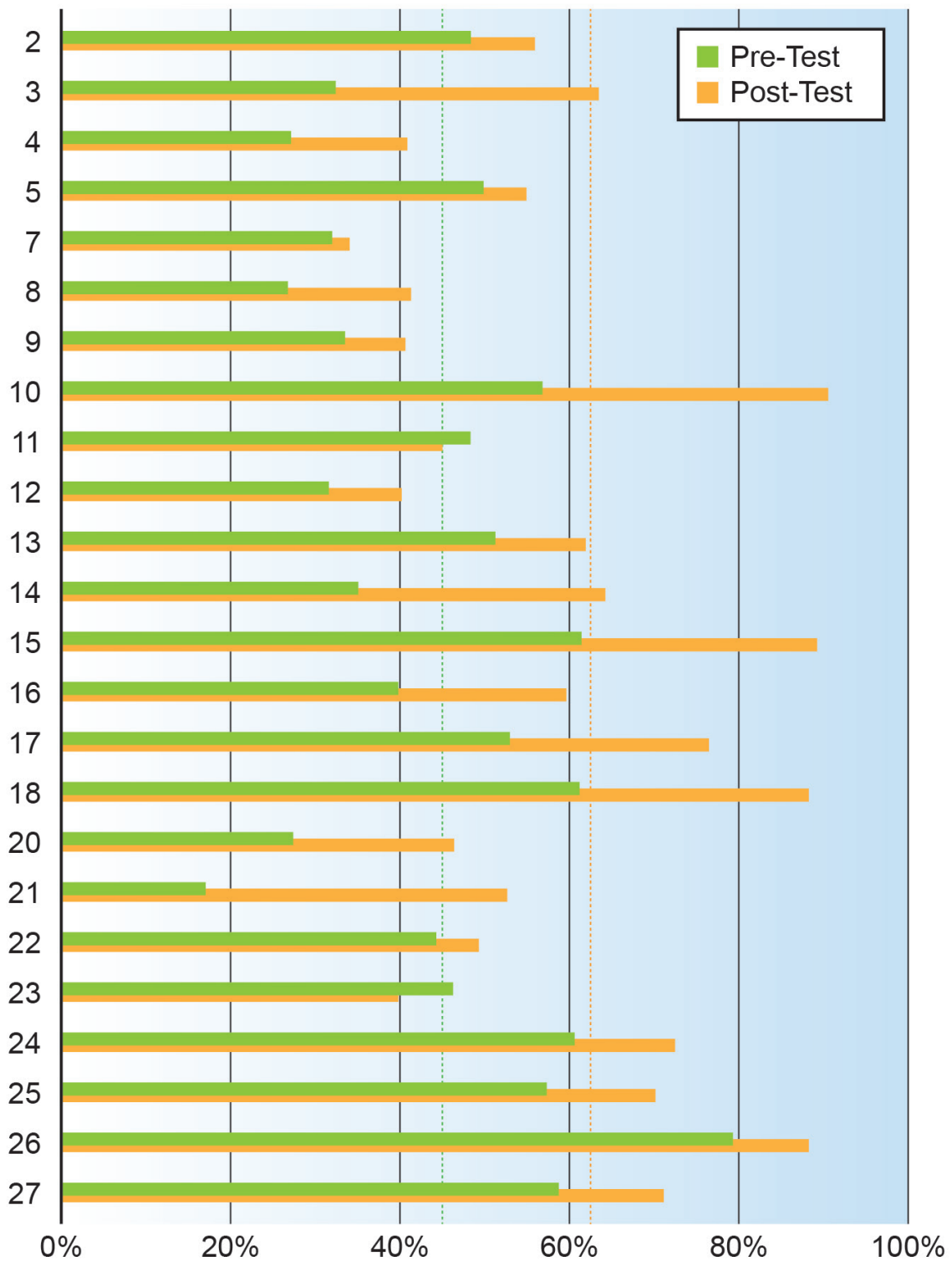


Figure 1. Pre- and post-test results by students

The children find it quite delightful to have complete freedom to choose the books they want to read.

The appeal of our program was certainly raised by allowing the children to decide what to read (within the constraints of their reading level). Titles in the Disney Read-Along series turned out to be most

popular and appealed to both sexes. Surprisingly, we found some boys eagerly reading not only titles such as *Cars*, *Planes* and *Star Wars*, but even *Sleeping Beauty*, *Frozen* and *Tangled*. Being reasonably priced at around 800 yen per set (in 2014), I was able to purchase as many titles as I could find.

Factor Three: Conducive Environment

It was valuable to see that in most of the studies, comfort and quiet were the main criteria for achieving an effective reading environment (Pilgreen, 2000, p.12).

Pilgreen reviewed studies where reading took place at school for a fixed period (such as 15 or 20 minutes) every day during school hours. Since our program required the children to do their reading at home, we could not monitor or control this factor. Finding a cozy place to read in one's home seems like an easier task than finding such a place in one's classroom. Introducing reading time during school hours is, however, one of the improvements I would like to add to this program in the future (see Factor Eight).

Factor Four: Encouragement

Encouraging children to read is a critical issue for us today in the age of movies, videos and computer games. (Pilgreen, 2000, p.58)

There is no assurance that putting students in a conducive environment with a wide range of interesting books will actually stimulate them to read (Pilgreen, 2000, p.12).

In many reading programs the teacher participates in the daily reading routine which takes place in the classroom. This is ideal because the teacher becomes a role model and inspires the students with enthusiasm for books (of course, the teacher must also appear to be enjoying the reading process). In our program the children completed their reading at home and the teacher did not model silent reading. To compensate, I tried to employ other incentives to help encourage the children not to lose interest. The color and design of their weekly report sheet was regularly updated and the children had the opportunity to give feedback about the books they read. The children's excitement was maintained by filling the book boxes with new titles regularly and making it a priority to acquire the titles requested by the children.

Factor Five: Staff Training

What seems to be critical is that ... the researchers focused on motivating teachers to learn strategies for linking students with books, highlighting the importance of having all of the participating adults 'buy into' the concept of free reading (Pilgreen, 2000, p.14).

This is another factor where improvements to our program need to be made. Due to my unique relationship to the school (namely that of a "researcher," instead of a regular member of the teaching staff), my access to the children and teachers at the school is limited. My weekly visits allow me only enough time for a brief meeting with the homeroom teacher or an occasional chat with the children to introduce newly arrived books or administer tests. After noticing that many of the other teachers were not aware of the reading program I was conducting, I distributed information about it in the staffroom. As Uozumi and Takase (2012) point out, teacher training is essential for a successful ER program, even after its implementation. Staff training must become a priority if the ER/EL program at this school is to be continued and expanded to all grades.

Factor Six: Non-Accountability

The key to non-accountability ... is to omit any activity that gives students the message that they are responsible for completing a task, comprehending a particular portion of their reading, or showing they have made improvement in some way. In order to get the most enjoyment possible from their reading, they should feel no obligation associated with it (Pilgreen, 2000, p.15).

Other than reading, listening and reporting the book titles to me, the children in our program had no other obligations to fulfill. There was no monitoring, checking or follow-up language work. Although the reading was assigned as part of the children's "homework," we did not want it to feel like "work" and tried to keep the focus on enjoyment. One of the long-term aims of the program is to develop good reading

Pre- and Post-Test Results

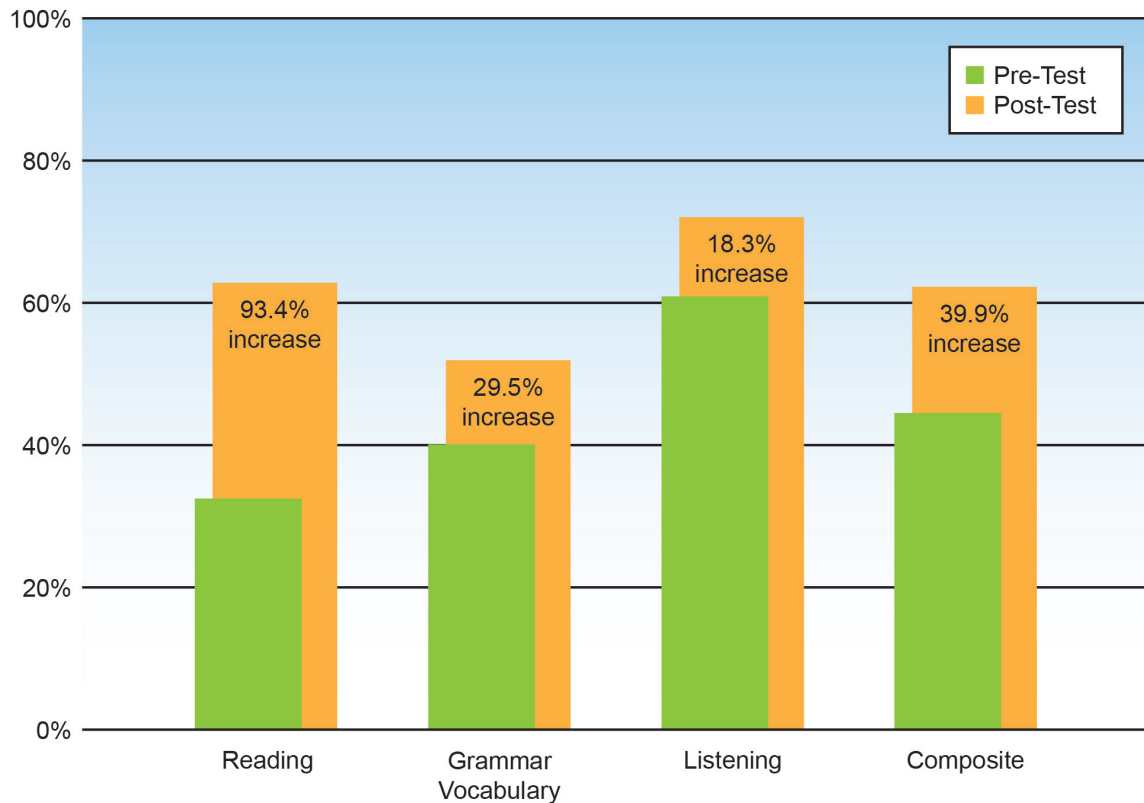


Figure 2. Pre-and post- test results.

habits and encourage reading for pleasure. Introducing the children to the magic of reading is as important to me as helping them to improve their English language skills.

Factor Seven: Follow-up Activities

Follow-up activities encourage students to sustain their excitement about the books they have read. (Pilgreen, 2000, p.16)

The only caution we must observe is that we do not ask students to do anything that seems evaluative in nature. Otherwise, we make the mistake of crossing over the line which divides follow-up experiences from accountability measures (Pilgreen, 2000, p. 17).

Pilgreen suggests that creative and interactive activities in which students can share their enthusiasm for the books they have read with others are valuable learning experiences. In our program, no follow-up activities were conducted. Activities such as writing or talking about a book, drawing favorite characters,

making a poster or rating a book using the five-star rating system could be fun ways for the children to introduce books to their classmates.

Pilgreen (2000) mentions Peer Encouragement as “a very powerful motivating factor” (p. 67). All of the book and CD sets in our program are stored in the classroom and are readily accessible. The children can often be observed looking through the books and talking about them with their friends during break times. This may have a positively motivating influence on the more reluctant readers in the class.

Factor Eight: Distributed Time to Read

Since students don't always have opportunities to read at home, they must be provided time to read in school. It follows, then, that time to read must also be offered on a regular basis in order to promote the habit of reading (Pilgreen, 2000, p. 18).

At present, the school schedule does not allow for Sustained Silent Reading time to be introduced during school hours, although such an inclusion

would probably benefit some of the more reluctant readers who do not engage with their books at home. The importance of in-class reading time is stressed in much of the ER literature. Unfortunately it does not seem likely that the school will agree to this in the near future, and so the program, currently in its second year, continues to run on the basis that all the reading and listening is done at home. One of the benefits of reading at home is that the children do not have to bring the books they have borrowed to school every day (they already have a large number of textbooks to carry). If daily in-class reading sessions were to be introduced, we would probably have to revise the borrowing system. The children should then have two sets of books – one for at-home reading and one to read at school.

Conclusion

Despite some major and a few minor improvements that could make the program more effective for all participants in the future, the children in the experimental group seem to be doing well and test scores show significant improvement in their general English skills (Figure 2). The test results of a control group consisting of the children in the current grade four who are not participating in any kind of extensive reading will be available in April 2016. We hope that these results will reveal to what extent the ER/EL program has contributed to the improvement of the children's general English proficiency. At this stage it is difficult to determine to what extent the improvements can be attributed to the ER/EL component, since the children have also been receiving regular English instruction as part of the school's immersion program. In terms of enjoyment, motivation and active interaction with the English language, I believe that the 27 children involved in this project have received many benefits through their participation. Many of them have developed good reading habits and discovered the joy of books.

From their improved test scores, it may be inferred that the children who participated in the ER/EL program were able to transfer some of the skills gained from reading and listening to audio-books to the kind of skills required for English proficiency tests such as

the EIKEN test. The 93.4% increase in the children's reading scores seems to indicate that reading skills gained from ER can be directly transferred to the kind of reading comprehension skills required in such tests. It is interesting to note that the children's performance in the listening component of the test had improved much less compared to their reading scores (18.3%), despite the emphasis on audio support. This may indicate that the skills gained from listening to audio-books may not be as readily transferrable to the type of listening skills required in proficiency tests (the EIKEN Grade Pre-2 listening section is based on 20 short conversations followed by a question and 10 short passages followed by a question in which examinees must listen for specific information). The ability to transfer skills gained from ER/EL is an area that needs to be investigated further.

All Japanese elementary school children will soon begin compulsory English classes, with reading and writing in the upper grades. There will be a greater demand for effective teaching methodologies that accommodate the needs of young EFL learners. If ER is as effective (or perhaps even more effective) with young children as it seems to be with older learners, then this teaching method should not be overlooked. What is urgently needed is more ER research on preteen Japanese EFL learners.

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Susanne Balogh has been living and teaching English in Japan for more than fifteen years. During this time she became acquainted with Extensive Reading as a language teaching method and realized that this was how she had herself mastered English at the age of ten when she migrated from Austria to Australia with her parents.

Developing Understanding Through Storytelling

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This paper examines language teachers' use of stories to explain the teaching goals in classroom interaction. It analyzes the video-recorded data from Nepalese and Japanese EFL classrooms that shows three different teachers using narrative formats and relating them to their teaching. The analysis explicates the way teachers initiate stories and relate them to student understanding. One observation is that the application of story-telling generates possible background in order for the students to grasp the objective of the lessons and develop their understanding for upcoming instruction. The paper also describes the teacher's movement to the story-telling sequence, and back to teaching.

本論文では、教室での相互行為における教育目標を説明するために教師が使用する物語を検討する。ここでは、ネパールと日本の英語の授業を録画したデータを使用し、教師が使用する物語の形式と、それらは授業目標にどのように関連しているのかを観察する。分析では、教師が物語を生徒の理解を深める方法として使用していることが示す。データの観察では物語の使用で生徒に授業の目標を把握でき、更に教師の発話の理解できる状況に置かれていることがわかる。本論文は、教師は授業内で物語を語ることに教育することの両方への動きも説明する。

This paper discusses the structures of storytelling in classroom context using the conversation analytic methodology. Throughout the paper, the term "story" is understood as any piece of narrative teachers deploy during the course of their teaching. The narratives arise from the teacher explaining past events, providing some examples, or describing the teaching goal using examples. Limiting the term "story" to certain aspects of teacher talk, this paper focuses on how teachers use examples from their personal experience, describe the examples or the course contents, and relate them to the teaching point. The term "story" in this paper is understood as any piece of narratives, both present tense narratives and past tense narratives. Through the

structures of storytelling the teachers animate their descriptions rather than merely relating them.

In mundane conversation, participants design stories to provide examples of things related to the topic of talk. By using a telling structure, they attempt to "show" recipients what is being said, rather than merely "tell" them. With speakers displaying the incidents instead of describing them, it is easy for recipients to have direct access to happenings described in the interaction (Holt, 2000). Sidnell (2006) discusses a similar phenomenon in storytelling where reenactments of events help to demonstrate them instead of simply describing them. With reenactments, recipients can easily access the information being delivered. However, participants are not free to deploy tellings at their convenience. Stories, in many cases, are produced in reference to preceding talk, and furthermore, storytellers equally work to maintain the legitimacy of a telling once it is

Bhatta, B. (2016). Developing understanding through storytelling. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 10-15). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

accomplished. Hence, stories are locally occasioned and the possible trajectories for local occasion are: (a) prior talk reminding one of a particular story, and (b) a story intentionally introduced during the talk (Jefferson, 1978). The contextual occurrence of stories is also explained by Sacks (1992) with the statement that stories do not occur incidentally but are designed within the interaction.

The sequential organization of the turn-taking system (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974) is suspended during telling sequences. Tellers use extended turns to complete stories and the right for extended turns is achieved by designing the story from the preceding talk. However, recipients may produce some sort of acknowledgement tokens and minimal responses during the telling. But such responses are not considered as a complete turn constructional unit.

Akin to the suspension of the turn-taking system in storytelling is the system of turn-taking in classroom interaction. As an institutional setting, classroom interaction is distinct from mundane interaction in its distribution of knowledge, access to conversational resources, and participation patterns. And because of its institutional features, teachers, like storytellers in mundane interaction, use multi-unit extended turns to complete their talk. The nexus of turns in classroom is the first turn by teachers (a question), the student turn (answer), and teacher expansion or follow up turn. This nexus shows that the third position is a turn that makes the focus of the teaching point visible. Generally, students provide answers to teacher questions, and student understanding is evaluated and further expanded with a varying third position response by teachers. Thus, third position aids in developing student understanding through expansions and follow-up moves. Teachers also seem to orient to student understanding in using various other structures. This paper focuses on one aspect of the teachers' language in developing understanding: the application of storytelling structures.

In various studies on narratives, it is basically assumed that the teller designs the story to accomplish certain objectives. Sacks (1978) explains that even a joke-telling in story structure is designed to implement specific social work. Furthermore,

Goodwin (2015) also explains the speakers' attempt in demonstrating the information rather than simply claiming it. Thus, stories are not designed merely to entertain the recipients, but with certain objectives to effectuate in the course of talk. In institutional settings, the objective of the implementation is more apparent. Practices of storytelling in institutional contexts contribute to the construction of the setting as a relevant aspect of that particular institution. With data from two different cultural settings, this paper looks at the aspect of storytelling and its relevancy in one institutional setting: the classroom. Analysis of data revealed that teachers use of storytelling structures might develop student understanding by providing the student direct access to the teaching. The students are provided with information through the use of narrative structures in a story, or in examples over animated descriptions.

Data and Methodology

The data for this paper comes from about three hours of video recordings of regular English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in Japan and Nepal. In both settings, a non-native English speaker is teaching the classes, with the number of students ranging from about 25 to 30 and of about 14 to 17 years of age. A total of three examples from three different language classes were examined, with two examples from Nepalese EFL classrooms and one from Japanese EFL classrooms.

This paper uses conversation analysis as a method of understanding the interaction. As conversation analysis calls for an emic perspective in L1 (Pike, 1954; Goodwin, 1984) and in L2 (Markee & Kasper, 2004) in analyzing any piece of data, this paper limits the analysis to the participants' perspective as revealed through the interaction rather than using the prior assumptions of the analyst.

Analysis

This section presents examples and their analysis as revealed through the observation. One aspect that became apparent through the analysis was teacher orientation to student understanding by initiation of

storytelling structures in the course of their teaching. Whenever in teaching, once the teacher has to provide specific explanations related to teaching goals, they bring in a storytelling structure and describe through the telling – thus making the description visible to the students.

The following example, Extract 1, comes from a Nepalese English language classroom interaction where the teacher is teaching language through a famous poem “Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening” by Robert Frost. The following interaction comes after the teacher finishes writing the title of the poem on the board, which follows a greeting sequence. After writing the title, he moves to explain the meaning of the poem and includes the story within the description.

Extract 1 example displays one sequence of storytelling structure in classroom interaction. In this example, as soon as the teacher finishes introducing the topic, he moves to explain the meaning of the poem as a part of his teaching objective. He postpones explaining the meaning of the poem and establishes a preface to the story he is going to use with “before I begi:n (.) teaching this poem” in line 01. After this, he designs the preface to the telling in lines 01-05. His actual telling begins from line 06 where he relates

to the students his own story of how he was not interested in coming in to teach (his responsibility) that day but he wanted to watch television. The teacher frames the story example with line 06, his lack of interest to go to teach, and line 27, his decision to go. With this story structure, the teacher animates his description so that the students can have direct idea of the events described. Moreover, even after the story frame of lines 06-27, he quotes his own heart saying something to him in line 43. With the citation of his own heart within the telling, he further visualizes the event and makes the example more specific.

Once the story is finished in line 27, he starts connecting his descriptive story to the theme of the poem he is teaching. He draws student attention back to his example and then starts explaining the example by relating it with the theme of the poem that concerns human duties and responsibilities. Similar to the two alternatives, enjoying natural beauty or responsibilities, of the poem, the teacher uses alternatives in his example too – enjoying the TV or teaching. After the overall explanation of the example and its connection to the theme of the poem, he informs the students that he “had discussed about the theme of this very poem” in lines 69 and 71. His conclusion appears to summarize that the students

EXTRACT 1 [POEM]

01 T: before I begi:n (.) teaching this poem.
 02 let me give you an example.
 03 (0.4)
 04 in fact what this poem is about (.) I'll tell you of course
 05 before that, (0.4) .hh ah:: let me tell you,
 06 <today (.) like ah::- (.) I was about to come to school.
 07 and it started raining, (0.6) alright?
 ((5 lines omitted))
 13 are you getting my example?
 14 SS: yes sir.=
 15 T: I was not that very interested to come.
 16 I was much more interested to watch the program
 ((8 lines omitted))
 25 at first do your duty, it is an entertainment,
 26 don't listen to it. go and teach.
 27 and therefore I came.
 ((15 lines omitted))
 43 come on. let's not waste the time falling in such temptations.
 44 because, first and foremost. fix your eyes at what-
 45 SS: responsibility.
 46 T: fix your eyes at your responsibility.
 ((21 lines omitted))
 68 T: okay. the:n (0.6) what I had discussed?
 69 I had discussed about the
 70 S1: theme
 71 T: theme of this very poem

EXTRACT 2 [POTATOES]

01 T: but here (.) let's look at these three vegetables
 02 I mean the potato (0.4) the pumpkin (0.4) and the corn.
 03 okay
 04 (1.0)
 05 now (2.0) in the Ande:s. (1.2) °okay s-°
 06 suppose this is the sea (.) okay
 07 (2.0)
 08 this is the sea, a::nd
 09 this is (1.0) a mountain in the Andes. °okay°
 ((5 lines omitted))
 15 but they grow different vegetables in different parts
 16 (2.0)
 17 okay. so there are about three parts
 18 the high part (.) the middle part (.) and the low part
 19 okay
 20 and they grow (2.0) these vegetables
 21 different vegetables, (.) in different parts
 ((10 lines omitted))
 32 the potato is grown in the high part. right.
 33 and in the middle part (.) the corn is grown.
 34 okay, never mind.
 35 and in the low part the pumpkin (.) is grown
 36 okay.
 37 but anyway, in hi- (.) high in the mountains,
 38 potato is the only food crop that can be grown.
 ((8 lines omitted))
 47 okay. so high in the mountains, people grow:
 48 the potato (.) even now.
 49 okay.
 50 so no:w you know, (.) ah:: the home of the potato
 51 was the Andes. okay.
 52 but (.) you know today (.) the potato is
 53 grown in ah: all around the world.

have understood the theme of the poem. With the implication of his own story with a similar design as the story in the poem, and relating it to the theme, he attempts to assist students in understanding the theme of the poem – the teaching point of this particular lesson. Designing his story as one similar to that of the poem, he provides a parallel story as an example. His story is parallel to the story in the poem in the sense that the speaker in the poem likes to enjoy the nature, but moves on focusing on his duties and responsibilities. Similarly, in his personal story, the teacher wants to enjoy the television program but goes to work because of his focus on his duties and responsibilities.

Extract 2 is another example of storytelling structure in classroom interaction observed in Japanese English language classroom interaction. In this section, the teacher is talking about vegetables grown in different parts of the world. In the previous section, the teacher elicits some reasons from the students for why potatoes are the most popular crops.

In this part, he draws a picture and explains about the origin of potatoes with the picture.

In Extract 2, the teacher begins explaining the different vegetables that grow in the Andes in line 05. But, he gives up the description and introduces a present tense narrative with “suppose (.) this is the sea. okay” in line 06, continuing his telling with the help of a picture he draws. By drawing the picture and using narrative turn design, the teacher tries to “show” rather than “tell” the description, thus, animating his description (Sidnell, 2000) so that the students can have a clearer idea to it. Though he elicits some information from the students during the telling, he goes back to the description in line 37 and summarizes his telling with “high in the mountains potato is the only crop that can be grown.” Furthermore, in lines 41-44, he adds in the picture and describes in detail. Once the description is over, he summarizes and addresses student understanding in line 50. On saying “so no:w you know, (.) ah:: the home of the potato was the Andes”, he appears to be supposing that the student

have understood his teaching points. Though student understanding is not displayed in the interaction, the teacher's assumption of student understanding legitimizes the implication of storytelling structure as a way of developing understanding.

The use of narrative structure is equally visible in the following example, Extract 3. too. The following extract presents an instance of classroom interaction from a Nepalese English language classroom where the teacher is explaining grammar points about the use of articles. He orally explains the types of articles: definite for specific, and indefinite for general reference. He displays a picture with some model sentences and starts describing with the help of a picture.

After introducing the topic of the lesson, the teacher shows some model sentences using the definite and indefinite articles to the students. The teacher starts describing the picture in line 07 but stops the description and continues with direct reference to the picture saying "so, the girl asked" in line 08. In lines 08 to 19, the teacher reports the example using

the story-like structure. Once the reporting is done, he relates it to the teaching goal by underlining the focal teaching points. He underlines the general meaning of the articles in lines 34 and the particular meaning in line 43. Thus, with the act of "showing" the example rather than simply "telling" it, he makes an attempt to deepen student understanding. Furthermore, his act of underlining the "a, an, and the" in the model sentences also helps the students to visualize the teaching points.

Conclusion

The participants in mundane interaction design stories to provide some example of things related to the topic of talk in the interaction. The use of stories helps participants to have direct and easy access to the events of the story. So, stories are basically designed to accomplish certain objectives in the interaction. Similarly, teachers in classroom interaction use storytelling structure to accomplish specific goals. This paper observed the occurrences of storytelling structures in language classrooms and analyzed

EXTRACT 3 [SUNFLOWER9ARTICLE]

01 T: a:nd (.) now there are two (.) person yeah?
 02 now: she is a girl.
 ((7 lines omitted))
 10 and, what does the boy reply?
 11 Ss: °yea[s. I had an apple °
 12 T: [yeas. I had an apple and a banana. and then
 13 the apple was good. but I did not like?
 14 Ss: ba[nana much
 15 T: [banana.
 16 (0.6)
 17 T: now[:
 18 S2: [I did not like the banana much sir.
 19 T: I did not like [the banana much.
 20 S2: [°°() correct sir.°°
 21 T: so:, now look at here. you know
 22 I did not like the banana much.
 23 now look at here
 24 S2: I had but not I have that now
 25 T: so, (.) now I will write here also.
 ((8 lines omitted))
 34 T: so: he said that I had an apple and a banana.
 ((underlines "an apple" and "a banana"))
 35 now this is which meaning.
 36 S3: general
 37 Ss: general
 38 T: general meaning or particular meaning.
 39 Ss: general ((almost in unison))
 40 T: general meaning. right?
 41 yeah. a:nd I did not like the banana
 42 and the apple was good.
 ((underlines "the banana" and "the apple"))
 43 "the" (.) yeah "the". here "a" and "an"
 ((circles all the articles from the sentences))

them in relation to student understanding. In all the interaction discussed, teachers were found to be using story structures to develop student understanding. With the stories, teachers provide examples, describe the examples and connect their description to the goal of teaching. The implementation of the story structure displayed the student understanding in some of the interaction, and in some other examples, the teachers appeared to be analyzing that the students have understood the teaching points. The teachers were found to be using story structures when they want to set a context before going into “teaching” the lesson.

As this paper analyzed the use of storytelling structures in developing student understanding, it is important for the language teachers to pay more attention to the use and connection of the narratives in their teaching. In the relevant pedagogical field, this paper is thought to be helpful for the teachers to elaborate teacher-talk through detailed explanation with story-like narratives. As this paper limited itself to two different cultural settings, further research could look for the same elements in other classroom settings as well and expand the generalizability of the findings.

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Using Reading and Writing to Enhance Discussions

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This paper begins with a consideration of Asian students' apparent reluctance to participate in class discussions in English. The authors then describe various EFL classroom activities that they have found result in longer and more meaningful discussions than those which are typical in Japanese English-language classes and that encourage all students to participate. The benefits of providing reading materials and preparation time and of having students write down their ideas before engaging in a discussion are particularly supported by the authors' experiences. Survey results that substantiate these claims are included.

この論文は、アジア人学生の、英語クラスでのディスカッションにおける、一見気が進まなそうに見える態度の考察から始まる。そこから、著者達は、EFLの教室で使うためのいくつかのアクティビティを説明する。それらにより、日本の英語学習クラスにおける典型的なディスカッションに比べて、より長くそしてより意味のあるものにするという結果をもたらした。また、学生全員の参加を促すこともできた。読解のための本や資料と準備時間とを与えることと、ディスカッションを始める前に学生に自分の考えを書かせること、このふたつの有益性は、著者の経験によってとりわけ明らかにされている。これらの達成を立証するアンケートも添えられている。

Many EFL teachers working in Japanese universities have experienced the frustration that can result from trying to encourage students to have discussions in their classes. A common scenario involves the teacher arranging the students into pairs or groups and then asking them to discuss an issue related to the theme of the lesson. The all-too-common outcome of this scenario is a very short discussion that only a minority of the students participate in. Discussions that last for any worthwhile length of time are often dominated by one or two students while the rest of the students seem uninterested.

It is tempting to explain the reluctance of Japanese,

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and other Asians, to engage in verbal communication in class by referring to cultural factors and the students' previous classroom experiences. However, some EFL researchers consider this portrayal of Asian learners as being overly reserved and unwilling to become actively involved in discussions in class to be exaggerated and misleading (see for example, Cheng, 2000; Debashish, 2010; J. Liu, 2001). They claim that while cultural factors may affect Asian students' readiness to engage in verbal classroom interaction to some extent, there are a variety of other influences that need to be considered.

Cheng (2000) points out that research shows that Asian students are often eager to speak more in class, but are held back by factors related to the teaching and learning situation rather than their cultural backgrounds. He argues that Asian students' perceived passivity is more a result of situational factors, and to

say that Asian students are uninvolved, unresponsive, and reticent in class is an overgeneralization. These claims are supported by a study carried out among Chinese students studying English at a university in Beijing, which found that, while cultural factors did influence students' behavior, lack of time to prepare, insufficient knowledge about the topic being discussed, lack of confidence in their English ability, and few previous experiences with having discussions in English also contributed to students' reluctance to participate in classroom discussions (M. H. Liu, 2005).

Similar results were obtained in research carried out in Australia among a multicultural group of EFL learners, mainly from the Asia Pacific region. These students reported that the biggest barriers to successful classroom discussions were lack of preparation time and fluency as well as timidity brought on by feelings that other students seemed to know much more about the topics (Godat & Whiteley-De Graaf, 2003). In an ethnographic study carried out in an ESL class at an American university and in a number of EFL classes in mainland China, researchers found that East Asian students who were supported and encouraged, in classrooms with an agreeable atmosphere and structure, were "able, willing, and comfortable to participate actively" in oral activities (Li & Jia, 2006, p. 204).

Creating Conditions to Help Language Students Be Successful in Discussions

The results of the aforementioned research give us some insight into the ways in which teachers may be able to encourage Asian students to participate more actively in speaking classes. These include trying to ensure that students know enough about the topics being discussed, that they have enough time to prepare, that they understand what they are expected to do, and that they are given appropriate opportunities in terms of space and time to participate in the speaking activities.

Providing suitable reading materials is one way to enable students to learn about a topic and to expose

them to vocabulary and language structures associated with the topic. As Maley (2009) points out, reading is one of the most accessible forms of comprehensible input in countries where the target language is not widely spoken, as is the case in Japan.

Nation (1989) suggests that providing preparation time beforehand and creating time limits for speaking can help build students' confidence and increase both their fluency and the amount they speak in class. Allowing students to write down their ideas gives them an opportunity to think about and organize what they want to say. Limiting students' speaking time forces them to focus on the message rather than on producing accurate sentences. This reduced focus on grammatical accuracy can help to reduce student anxiety.

Folse (2010) also recommends that students be given enough time to prepare for speaking activities and think about their ideas and opinions, stressing that they should be allowed to write down their ideas first. He says that, by writing down their ideas beforehand, students will become more confident, and the quality and quantity of their discussions will improve. This is because having to write down our thoughts on paper "forces us to reexamine, rethink, and recycle our ideas until we have a much neater package." (Folse, 2010, p. x) Folse also suggests that a tighter framework, in the form of questions that students have to write a response to, should be provided to help students develop and arrange their ideas.

Choosing Appropriate Materials

One important factor to consider when having students read and write about what they will discuss is ensuring that they have materials to use during the reading component of this process that are at a suitable level for them to comprehend without much trouble, are interesting to them, and will later lead to extended discussions.

In class, students can discuss topics or materials chosen either by the teacher or themselves. It has been the authors' experience in Japan that most students find it difficult to choose appropriate materials without some guidance from the teacher. When students are left to choose materials without

sufficient guidance, they often choose materials that are too difficult for them to read or too complicated from them to understand. Because of this, the authors have found that it is better for the teachers to choose materials for their students to read or to give students a selection of appropriate materials to choose from. Other EFL teachers and researchers have reported doing the same (see for example, Kim, 2003; Kosaka, 2012; Williams, 2001).

Two sources of reading materials for discussion that the authors of this article have used are SRA cards and short newspaper articles. These were preselected by the authors for the students to choose from. Students were given 10 or 15 minutes to read through the materials and then had to discuss them in pairs or in groups. Students seemed to be capable of and to enjoy doing this activity. However, the topics often did not seem to arouse the students' deeper thoughts and feelings. SRA cards are intended for use by elementary school students in the USA, and therefore the topics and depth of the content are for that age group, not for university students. Many newspaper articles are on topics the students are already well informed about and have similar opinions about based on mass media coverage. So, the topics are somewhat like background noise in the students' thinking and feelings and do not engage them in the ways consideration of the actions of characters and the situations in a story would. In comparison with non-fictional materials, fictional stories have been shown to better increase social abilities (Mar, et al, 2006), such as empathy (Djikic, et al, 2013b), understanding (Mar & Oatley, 2008), and inclusivity (Vezzali, et al, 2015), perception of social support (Mar, et al, 2009), and creativity and information processing abilities (Djikic, et al, 2013a).

One source that provides an excellent collection of possible reading materials that address these issues and lend themselves well to group discussions is graded readers. Reading appropriately selected graded readers gives students chances to experience sustained reading of stories while providing comprehensible input and many topics to discuss. This has also proved effective for generating discussions in both of the authors' classes. Others have had similar results (for example, see Mark, 2007; Rouault et al., 2012).

Suggestions for Promoting Discussions Based on Graded Readers

Writing Book Reports

One way to integrate graded readers into the classroom is to have students read one graded reader a week, or a portion of one, and then prepare a short report about the story, which will then be presented to a partner or small group in class. These reports can include a summary, personal opinions, character sketches, or descriptions of favorite scenes. The graded readers can be self-chosen from the teacher's or the school library's offerings, giving students some autonomy with regards to the choice of materials. They can be read at home or in class. While presenting, the students can look at their reports along with a discussion outline, if deemed necessary, or they can talk freely. After a report is presented, the partner or other group members can then continue the discussion by asking questions and making comments.

Writing Answers to Related Questions

Students can also be asked to all read the same graded reader, or the same chapters of it, for homework. In class, the teacher can provide one or two questions concerning topics related to what has been read. After writing answers for about five minutes per question, students put away what they have written and discuss the questions in small groups for an equal amount of time. This can be repeated a few times in one class.

Writing Responses to Self-chosen Quotations

A third way to promote discussion of class-assigned graded readers is to have all of the students read the same book, or chapters, and then choose one short quotation and write a 250-word response to it. Then in class, the students sit in groups of four. One student reads aloud the chosen passage and the response she or he has written about it. Alternatively, the students can be asked to discuss the quotation and their response to it without looking at what they wrote. After the student has made her or his presentation, the group members discuss the quotation and that student's

response to it. After about 10 or 15 minutes, the procedure is repeated, beginning with another student reading aloud or presenting.

Using Reading Circles

Using reading, or literature, circles is another way to use graded readers to promote discussions. In reading circles, students are separated into small groups of four to six students, and each group member is given a different assignment, called a role. All of the students have to read the same text and complete their given assignment in writing. Roles may focus on, for instance, checking vocabulary, finding cultural differences, or making a summary. In class, the students in turn explain what they found, thought, and did concerning their individual assignment, and then the group members discuss it. The individual roles are rotated among the group members from week to week, so all members have chances to engage with the texts in different ways. Furr (2007), a strong proponent of the use of reading circles in the EFL classroom, explains that the assignment of roles makes the preparation for discussions more manageable and the actual discussions more meaningful.

Beyond Graded Readers

Of course, if the students are proficient enough in English, the four procedures outlined above could be used with any book. For example, if they can manage it successfully, having students read a book written for native English speakers may motivate them to continue improving their English. However, if the main purpose of the class is to have the students practice engaging in discussions, the book needs to provide many topics that the students are able to talk about, not be very long, and not be too difficult to read. *Tuesdays with Morrie* seems to fit these criteria well enough for intermediate level learners of English in Japan, and the vast majority of students the authors have used it with have found it interesting to read and discuss. Though there are quite a few words that many students do not know, this does not seem to impede their ability to understand much of what they read or their ability to discuss the many topics that appear in the book.

Students' Perceptions of the Usefulness of the Various Activities

In all of the activities explained above, the students are given time and resources to prepare for and to gain knowledge of content, vocabulary, structures, and usages related to the topics they will speak about. The authors' observations of students' interactions in class have convinced them that these activities are useful for their students, who spoke a lot and engaged actively in discussions that were relaxed and informative. The time limits seemed to help keep the pace lively but not add any stress.

To find out if the students agreed with and perceived the benefits of participating in these various activities that required them to read and write something before discussing it, over the last few years, the authors conducted surveys with some of their students (Bresnihan & MacAuley, 2014, 2015). This research showed that from 67% to 91% of the students believed that practicing or participating in each of the various language skills activities helped them in their performance of another language ability (see Table 1).

Students also seemed to recognize the benefits of reading circles with between 80% and 100% of the students stating that they believed that the activities they were asked to do for the reading circles were beneficial for their English language learning (see Table 2).

One of the complaints by some teachers and students about reading circle activities is that the discussions are too restricted by the assigned roles, as is reported, for example, by Bedel (2011), Lamb (2007), and Pearson (2010). One of the authors of this article also felt this to be the case. This issue may be the result of students and teachers adhering too strongly to the idea that the roles need to be followed too closely for too long.

Conclusion

The effectiveness of providing preparation time and having students write down their ideas before engaging in discussions in university EFL classrooms in Japan have been supported by the authors' observations over the years. The ensuing discussions

TABLE 1

Students* Who Ranked Each Statement as "Agree" or "Strongly Agree"

Statement	Percent
Having discussion helped me to understand what I had read	90%
Writing helped me to understand what I had read	80%
Reading something before talking helped me to say more when I had discussions	91%
Writing something before talking helped me to say more when I had discussions	75%
Reading something before listening helped me to understand more of what was said in discussions	88%
Writing something before listening helped me to understand more of what was said in discussions	67%

* N=106

TABLE 2

Students* Who Thought Each Reading Circle Activity was Beneficial

Skill	Reading	Writing	Presenting	Listening	Discussing
Percent	100%	80%	100%	90%	98%

* N=40

are generally much longer and more involved and meaningful than when these kinds of activities are not used. Also, using graded readers has proved to be very suitable for stimulating students' engagement in these activities because they cater to a wide variety of ability levels and student interests. By reading and writing down ideas and opinions about the subject matter or topic beforehand, students are able to become more knowledgeable and more confident in their ensuing discussions. This type of framework helps them focus on and think about the salient points, formulate their ideas, and say more in their discussions.

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Greening PanSIG

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Many conference attendees and organisers are concerned about environmental issues. This paper looks at actions taken at the 2015 PanSIG conference relating to environmental issues, specifically considering the carbon footprint of the conference, carbon offsets and conference catering. Travel, specifically flight, is the main environmental impact of the conference, and carbon offsets are currently the best mitigation option. Catering is also significant and highly visible, but requires complex organisation.

学会参加者や運営関係者は環境問題に関心をもっていることを考慮し、本論では2015年のPanSIG大会における、カーボンフットプリント、カーボンオフセットや大会におけるケータリングなどの運営面での環境への影響を概観する。学会参加において、環境への影響が一番大きいのは交通手段、特にフライトであり、現段階ではカーボンオフセットが最良の緩和策となっている。ケータリングも大きな要因となっているが、より複雑な体制づくりが必要である。

The influence of human activity on the natural environment has been a concern in regional, national, and international politics since the latter part of the twentieth century. Examples of early legislation that focused on pollution include the 1956 Clean Air Act of the UK, the 1963 Clean Air Act of the US and the 1967 Basic Law for Environmental Pollution Control of Japan. In recent years, attention has shifted to the emission of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere, which is widely believed in the scientific community to lead to an increase in global temperatures corresponding to increases in extreme weather conditions and a rise in sea levels. Vanden Heuvel (2015) reports that six

oil companies are in agreement that global warming is real and man-made (see also Goldenberg & Bengtsson, 2015). Since the PanSIG conference was held, 196 of the world's governments made commitments in Paris to keeping global temperature increases well below two degrees centigrade (Warrick & Mooney, 2015). This paper will thus not debate climate change, but will assume that it is very likely to be happening, and that we should make decisions and take actions accordingly, in the same way that we wear seat belts because of the broadly held consensus that they save lives.

Many organisers and participants of Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) events care deeply about environmental issues. JALT has had an environment committee since 2014, the same year that saw the addition of an environmental officer to the PanSIG conference committee with the aim of assessing and reducing the environmental impact of

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the conference. Hirschier and Hilty (2002) provide one example of an assessment of the environmental impact of an International conference, and Suzuki (n.d.) provides some useful suggestions for how the environmental impact of a conference may be reduced. The PanSIG conference team has not followed any specific sustainable conference assessment system, and most progress to date has been in assessing the impact of the conference and looking for areas where improvement can be made. Reductions in environmental impact require decisions to be made and actions to be taken from the beginning of the planning process, and the somewhat ad hoc nature of the organisation of academic conferences means that this has not yet been possible.

Most human activity has some environmental impact, and one simple way to reduce our negative impact would be to not hold a conference. On the other hand, as teachers we have a great potential for raising awareness of environmental issues among our students. Activities at our conferences may indirectly influence tens or hundreds of thousands of young people in a positive way, leading to positive changes throughout their lifetimes. This paper will focus on two aspects of the conference with negative impacts on the environment: travel and catering.

Carbon Footprint

The carbon footprint is an estimate of how much carbon dioxide, and other greenhouse gases, an activity produces. Carbon is the main constituent of fossil fuels, and each of the two oxygen atoms that combine in combustion are heavier than each carbon atom, so a litre of oil will produce around 2.5 kilogrammes of carbon dioxide (DEFRA, 2015). Different fossil fuel sources produce different amounts of carbon dioxide, and the balance of energy supply to the electricity grid can give estimates for the carbon footprint of electricity, typically half a kilogramme per kilowatt hour in Japan (FEPC, 2012). The energy use of an activity will give a first estimate of the carbon footprint of that activity, then we must consider the energy that was used in producing any equipment related to the activity and the carbon footprint of people supporting the activity.

For example, the carbon footprint of a flight can be first approximated by calculating each passenger's share of the carbon dioxide produced by the fuel. Aircraft fuel use depends on the length of flight as well as the type of plane, but typically is around three litres of fuel per hundred kilometres per passenger (Peeters, Middel & Hoolhorst, 2005; Kwan & Rutherford, 2014). In shorter flights the fuel used in takeoff is more significant, so the emissions per kilometre will be higher, while intercontinental flights tend to have higher speeds and will therefore also use more fuel. Aircraft efficiency is improving all the time, so newer planes will use less fuel and emit less carbon. A first estimate of carbon emissions is therefore 7.5 kg of CO₂ per 100 km per passenger. We must also consider the emissions from the energy that was used to build the aircraft, and the emissions used in the extraction and transport of the fuel. In addition there are servicing costs related to airports and staff, and a complete analysis would have to consider what the crew ate for breakfast, and perhaps take some account of the education the pilot went through to reach his position in the cockpit. Other gases with a similar effect on the global climate are taken into consideration and an equivalent weight of carbon dioxide is added, so the figure usually given is kilograms of carbon dioxide equivalent. Estimates for carbon emissions of one passenger in an economy seat range from 10 kg per 100 km per passenger (Delta Airlines, n.d.) to 15 kg (Japan Airlines, n.d.) to 20 kg (MyClimate.org, n.d.). Business class seats yield a higher carbon footprint since they take up more of the aircraft than economy seats. It is clear that carbon footprint calculations depend greatly on assumptions, and the precision of carbon footprint figures may exceed their accuracy.

Carbon is not the only environmental issue, and the carbon footprint may not take into account a wide range of impacts from littering and human exploitation to nuclear radiation and destruction of ecosystems. Carbon is, on the other hand, a central environmental issue that is related to many other issues; high-carbon activities are likely to also produce more pollution, more waste and more habitat destruction. In addition, carbon footprint calculations produce single numbers that we can use

to compare different events or activities. They allow us to set measurable targets to reduce our impact, each year, and may identify the areas that produce the most carbon, which we may choose to put most of our efforts into. Environmental issues are never black and white, where one option is “good for the environment” and another is “bad for the environment”. In most cases there are shades of grey, and we often need to choose the least bad option, for which numbers can help. For example reusable cups usually have a lower environmental impact than disposable cups, but their impact is not zero. The production, cleaning, breakage and eventual disposal of reusable cups all have impacts, and an inefficient dishwasher may use more energy than the manufacture and disposal of a polystyrene cup (Carbon Clear, 2012; Hocking, 1994). In any case, for a conference the size of PanSIG, the carbon footprint of one short flight will be the equivalent of all the cups used in the conference.

There are various websites that can calculate the carbon footprint for a conference. We used MyClimate, which calculates carbon footprint based on a survey of general information about the conference, information about participants’ transportation to and from the conference, and other detailed information about participant accommodation, conference activities, and food and beverage consumption. More information on the methodology for calculating the carbon footprint can be found at MyClimate (n.d.).

The general information survey gathers data about the number of participants, the event’s duration in days, and details about the event’s location including information on the heated or air-conditioned area. The mobility section asks for the numbers of attendees who arrived by coach, train, car, and short-, medium- and long-distance flights. It asks for the average distance of terrestrial travel, and the percentage flying business class. The calculator will estimate the energy use, consumption of drinks and use of other materials, or detailed figures can be added. The number of warm and cold meals, percentage of vegetarian meals, and use of regional and seasonal ingredients must also be added. The accommodation section asks about the number of stays at different levels, from youth hostel to five-star hotel. The promotion section asks how

many kilogrammes of printed materials were used, and the percentage of recycled paper, whether or not there was a promotion stand, and how much space it occupied.

Some of this information was estimated, and some was available from the venue and registration data. For example attendees were asked to identify their dietary preferences and were given a vegetarian option, which around 20% of attendees chose. Vegetarian food has a significantly lower environmental impact, with livestock production estimated to be responsible for 18% of all climate change gases (FOA, 2006). Quantities of printed paper were estimated; we hope to research more thoroughly in the future to better understand the impact of the conference in terms of paper use. Transport distances were estimated from the addresses of registered attendees, and some anecdotal information helped decide which modes were used by those travelling longer distances.

The carbon footprint of the 2014 Miyazaki conference, with 250 attendees, was estimated as 47 tonnes, or around 180 kg per person. The carbon footprint of the 2015 Kobe conference, with 300 attendees, was estimated as 32 tonnes, around 100 kg per person. One of the largest contributions to the carbon footprint is transport, specifically air transport, which accounts for the larger footprint of the 2014 conference. If the estimated 30 short-distance flights in 2015 had been train journeys, the total footprint would have dropped by over 30% to 21 tonnes.

Carbon Offsets

Carbon offsets are a way of investing in projects that reduce carbon emissions to offset the amount of carbon produced by other activities. This includes helping businesses upgrade old equipment so it produces less carbon, developing low-carbon energy sources such as wind or solar, methane capture, planting trees and managing forests. Carbon offsets can be certified, for example by the Gold Standard, VER (Verified Emission Reduction) or J-VER in Japan (WWF, n.d.). Here again there are shades of grey rather than bright green, and criticisms of the carbon offset system begin with the fundamental question of whether market economic theories can be used to protect the natural

environment (Goodward & Kelly, 2010; Morris, 2008; Friends of the Earth, Greenpeace & WWF-UK, 2006). We may question the effectiveness of tree planting while deforestation is continuing around the world, and we need to look carefully at where the trees are being planted and whether they will keep the carbon there or be cut down within a few years. Since even “green” energy sources have some carbon footprint associated with their manufacture, transportation, installation and maintenance, their implementation may in fact lead to more energy use, following the Jevons paradox. Nineteenth-century British economist William Stanley Jevons noticed that increasing efficiency produced more consumption rather than less. He observed increased efficiency in steam engines leading to more steam engines being used, both in the extraction and transport of coal, and other uses beyond. This led to an increase in coal use, which continues to increase to this day, in spite of other energy sources. In the case of “green” energy, technologies such as solar generation may make it possible to generate power where it was not available before, leading to more power being used.

Costs of carbon offsets vary widely depending on the kind and location of projects. MyClimate Japan would offset all the conference’s carbon emissions locally for around 100,000 yen. An example of a solar generation project in the area of the conference is to install 100kW of solar power at a paper recycling plant. Solar panels provide a clean and reliable source of power, and these will reduce carbon emissions by an estimated 47 tonnes per year.

Local forestry projects include: a regeneration of forest on Rokotsu Mountain in Kobe City; a J-VER certified project in Shiro City reviving forests that have not been managed for several years; and management of forest in Yabu City. Forestry projects include raising awareness among owners of forests, and supporting management where owners cannot afford it. These three projects represent capture of 70, 344 and 2,070 tonnes of carbon per year, respectively. Another example from overseas is a Carbon Neutral (n.d.) Gold Standard project to provide improved cookstoves in Southern India. Almost three billion people in the world use wood or other biomass for fuel, one third in

India. As well as reducing the amount of fuel needed to cook and heat homes, these stoves will improve health by cutting air pollution.

When registering, attendees of PanSIG2015 were given the option to contribute to local carbon offsets, either 100 yen, 500 yen, or 1000 yen. Out of 301 registered participants, 73 made contributions, totalling 38,500 yen. These were used to buy carbon credits for a solar energy project in Kobe, offsetting 4 tonnes of CO₂. A similar offset in forestry credits in Yabu city would have cost 48,000 yen. The offsets were purchased through MyClimate Japan and Linda Dyson from TESOL International acted as an observer to ensure transparency.

Catering

Although leaving a smaller carbon footprint than international air flight, food production is responsible for 20-30% of climate emission (FOA, 2006). Catering at conferences has a significant impact on the local and global environment, and catering is highly visible, contributing greatly to the image of the conference, and raising of awareness among participants. Several organisations have guidelines for catering with a lower environmental impact (House of Commons, n.d., MIT, n.d., Monash University, 2009). The principle areas for consideration are sourcing of food and reduction of waste. The kinds of food and drink, and the distances the food has travelled will have different environmental impacts, and locally-sourced vegetarian food produces less carbon (FOA, 2006). Waste has a multiplying effect since waste means more food was produced than necessary. Other considerations include plates, cups and cutlery, where reuse and reduction can limit the impact, while disposable utensils can increase the carbon footprint (Carbon Clear, 2012; Hocking, 1994).

Catering includes lunches, snacks, receptions and dinners. Different venues allow different levels of control of catering, which can affect environmental impact. A higher level of control in catering leads to many practical issues, and communication becomes critical, whether within the organising committee, with the venue or with suppliers.

Lunch in the Cafeteria

In Kobe we were lucky to be able to use the University cafeteria for lunches, and they washed up cutlery and crockery so there was very little waste. When catering for lunches at weekend conferences there is often no choice but to provide *bento* (lunch boxes) in disposable packages. Some *bento* suppliers can provide lunches in reusable boxes (known as *shiki*). While reusable boxes make environmental sense, the extra time involved in collecting and washing them often does not make financial sense, so disposable *bentos* are the default, and reusable *shiki* must be specially requested. Although unnecessary in Kobe, ordering of *bento* is often a problem for conference organisers who neither want to have hungry participants, nor uneaten leftovers, but often do not have precise numbers of participants.

Snacks in the Cafe

A “Narrative Cafe” was provided with hot water and coffee urns from the cafeteria. Student interns sold tea and coffee, as well as snacks that had been purchased from Costco, a warehouse club specialising in imported food. There were no facilities for washing cups, so disposable cups were used. Proceeds were donated to earthquake relief in Nepal. While earthquakes may not seem immediately related to greening the conference, there are links between disaster relief and environmental issues. Climate change, food production, environmental degradation, human displacement and relief work are all intricately related (UNEP, n.d.; Goldenberg, 2014). Although difficult to express in kilogrammes of carbon equivalent, supporting disaster relief in other countries can play a vital part in building awareness of global issues which are likely to become more acute as the population increases and the climate changes. While the cafeteria allowed a lower impact from locally-sourced, freshly-made food on washable plates, the cafe provided snacks with many more food-miles on disposable plates. The lower cost of the food, however, boosted the donation to international disaster relief.

Networking Reception

The Saturday evening reception was held in the

cafeteria. The reception costs were included in the budget, and it was free to all attendees. Proceeds from a “drinks for two” paid bar were donated to a local charity supporting education for children of Vietnamese immigrants.

Food was provisionally ordered for 150 people, at 2,000 yen each. The cafeteria allowed us to supplement this with cheese, crackers, fruit and vegetables, purchased wholesale at a reasonable cost. Here again there was a priority on cost leading to a mixture of impacts. The cafeteria also allowed us to bring in drinks that we had bought outside. This is usually impossible in commercial reception venues, where drink sales are a major source of profit. The price of drinks is often two or three times more than their cost, so being able to buy drinks from outside can considerably save party costs, or greatly increase donations to a charity while guests are paying what they would in a regular commercial establishment. There is, however, a certain risk of being left over with unsold stock. Since parties do not want to run out of drink, and do not want to have drink left over, the ideal situation is to be able to buy drinks on sale or return, which some suppliers can do.

There was some discussion on the PanSIG mailing list whether the reception should be included, or whether attendees should pay extra for the reception. Among arguments for including the reception were the ideas that the reception is an integral part of the conference, and planning is easier with a fixed budget. The main argument against was that people should not be paying for an event that they did not want to, or may not be able to attend. There was no consensus but a majority of people stating a preference favoured the reception being included. There later emerged another problem with including the budget in the attendance: this made the number of attendees unclear, which made it difficult to work out the amount of food and drink to order.

The environment officers assisted in organising the party, and took on the role of ordering the drinks. None of the environment officers were based locally, and they were unable to find a supplier that would offer drinks on sale or return, or to find suppliers of locally-produced beer. There were some

communication problems, largely because there was no direct communication between the people ordering drinks and the staff in the cafeteria. For example, the cafeteria staff had prepared space to refrigerate drinks, but they did not know that kegs of beer would be arriving on Friday evening, which would not fit in the refrigerators. Luckily this did not spoil the beer, but it made it more difficult to control. The people ordering the drinks did not know that beer for an initial *kampai* had also been ordered from the cafeteria, which would have reduced the amount of drink ordered. In addition the closing time of the party was not clear until the night of the party. Although the nominal party start time was 6:30, presentations continued until 6:40 and the party only began around 7:00. This meant there was only an hour for drinking and eating. There was little food left over, but even an extra 20 or 30 minutes would have made a big difference to consumption of drinks.

These issues, compounded with an over-estimate of the number of attendees, and overestimation of how much each person would drink, meant some beer remained unsold. Although the kegs had not been bought on a sale-or-return basis, a half-price refund of unopened kegs was negotiated; the beer was not wasted but made an expensive round trip. The bar did not lose money, and in fact was able to contribute 20,000 yen to a local charity. More communication and more careful planning could have doubled this contribution, as well as reducing the risk of waste food and drink.

Conclusion and Future Directions

Since 2014 we have begun to assess the environmental impact of PanSIG conferences, estimate carbon footprints, and look for ways to reduce the impact. We cannot say whether PanSIG is a “green conference” but we have made progress in defining what that means in our context, and considering environmental issues in more of the decisions relating to the conference organisation, from the first planning steps.

In terms of carbon footprint, the main impact of the conference is in transport, specifically flight. It may be possible to reduce this by encouraging terrestrial travel, or allowing teleconferencing, and

transportation should be considered when choosing a venue. However, the purpose of conferences is to bring people together, for which transport is necessary, and one of the strengths of PanSIG is that it can be held outside the more easily accessed Tokyo-Osaka corridor and bring a JALT event to regions of Japan where the international conference would not be held. For now, the most realistic option is to accept that transport will be used, estimate the carbon footprint of that transport, and balance it with carbon offsets.

While transport represents the largest impact of our conferences, catering is significant and highly visible. Hired or borrowed utensils will have a lower environmental impact if the site allows them. If not paper or plastic cups should be chosen carefully to minimise impact. Organisation of catering is complex and any attempts to reduce environmental impact need careful planning and execution, with better communication.

One significant area that this paper does not address is the use of paper, including the conference handbook and handouts supplied by some participants. Another area for future investigation is the positive impact of the conference. This paper has briefly mentioned charitable donations, but there is a great potential for conferences such as PanSIG to raise awareness of environmental issues among teachers, encourage appropriate practices and suggest suitable classroom activities which could influence a huge number of students. We should encourage more presentations explicitly addressing environmental issues, and presenters who consider the environmental impacts of their research methodologies and teaching techniques.

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Repair Sequences as Potential Sites of Learning

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Because most conversation analytic studies on learning lack a traceable learning object, there is skepticism regarding the ability of conversation analysis to deal with the issue of learning. The present study hopes to contribute to previous research on learning by showing how and where learning may occur in second language interaction. It first attempts to demonstrate how participants show a lack of knowledge or a problem in understanding, a change of state following a repair as seen through the participants' production of change of state tokens (Heritage, 1984), and their application of just-encountered linguistic items in the subsequent interaction.

これまでの学習に関する会話分析の多くの研究では学習者が言語アイテム(言葉、フレーズなど)を学習したか否かの追跡をあまり行かなかつたため、会話分析は学習という話題に対処できるかどうか、ということに関して疑問があるとされてきた。本研究では第二言語の会話の中で、どのように、どこで学習が行われるのか、ということを解明することにより、これまでの会話分析の学習に関する研究に寄与する。本研究ではまず会話参加者はどのように知識不足及び理解上の問題を示すのかを示し、さらにchange of state tokens(Heritage, 1984)で示された知識状態の変化の産出や、会話参加者のその直前に遭遇した言語アイテムの自らの応用により学習が行われたということの提示を試みる。

Conversation Analysis (CA) is a method for analyzing and understanding how humans interact and it is informed by a variety of disciplines. It is the explication of both social action and of how an interactional social order is maintained by participants (ten Have, 2007). Recently, there have been an increasing number of studies which focus on what CA can contribute to second language acquisition (SLA), and more broadly, to second language research. These studies span a wide range of topics such as repair (e.g., Hosoda, 2000, 2006), interactional competence (e.g., Young & Miller, 2004; Hellermann, 2011), and learning opportunities (e.g., He, 2004; Waring, 2008, 2011). However, few studies specifically address the topic of

learning. Markee (2000) comments that conversation analysis for second language acquisition (CA for SLA) should be able to show temporary learning. However, most of the studies on learning have revealed that this can be quite complicated. Some studies (e.g., He, 2004) discuss whether CA is analytically capable of addressing the topic of learning. Because most CA studies on learning do not have a traceable learning object, many researchers are still skeptical about CA's ability to deal with the issue of learning. Lee and Hellermann (2014) remark that because CA is concerned with the description of interaction, it is not considered ideal for SLA research by some researchers.

The present study hopes to contribute to previous research on learning, more specifically, potential sites of learning, by showing how and where learning may occur in second language interaction. One of the sites in which learning may occur are called repair sequences. Repair refers to problems of speaking,

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hearing or understanding and consists of two segments: a repair initiation and a repair outcome, which is the repair itself (Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977). Sequences are generally thought of as consisting of two fundamental parts: a first pair part and a second pair part. This study attempts to demonstrate how participants show a lack of knowledge or a problem in understanding, then demonstrate a change of state as shown through their use of change of state tokens (Heritage, 1984) and finally showed that they may have possibly learned something, as illustrated by their application of the learning object. In this study learning is used to mean going from an observable state of not knowing or understanding, to a state of knowing or understanding as exhibited through the participants' behaviors and their ability to apply the word or phrase that they learned in the subsequent interaction. The two examples presented in this study have the following general features:

- Student shows a problem of understanding or lack of knowledge as displayed through a question or inability to produce the correct word
- Student or teacher initiates the repair
- Teacher performs the repair (teaches)
- Student demonstrates a change of state through use of change of state tokens, such as "oh" or "ah"
- Student demonstrates their understanding of the learning object by applying it

In this study I argue that repair sequences are one possible site in which learning may occur and that conversation analysis is capable of demonstrating how learners can potentially go from a state of not understanding or knowing to a state of understanding or knowing, and then become capable of applying the learning object.

Methods

The data used in this study come from approximately sixteen hours of conversations which were audio-video recorded at a university language lounge in Japan. A language lounge is a place where university students can go to practice English with a native speaker of English. In recent years, many universities in Japan have created language lounges with the goal of improving students' communicative competence.

The conversations were transcribed according to the transcription conventions developed by Gail Jefferson (See Atkinson & Heritage, 1984). The examples used in the present study come from two different language lounge sessions, each of which lasted for approximately forty minutes. In the transcripts the teacher is listed as T and the students are listed as S1, S2, and S3. In this data, the native English speakers and non-native English speakers orient to their institutional identities as teachers and students throughout the interaction. It is for these reasons that I will be referring to the participants as teachers and students throughout this paper. These are not identities that I am ascribing to the participants a priori.

Analysis

In this section I present two examples, which support Brouwer and Wagner's (2004) findings that repair sequences may be potential sites in which learning occurs. The first example is divided into two extracts (Extracts 1 and 2) and the second example is divided into three extracts (Extracts 3, 4, and 5). In the first example the repair sequence is initiated by the student and in the second example the repair sequence is initiated by the teacher. The repair initiation is what is what opens the repair sequence, which is where learning occurs.

Before the interaction in Extract 1 began, T asked S2 if he had any brothers or sisters and S2 started describing his brother. He describes his brother as not being good at cleaning, but being very smart.

In lines 01 and 02 T states, "well we say there's uh in English we say there's two kinds of people there is left brain people and right brain people," to which S2 initiates repair by saying "what does it mean," showing a lack of understanding of the terms left brain people and right brain people. The subsequent interaction demonstrates that his repair initiation creates not only a possibility for learning, but an outcome, the application of the expression "right brain," which suggests that learning may have occurred.

After S2 says "what does it mean," T walks to the whiteboard and begins to draw a picture of a brain and in line 06 S2 says "ah sou iu koto ka" in Japanese which can mean "ah that's what it means"

or “ah I see.” Through this utterance, S2 displays that he has made a connection between the picture of the brain that the teacher drew on the whiteboard and the phrases right brain and left brain. In line 12 T begins his explanation of the expressions left brain and right brain. S2’s responses to T’s description of right and left brain people, specifically his change of state tokens, are important because they demonstrate that he understands not only what his brother is, but what his brother is not, and they are significant for

the argument that something was potentially learned. After T describes left brain people as “organized,” “structured,” and “clean,” S2 responds in line 23 with the change of state token “ah,” which is elongated and has rising pitch. This change of state token suggests that he has gone from a state of not knowing to a state of knowing.

The interaction continues in Extract 2 with T explaining right brain people. T describes right brain people as “creative,” “disorganized,” “messy,” and says

EXTRACT 1

01 T: well we say there’s uh in English we say there’s two kinds of people
 02 there is left brain people and right brain people
 03 S2: what does it mean?
 04 T: so (((2.9) stands up and walks towards whiteboard and begins to draw
 05 a picture of a brain))
 06 S2: left brain ah: sou iu koto ka
 07 (1.9)
 08 T: this is your brain
 09 S2: hn
 10 S1: hn
 11 (2.0)
 12 T: kin- kind of like your brain (1.6) so left brain people (1.8) they
 13 tend to be uh: more (1.8) I think (2.0) maybe- maybe I’m not- maybe
 14 I’m getting this wrong °hh but I think left brain people tend to be more
 15 organized
 16 S2: organized
 17 T: they’re- they tend to- or maybe it’s right brain I’m not sure maybe
 18 I’m [getting them mixed up
 19 S1: [ha ha ha ha
 20 T: but left brain people are usually organized and uh very structured
 21 S2: un
 22 T: and have uh you know their (.) uh home is usually very clean
 23 S2: ah::↑
 24 S1: hn:

EXTRACT 2

01 T: and then right brain people they tend to be more creative
 02 S2: hn:
 03 T: or disorganized. uh: tend to daydream
 04 S1: hn ha ha
 05 T: like just ugh↑
 06 S1: ha ha ha ha
 07 T: thinking about nothing
 08 S2: ha ha ha it’s ()?
 09 S1: °ha ha ha°
 10 T: the right brain people tend to be messier
 11 (0.8)
 12 S2: messier?
 13 T: yeah messy
 14 S2: messy
 15 T: ((begins to write “messy” on board))
 16 S2: ah↑ messy.
 17 T: so they don’t clean their rooms much or they you know have comic books
 18 everywhere or but they’re very creative or smart
 19 S2: hn: ah↑
 20 T: they spend their time thinking about the world or thinking about
 21 dreams they don’t think so much like a left brain person
 22 S2: ah↑ I see. so my brother is the right brain [person
 23 [right brain maybe

that they “tend to daydream.” The teacher begins to write “messy” on the board and S2 says “ah messy” in line 16 with rising pitch on the “ah,” which possibly indicates a change of state. T continues to explain that right brain people “don’t clean their rooms much,” but they are “smart,” to which S2 responds “ah I see. so my brother is the right brain person” in line 22. Prior to Extract 1, S2 described his brother as not being clean and being very smart, so T seems to agree that S2’s brother is a right brain person as evinced by his utterance in line 89, “right brain maybe.”

Extracts 1 and 2 demonstrate how S2 went from a visible state of not understanding the expression “right brain” as demonstrated by his question “what does it mean” in Extract 1, to some understanding of it, as shown by his use of change of state tokens and his correct application of “right brain” in line 22 of Extract 2. All of these elements suggest that something was learned, and the opportunity for learning was made possible by S2’s repair initiation, and the site in which the learning occurred was a repair sequence.

The following interaction begins with T saying “I design houses” in line 01. S2 responds with “un hn” and then there is a 4.0 second gap. When no one provides an answer, T gives another hint in line 04 saying “I work with blueprints” and S2 repeats “blue” in a quiet voice. A 1.9 second gap follows and then T makes a nudging motion to S2, but S2 does not seem to understand why. T continues to try to pursue an answer by uttering “say it say it” in line 10

in a quiet voice while doing a nudging motion to S2 again. Earlier in the interaction S2 produced the word “architecture” and now it seems that he wants her to produce the word “architect,” which is a similar word. S2 now seems to understand and produces the word “architecture” in line 11 to which T initiates and performs repair by stating “architect.” I argue that this repair initiation not only creates a learning opportunity, but, as mentioned above, a result that suggests that learning may have occurred.

In response to T saying “architect” S1 laughs in line 13, probably because he now realizes why T was doing the nudging motion to S2. S2 repeats “architect” in line 14 and T explains the difference between architect and architecture. He states that “architect is the person” and “architecture is the thing” and places stress on the “tect” in “architect.” To this S2 responds with the change of state token “ah,” which is elongated and has rising pitch. This change of state token suggests that S2 went from a state of not knowing that architect is a person and architecture is a thing to a state of knowing.

The interaction continues and Extract 4 below occurs approximately one minute and thirty-eight seconds after the interaction above ends. The teacher is now bringing the session to a close and asks the students if they came “up with anything really new today.”

The words “architect” and “architecture” become topics of discussion and T once again explains the

EXTRACT 3

01 T: two more u:::m (3.0) I design houses
 02 S2: un hn
 03 (4.0)
 04 T: I work with blueprints
 05 (1.1)
 06 S2: °blue°
 07 (1.9)
 08 T: ((makes a nudging motion to S2))
 09 (1.0)
 10 T: °say it° °say it° ((says this as he does a nudging motion to S2))
 11 S2: architecture
 12 T: architect
 13 S1: ha ha ha
 14 S2: architect
 15 T: architect is the person
 16 S1: ah
 17 T: architecture is the thing
 18 S2: ah:::↑
 19 S1: ah:

EXTRACT 4

01 T: did we come up with anything really new today
 02 (1.7)
 03 T: not really.
 04 (1.9)
 05 T: maybe architect
 06 (0.7)
 07 S2: architect
 08 T: yeah architect is the person=
 09 S2: =architect=
 10 T: =and architecture is the (.) the thing
 11 S2: >thing< [architecture is thing okay architect is the person
 12 S1: [oh:
 13 T: for example uh: when I (.) went to Europe (1.0) I took pictures of
 14 beautiful architecture
 15 (1.5)
 16 T: beautiful buildings
 17 S2: yeah
 18 S3: hn hn hn
 19 S2: oh okay beautiful architecture=
 20 T: =yeah=
 21 S2: =is that right?
 22 T: yeah sure
 23 S2: architect is a person who design a building
 24 T: yeah can you think of one of the most famous architects in the world?
 25 (2.0)
 26 S2: °ha ha° [ha ha ha ha ha ha I do(h)n't kn(h)ow
 27 S1: [yeah I don't know about that
 28 T: I'm thinking Spain
 29 S2: °Spain°
 30 T: the really unusual buildings
 31 S3: Sagrada Familia
 32 T: hn I can't hear sorry

meanings of both words as seen in lines 08 and 10 when he says “architect is the person” and “architecture is the thing.” In lines 07 and 09 S2 repeats “architect” and in line 11 she repeats “architecture is thing okay architect is the person.” In line 24, T says “can you think of one of the most famous architects in the world?” S3 produces the answer that T is looking for, but he is unable to understand so a new sequence begins in which the students try to explain that Gaudi is the architect of Sagrada Familia.

Approximately one minute and twenty-five seconds passes between the end of the extract above and the beginning of the extract below and during that time the words architect and architecture were not used by any of the participants.

In line 01 S2 tells T that “the building name

is Sagrada Familia” to which T responds with the elongated change of state token “ah” in line 03. In line 04, S2 continues to explain that “the architect is Gaudi.” It is S2’s application of the word “architect” that suggests that learning may have occurred. I maintain that although it may only be temporary learning, the fact that the word “architect” was not used for a short period of time, S2 use of the word “architect” suggests that she learned the meaning and that it is now in her repertoire. Not only does she use the word, but she uses it correctly with the name of the architect of Sagrada Familia, Gaudi. This potential learning, I argue, was made possible by the initiation of repair by the teacher, as shown in line 12 of Extract 3. S2’s use of the change of state token “ah” in Extract 3 as well as her application of the word “architect”

EXTRACT 5

01 S2: but now right yeah the building name is Sagrada Familia
 02 (0.5)
 03 T: [ah::
 04 S2: [and then the- the architect is Gaudi
 05 (1.0)
 06 T: okay

suggest that repair sequences may be one potential site in which learning may occur.

Discussion

Learning is often thought to be a cognitive action that occurs in the mind and is therefore not visible, but the examples presented in this study suggest that learning can be visible and conversation analysis, a method of analyzing the observable elements of social interactions, can be used to uncover how and where it may potentially occur. This study used a conversation analytic approach to demonstrate how the participants may go from a state of not knowing to a state of knowing, as demonstrated by the participants' visible problem in understanding or lack of knowledge, their use of change of state tokens, and through their actions of applying the newly learned word or phrase. All of these elements are what suggest that learning may have occurred. The sites in which the learning occurred were repair sequences, which were initiated either by a student or a teacher.

The two examples presented in this study are similar in that students demonstrate a lack of knowledge, a change of state, and then the ability to apply the newly learned word or expression in the subsequent interaction. They differ in few distinct ways. In the first example (Extracts 1 and 2), the student initiates the repair by stating, "what does it mean?" In the second example (Extracts 3, 4, and 5), the teacher initiates and carries out repair by saying, "architect." Also, in the second example, T repairs S2's utterance, S2 produces a change of state token, and S2 uses the word "architect" later on in the interaction. However, in the first example, S2 may know the words "right," "left," and "brain," but he does not understand them when they are used together. This is evinced by his initiation of repair in which he states, "what does it mean?" When T begins to draw a picture of a brain on the board, S2 states, "ah so iu koto ka" in Japanese, which, as stated above, can mean "ah that's what it means" or "ah I see." At this point it can be argued that S2 demonstrates his recognition of the words "right brain" and "left brain," but it is insufficient to argue that he understands the characteristics of right brain and left brain people. If S2 already knew the

characteristics of each type of person there would be no need for him to produce multiple change of state tokens (e.g., Extract 1: line 23, Extract 2: lines 16, 19, and 22) which follow T's description of right brain and left brain people. It is these change of state tokens as well as S2's correct application of the expression "right brain" which suggests that learning has occurred. S2 describes his brother as not being good at cleaning, but being very smart and this description matches T's description of right brain people.

The type of learning discussed in this study is all short-term and although the examples do not demonstrate long-term sustained learning, they do suggest that repairing student utterances and not letting mistakes pass (Firth, 1996) may lead to at least short-term learning, which is the first step to achieving long-term learning.

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Spoken Narrative: Multiple Voices, Multiple Perspectives

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Spoken narrative is a linguistic universal, and one of the most frequently occurring activities in spoken interaction. However, engaging in spoken narrative is more than just creating a series of well-formed sentences and placing them in temporal order. Narratives have a macro-structure and that is analyzable on the level of discourse and at the same time are interactional events that are co-constructed by both teller and audience at a micro-level. This paper will describe some of the research findings concerning these macro-structures and micro-practices. It is proposed that metacognitive awareness of these facets of narrative, on the part of both learners and teachers, combined with repeated encouragement and opportunities to engage in narrative in class time will enable learners to develop abilities to engage in one the central uses of natural language.

会話中の物語は世界の文学上に共通し、言葉のやりとりはもっとも頻繁に使用します。しかし会話中の物語は形成された文書順番に置きかえる事だけではない。物語には大きな談話構造と小さな談話構成があり、小さな談話構成の物語は語り手と聴衆の共同構築されるものです。

本論文はこれら二つの側面の研究発見を説明します。教師も学生もこれらの側面知識を持ち、生徒は個人の物語を話する機会が沢山あれば基本的で自然な言語を話す能力が飛躍する事ができます。

Spoken narrative is listed by Brown (cited in Pinker, 2002, p.437) as a human universal, that is, a form of behavior that is ubiquitous in all societies and cultures. It is hard to overstate the frequency of narrative episodes in daily conversation. Interactants suffuse their talk with stories and anecdotes as they conduct the quotidian business of creating and maintaining social relationships. Sometimes prolonged stretches of interaction consist solely of rounds of stories, each one triggering a response story from the next participant.

Given the centrality and frequency of narratives in spoken language, it is reasonable to suggest that

language learners should be acquainted with the specific ways in which stories are told in the target language and also given ample opportunity to prepare, tell and re-tell their stories as they construct a social, as opposed to purely institutional, identity in the target language. This paper attempts to provide some insight into the ways in which narratives are constructed and co-constructed by interactants, in order for teachers to understand the ways in which successful storytelling can occur, and for teachers to then make informed decisions as to how students can include storytelling as part of their L2 repertoire.

It is, of course, necessary for learners to have at least a certain level of vocabulary and grammar ability for them to be able to engage in narrative in the target language, but storytelling is more than just a question of creating correctly formed sentences and putting them in order. As McCarthy (1991, p.138) stated,

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“expecting a learner to tell a decent story is a tall order, and indeed it is; not everyone is an accomplished storyteller in their first language.” In order to illustrate what else is required to construct and engage in a storytelling, I will examine narrative from two separate perspectives. The first section will look at the discourse of spoken narrative, that is the kinds of structures that exist at the global level in narratives. Although these narrative structures may not be accessible to casual introspection, storytellers routinely structure their narratives in predictable ways, and it is likely that listeners orient to these structures in order to make sense of what kind of discourse he or she is involved in. As Cook (1989) wrote;

The language learner, in order to be able to operate effectively as a participant in discourse needs to be able to identify what type of discourse he or she is involved in and to predict how it will typically be structured” (p. 49).

The second perspective will examine storytelling as an interactive practice, co-constructed by both the teller(s) and listener(s) in the here and now of the unfolding interaction in mutually convergent ways, such intersubjectivity being a feature of talk in interaction in general, not storytelling in particular.

The macro view: The discourse of narrative

The basics for a description of narrative structure were laid out by Labov and Waletzky (1967). Using data from interviews with a variety of people from different socio-economic, racial and geographic backgrounds, they found a common structure underlying most narrative episodes. This structure consists of a number of steps, which are produced in order by the teller of the story. These steps are as follows:

1) Abstract. In this stage the storyteller often uses stock phrases to indicate that a narrative episode is upcoming. The teller thus makes a bid for a longer turn holding the floor than would otherwise be allowable in conversational exchanges and to place

constraints on the topic, i.e. the normal freedoms that participants have to change topic at any point in unfolding interaction are temporarily suspended. The topic may not normally be changed until the teller has reached a recognizable end to the telling. Examples of fixed expressions used in this slot are *did I ever tell you about the time that* or *wait until I tell you about*. The teller here expects this bid for extended floor time to be accepted by the listener(s) by such expressions as *no, what happened, oh really*, and other overt or tacit signals that the telling may proceed.

2) Orientation. In this stage the storyteller provides the information necessary for the listeners to understand the world in which the story takes place. Canonical orientation categories are: 1) People, that is, the characters of the story, whether known or unknown to the listener(s). 2) Place. That is, the location or locations in which the story takes place, describing the locations inasmuch as they are relevant to the story, from the large scale, such as country or city, to a fine-grained locational orientation, such as *the seat at the end of the bar*. 3) Temporal orientation, that is, when the events took place. Again, these times are differentially referred to depending on their relevance to the story. A large scale but essentially vague orientation such as *when I was a little kid* may be all that is needed, or, alternatively a fine-grained orientation such as *yesterday lunchtime* may be scale of the temporal setting of the narrative. The potential amount of orientation material that may be included is large, so participants should orient to the Gricean maxim of relevance when presenting orientation, (see Grice, 1975) but this orientation may not just be for raw sense making, but also for interactive purposes.

3) Complicating event. In this stage, the teller of the story introduces an event that is problematical for the story participants, that is, some deviation from the smooth progress of daily life. This is often what makes the story tellable. (Although see below for a genre that may omit the complicating event.)

4) Resolution. In this stage the problem that arose in the previous stage is resolved. The resolution phase is often combined with overt assessment statements by the teller, clearly signaling the expected response from the listener.

5) Coda. This signals the end of the story and often links the world of the story to the here-and-now of the telling situation. Summing up phrases and idiomatic expressions such as ‘That was the end of that’ or ‘Well, you live and learn I suppose’ can often signal this transition.

Such is the basic outline of narrative that was identified by Labov and Waletzky (1967), and as such it can serve as a useful template for students when they are trying to construct a narrative to tell in English. (See appendix for an example of a classroom handout that students can fill in as they construct their own narratives.)

Eggs and Slade (1997) developed the ideas of Labov and Waletzky further and categorized storytelling into the following sub-genres:

- Narrative (Deals with overcoming an obstacle)
- Anecdote (Elicits a reaction to a situation)
- Exemplum (Describes how the world is or should be)
- Recount (How one event leads to another)

The narrative genre matched Labov and Waletzky’s outline, but the anecdote genre, although presenting a disturbance to the normal course of events, does not present a resolution to the problem raised and is designed primarily to elicit a reaction from the listeners. The exemplum and recount genres may not even have the complicating action as part of the narrative structure. Thus, although the basic five-step outline can serve as a useful template, it is worth pointing out to students that “all these elements are not always present.” (Pridham, 2001, p. 15)

A further aspect of the storytelling matrix is the epistemic environment in which the telling takes place. Labov and Waletzky (1967) referred to one of the informants being a “practiced storyteller who is widely known in his community ... is an expert in this traditional art.” (p.27) This indicates that a story being told might actually constitute a re-telling and that many of the best storytellers engage in a series of retellings in which they refine and polish the narrative. The upshot of this is that a narrative may be a re-telling and if so, (some/all of) the audience may have heard

the story before and therefore be in a position to engage with the storyteller in a different manner than a new audience hearing a story being told by a teller who is engaging in the first ever telling of the story. Rather than presume that stories are one-off events told to an unknowing audience for the purpose of rectifying epistemic differences, the social aspect of storytelling may be foregrounded. Norrick (2000) stated:

Indeed, the tellability of familiar stories rests not on any newsworthy content, but on the dynamics of the narrative event itself. Story content need not be relevant or newsworthy if co-narration holds the promise of high involvement. (p.106)

For students, this means that they are not prohibited from engaging in multiple re-tellings, nor are they required to tell stories that are their own sole property, but may be shared experiences with co-present listeners or even re-tellings stories that they heard from a third party about events that happened to that party. They can and should tell stories that allow listeners to co-participate in the telling, to achieve goals that are primarily concerned with group identity and ratification of group membership rather than simply revealing unknown information for the enlightenment or amusement of their listeners. Common narrative topics for students are part-time jobs, club activities, public transport experiences, and vacation activities. (See excerpt 1 below.) Such topics are very much part of university student life and engagement in narratives on these topics allows for a good deal of convergence and ratification of group identity, in the same way that, for example, tales of child-raising are a common staple for people with young children but can alienate co-present members who do not have children.

The micro-view: The interactional perspective

The macro-structure of narratives, the likely ways in which a teller of a story will present the material at hand, is a useful way for learners to conceptualize

narratives as discourse events and to allow them to work towards constructing their own narratives in the target language. Just as a narrative is not just a series of correctly structured sentences placed in order, so too is the interactional unfolding of a story not just a matter of a teller taking an extra long turn while the listeners sit in silence until the end. The interactional dynamics of the storytelling event are managed on a moment-by-moment basis as the telling unfolds.

When telling the story, the teller of the story must engage in small-scale practices that will help the listener to both understand the story in terms of its logical, spatial, temporal and dynamic coherence and also understand it as an ongoing interactive event in the here-and-now of the world of the story teller and his/her audience. As was mentioned above, tellers must adhere to the Gricean maxims (see Grice, 1975), that is they must provide relevant, information, avoiding undue ellipsis or prolixity in order for the narrative to be comprehensible to the listener, without taking too much of the listener's understanding for granted, nor taxing the listener's patience with unnecessary details or backstory exposition. However, what is relevant may be also be due to interactional concerns as well as with the need to convey an understanding of the facts of the narrative. In the story below a storyteller is

recounting an incident on a train in which a drunken female passenger boarded a train and sat next to the storyteller. The drunken passenger then vomited, some of which soiled the storyteller's footwear. The drunken women then left the train without apologizing or attempting to clean up. The story arc most closely fits the 'anecdote' genre, referred to above in that a crisis occurred but there was no overt resolution, no return to the previous state of quotidian normalcy. The story seems primarily designed to elicit a reaction from the listener, namely one of disapproval and disgust at the actions and behavior of the drunken passenger. The listener reacts in just this way, using taboo language to criticize.

Excerpt 1 occurs during the orientation and complication phases of the story.

Line five is notable for its interactional relevance. The fact that the drunken passenger was overweight is not strictly relevant to the narrative and could easily have been omitted. However, the storyteller chooses to include this detail. One possible interpretation is that the storyteller is pre-signaling that this passenger is the antagonist of the story and is encouraging the listener to take a negative stance towards this individual even before the actual crisis is related. (While the drunkenness of the passenger may also be laying

EXCERPT 1

01. E: and (0.2) well (0.2) the station
 02. (.) leave the station
 03. when a: a girl sit down my
 04. nearby seat
 05. and a little bit fat girl huhhu
 06. and she was so:: eh:: drinker en
 07. (.) ah::
 08. I was worried abouteh::: drinker
 09. (.) drinker people
 10. >on the train<
 11. and she (2.2) ent well she throw
 12. up (0.9) >on the train<
 13. T: Oh really?=
 14. E: =Yeah and my: (0.8) ssan. My
 15. boots in dirty
 16. T: Really? Oh [it's shit]
 17. [She] Yeah
 18. T: Oh::: it's dirty bitch

the ground for a negative judgment, it also serves a more narrow relevance criteria by accounting for the subsequent vomiting.) It is interesting to note that the reference to the passenger's weight might be seen as socio-culturally inappropriate, so the teller hedges with 'a little bit' and also adds a small laugh token after the statement. By these means, the teller prepares the listener to treat the drunken woman in negative terms, but also seeks to avoid the loss of face that may occur by engaging in a negative judgment of the woman's weight. The apparent goal of the storyteller of eliciting a negative reaction from the listener is accomplished when T offers his strongly worded assessment in lines 16 and 18.

This small fragment demonstrates the small-scale interactional practices that also occur in story telling, in this case, preparing the listener to react in a certain way, engaging in matters of face saving and adhering to socio-cultural norms in the here-and-now of the telling.

This fragment also highlights the importance of the listener. If we accept that the purpose of the story seems to be to get the listener to react with disgust and condemnation to the drunken passenger's behavior rather than simply to fill an epistemic gap, then the story cannot be deemed to have finished until such a reaction is forthcoming. In this case, the desired reaction is given and then the storyteller and listener go on to an in-tandem series of expressions, using taboo terms (not given here), to jointly accomplish the ending of the anecdote.

This illustrates the idea that listeners are expected to be active participants in the story telling, showing interest in the unfolding story, encouraging the teller to continue, aligning with the assessments offered (overtly or tacitly) by the teller and generally facilitating the telling by aligning to the interactional role of 'listener' by various verbal, non-verbal and turn-sequential practices. Such is the normative case in situations where the tellers and audience are all speakers of the same L1 and cross-linguistic/ cross-cultural matters are not a factor. In L2 situations research (Bavelas, Coates & Johnson, 2000; Wolf, 2008) has found that active listenership has a beneficial effect on the fluency of the teller, with the backchanneling of the listener

providing support and encouragement to the teller to proceed. Thus it is important that teachers in L2 classrooms stress the necessity for active listenership during storytelling, this practice conforming not only to normative practice in target language interactions, but also as an active means by which the language skills of the teller can proceed to a more accomplished level of performance.

Conclusion

Storytelling is a central human linguistic activity and any L2 language program claiming adequacy must address the topic in a way that reflects this centrality, as a commonsense view of the goals of language learning must include 'the use of language for the normal purposes of language' (Rivers, 1983, p.64). However, perhaps because of its familiarity in daily exchanges, some of the underlying structures and interactional practices of spoken narrative may lie below the metacognitive horizon of the classroom participants and be inaccessible to the intuition of teachers and learners alike. Familiarity with some of the conventions of spoken narrative, as outlined in this paper, needs to be inculcated in the learners through explanations of these conventions by the teacher and repeated opportunities to practice storytelling in the classroom. Furthermore, students need to be reassured that the classroom is indeed an appropriate venue for storytelling, being as it is a social space where people gather and engage verbally with one another rather than a purely institutional setting in which personal narratives are inappropriate. Narrative is not only appropriate, but actually essential in any humanistic language learning situation.

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Appendix

Fill out the details of the story in the relevant boxes.

1. Abstract (Introduce your story. What is it about?)

2. Orientation (When? Where? Who?)

3. Complicating action (What happened?)

4. Resolution (How did the story end?)

5. Coda (What did you learn? What can you say about the events?)

Music, Mind and Embodied Simulation

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Why is music so exciting and why should we pay attention to using music more creatively in class, not simply focusing on the video story or lyrics of a song? This paper draws on findings in neuroscience to explain how listening to music activates the visual and motor, as well as the auditory cortices of the brain. In fact, music engages multiple areas of the brain, from the oldest to the newest, and affects our emotions through triggering the release of dopamine. Moreover, we ‘hear’ and recall music not only with our ears, but also with our eyes and bodies (embodied simulation.) The paper concludes with examples of how music can be used to inspire students to create and recall stories, based on various types of music they hear.

なぜ音楽はかくも喜びもたらずのか。教育ににおいて、従来のようにミュージック・ビデオや歌詞を用いるだけでなく、より創造的な音楽の使い方を模索することがなぜ必要なのか。本稿は、神経科学の分野における先行研究を概観し、音楽を聴くことが大脳皮質の聴覚野、視覚野、そして運動野を活性化することを説明する。事実、音楽は古い脳から新しい脳に至るまで、脳の複数の部分に作用し、ドーパミンの分泌を促すことで感情にも影響を与えることがわかっている。さらに、人は、身体化されたシミュレーションを通して、音楽を耳だけでなく目や体でも聴いたり思い出したりするのである。これらをふまえ、本稿では、英語学習者にさまざまなタイプの音楽を聴かせ、その刺激でストーリーを作らせたり思い出させたりする教授法の事例を紹介する。

The theme of the PanSIG 2015 conference was “Raising the Happiness Quotient”(PanSIG, 2005). One excellent way to achieve this in the classroom is to introduce music in timely and well-planned activities. To explain why this strategy comes with a guarantee of success, even for teachers who do not believe themselves to be ‘musical’, this paper will first describe the process of listening to music from a neuroscience perspective. The second part will introduce activities that have been successful in stimulating the imaginations and creativity of students in a language class, or which serve to refresh and energize the students between language-based

activities. It is hoped that with greater understanding of the ways in which music stimulates the whole brain and taps into the emotions of learners, teachers will be more willing to introduce music, and the joy it brings, into the language classroom on a regular basis.

What is music and why is music a powerful learning tool?

Stephen Pinker (1997) famously claimed that music is an evolutionary accident, and that human minds have not been specifically shaped for music cognition. This controversial claim has not yet been disproved, however, there is clear evidence that music is among the oldest and most ubiquitous of human activities (Levitin, 2006). Music is universal in human culture because “it transforms our lives in ways we value deeply, for example, in terms of emotional and

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aesthetic experience and identity formation” (Patel, 2008, p. 401). For these reasons, it has been as natural an activity as breathing and walking throughout most of human history and most of the world. We start to listen to music even before birth; babies can hear and recognize familiar music from around their 30th week of gestation (Patel, 2008).

Whereas some people are able to read, play, and compose music better than others, everyone (who has not suffered specific brain damage) can distinguish between music and noise (Levitin, 2006). We recognize music because it is organized sound and we can distinguish between the sound of traffic and music because we recognize the basic elements of music: loudness, pitch, contour, timbre, rhythm, tempo, spatial location, reverberation, key, meter, melody, and harmony.

Moreover, after many years of research, it seems that humans are the only animals that spontaneously move to the beat of music (Patel, 2008). In fact, it is so highly stimulating that we find it hard to keep still when we listen to music. For these reasons, it is unsurprising that: “The relationship between dance and music is widespread in human societies; indeed, some cultures do not even have separate terms for music and dance” (Patel, 2008, p. 99–100).

Nevertheless, musical perception is strongly influenced by culture and the music we become accustomed to hearing. Although we can come to appreciate and enjoy music from other cultural traditions, it is not possible to say that music has universal meanings for people from different or even the same cultures. Nattiez (1990) argues, from the semiotic perspective, that meaning exists when we perceive an object or event that makes us think of something other than that object or event. In other words, meaning is not a property of the object or event itself. Meaning is a dynamic and relational process and so the same piece of music can bring to mind a different set of things to different listeners, but also to the same listener, if heard at another time and in other circumstances. This makes music a rich resource for classroom discussion and creative activities.

Music and emotion

Closely related to the notion of meaning in music is the idea that music can express emotion. Experiments using music from the Western European tradition have found broad agreement among listeners who were asked to judge the expressive qualities of the music (Patel, 2008). Music with a fast tempo, high average pitch, and bright timbre is more likely to be judged as expressing *happiness* than *sadness*, and vice versa (Patel, 2008). Even children can make reliable affective judgments by the age of 5 or 6 (Patel, 2008). Another aspect of the Western European musical system, to which both adults and young children are sensitive, is the conventional link between major keys and positive emotions, and minor keys and negative emotions. Interestingly, experiments have shown that Westerners with no knowledge of Indian classical music were able to identify the intended emotion in Indian ragas when the emotions were joy, sadness, or anger (Balkwill and Thompson, 1999). These researchers found that music identified as expressing joy had a fast tempo and simple melody, whereas music identified as sad had a slow tempo and a complex melody. Identification of anger was related to timbre. The hard timbre of the sitar expressed anger as opposed to the softer timbre of the flute. These findings suggest that such psychophysical cues to musical expression are cross-cultural and that listening to music from other cultures can be a novel and stimulating experience.

Music can also influence our emotions and is widely used to manipulate emotions in ceremonial occasions, in advertising, in performances on stage and in film, as well as for personal mood manipulation. Teachers can use music in the classroom to encourage emotional states that are learning receptive (Freeman Dhority & Jensen, 1998). Music influences emotions by tapping into primitive brain structures involved with motivation, reward and emotion (Levitin, 2006). Intense musical emotion, experienced as *thrills and chills*, and the rewarding and reinforcing aspects of listening to music seem “to be mediated by increasing dopamine levels in the nucleus accumbens, and by the cerebellum’s contribution to regulating emotion through its connections to the frontal lobe and the limbic system” (Levitin, 2006, p. 191). Dopamine is a

hormone known to have a positive influence on mood. Wolfe (2010) explains that emotion drives attention and that attention drives learning. “The brain is biologically programmed to attend to information that has strong emotional content first” (p. 119-120). It is also programmed to remember this information longer.

Music and the whole brain

Listening to a piece of music we know and like involves logical prediction systems as well as emotional reward systems. It also activates memory traces of the emotional times in our lives when we have heard the piece of music before. In fact, music listening, performance, and composition engage nearly every area of the brain that has been identified, and involve nearly every neural subsystem (Levitin, 2006).

Synesthesia: Hearing with our whole body

It is generally assumed that we hear music through our ears when sound waves hit our eardrums and set off a chain of mechanical and neurochemical events that lead to an internal mental image of the sound we hear. The sound waves do not make any noise until they strike our eardrums, and they are not music unless heard by someone because “sound is a mental image created by the brain in response to vibrating molecules” (Levitin, 2006, p. 24). However, people like Evelyn Glennie, a world famous percussionist, demonstrate that it is possible to appreciate music without relying on stimulation of the eardrums alone (Stillhardlife, 2008). She has been profoundly deaf since the age of 12. She has learnt to hear music not through her ears, but through her feet, fingers, arms, in fact her whole body (Glennie, 2003). Her ability to interpret the vibrations she feels into sounds demonstrates the amazing plasticity of the human brain.

However, it is not just gifted musicians like Glennie who listen not only with their ears. We are all doing this subconsciously to some extent. Such a mingling of the senses is called synesthesia. There are a lot of extreme synesthetes: Some see colours when they see a number or letter (5 is blue, g is yellow, etc.) Others see colours when they hear a musical tone (C is red, F is yellow, etc.) These people are normal in

all other respects. There are two interesting points related to synesthesia and this current discussion. First, synesthesia runs in families and seems to have a genetic basis. Secondly, synesthesia is eight times more common among artists, poets, novelists and other creative people than it is in the general population. Nevertheless, we are all synesthetes to a certain extent.

Vilayanur Ramachandran demonstrated this point in his TED talk using the examples of two shapes that represent the sounds “kiki” and “buba”, two words in a fictitious Martian language (Ramachandran, 2007, 21:14–22:36). The audience was asked to identify which sound corresponds to which shape. They almost unanimously agreed that “kiki” referred to the pointed shape and “buba” to the rounded shape. For this audience, and others who have tried this experiment, the harsher, angular sound of “kiki” clearly matched the shape with straight lines and narrow angles, while the softer, rounder sound of “buba” corresponded to the softer, curved shape. It is a common human feature that we hear with our eyes and see with our ears most of the time, albeit subconsciously.

How does musical information get into our brains?

Tokuhamma-Espinosa (2014) explains that:

Information gets into the brain through different pathways depending on sensory input. When we listen to a song played by a live musician with the intention of remembering it, it enters our brain through the auditory pathways, is *heard* in the brain, and can be reheard by tracing this auditory network in the auditory cortex. However, when we remember the way the musician looked as he played, we are triggering slightly different neural pathways and a memory system linked more to the visual (occipital) cortex. (p. 34).

This explains why listening to a familiar piece of music can evoke a wide variety of memories and associations.

Bergen’s theory of embodied simulation

The role of activated memories and associations is explained by Bergen’s (2012) theory of embodied

simulation. When you hum or sing a song in your head, the same parts of your brain are active as when you first heard the song. We use mental simulation to create meaning and we do this both consciously and unconsciously. When we recall a song, we often see people, places, a music video, or something memorable that is associated with hearing the song. This is why music is such a rich source for students' stories.

Recognizing musical patterns and making memory links

Our brains learn to recognize associations such as, in Western cultures, the use of minor scales to express sad or defeated emotions and major scales to express happy and triumphant emotions (Levitin, 2006). Asian and Middle Eastern cultures use different scales and Westerners learn to recognize these so that by listening to just a few notes can they be transported to the Orient. Our brains get to know such associations through daily exposure to musical idioms, patterns, scales, lyrics, and the connections between them.

Each time we hear a musical pattern that is new to our ears, our brains try to make an association through whatever visual, auditory and other sensory cues accompany it; we try to contextualize the new sounds and eventually, we create these memory links between a particular set of notes and a particular place, time, or set of events. (Levitin, 2006, p. 38-39)

Playing unfamiliar music to students can therefore generate a lot of thought and discussion.

Activities and suggestions for how to use music in the classroom

The activities outlined below are ones that I use regularly in language-focused classrooms. Some of them require a projector and screen in the classroom, but others require audio equipment only, or even the students' own music players.

Start lessons with music or a music video for mood setting, establishing rapport, allowing time to settle down and focus on the lesson, and even introducing the topic of the lesson. Putting on instrumental

background music while students are working on grammar exercises or project work can create a relaxed but engaged atmosphere. There is a wide range of such music selections on YouTube.

Include music in short breaks to allow the students to relax and refresh their brains and bodies between activities. Energetic music is good and videos with dancing, animals, great surprises, and heart-warming scenes work especially well. They need not be English-language videos and they need not be the original versions. Many of the parodies and covers of well-known videos are new and stimulating to the students. (Some examples are videos by OK Go, Bruno Mars, Ylvis, Taylor Swift, Maroon 5, Sakanaction, GReeN, Babymetal, Pet Collective Parodies, Pentatonix, and the many cover versions available on YouTube.)

Make use of synesthesia by playing instrumental music and inviting students to let their imaginations create the scene and/or a story. After listening, students share with others what they saw, the place(s), colours, time of day, the feeling of the place (cold, warm, safe, scary, etc.) The opening two minutes of Art of Noise's "Moments in Love" generates a lot of discussion and vivid imagery.

Use synesthesia to draw on familiar patterns and associations in music. The opening minutes of Kitaro's "Silk Road" theme music conjures up scenes of slow-moving rivers and Chinese landscapes even for students who are unfamiliar with the music and the NHK TV series. Challenge the students to try to explain why this music made them *see* such similar scenes in their mind's eye or to develop a story based on what they see while they listen.

Use synesthesia to show how we often cannot block out visual memories (often of an accompanying music video or of a memorable occasion when) when we hear certain songs, such as "Gangnam Style" by Psy. Invite students to talk about other songs that have strong visual memories for them.

Use mash-ups/covers of well-known songs. Tell the students to stand up and move together to check quietly with each other as soon as they recognize the music. Performers such as The Piano Guys do a lot of great covers. I used their version of "Let it Go" from Disney's *Frozen* (ThePianoGuys, 2014) and followed

this up by pairs sharing their stories of when they saw the movie, or what they see in their mind's eye when they hear this music, and which version they prefer, the Japanese or English, and why.

Further exploitation of well-known movie songs/theme music. Students can discuss where the song fits into the story of the movie, what the song expresses, and in the case of a song like "Let it Go", compare the meaning of the original lyrics and the Japanese version.

Ghibli Studio/ Miyazaki Hayao film music is much loved and evokes many memories among Japanese students. Students can be invited to share their stories about when they first or last saw the film, or other things or occasions that the song reminds them of.

Music videos with a strong storyline and great melody can be used as a paired activity where one student (A) watches and the other (B) has their back to screen and only listens. B tells A what s/he thinks the story of the song may be about based on the melody, rhythm, mood of the music and the lyrics (which can be provided if you wish.) (A) then recounts the story of the video. Last of all, they can watch the video together. Some videos that work well for this activity are: "Take On Me" by Ah-ha, many videos by Nickelback, "Paradise" by Coldplay, "Girlfriend" by Avril Lavigne, "Part of Me" by Katie Perry).

Let students be DJs and VJs to get a chance to share the music they like and that they think their classmates may not know. Challenge them to create their own activity. This can be done as a whole class activity or in small groups using smart phones with earphones (if allowed).

Conclusion

Whether music is an evolutionary accident or not, it is an integral part of human consciousness and of all human cultures. As such, it can be used as a tool for aiding learning in the language classroom in a variety of ways. It can manipulate mood, stimulate imagination, evoke memories, build rapport, as well as provide English-language texts for study. Music of all genres and origins, used wisely and well, can help raise both the learning and happiness quotient of language classrooms.

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Redressing Imbalanced Positioning through Narrative

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The aim of my paper is to clarify how the participants in an institutional framework co/de-construct or redress imbalances in status by using characters in narratives. In such a framework, so many imbalances exist. They are not always necessarily redressed, but in more than a few cases they can be redressed in a here-and-now narrative situation. In my data, it can be seen that the participants effectively use characters in narratives to create multiple dichotomies which the participants use to put themselves into the same category as each other and redress their imbalanced positions/knowledge. By analysing layers of dichotomies, the multiple identities of one of these participants can be better discerned.

本論文は半構造化インタビューというフレームにおいて、その参加者が語るナラティブを通して、今・この場における不均衡な立ち位置をどのように是正していくかを解明するものである。インタビュー場面におけるインタビュアーとインタビュイーという絶対的立場の違いや、社会的な立ち位置や知識を持つもの／持たざるものなど、場合によっては是正する必要がない不均衡もあるが、本論文で扱う不均衡は、参加者間での不均衡を是正するために多層的な二項対立などの手段を用い、均衡になる事によって話題を終わらせる例である。この例を通して、物語世界の中での不均衡よりも、今・ここで集う者同士が均衡を保つ事、そのためには、対立軸を参加者の外に見出し、自分たちを一つの範疇に収める事などが観察された。

In the last two decades, the study of narrative has developed explosively. However, it has been dispersed throughout various fields like linguistics, linguistic-anthropology, psychology and so on, which you can easily see if you search through the themes of the conferences and journals in these disciplines. Now, this trend has reached the area of Language Teaching, to the extent that Pan-SIG has allowed 'narratives' to become part of its conference theme.

This paper follows the trend of examining narrative through linguistics that has recently developed as an umbrella field and currently forms one of the strongest backgrounds of narrative analysis. In

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this study, sociolinguistics and related theories such as positioning and small stories have been examined with a focus on the relationship between narrative and identity in order to reveal the function of verbal elements represented in narratives, especially the multiple functions of small stories that occur in interactively constructed narratives. Following this concept, the aim of this study is to discover in which situations small stories are used and their functions, especially those through which participants in a vis-à-vis situation can 1) not only show their 'position' in both the taleworld and their lived reality, but 2) also redress the imbalanced positions among participants. This study especially insists on the importance of the small story's function in the redress of the participants' relative positions to one another, which consequently leads the flow of interaction towards final closure on the topic being discussed. Although the data in this

paper is not directly related to language teaching, it could be applied to the situation of language teaching.

Theoretical Background

The theoretical background of this study follows recent trends in narrative theory. First, the foundational model of narrative from a linguistic perspective (Labov & Waletzky, 1987; Labov, 1972, 1997) was taken as a starting point. Narrative was treated as a story which “begins with an orientation, proceeds to the complicating action, is suspended at the focus of evaluation before the resolution, concludes with the resolution and returns the listener to the present time” (Labov & Waletzky, 1987). This definition, however, was revised as “a sequence of events that have entered into the biography of the speaker by a sequence of clauses that correspond to the original events” (Labov, 1997, p. 393) in concert with the development and criticism of narrative studies. This was followed by new perspectives that made possible the examination of identity as represented or recreated in narratives: positioning theory (Bamberg, 1997) and the concept of big/small stories (Bamberg, 2004; Bamberg & Georgakopoulou, 2008; Georgakopoulou, 2006, 2007) have been introduced and applied to empirical research in order to reveal what happens and why it happens in actual situations. In positioning theory, Bamberg divides the positions into three parts purposely in order to excavate identities in narratives: The first is positioning level 1 which represents the speaker’s position and reveals the character of the self in the speaker’s taleworld; the second is positioning level 2, in which the relational positions among the participants in here-and-now situations are illustrated; and the third is positioning level 3, which represents identity in the question, ‘Who am I?’, including transportable and deeply embedded identities. In other words, even if you are away from your normative base situation, the identity to which you belong (including gender, nationality, ethnicity, etc.) will be evident in positioning level 3. In response to positioning theory, the idea of the small story, a perspective that pushes against Labov’s definition of narrative, has been proposed. This perspective has

come to the fore because the traditional definition of narrative has avoided dealing with some types of stories. In traditional narrative theory, a story is a representation of past experiences and hypothetical stories, stories about the future, and ‘fragments’ of story are not treated as narratives. In order to examine identity through the interaction of speakers, however, these ‘small stories’ must be analysed.

Data and Analysis

In this study, one of a series of semi-structured interviews conducted among Japanese women living in London in 2012 has been analysed. In this interview, three participants who were close friends chatted together: one was the interviewer (researcher), the others were interviewees. In this scene, the interviewer asked two interviewees some questions about cultural differences between Japan and the UK. Answering these questions, the interviewees, permanent residents whose nationality is Japanese, effectively used characters in their narratives to create multiple dichotomies through which the three participants were able to put themselves into the same category as that of the characters in the narrative. Evidence shows that there is an attempt to redress the imbalance in position and knowledge that exists between the role of the speakers and that of others involved. For example, the data shown below demonstrates how three participants (one interviewer and two interviewees, who have known each other for 3 years and are close friends) collaboratively redress their imbalanced positions by narratively identifying themselves within a ‘traditional’ family type vs. the contemporary family ‘unit.’ Kaori, the interviewer, begins her narrative by explaining that she has found that there are two family types: one is the ‘traditional’ family type, in which women should do housework following the social norms typically observed in Japan, while the other is the family ‘unit’, in which it doesn’t matter who does what work if it functions appropriately as a ‘family.’ Yayoi empirically understands what Kaori wants to say. However, as in line 11 of Excerpt (1), Yuki cannot understand what the difference they are talking about consists of.

Yayoi used a small story about her acquaintance,

EXCERPT 1

1. やよい: なんかともだ アメリカ人の同僚が(.)
Yayoi: you know, (his) frien(d) (his) American colleague
2. 彼女が出来て 日本人の
got a girlfriend who's Japanese
3. ゆき: うん
Yuki: yeah
4. やよい: 家来た時に 彼が仕事行ってる時かな
Yayoi: when she came home while he was off to work
5. なんか ぶあっとま 部屋を片付けたらしくて
you know, he said she cleaned up every inch of his room
6. かおり: ああ
Kaori: oh
7. やよい: それをアメリカ人の彼はすごく引いた↑
Yayoi: the American boyfriend felt out of love for her very much
8. かおり: あ:: [そうなんだ
Kaori: oh, really
9. やよい: [んん なんで↑ なんで↑ なんで↑
Yayoi: what? why? why? Why?
10. なんで掃除すんの↑みたいな 彼女が
like, why does she clean up my room?
11. ゆき: え どういう わかんなかった
Yuki: what? I cannot understand.
12. やよい: だから アメリ マイケルの友達のアメリカ人が↑
Yayoi: so, the Ameri Michael's American friend
13. ゆき: うん
Yuki: yeah
14. やよい: 日本人の彼女 できて[:: [彼女が
Yayoi: got Japanese girlfriend she
15. ゆき: [お::: また [彼女が来た時に
Yuki: oh:::so when she came home
16. やよい: 彼の家来て 彼がちょっと留守にしている間に
Yayoi: she came to his home and while he went out
17. 片付けたわけ全部
she cleaned up everything

who behaved herself just as if she was following Japanese social norms. Japanese society tends to operate based on a tradition of male dominance, in which women are praised for doing housework perfectly, a role that is fixed to sexual identity. However, this doesn't work for the American boyfriend. As a result, she fails to show her love to him because he doesn't understand Japanese social norms. At this point, using this small story, Yayoi presents a story about cultural difference without any added evaluation. However, in line 6, Kaori already expects the final evaluation of this story and completely understands that this is a story about cultural difference, as demonstrated when she says "oh, really" in line 8, while Yuki confesses that she cannot understand the situation itself because she

has never thought that the behaviour of the girlfriend was unnatural. Then, listening to this small story repeatedly with Observer Viewpoint gesture, Yuki can finally understand the situation and co-construct the story collaboratively in lines 14, 15, and 16 with Yayoi. Then, Yayoi in Excerpt (2), starts evaluating this small story and uses her own small story to reveal her opinion that the unit type of family is better and fair, and is the social norm of British/American culture.

In Excerpt (2), while Yayoi compares Japanese culture to British/American culture, in line 31 Kaori proposes a new dichotomous way of thinking among British/American men: some think Japanese women are convenient, while others feel they go overboard with housework. Yayoi overlaps Kaori's words and

EXCERPT 2

18. やよい: だからなんでそんなことすんのかわからないって
Yayoi: so he didn't understand why you did such a thing?
19. アメリカ人もね
for the American, too
20. なんで日本人女性ってそんなことすんの↑
why do Japanese women do such a thing?
21. そんな お手伝いさんじゃないじゃないみたいな
she is not a housekeeper
22. ゆき: [は:::::::::::::::::::::::::::
Yuki: haaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
23. やよい: [頼んでもいないのに片付けて頼んでもいないのに
Yayoi: the behaviour of her cleaning up the room even when he didn't ask her
24. 料理作って待ってるっていうのを
and waited for him with handmade meals is
25. 日本人の男の人だったら すごいもうありがとうって
"very thankful for it" for Japanese men, maybe
26. いう感じだったかも知れないけど そのアメリカ人は(.)
but for the American guy,
27. ひいたって言ってて
it was too much, he said
28. かおり: は:::::
Kaori: yeah::::
29. やよい: でマイケルも そう思う なんか
Yayoi: and Michael thinks so, too you know,
30. なんでそんなことすんのかわからないみたいな↑
he also doesn't understand why she did so, you know
31. かおり: そこでなんか(.).うわあ嬉しいすっごい便利って思うか
Kaori: it is the point whether the guys think 'wow I love it because it is convenient.
32. 引くか [どっちなかで
or feels out of love for her
33. やよい: [そうそう 日本人女性って
Yayoi: yeah yeah what Japanese women
34. いいじゃんめった使えるって思って=
think is useful for a man
35. ゆき: =多分 多分うちの旦那は うわあ[便利
Yuki: maybe, maybe my husband thinks 'wow, so convenient'
36. かおり: [そ(んな)hhhhhh
no way
37. やよい: [そうそう
Yayoi: yeah yeah
38. ゆき: 便利タイプ 便利タイプ [うん
Yuki: yeah, I am a convenient type
39. やよい: [便利と違って
Yayoi: because of its convenience
40. そういうの好んで日本人女性を選ぶ人と
(there are) such guys who choose Japanese women as it is convenient
41. なんか なんでその(.).ね つくしすぎる↑
and (as for the other type of guys) you know, like, it is too much
42. ていうの嫌っておもっ もっと自立した
such guys who think more autonomous women
43. なんていう そういうのが好きって思う人と
how can I say, there are such guys who like such women

44. 別れるのかもね↑
(you will find) two separate types, probably
45. ゆき: でした そういことですね::
Yuki: that's the final answer. I see
46. かおり: でした [そこだあ
Kaori: that's it. it is
47. やよい: [そこ違うと思う=
Yayoi: that's the point (these two are different)

shows strong agreement with her. However, this is the point when the imbalanced positions of these three participants start to be represented. In line 35, Yuki uses the quoted speech of someone who thinks it is convenient for wives to do all the housework, in order to joke and be self-denigrating. Interestingly, while Kaori denies her self-denigration in line 36, Yayoi continues the dichotomous evaluation. After that, all three participants share the idea that there are two dichotomous types in the world and they belong to one or the other of these types. Moreover, they also share the idea that the roles associated with these types are not only different, but also imbalanced: Yayoi and Kaori believe that autonomy is good, while Yuki comes down on the side of convenience.

This reminds me of Goffman's participation framework (Goffman, 1981), in which three participants position themselves in an imbalanced (unequal) framework. However, in the Japanese

interaction in the here-and-now situation, the participants cannot leave the imbalanced positions and try to redress them. Excerpt (3) shows the process of 'distorted' agreement that is used to make a balance among participants.

For instance, in line 48, Yuki repeatedly presents a self-denigrating image of herself in a joke by saying 'I am thought of as convenient (by my husband), yeah?' while using the final particle 'ne' to request agreement. Yayoi, finally, realises that the conversation threatens Yuki's personal dignity because of her dichotomous evaluation. In this evaluation, the three participants fit into two dichotomous sides: Kaori and Yayoi are aligned with the unit type of family (evaluated as sophisticated) vs. Yuki, who is aligned with the traditional type (evaluated as out of date but convenient). In lines 49 and 50, Kaori and Yayoi start trying to repair their imbalanced positions. However, it is not so easy to redress this imbalance after all the

EXCERPT 3

48. ゆき: =私便利だと思われてるんだ(.)ねっ
Yuki: I am thought of as convenient (by my husband), yeah
49. かおり: いや::: どうだ[ろう
Kaori: uh::: I am not sure
50. やよい: [やっまあそれだけじゃないと思うよ
Yayoi: not only like that, I think
51. もちろん もちろん
surely, surely
52. ゆき: うん うん
Yuki: yeah yeah
53. やよい: そりゃやってくれてう:::..:..:れしくない人は
Yayoi: there's no one who doesn't feel thankful for such behaviour
54. >いないんじゃないかと思うけど多分<h
I think, maybe you know
55. 彼女の段階で:::(.) [それをやったから(.)
but in her case she did it even though she was only his girlfriend
56. かおり: [そうだよね:::
Kaori: yeah I think so too
57. ゆき: [あ:::..:..:
Yuki: yes:::..:..:

participants agree on the single opinion that they are “different.” In the end, interestingly, Yayoi suddenly adds a new evaluation in line 55 to the former story, which doesn’t change the overall evaluation of the story but does change Yuki’s positional category. Yayoi shifts the focus of the story from the difference of family types to the fact that the character in her small story is just a girlfriend, while Yuki is a wife. As a result, the participants remove the girlfriend from their shared category so they, all three participants in the immediate situation, can share in the same category, that is, in the status of being wives. Eventually, their conversation diminishes the difference among their family types, which had been the central topic of the discussion. After they include themselves in a single category, even if they end up ignoring some differences and evading the point of the argument they are having, they succeed in creating closure for the topic at the end.

Conclusion

The case above is just one example, but it illustrates the function of small stories. The most important point is that the evaluation of the small story can be freely changed if necessary, even if the contents of individual stories are inconsistent. This fact leads us to the conclusion that the small story is not just a kind of digression, nor just a ‘small’ story in comparison with the so-called ‘big’ story, which has a beautiful flow of elements, but has an existence of its own that is fully functional and important. Therefore, in teaching language in particular cultural settings, we need to pay attention not only to the big story but also to any small stories, because they could change the evaluation of the story as a whole and generate misunderstandings and inappropriate behaviour in the L2 learners. Language teachers tend to focus on grammatically correct language use. However, as this paper has shown, in practical situations, we need to be more careful about what we are foregrounding and what points we put into the background in accordance

with the flow of the interaction.

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Teaching World Englishes in a Global Studies Program

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The Liberal Arts Department of a small private university in western Japan recently started a Global Studies in English (GSE) program conducted almost entirely in English. This paper looks at one course within this program, “English in the World,” that was designed to raise student awareness of the diversity of the types of English that are spoken in the world. This paper gives the rationale for providing such a course, the course themes and teaching methodology employed, and the perceptions of the students and teacher concerning World Englishes in a Global Studies program. The paper concludes that, in spite of a substantial lack of data, early indications are that a course on World Englishes in a Global Studies program is worthwhile.

最近、日本西部の小規模な私立大学のリベラルアーツ学部が、英語のグローバル・スタディーズプログラム(GSE)を開始した。講義は、ほとんど英語で実施される。この論文では、プログラム内の「English in the World」コースに関して考察する。「English in the World」コースは、学生の意識を世界で使用される英語の多様性に向けるものだ。この論文ではGSEプログラムの簡潔な説明の後に(a)GSEプログラムで「English in the World」のコースを提供する理論的根拠(b)シラバスのテーマと主要内容 (c)教育の方法(d)「English in the World」に関する生徒の初期の認識(e) コースの価値に関する教員の認識を説明する。結論としては、データが大きく欠如しているのに関わらず、初期の指標はグローバル・スタディーズプログラムの「English in the World」に関するコースに価値があることを示している。

In the Japanese education system, “globalization” has replaced “internationalization” as the new buzzword. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has recently started up a system of Super Global high schools “to nurture students who are internationally well-grounded” (MEXT, n.d.). This follows on from the Global 30 Project in the Japanese university system that aims to “nurture internationally competent individuals by creating an academic environment where international and Japanese students can learn from one another and build lasting international bonds that will propel them

into the international scene” (Global 30, 2015).

These two MEXT projects are large-scale, but many schools and colleges are finding their own smaller-scale ways to try to meet MEXT’s goals for “nurturing internationally competent individuals” – for making their students think globally. This paper looks at the “English in the World” elective class within one university’s global studies program that has the goal of creating global citizens.

Global Studies Program

Global Studies in English (GSE) is one major that students can choose (out of fourteen) at a Liberal Arts Faculty at a small private women’s university in western Japan. The GSE program provides a curriculum where students can study all day, every day, only English. The

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classes are multidisciplinary content classes that are taught in English within the field of Liberal Arts.

The number of students enrolled in the GSE major is small, and most of the classes have fewer than a dozen students. Most of the students are from Japan, but there are also a number of full-time international students from the Philippines, Kenya, Malaysia, Iran, and the USA. Furthermore, it is also possible for international exchange students from the USA and students from non-GSE majors to participate in these classes, which can further increase the number of participants.

Within the GSE curriculum, one elective course available to students is “English in the World.” Ten students completed the course in its inaugural year, and their nationalities were Japanese (7), American (1), Malaysian (1), Filipino (1). With the exception of one student who had a TOEIC score of less than 500, all of the Japanese students had TOEIC scores above 600, and all were able to communicate effectively in English. All three non-Japanese students were native or near native-like speakers of English. The course was conducted almost entirely in English, although from time to time, all participants (including the non-Japanese students and the British teacher) used a little Japanese when linguistic references were made to the Japanese language.

Rationale for Teaching about World Englishes

Most people would agree with McIntyre (2009, p. 31) when he states, “English is now commonly referred to as a global language.” The titles of a number of books support this claim (see for example Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Crystal, 2003). Seargeant (2012) states that this global English can function “as a language that operates across traditional linguistic and cultural borders, and become an international *lingua franca*” (p. 4). There has also been recognition of the plurality of Englishes in the world, as shown in various book titles that use the terms “World Englishes,” and “Global Englishes” (see for example Melchers & Shaw, 2003; Kirkpatrick, 2007). Clearly, there is a realization that English is no longer confined to what are commonly referred to as native speaker (NS) countries, and that non-native

speakers (NNS) far outnumber NS (Jenkins, 2015).

Within a Global Studies program that aims to nurture global citizens, it is imperative to not only understand the global nature of English, but also to recognize the validity of a variety of Englishes from around the world. An “English in the World” course is one way to raise the students’ awareness of this diversity and help them to respect the differing varieties of Global Englishes that are used in the world today.

Syllabus Themes & Main Content

Languages and the World

In order for students to fully comprehend the place of the English language among the languages of the world, the first theme for the course is about the world and its languages. Students are introduced to some basic facts about languages in the world today including: the number of languages in the world, the countries with the most languages, the languages with the most native speakers, and issues surrounding endangered languages.

Development of English/ English(es)

In this unit students listen to examples of how the English language has changed over time (Bryson, 2008). They also learn how the language developed in the British Isles by absorbing words from other languages, such as Old Norse, Norman French, and Latin (Bragg, 2004). Students are then taught about the spread of English to other parts of the world. Using the dispersal pattern laid out by Jenkins (2015), students are introduced to the “first dispersal” to the New World (North America, Australia, New Zealand) and the “second dispersal” to Asia and Africa, and how new varieties of English developed there.

Classification of World Englishes

In this unit of the course students look at the different models for the classification of World Englishes. These include: (1) Kachru’s (1992, as cited in Jenkins, 2015) widely used three-circle model that split English into English as a native language (ENL) in the inner circle, English as a second language (ESL) in the

outer circle, and English as a foreign language (EFL) in the expanding circle; (2) Strevens's world map of English (Strevens, 1992, as cited in Jenkins, 2015); (3) McArthur's circle of world English (McArthur, 1998, as cited in Jenkins, 2015); and (4) Modiano's English as an international language (Modiano, 1999, as cited in Jenkins, 2015).

Inner Circle Englishes

Next, students learn about the Englishes of Kachru's inner circle. Special attention is paid to a comparison between the standard varieties of American and British English. All students in the inaugural class had had experience of both kinds of English, and they found it easy to talk about their personal experiences and opinions on this subject. However, recognition of non-standard varieties is considered an important element of ENL, so students also study about African American Vernacular English.

Outer Circle Englishes

In this unit students study about the varieties of English that are found in India and about the various forms of Singapore English. Students are given detailed information about the English situation in Singapore from the lecture notes of a visiting scholar from Singapore (S. Lim, personal communication, June 16, 2010). In the inaugural class the Malaysian student provided valuable commentary on this topic by comparing the Singapore English language situation with that of her own country.

Expanding Circle Englishes

The students consistently make comparisons throughout the course with how English is used in Japan. Therefore, Japanese English acts as the expanding circle (or EFL) variety of English that we refer to the most in class.

Teaching Methodology

It is important to stress that this course is not seen as an English language course, but as a content course taught through the medium of English. The classes are designed to be student-centered, allowing students

the opportunity to be creative and critical in their thinking. Students are introduced to the content in a number of different ways: through the course materials provided by the teacher; by participating in classroom discussions; through research projects; and finally through presentations.

Content Materials

The content materials take the form of reading assignments that are given for homework. In addition, in-class content is disseminated through mini-lectures, carefully selected DVD and YouTube clips, and student presentations.

Classroom discussion

Each class discussion centers on a particular theme that is chosen by the teacher to be the focus of that class. The subject matter is personalized as much as possible. The students in the inaugural class were very active in the discussions and forthcoming with their ideas and clearly enjoyed this part of the course. In class, we were fortunate to have students from Malaysia, USA and the Philippines, as well as from Japan, meaning that the personalization of the topics went beyond the borders of Japan. For most discussions, students prepare answers to questions given for homework and they are then able to use these answers in the following class's discussion. An example of a ninety-minute discussion worksheet from the fourth class is shown in the Appendix.

The questions on the discussion worksheets are designed to help the discussion groups exchange ideas and opinions, make predictions, share knowledge, and give personalized answers relevant to their own variety of English. In the inaugural class, the students were usually split into two groups of five students. Each group carried out a separate discussion for approximately ten minutes before coming together to summarize their ideas in plenary. The process was repeated for all of the questions on the discussion worksheet. This proved to be an effective way to carry out the discussion. The teacher was able to monitor both discussions, and then focus students' attention on the most important points during each summary stage.

Research Projects

Research projects (with model frameworks) are set for homework, and the results of these projects are used in classroom discussions and presentations. These discussions often take the form of student-led informal quizzes. These informal quizzes consist of students asking the class to speculate on the answers to questions that they had prepared for homework such as having other students try to guess the country of origin of a loanword that is currently being used in English. Two of the research projects that were particularly successful were one that involved having the students research about the etymology of loanwords in English and another that focused on the differences between American and British English.

Presentations

Presentations take two forms, informal and formal. Informal mini-presentations take place prior to the discussions. These are sometimes made to other members of the same group and sometimes to the whole class. Formal longer presentations take place twice during the course. For the first formal presentation students have a choice of themes such as the development of English, the classification of Englishes, or an inner circle variety of English. For the second presentation they present about one type of English from either the outer circle or expanding circle. The most popular presentation in the inaugural year was about Korean English (from the expanding circle). The students were particularly interested in the similarities between Korean English and Japanese English and the historical connections between Korea and Japan that caused these similarities.

Student Perceptions Concerning World Englishes

After the “English in the World” course had been completed and grades assigned, students were asked to reflect on the course themes by completing a short survey. This survey consisted of seven open-ended questions that were intended to find out student attitudes toward the diversity of Englishes in the world and the value of learning about World Englishes.

The survey was conducted by email thereby allowing students to provide detailed answers without time constraints. Of the 10 students enrolled in the class eight (5 Japanese and 3 non-Japanese) completed the questionnaire. A summary of their answers to the most salient questions is shown below.

Is it a good idea for students to learn about “World Englishes”?

In general the Japanese students thought that it was a good idea. One student was very enthusiastic, commenting “Yes!!!! There are so many types of Englishes that have different accent or pronunciation, or even grammar. There are no right or wrong...I think Japanese people can be encouraged to speak in English with learning the variety of Englishes.” However, one student introduced an important caveat when she said, “I think it’s good for university students, but it can be confusing for junior high and high school students. I think they should learn some kind of standard English.”

The non-Japanese students were all in favor of this type of course; for example, the Malaysian student said:

Yes, it’s a very good idea, because when we learn about “world Englishes,” we open our minds to the possibility that someone else has grown up speaking a completely different form of English than the one we speak, and they may not be less adept at speaking English than we are. It also helps with cross-cultural communication and understanding.

The American student said, “By students learning this, whether ESL learners or perfect English speakers, I think they will have a more open mind about the world and a world where there is no stereotyping or judging others by the way they speak.”

Is it easier for you to speak English with NS or NNS of English?

The three non-Japanese students all said it was easier to speak with NNS, because they felt less pressure and they felt native speakers judged them when they were

talking with them. The student from the Philippines summed up her feelings by saying, “there is no sense of intimidation in communicating with a NNS.”

The Japanese students gave mixed answers. Three of the students said that they found it easier to speak with NNS for similar reasons to the students above, while two said they sometimes found it hard to understand NNS and therefore found it easier to speak with NS.

Is it okay to speak English with a Japanese accent?

Four of the Japanese students thought it was okay as long as the accent was understandable; one thought it was unacceptable. However, nearly all the students wanted to speak English with a “native” accent.

The non-Japanese students thought that it was okay as long as the accent was comprehensible. The student from the Philippines said:

Using [E]nglish language does not require people to use one specific accent, and also [I] believe that in a world of multilingualism and multiculturalism using [E]nglish with your own accent is a common tool for every people to understand and to be understood by people from different cultures with different accents.

English belongs to the native English-speaking countries. Do you agree?

The answers to this question showed the greatest disparity between the Japanese students and non-Japanese students. All but one of the Japanese students agreed with this statement, whereas all the non-Japanese students disagreed. The American student said, “I think we should give a little credit to the countries that developed English to the way it is now... but let me make it clear that they do not own English.”

To become more global, Japan should have some English teachers from NNS countries. Do you agree?

Four out of five Japanese students agreed with this statement, with one student commenting, “We should follow the serious situation of globalization. And I think English is one of the biggest features of it.”

All the non-Japanese students agreed with the statement.

NNS Englishes are okay as long as they can be understood. Do you agree?

There was widespread agreement to this question with just one dissenter - a Japanese student. Interestingly, this dissenter was the only student who did not belong to the GSE major.

Conclusion

The teacher was pleased with the mature and critical approach the students took to the course and this was reflected in their responses to the questionnaire. The responses showed ample evidence of a growing awareness and respect for the global nature and diversity of Englishes in the world, particularly concerning NNS varieties of English. Many students expressed the positive points (such as feeling a lack of pressure when speaking with NNS), and most felt in order to become more global Japan should have more teachers from NNS countries. However, the survey also revealed that students were not unanimous in their opinions and this showed the course promoted critical thinking. Some students addressed practical issues, such as comprehensibility problems that face some users of NNS Englishes, with one student even feeling that NNS Englishes were actually not okay.

Some survey responses revealed points that deserve more attention in future class discussions. These include issues such as ownership of the English language, why many Japanese students feel the need to speak English with a NS accent, and what age is suitable for students to start learning about the diversity of Englishes.

Overall, the survey responses showed all students believed learning about World Englishes was valuable at the university level, with such a course encouraging “a more open mind about the world” and helping with “cross-cultural communication and understanding.” It is not known to what extent student opinions were affected by the “English in the World” course itself, and to what extent by their experiences of studying in a multicultural environment. Therefore, to make a more

robust conclusion, in subsequent years the addition of a pre-course survey will help to determine how students' opinions are affected by the course. However, in spite of the small number of survey respondents, and the lack of a pre-course survey, preliminary results suggest that in a globalizing world, there seems to be a place for an "English in the World" course in a Global Studies program.

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Appendix

Fourth Class Discussion Questions Worksheet

Class 4: Mini-presentation & Discussion

Create a 1-2 minute presentation to answer one of the first four questions. Write notes for the remaining nine questions for a discussion.

1. What kind of English do you like best? Explain.
2. Is it easier for you to speak with “native English” speakers or “non-native English” speakers? Explain.
3. Japanese schools employ some non-Japanese to teach English. What countries should those teachers come from?
4. John uses British English. If he were an elementary school or JHS English teacher in Japan, should he use American English?
5. Is it okay to speak English with a Japanese pronunciation?
6. If you went to do a homestay in Australia, would you be disappointed if your host family spoke Indian English?
7. Is it a good idea for the world to learn an easy version of English (such as Globish which has just 1500 words and no idioms)?
8. Is it okay for Hispanic people in the USA not to speak English?
9. Do you think English will become more diverse (more different Englishes) or less diverse in the future?
10. Where do we draw the line between a person who can speak English and one who can't?

Creating Teaching Materials (Writing a Book) for ICT Reading Classes

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The author has published a self-study book on comprehension of authentic ICT texts, drawing on his dual experience as a computer engineer and college English teacher. First he analyzed the typical weaknesses of Japanese in reading comprehension and identified several common causes. He then collected suitable texts from a number of published materials on ICT, provided annotations and model translations, and integrated them, along with various study tips, into a book. Although originally meant for self-study, the book generated some interest in the tertiary educational community, which has led the author to create a number of college and company courses in ICT reading comprehension based on the book, while at the same time incorporating some additional materials of current interest.

筆者は、コンピュータ・エンジニアおよび大学英語教師という二重の経歴を活かし、ICT 分野の真正素材(生素材)の読解に関する自習本を出版した。最初に、英文読解における日本人の典型的な弱点を分析し、幾つかの共通的原因を突き止めた。次に、出版されている ICT 関連のさまざまな素材から、適切な文章(記事)を選び、注釈を付し、模範翻訳例を作成し、それらを、学習上のポイントとともに1冊の本にまとめた。本来は自習用として書かれたこの本が、高等教育分野で一定の関心を得たので筆者は、それを基にした ICT 読解講座を、大学および企業向けに幾つか開発するに至った。講座としては、受講生の興味を維持すべく、最新の話題となっている記事を適宜追加している。

While English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is drawing growing attention worldwide these days, it is still faced with a number of challenges before it establishes a solid foothold in college and professional education in Japan, including the lack of suitable teaching materials and the scarcity of teachers and materials writers competent enough both in field knowledge and in language teaching.

The suitability of teaching materials can be assessed by a variety of criteria such as how challenging

the language is for the targeted level, to what extent they contain non-standard English, and how neutral (unbiased) they are in terms of social and political orientation, all of which apply in common to many types of English, most notably English for General Purposes (EGP). In the case of ESP, which by definition deals with a specific domain and therefore attaches greater weight to information content than EGP does, some additional criteria need to be introduced such as how relevant and interesting the materials are, how practical and useful the knowledge gained will be, and how well they represent the types of text the intended audience will encounter later in their professional life. As it stands now, the author has been under the impression, shared by many engineers, that there are only a limited number of ESP textbooks

Hirai, M., (2016). Creating teaching materials (writing a book) for ICT reading classes. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 65-70). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

and self-study books on the Japanese market that satisfactorily meet these additional criteria. Two solutions can be considered: first, to seek materials for teaching ESP outside the traditional community of English textbook writers and publishers, in other words, to utilize authentic sources, and second, to have an individual or a team of individuals with complementary backgrounds of field experience and language teaching create such teaching/study materials. In this paper, the author focuses on the former approach, which seems more practical because, for the latter, it would not be immediately feasible to find such an individual or form such a team.

While there are various definitions of authentic materials, the one offered by Nunan (1989) “any material which has not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching” (as cited in Macdonald, Badger & White, 2000, pp.253-267) and that of Bacon and Finnemann (1990) “texts produced by native speakers for a non-pedagogical purpose” (pp.459-473) seem to neatly summarize their essential properties. The use of authentic materials in language education has also been frequently discussed in recent years. As summarized by Berardo (2006), the advantages of using authentic materials include the following:

- authentic materials expose the students to real life English,
- they inform the students of what is happening in the field,
- they contain a wide variety of text types and language styles not found in conventional teaching materials, and
- they encourage the students to read for pleasure as they are likely to contain topics of interest.

On the other hand, the disadvantages include the following:

- they are often too culturally biased or difficult to understand outside the language community,
- they can become outdated easily,
- they may contain vocabulary not relevant to the students’ immediate needs, and
- they may mix too many sentence structures, causing lower-level students to have a hard time decoding the texts.

Acutely aware of the advantages of authentic materials in ESP and realizing the need for learning/teaching materials that enhance reading skills in information and communications technology (ICT), the author has written a book for that purpose, utilizing a variety of real-life sources and drawing on his dual experience as a computer engineer and college English teacher. This report presents the writing process, focusing on how he first analyzed the market needs, how he next shaped the organization and content, and how he finally handled the legal issues associated with the use of authentic materials.

Affinity between the Writing Process and an Engineering Project

As previously discussed by the author (Hirai 2008), the process of book-writing can be likened to that of product development, its main phases being market analysis, design, and production. Market analysis primarily comprises two steps: realizing what the market wants; and knowing the competition, in other words, analyzing what is already on the market. Using the results of the market analysis, the design phase forms the shape of the product in terms of specifications and requires decisions on individual features and functions. During the production phase, the specifications are fleshed out in the form of a product, either tangible or intangible, which corresponds to the actual text and diagrams in the case of book writing.

Phase One – Market Analysis

In writing a book, as in developing a product, it is critically important to first analyze the market. Although the author did not conduct any formal market survey per se regarding reading skills, he had noticed, during more than 10 years as a teacher at the tertiary level, a pressing need to improve Japanese students’ and engineers’ reading comprehension and had been compiling a list of their typical problems, in the hope of putting this knowledge to practical use one day. Table 1 presents a short excerpt of his collected data.

Thus, when approached by a Japanese publisher in

TABLE 1

Analysis of Typical Problems in Reading

Grammar Point / Sentence Structure		Description/Note	Example	Page
-ing (Pr. Participle)	Subject of -ing	The subject of the -ing is placed just before the “-ing” as necessary.	HSM is essentially the automatic movement of data between media, the media type used depending on when it was last accessed.	138
-ing (Gerund)	Is “-ing” a modifier or the object of a preposition?	In “prevent/stop sby from ...-ing,” “from” is often omitted.	They stopped those kids using iPads.	-
it ... that	Omission of “that” in “it ... that” structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What does “it” in the example sentence refer to? “that” in an “it ... that” structure is often omitted. This “that” should not be confused with “that” as a relative pronoun. 	Whether it’s demos, full freeware or shareware products you are looking for, ... = Whether it’s demos, full freeware or shareware products that you are looking for, ...	102
Subjunctive Mood	Hidden condition in subjunctive mood	In subjunctive mood, the condition is often hidden (not expressly appearing as an “if” clause).	Connectivity enables computers and software that might otherwise be incompatible to communicate and to share resources.	9

Note. Example sentences were adapted from *Oxford English for Information Technology* by E. H. Glendining and J. McEwan. Copyrighted 2002 by Oxford University Press.

2009, the author had already formed a general idea of what to write. In terms of how to write, he examined 14 self-study books on reading comprehension then on the market, all written in Japanese since their intended readers were Japanese, as part of a competitive analysis. These particular titles were chosen because they appeared to analyze problems in reading comprehension and offer useful tips. Twelve of these targeted scientists, engineers and/or science/engineering students, while the other two were intended for general readers. The former twelve items focused, to varying degrees, on authentic texts but were found to be rather skewed in genre or text type. On the other hand, those written for general readers turned out to be analyses of syntactical and grammatical points. Thus, somewhat ironically, the author found the latter to have a broader appeal, even for scientists and engineers, and decided to write his book using the latter approach.

Phase Two – Design

The analysis of the market, particularly the competition, led naturally to the design phase, in which a concrete idea on the book’s overall organization and content took shape. First of all, as for the domain, the publisher and the author decided to focus on ICT, which is one of the largest and most important fields of science and technology in terms of population and media attention. An initial survey of books on the market revealed that only few of them actually incorporated the kinds of text such as magazine articles that were current and of direct interest to the intended audience, which the author identified as a potential area of differentiation.

As in product development, the key to success is value to the market, which the author translates into three objectives: enlightening content, practicality, and attractiveness. First and foremost, the content

should be enlightening; in other words, it should make the readers acutely aware of why they stumble to grasp the meaning of a given text. Through many years of in-class observation as well as from his own experience, the author has noticed that most Japanese learners of English try to decipher each given sentence as an object external to them, by first checking the vocabulary and then identifying the grammatical structure. Therefore it is very effective to diagnose their problems primarily from the points of grammar and sentence structure and explain the results in these terms.

Furthermore, in analyzing typical Japanese problems, the author also identified a variety of other contributing factors, as summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Abridged List of Causes of Reading Problems

- A. Knowledge/Skill in English
 - (A-1) Lack of vocabulary
 - (A-5) Poor grasp of sentence structure
- B. Knowledge of Background
 - (B-1) Lack of technical knowledge
- C. Environmental Conditions
 - (C-1) Inability to concentrate
 - (C-3) Shortage of time
- D. Personal Disposition/Inclination
 - (D-1) Laziness in consulting dictionaries
 - (D-4) Narrow vision (scope of parsing)
 - (D-5) Laziness in exploring various sources
 - (D-7) Poor reasoning
 - (D-8) Lack of imagination
 - (D-9) Lack of flexibility
- E. Complexity of Idea/Concept
 - (E-1) The idea/concept discussed is very complex (independent of language)

Of these common causes, worth particular attention are those resulting from personal disposition or inclination, as they tend to be overlooked despite their importance. For example, many Japanese learners, especially those at a low level, take in only a few words at a time, instead of several lines (D-4 in Table 2). Also, they do not anticipate that there are

various kinds of deviations from school English in real life (D-9 in Table 2). Therefore the author began the book with a discussion of these common causes in order to prepare the minds of the readers.

Another way of enlightening the intended readers is through exposure to real-life English. Most off-the-shelf English textbooks tend to deliberately ignore and omit non-standard English such as informal expressions, jargon, and slang, let alone downright mistakes that may appear from time to time even in prestigious journals and magazines. In real life, however, this non-standard usage frequently occurs, and native speakers inherently know how to cope with them. In this regard, the use of authentic materials is invaluable as it familiarizes readers with the way English is used in actual professional life.

Still another approach to bringing enlightenment is exposure to what is happening in the subject field, especially in the context of ESP. Indeed, one of the most important attractions of using authentic materials is the fact that they appeal to the students' interest and enhance their motivation. In this respect, information content is especially important in ensuring that they learn not only the language but also something useful for their current or future profession. It should be relevant, up-to-date, and meaningful. The author chose a variety of current topics that are of common interest to those engaged in ICT, paying attention to how closely the articles relate to what they do on the job. Here, the author's experience as an engineer was very beneficial.

The second aspect of value is practicality. First, to assist readers in quickly finding the definitions of technical terms that they are unsure of, the author compiled a handy glossary. Second, to help them navigate the Internet on their own, he also provided lists of useful Web links to authentic sources and slang sites. Finally, for those who often communicate with non-Japanese, he included a list of snappy expressions.

The third aspect of value is attractiveness, in other words, the book should be enjoyable to read. Indeed, one of the secrets to continuing to learn anything is to find joy in it. Thus, the author reproduced, with permission, several ICT-related jokes taken from a joke site and also inserted a few episodes of his own in

an attempt to entertain the envisaged readers.

Phase Three – Production

Following the opening section discussing common causes of problems, the main body of the book comprises two parts. Part 1 consists of nine chapters, each of which presents several example sentences that are challenging to Japanese learners of English and explains where the problem lies in the respective category of grammar/structure. For Part 1, the author drew on his compilation of students' problems and the diagnostic analyses elaborated above.

Part 2 presents authentic texts as exercises, followed by annotations and model translations. They are taken from a range of magazines, journals, websites, reports, books, and manuals, and are from 500 to 3,000 words in length. In order to write Part 2, both field knowledge and translation skills were essential.

For Part 2, the initial step was the selection of materials, and the choice was overwhelmingly vast, reflecting the extremely active nature of ICT. In selecting the right materials, one needs to consider many factors, such as whether the content is interesting enough, how technical it is, how challenging the language is, and how easy it might be to obtain permission or license for reproduction. Thus, making the right judgement here requires both a familiarity with the state of the art in the field and a sensitivity to the needs of the intended readers.

One of the most important issues peculiar to authentic materials is how to handle third parties' rights properly so as to avoid any legal disputes. In using authentic materials for publication or educational purposes, at least three rights need to be addressed: reproduction, translation, and use in courses, which are just three instances of the generic term "copyright." In principle, each of these rights needs to be considered and negotiated separately. For materials that contain not only text but also pictures, videos, music, graphics, and illustrations, usually as many rights holders exist as the number of different contributors and in many cases one needs to negotiate with them individually. While government-recognized educational institutions are given certain legal privileges, it is generally safer, even in such settings, to obtain permission or license

(these two terms seem to be used synonymously in this context) from the respective rights holders.

In obtaining permission for use in publication, one needs to consider several factors such as whether the rights holder is in education, manufacturing, or other business, and how the permission might affect its financial results. Manufacturers and vendors are usually generous because reproduction may serve as an advertisement, whereas publishers of educational materials tend to be unfriendly because it may eat into their business. Other factors include the amount and form of reproduction. Still another factor that should be kept in mind is whether the rights are exclusive. For a book which compiles a number of small excerpts from different materials, one would not seek exclusive permission. Problems typically arise when another individual has already published a translation of the material in question. It may happen that the person who has given permission for translation has forgotten that the same publisher had already given permission to another individual. To avoid embarrassment at least, it would be advisable to discuss how to handle the situation with this individual in advance.

Obtaining permission or license is basically a business negotiation, and as such, the author paid due attention to legal matters, for example, clearly stating his intention to use the material both for a book and for courses at for-profit educational institutions. Playing fair is the safest practice. Also, he has been making sure that all the relevant correspondence, mostly emails, and their attachments are backed up electronically, with the critical ones kept also in paper in case of accidental PC crashes.

Conclusion

This book-writing project was not a straightforward process. The author ended up writing essentially two books with the same theme. The first edition was called *速く正確に読む IT エンジニアの英語* (*Hayaku Seikakuni Yomu IT Engineer no Eigo*), or *English Skills for Engineers – Improving Speed and Accuracy in Reading* (Hirai 2011) and was published by The Japan Times in February 2011. The book was selling fairly well for about three years until April 2014, when suddenly the stocks were depleted. In the

anemic business situation at that time, the publisher decided not to print any more copies. As the author had started a course designating it as the textbook a few years previously, he made arrangements with another publisher to publish an enhanced edition, which came out in April 2015 under the title エンジニアのための英文超克服テキスト (*Engineer no tame no eibun chou kokufuku text – The Way IT Really Happens*) (Hirai 2015) through Ohmsha, Ltd. In this edition, all the 14 authentic texts in the first edition were replaced with 10 more recent articles on eye-catching topics, such as bitcoin, the Internet of Things (IoT), and Big Data.

A final note: Based on this book, the author subsequently developed a college course and a number of industry courses designed to help improve reading skills in ICT and has been teaching them together with a colleague. To keep the course content up to date, the author has been introducing new authentic materials on an ongoing basis.

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Temptation vs Conscience: A Remedial Action for Narrative Researchers

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In modern society narratives have become instrumental in depicting the psychological traits of individuals, such as identities, beliefs and values. While narrative research is a useful research tradition, the use of narratives lacking in academic rigour can jeopardise claims derived from them. This paper will focus on the necessity of going beyond mere “cherry picking” of participants’ narratives in order to be rigorous and systematic. The writer will expose his own shortcomings of a lack of methodological awareness by showing how he was tempted to follow a pattern of only representing interesting monologues as narratives. He then takes remedial action reflectively and suggests that all researchers should rely on their conscience and develop methodological awareness in order to guarantee academic integrity when conducting narrative research.

ナラティブは現代社会における個人のアイデンティティ、信条、価値観などの心理的な特徴を描写する上で有用なものとなった。ナラティブ・リサーチは有益な研究手法ではあるものの、研究方法としての厳密さを欠いたナラティブの運用は研究成果の正当性を損ないかねない。本研究は研究参加者のナラティブを提示するにあたり、単なる「いいとこ取り」を超えて厳密性と系統性を備える必要性について提唱する。また、筆者がまず興味深いモノローグをナラティブとして提示するというパターンにならった失敗事例を紹介し、自身の研究方法論に関する見識不足を披露する。そして筆者がその後省察的に取った改善措置の事例を示し、ナラティブ・リサーチを用いる研究者が研究に関する誠実さを保証するために自らの良識に従い、また研究方法論に関する見識を深める必要性について提唱する。

While narratives have become pivotal in depicting psychological traits of individuals in modern society, such as identities, beliefs and values, unsystematic use of narratives lacking in academic rigour can jeopardise any claim or theory derived from such misuse. To begin with, the present study will be written with a personal and a self-reflexive style in which the first-person *I* is the author reporting and reflecting on the

use of narrative research.

I conducted a qualitative research in the UK to explore the identity of adult Japanese people in the UK, and to illustrate their integration and acculturation (Iguchi, 2011). I adopted narrative research, an important research tradition in social science to explore their lived experience from the past to present. In order to test the validity of a narrative research, there are two questions worth posing:

Iguchi, M. (2016). Temptation vs conscience: A remedial action for narrative researchers. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 71-77). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

1. Whose stories are the narratives? Do they accurately reflect the research participants’ voices, or are they created by the researchers?
2. Are narratives made by impartial data that typify the research participants’ views or ones that

conveniently suit the researchers' views?

So what is the essence of a narrative research? *Narrative* does not point to a mere story, but indicates "a system by which people organize their experience in, knowledge about, and transactions with the social world" (Bruner, 1990, p. 35). *Narrative research* is a research tradition which is:

[A]ny study that uses or analyzes narrative materials. The data can be collected as a story (a life story provided in an interview or a literary work) or in a different manner (field notes of an anthropologist who writes up his or her observations as a narrative or in personal letters). It can be the object of the research or a means for the study of another question. It may be used for comparison among groups, to learn about a social phenomenon or historical period, or to explore a personality. (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998, p. 2)

This detailed definition encompasses the broader definition of narrative materials, whereas some researchers (e.g. Croker, 2009; Murray, 2009) virtually equate narrative materials with interview data. I support this broader interpretation of narrative research because I believe that findings derived from multiple data collection instruments such as participant observations, recordings, e-mails and SNS diaries are wider and richer.

According to Bell (2002), narrative research "involves working with people's consciously told stories, recognizing that these rest on deeper stories of which people are often unaware" (p. 209). In this way, narrative research is not just a series of descriptions and stories, but it requires researchers to make a critical evaluation of what lies behind them. Thus it is essential to uncover and (co-)construct latent meanings and reasons underlying participants' life experience. In other words, if research only presents the stories and anecdotes of the participants, it would lack academic rigour. Hence, it is through a systematic analysis of their stories that a narrative research meets the academic demands.

Data Categorisation: A Posteriori or A Priori?

Silverman (2006) warns about *anecdotalism*, that is, having preconceived claims and showing convenient supporting data without providing adequate analytic or methodological frameworks to establish their scientific credibility. In order to avoid such "cherry picking", impartial data categorisation to persuade readers is crucial. This discussion leads to the question of having a posteriori or a priori categories for data analysis, and it is more sensible to rule out the latter and adopt the former.

Embracing grounded theory, which is a representative research tradition adopting only a posteriori categories, seemed an appropriate approach. According to Glaser and Strauss (1967):

An effective strategy is, at first, literally to ignore the literature of theory and fact on the area under study, in order to assure that the emergence of categories will not be contaminated by concepts more suited to different areas. (p. 37)

Data analysis should certainly focus on and identify regular patterns of action and talk which mark a group of people (Eisenhart, 2001), and we should be open to unexpected phenomena.

Although I agree that patterns and themes can emerge out of researchers' expectations, I do not believe that this is the only case because I do not believe that I can literally ignore the literature of theory, and eliminate my knowledge by transcending time and space to reach a vacuum state. As Pavlenko (2007) points out, grounded theory "obscures the sociohistoric and cultural influences on the researcher's conceptual lens" (p. 167). Such striving for an aseptic condition may be applicable in cultural or social anthropological research in which researchers are completely unfamiliar with the norms of research settings, but it cannot be directly applied to my own research which was done in a familiar research setting by exploring the identity of Japanese people in the UK, in which I can at best adopt a *deliberate naïveté* (Kvale 1996, pp. 31, 33), that is voluntarily choosing to be open and naïve to various phenomena.

To the contrary, Miles and Huberman (1994) maintain the usefulness of codes derived from researchers' conceptual frameworks, research questions, hypotheses, problem areas and key variables prior to entering the field. Wellington (2000) contends that returning to research questions is a valuable tactic in categorising data. Hence, I believe it is legitimate to utilise research questions to narrow down themes at the initial stage and to apply them to data analysis.

Therefore, I take an eclectic view and my data categorisation was comprised of a mixture of a posteriori and a priori categories, which is the most common and rational approach to analysing qualitative data (Wellington, 2000). Some patterns and themes emerge whilst others need the help of the research questions and at times, literature review. However, I emphasise that I primarily support an inductive rather than deductive approach. Thus, my views on categorising data and finding patterns is illustrated in Figure 1.

Coding

From the macro-view of categorisation, I turn now to the micro-view of coding. There are three essential elements: codes, categories and themes (Holliday, 2010; Murray, 2009). After summarising the textual data, coding converts them to key words or phrases such as *anxiety* and *aspiration*. In my study similar codes were grouped together into higher categories, as

shown in Figure 2.

Similar categories were grouped and integrated into higher themes. I have been influenced by the constant comparative method which was shaped through grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), and I have adopted the technique of continuously comparing data and placing them in suitable categories. Thus, two features of this method worthy of highlighting are coding an incident for a category and comparing it with others in the same category, and looking for theoretical saturation in which creating further categories becomes redundant. Relationships and patterns among the categories were sought, which led to the generation of themes as shown in Figure 3.

Data Representation as the Site of Struggle: Temptation vs Conscience

Data representation is the stage that needs to be treated with utmost care in that the way narratives are shown to readers will expose the researchers' expertise in research methodology. As has been discussed, narratives could be formed through various qualitative data. Nevertheless, interviews are the most frequently used instruments, and therefore I will discuss the pitfalls of misrepresenting interview data as monologues without sufficient methodological awareness and justification.

To further continue explaining my data analysis steps, I gathered the themes and organised them

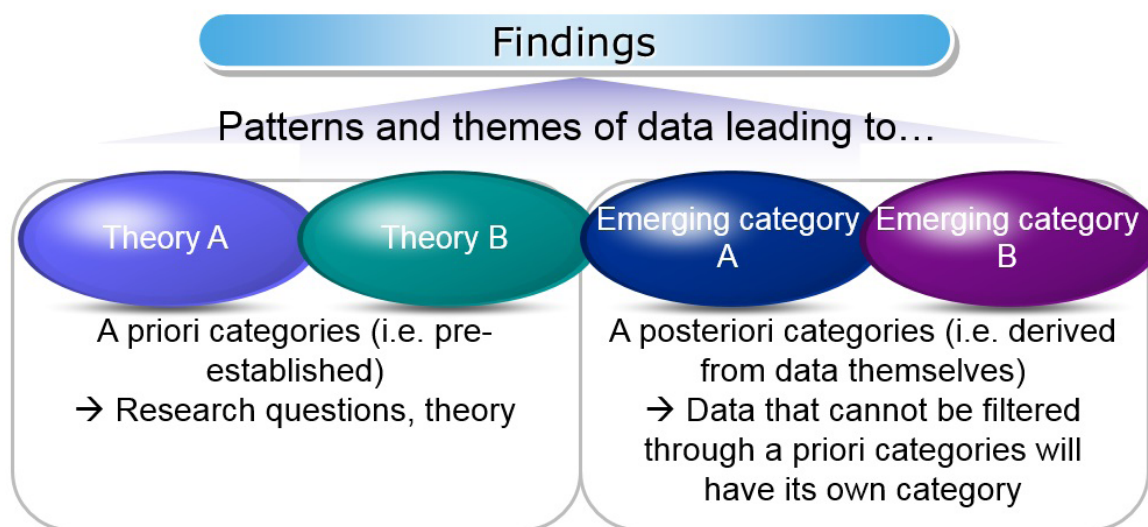


Figure 1. Categorising data and finding patterns.

❖ Textual data were summarised, coded, and categorised.

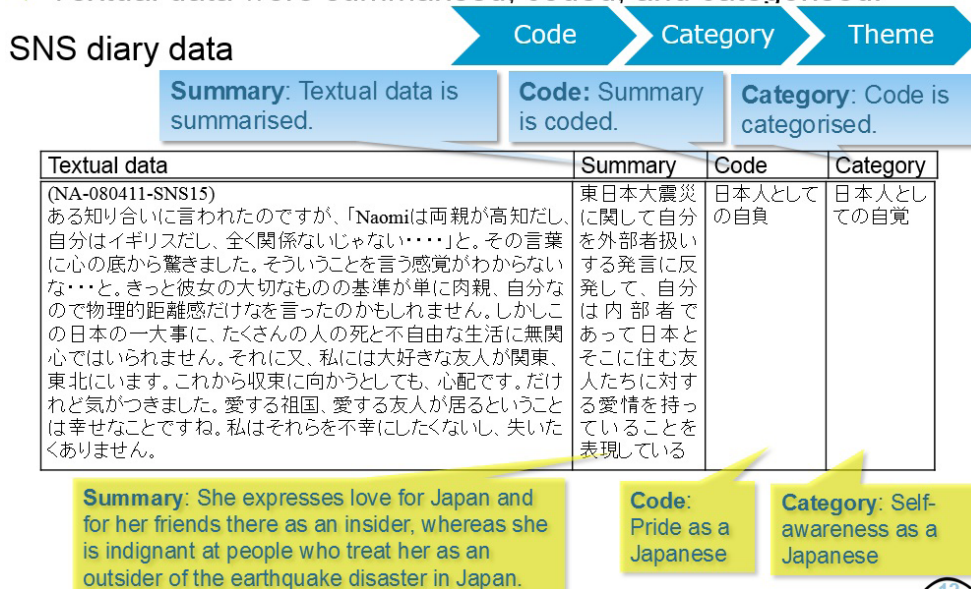


Figure 2. Codes and categories.

❖ Similar categories were thematised. **Constant comparative method** (Glaser and Strauss 1967:101-115) was used.

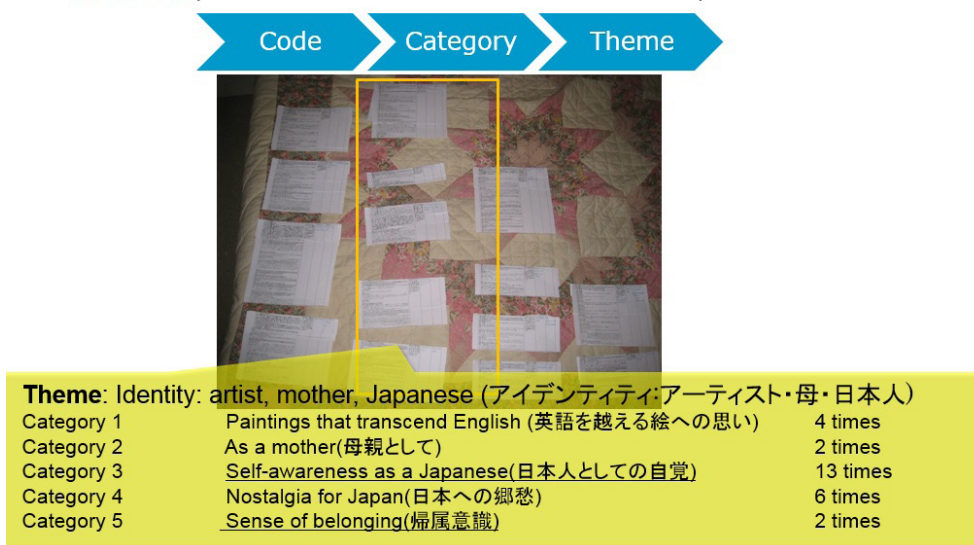


Figure 3. Themes.

in temporal order, and subsequently I was able to configure the participants' narratives and represent their voices. Respondent validation was done to ensure that the participants could check their narratives before dissemination.

Narratives tend to project vivid and rich stories of people's lives that could have a strong and a long-lasting impact on others. I have often been impressed by interview accounts of people in oral presentations and articles, and I had gradually developed the desire to

be able to present impactful data to others. However, this is where I unexpectedly faced challenges, which was triggered by a criticism raised from my research participants. I initially presented my participants' voices in a monologue style which is a common data representation style found in qualitative research, a style that has often impacted and attracted me. Having taken this approach, I unexpectedly received criticism from one of my participants who felt uncertain about the content and style of the data represented, as shown

in Extract 1, which presents one of my participants' thoughts about the significance of the English language.

Narrative in Extract 1 is presented as a summarised monologue, which follows the conventional style. However, some of the issues that received criticism were the omission of hedging, understatement and correction, the fact that participants' remarks sounded too direct for Japanese people, and the overall impression of dramatisation. I initially struggled to accept these points because I simply thought I was doing what all other researchers do, but I had to swallow my pride and acknowledge that these points were valid. I therefore decided not to present the interview data in monologue style and not to decontextualise the data.

In a revised approach, I did not present participants' voices as monologues, but tried to present as much of the turn-taking during interviews as possible to indicate how the data were actually co-constructed, as is shown in Extract 2.

Extract 2 shows a co-constructed narrative, which is a more truthful version of an interview account. What deserves strong criticism is how I misused the word *tool* in Extract 1, Lines 02 and 04. In Extract 1, it seems as if Naomi mentioned that *English is a tool* (Line 04), whereas Japanese is her identity (Line 01). The term *tool* was convenient for me to depict the image that English was not as significant as Japanese was for her, and ultimately to convince the readers

with a clear-cut and a contrasting example. However, it is self-evident in Extract 2 that I was the one who checked her statement and asked, *is it rather a tool, so to speak?* (Lines 06-07), whereas Naomi did not use the word *tool* at all. This is where I was clearly culpable for exaggeration and dramatisation.

People using narrative research might be tempted to make research more interesting and impactful. For this reason, data representation could possibly become the actual stage in which researchers using narratives might seek the limelight. I would like to extend this lesson learned to all researchers who have presented narratives as monologues without providing the actual interview transcripts lest they be held culpable for similar misconducts. What is at stake here is academic integrity.

Hence, in order to resist temptation with clear conscience, I suggest that researchers should present narratives as co-constructed data, and not as mere answers, as has been pointed out by Cortazzi (2001). Furthermore, interview data are "*voices* adopted by research participants in response to the researcher's prompts and questions" (Duff & Block, 2000, p. 759, original italics). Rapley (2001) rightly contends that, "an attempt should be made to include some degree of the interactional detail and *at the very least* interviewers' talk should *always* be included" (p. 306, original italics). This issue has not been addressed sufficiently as Mann (2016) points out that transcripts of interview interaction is still not provided in most

EXTRACT 1 (NAOMI, HOMEMAKER; 10 YEARS IN THE UK; MARRIED TO A BRITISH HUSBAND)

01 Having been a writer in Japan, Japanese is my identity and my competency
02 whereas English is a tool for communication which I need for living. My
03 ideal in using English is to be able to communicate to other people. I think
04 English is a tool which belongs to anyone in the world

EXTRACT 2 (NAOMI, HOMEMAKER; 10 YEARS IN THE UK; MARRIED TO A BRITISH HUSBAND)

01 Naomi: So English is about communication or, hmm... Well, Japanese is
02 somewhat my identity and also... my competence.
03 Mikio: Uh-huh.
04 Naomi: That's what I'm thinking. So I don't have much competence in
05 English. It's necessary for communication, necessary for living.
06 Mikio: Oh, right. Umm, umm... English... So, is it rather a tool, so to
07 speak?
08 Naomi: That's right.

research that were shaped by interviews.

Conclusion

So far, I have discussed the importance of keeping narrative research systematic and rigorous to assure its academic quality, especially by sharing the co-constructed narratives. Now, I will conclude by discussing the strengths and limitations of this remedial action for narrative research.

First and foremost, the strength of the remedial action is in how it can assure academic integrity. While it may be tempting to present an interesting case and impress the audience or readers, researchers engaged in qualitative research such as narrative research should primarily guarantee its validity and trustworthiness. The steps I have provided thus far are in line with the three principles proposed by Holliday (2010), firstly to make the research method transparent, secondly to submit to data instead of allowing preconceived ideas to take the lead, and thirdly to make appropriate claims which are not aimed at proving something, but to generate ideas to make people realise what is going on in the society.

As for the limitations of the remedial action I have proposed, the first thing to point out is that it is time-consuming. It requires tremendous time and energy to plan and administer data collection, transcribe interview data, write fieldnotes, code, categorise, thematise and represent data. For instance, (Dörnyei, 2007) points out that it should take about 5 – 7 hours to transcribe an hour long interview. Thus, researchers are often challenged with the temptation to skip these steps, and cherry-pick handy data that could conveniently support their claims and make interesting presentations.

The second point that is worth noting is the excessive word count that narrative research requires. When I wrote articles and gave oral presentations, I often found that narratives were long and wordy, even when I blindly followed the conventional monologue data representation approach. This issue became even worse after I reformed my approach and adopted the remedial action, for the word count became enormous after providing an accurate account which included detailed turn-taking during interviews. It will surely

be difficult for presenters to finish oral presentations within their given time, typically 20-25 minutes in an international conference, and for researchers to make decent claims within limited space in journals which could range between a few thousand to 10,000 words.

Possible countermeasures against the issue of excessive word count hinge on the researchers' ability to be able to typify, that is, to carefully and persuasively present the best data that support their idea. A reasonable method might be to present the most relevant data during presentations or on the main article on journals without failing to provide detailed data of transcripts as handouts or appendices. Such practice might seem unfamiliar, but is in fact, gradually spreading. For example, Mann (2016) recognises the difficulty of squeezing transcripts in limited word count, but gives two examples of improvements. Firstly, journal publishers have started providing the option for authors to provide online supplementary resources, in which such transcripts could be included. Secondly, he points out that it has become an accepted practice for graduate schools to allow their doctoral students to submit theses or dissertations with data storage devices which would allow ample room for transcripts.

In this way, it goes without saying that narrative researchers need to recognise the significance of being loyal to data in transcripts, but a wider understanding and support from the academia such as publishers, doctoral supervisors, examiners and editors are necessary to change the status quo. Though such practice is a minority in the academia, it is worth passing it to the future generation to advance academic integrity.

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Minimal English Test Versus the TOEIC

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This study compares the results of the Minimal English Test (MET), a gap-filling dictation test designed to evaluate the language proficiency of English learners in five minutes, with the results of three different types of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) in order to determine the degree to which the scores correlate. Participants in this study were 90 university students. They completed the MET and the TOEIC listening, reading and speaking tests, and their scores were then examined for correlations. The speaking score was correlated more strongly with the MET score than with the listening score, the reading score, and the combined listening and reading score.

本研究では、英語学習者の言語能力を5分で測定するように作られた穴埋め式ディクテーションテストであるMinimal English Test (MET、最少英語テスト)と3種類のTOEICテストとの結果を比較し、各テスト間の相関関係を検証する。本研究の参加者は90名の大学生である。彼らはMETとTOEICのリスニングテスト、リーディングテスト、スピーキングテストを受験し、彼らの得点に対して相関関係の検証が行われた。スピーキングの得点は、リスニングの得点、リーディングの得点、およびリスニングとリーディングの合計点との間よりもMETの得点との間に強い相関があった。

Some Japanese universities administer the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) or the paper-based version of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) in order to measure students' English proficiency (Institute for International Business Communication, 2015; Council on International Educational Exchange, 2013). Although the results of these standardized tests can be useful for school administrators and English teachers, administering them requires time and money; it takes a student two hours to complete each test, both of which cost more than 3,000 yen per person. Because of this there have been calls for a less expensive and more efficient alternative to these

standardized English proficiency tests. In an effort to address this need, Maki, Wasada and Hashimoto (2003) developed the Minimal English Test (MET).

The MET is a dictation test consisting of two passages with 72 blanks that the test-taker needs to fill in; the test-taker listens to pre-recorded monologues and writes down a word in each blank. Because of the gap-filling text completion format used by the MET it could be viewed as a type of a cloze test. Cloze tests were first introduced by Taylor (1953) as a measure of the reading ability of native English speakers. Cloze tests attracted a lot of attention in EFL literature from the 1960s to the 1980s as a means of measuring EFL learners' reading abilities or overall English proficiency (see Brown, 2013, for issues regarding cloze testing).

However, while similar in some respects, the MET has two distinct features that are different from most cloze tests; auditory cues are given to the test-taker and the number of words between one blank

Kanzaki M. (2016). Minimal English test versus the TOEIC. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 78-85). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

to the next varies. This is because the MET has its roots not in the cloze test but in a Japanese language test for non-native speakers of Japanese called the Simple Performance-Oriented Test (SPOT), which was developed by Kobayashi, Ford and Yamashita (1995). The SPOT consists of 60 unrelated sentences, each of which has one purposefully-chosen *hiragana* character blanked out; the test-taker listens to a pre-recorded audio of the sentences and fills in the blanks. It takes only a few minutes to complete the SPOT. Kobayashi et al. (1995) reported a correlation coefficient of .82 between the scores of the SPOT and Tsukuba University's placement test, which consists of vocabulary, grammar, listening and reading sections and requires 150 minutes to complete. The MET was modeled after the SPOT, and Goto, Maki and Kasai (2010) called the MET "an English version of the SPOT" (p. 95).

Some correlation studies have been carried out to investigate the relationships between MET scores and scores of other English tests, such as the English test in the university entrance examination in Japan (r s between .60 and .72, reported in Goto et al., 2010), the TOEIC ($r = .74$, reported in Maki, Hasebe & Umezawa, 2010), the STPE Eiken 2nd Grade ($r = .59$, reported in Maki & Hasebe, 2013), and the Vocabulary Levels Test ($r = .81$, reported in Kasai, Maki & Niinuma, 2005). For a comprehensive list of papers on the MET, see Maki (2015). However, there has been no correlation study comparing the results of the MET and a speaking test. This study was therefore designed to compare the results of the MET and the TOEIC speaking test for correlations. This would then be compared to the correlation between the results of MET and the TOEIC listening and reading tests.

Method

The MET and the listening, reading and speaking tests of the TOEIC (hereafter TC, TR and TS) were administered to 90 participants, and the scores of the four tests were then analyzed for correlations.

Participants

The study participants were 90 students who

were attending a private university specializing in foreign languages in the Kanto area. They agreed to participate in the study in exchange for a cash reward of 1,000 yen, although they had to pay the 3,500 yen to take the TOEIC listening and reading tests on July 29, 2014. Initially, 94 students were to take part, but four of them were excluded because their MET scores were below 30 out of 72, which indicated that they had not taken the test seriously. The purposes of the study as well as the procedures and requirements were explained to the participants before they signed a consent form.

Among the 90 participants, seven were in their first academic year, 47 were in their second, 16 were in their third, and 20 were in their fourth; 15 of the participants were male and 75 were female. In terms of fields of study, there were 51 international communication majors, 26 English language majors, 11 international business majors, one Chinese language major and one Portuguese language major. All the participants were native Japanese speakers except for two native Korean speakers and one native Chinese speaker. One of them was enrolled in the TOEIC-860 course, seven in the TOEIC-730 courses, 42 in the TOEIC-650 courses and six in the TOEIC-600 courses (860, 730, 650 and 600 indicate the target scores of the courses). The remaining 34 were not taking any TOEIC course.

Materials

The MET and the three types of the TOEIC (TL, TR and TS) were used in this study. The TL and TR are always administered together and are therefore usually treated as two sections of one test. The TS, on the other hand, can be taken independently when it is administered as part of the Institutional Program (IP). With the TOEIC IP the institution that is administering the test sets the time, date and place of the exam. The three TOEIC tests used in the study were administered as IP tests. These tests were not computerized adaptive tests and all of the participants in this study would have received the same questions in the three tests.

Minimal English Test (MET). The MET consists of two passages; one with 200 words and the other

with 198 words. Both of these passages are taken from an English textbook for university students written by Kawana and Walker (2002). The accompanying audio for this book is also used during the MET. The two passages are spread out over 36 lines of between six and 17 words and the average number of words per line is 11. Each line has two blanks, and only words that have four letters or fewer are blanked out. Because of this restriction, the deletion frequency of the MET is not regular; the number of words between two blanks is between 0 and 10, with an average word number of 4.24 between blanks, excluding the interval between the last blank of the first passage and the first blank of the second passage. For the actual test sheet along with the answer key, see the Appendix. The test-taker listens to the audio, which is set at a speed of 125 words per minute, and fills in the 72 blanks. There is a short pause of 10 seconds between the two passages (between lines 18 and 19). Because auditory cues are given, only the intended word is accepted as the correct answer, and semantically acceptable alternatives are counted as wrong as were spelling mistakes. However, in this study the author made one exception for the misspelling of “paid” in line 9, and

answers such as “payed” and “paied” were accepted on the ground that those who misspelled this were able to hear the word correctly and knew that it was the past form of “pay”.

TOEIC Listening Test (TL). The TL consists of 100 multiple-choice questions, and raw scores of between 0 and 100 are converted to scaled scores of between 5 and 495. The TL has four parts, the details of which are shown in Table 1.

TOEIC Reading Test (TR). The TR consists of 100 multiple-choice questions, and raw scores of between 0 and 100 are converted to scaled scores of between 5 and 495. The TR has three parts, the details of which are shown in Table 2.

Note. The TR starts with Part 5 because it immediately follows the TL, which ends with Part 4, and the two tests are always taken as a set.

TOEIC Speaking Test (TS). The TS is a computer-based test requiring the test-taker to sit in front of a computer wearing a headset with a microphone. Instructions are provided on the computer screen and through the headset. The test-taker speaks into the microphone and their speeches are recorded and sent to certified raters for evaluation.

TABLE 1
Four Parts of the TL

Part	Task	# of Qs
1	For each question with a photo, listen to four sentences and choose the one that best describes the image.	10
2	Listen to a question or statement followed by three responses and choose the most appropriate response.	30
3	Listen to a conversation and answer comprehension questions.	30
4	Listen to a short talk and answer comprehension questions.	30

TABLE 2
Three Parts of the TR

Part	Task	# of Qs
5	Choose a word or phrase to fill in a blank in a sentence.	40
6	Choose words or phrases to fill in blanks in a passage.	12
7	Read a passage or a set of two passages and answer comprehension questions.	48

There are 11 questions in the TS and scores are given in the range of 0 to 200. Table 3 shows the details of the TS.

Results

All the statistical analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows version 22.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics for the scores of the MET and the three TOEIC tests. The average TL score is 113.44 points higher than the average TR score. The average combined score of the TL and TR is 625.78.

Reliability

The reliability index (Cronbach's alpha) for the MET

is .85, which is quite high for a simple test that can be completed in five minutes. The reliability indices of the TL, TR and TC for a particular test form are not available because the Educational Testing Service, which administers the TOEIC tests, does not disclose them. However, the Educational Testing Service (2013) reported that the reliability index (KR-20) of the TL and TR scores across all forms of their norming samples is "approximately .90" (p. 16). Also, the Educational Testing Service (2010) reported that the reliability of the TS is .80 "based on the data from January 2008 to December 2009 administrations in the Public Testing Program" (p. 18).

Correlations

Three TOEIC tests. Table 5 shows the correlations between the scores of the three TOEIC tests. Among

TABLE 3
Details of the TS

Question #	Task
1-2	Read aloud the text that appears on the screen.
3	Describe the picture on the screen.
4-6	Answer three questions about a single topic as though you are participating in a telephone interview.
7-9	Read the information on the screen and answer three questions about it as though you are responding to a telephone inquiry.
10	Listen to a recorded message about a problem and propose a solution for it.
11	Express an opinion about a specific topic.

TABLE 4
Descriptive Statistics for MET, TL, TR and TS (N = 90)

Test (possible scores)	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
MET (0-72)	47.49	8.55	31	67
TL (5-495)	369.61	56.67	170	495
TR (5-495)	256.17	71.52	100	430
TLR (10-990)	625.78	116.22	310	925
TS (0-200)	112.36	21.39	60	170

Note. TLR = TL and TR combined.

the three combinations, the highest is between the TL and TR scores ($r = .64$) and the lowest is between the TR and TS scores ($r = .38$). The correlation between the TL and TS comes between them ($r = .45$). This order is in agreement with the correlations reported by Kanzaki (2015), which are .68 between the TL and TR, .50 between the TL and TS, and .48 between the TR and TS.

The correlation between the TS scores and the combined scores of the TL and TR is .45 ($p < .001$).

MET vs. TOEIC. Table 6 show the correlations between the MET and the three TOEIC tests. The MET correlates with the TS at .59 and the figure is higher than those between the MET and the TL ($r = .39$) and the MET and the TR ($r = .51$).

Discussion

One of the most striking aspects of the results is the MET scores correlate with the TS scores more strongly than with the TL scores or with the TR scores. The MET only requires the test-taker to listen and write down what is heard, and so it does not measure speaking skills. It is unclear how the MET, a gap-filling dictation test, can be said to evaluate the speaking abilities of learners. However, there are two features of the MET that might relate to speaking abilities. One is the multitasking nature of the MET. When taking

the MET, one has to listen to the audio, read the text, write down words and anticipate what will come next. Similar multitasking abilities are needed for speaking; when we speak with someone, we have to listen, speak and think about what to say next at the same time.

The other point is the processing speed needed to perform well on the MET. In order to complete the task satisfactorily on the MET, the test-taker has to process information quickly when listening and reading in order to write down what they hear. This type of quickness is also necessary for speaking, especially in the TS, where the test-taker has to come up with something to say within a certain amount of time and then has to say what he or she wants to say within a given timeframe.

Another striking aspect of the results is the correlation between the MET and TL, which is lower than those between the MET and TS and between the MET and TR. This is surprising, considering that the MET consists of auditory cues that the test-taker has to listen to and complete a task based on what they hear. Moreover, ordinary cloze tests, which do not provide auditory cues, "have consistently correlated best with measures of listening comprehension" (Oller, 1973, p. 114). It is puzzling that a test with listening elements correlates poorly with a listening test while the ones that do not have listening elements correlate well

TABLE 5
Correlations Between 3 TOEIC Tests (N = 90)

	TL	TR	TS
TL	1	.64*	.45*
TR		1	.38*
TS			1

* = $p < .001$

TABLE 6
Correlations Between MET and TOEIC (N = 90)

	TL	TR	TLR	TS
MET	.39*	.51*	.50*	.59*

Note. TLR = TL and TR combined.

* = $p < .001$

with a listening test. One possible explanation is that the MET does not function as a tool for measuring the listening comprehension of learners because the audio for the MET is not designed to test listening comprehension. It only gives auditory cues and what it tests is whether or not the test-taker recognizes words while the TOEIC listening test measures the test-taker's ability to listen to and process sentences of varying degrees of difficulty. Thus the test-taker's ability to multitask and move from one question to the next quickly plays a more important role than their listening ability on the MET. If you are not able to listen while writing down a word, you will miss the next word, and if you are slow to answer, it will be hard to catch up with the pace.

Conclusion

The results suggest a possibility that the MET may be able to predict the test-taker's speaking abilities better than the TL and TR, as there was a stronger relationship between the TS and MET than between the TS and the TL and TR with the group of students involved in this study.

One limitation of the study is the composition of the participants; they were all language majors and most of them regularly had English lessons with native English-speaking teachers and they were more used to speaking English than the average English learner in Japan, and therefore the findings cannot be generalized. Another limitation is that a sample size of 90 participants is not large enough to make definitive generalizations about the MET. Finally, it should be remembered that the results presented above were obtained from a particular group of participants taking particular forms of the TL, TR and TS; if different participants take different forms of the tests, the results may not be the same.

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Appendix

MET with answer key

1. The majority of people have at least one pet at (some) time in their (life).
2. Sometimes the relationship between a pet (dog) or cat and its owner is (so) close
3. that (they) begin to resemble (each) other in their appearance and behavior.
4. On the other (hand), owners of unusual pets (such) as tigers or snakes
5. sometimes (have) to protect themselves (from) their own pets.
6. Thirty years (ago) the idea of an inanimate (pet) first arose.
7. This was the pet (rock), which became a craze (in) the United States and
8. spread (to) other countries as (well).
9. People (paid) large sums of money for ordinary rocks and assigned (them) names.
10. They tied a leash around the rock and pulled (it) down the street just (like) a dog.
11. The rock owners (even) talked (to) their pet rocks.
12. Now (that) we have entered the computer age, (we) have virtual pets.
13. The Japanese Tamagotchi—(the) imaginary chicken (egg)—
14. (was) the precursor of (many) virtual pets.
15. Now there (are) an ever-increasing number of such virtual (pets)
16. which mostly young people are adopting (as) their (own).
17. And (if) your virtual pet (dies),
18. you (can) reserve a permanent resting place (on) the Internet in a virtual pet cemetery.
19. Sports are big business. Whereas Babe Ruth, the (most) famous athlete of (his) day,
20. was well-known (for) earning as (much) as the President of the United States, the average
21. salary (of) today's professional baseball players is (ten) times that of the President.
22. (And) a handful of sports superstars earn 100 times (more) through their contracts
23. (with) manufacturers of clothing, (food), and sports equipment.
24. But every generation produces (one) or two legendary athletes (who) rewrite
25. the record books, and whose ability and achievements (are) remembered (for) generations.
26. (In) the current generation Tiger Woods and Michael Jordan are two (such) legendary
27. figures, (both) of whom (have) achieved almost mythical status.
28. The (fact) that a large number of professional athletes (earn) huge incomes
29. has (led) to increased competition throughout (the) sports world.
30. Parents (send) their children to sports training camps (at) an early age.
31. Such (kids) typically practice three to (four) hours a day,
32. (all) weekend (and) during their school vacations
33. in order (to) better their chances of eventually obtaining (a) well-paid position
34. on a professional (team) when they grow (up).
35. As for the (many) young aspirants who do (not) succeed,
36. one wonders if they (will) regret having (lost) their childhood.

Character Analysis and Character Development in Dialogues and Role-Plays

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Role plays and dialogues are a staple EFL tool, yet character analysis development may not be getting the focus it deserves. Character analysis is a process that actors use to delve deeper into a character. This can include a backstory and also examining the lines to glean the character's personality, motivation, and inner emotions. When a student is both invested in and can benefit from the safety provided by playing a character, that student's expressiveness, situational investment, and creativity are engaged. This paper discusses some of the theory behind why character development can improve role-play activities, provides practical examples from the author's classroom, and discusses the author's own reflections and observations from using character analysis and development with her own students.

ロールプレイや会話例を使って英語学習を行うのは、今や一般的な方法であるが、一方でローオブレイの登場人物の性格分析は蔑ろかにされている。

しかしながら、学生が役の性格、背景等を深く検討分析することにより、表現力、状況を把握する力、創造力を喚起する事となる。本論文において、私の授業中の実例や、人物分析等をもとに、前述の学説を論じています。

Textbook dialogues and role-plays are staples in the EFL classroom, yet students and teachers alike often view these activities with disinterest, even trepidation. Students often go through the motions of reading out lines from textbook dialogues with little or no emotion. Even role-play activities, a great intermediate step for those who wish to communicate in English, either become something of a joke or something students struggle shyly through. Free conversation, another staple, tends to be limited to a small range of topics that are based on students' life experiences.

I've experienced first hand trying to conduct a free conversation topic from a textbook only to find out that none of my students had anything significant to contribute. How can we as educators broaden the range of conversations, increase interest and meaning to textbook dialogues, and breathe life into role-play activities? Adding drama to dialogues and role-plays can aid students in learning how to express their ideas and emotions in a second language (Ntelioglou, 2011; Duff & Maley, 2001; Gaudart, 1990) and thus warrants a closer look. This paper builds on previous papers about drama techniques in the EFL classroom (Kawakami, 2014; Kawakami, 2015) and focuses on two processes; character analysis and character development. These two techniques can be used to not only enrich the activities themselves, but also to help students to develop additional skills such as critical

Kawakami, A. (2016). Character analysis and character development in dialogues and role-plays. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 86-92). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

thinking, non-verbal communication, and emotional intelligence (Ntelioglou, 2011; De la Roche, 1993). The first section of this article begins with a discussion of textbook dialogues and character analysis, including practical examples. The second section introduces the reader to how the foundations of character analysis can then be applied to character development and suggests various ways teachers can go about helping students create real, meaningful characters.

The First Step: Character Analysis and Textbook Dialogue Enrichment Activities

Kao and O'Neil (1998) state that textbook dialogues are there "to encourage students to perform particular linguistic structures, practice particular idioms, or recite lines according to pre-written scripts using certain items of vocabulary" (p. 6). While these dialogues can help with grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, they do not allow students to practice, emotion and motivation driven dialogue. In essence they do not encourage the connection between the grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation and real world use. However, adding character analysis and drama activities to a class can provide students with the opportunities they need to practice these other skills. I would like to demonstrate this through an example from my own practice, utilizing a sample dialogue from the textbook *Breakthrough Plus 3*

(Craven, 2012) (see Figure 1), which I use in my first and second year university communication classes.

This particular dialogue is a great starter for character analysis as it already has a good element of drama built in. After reading the dialogue, the students are asked to discuss the dialogue and analyze it by examining how they would react to Sally's last line. They are asked to think about what is funny or awkward about the situation and discuss with a group how they were able to know that through the language. This is, I am sure, a typical activity for an EFL classroom. It is also the initial step of character analysis.

To deepen the analysis, I ask the students to come up with a back story for each of the characters in pairs, often with a worksheet that has prompt questions. A typical backstory from my classes has been that Sally was actually very much a shy and awkward student in high school and that Sally and Akiko had been good friends, but Akiko was always kind of mean to Sally, which is why they haven't spoken for many years. The variety of backstories elicited creates a great opportunity to introduce the idea of motivation-hidden and apparent agendas that the characters may have, driven by personal relationships and history. It also has allowed me to broach with students the concept of internal and external emotions, what people show on the outside and what they try to hide, their true feelings. This has been easy for my students to grasp due to their familiarity with the

Sally: It's great to see everyone again. I can't believe it. We all look so different now.
Akiko: Yeah, it's amazing. Oh, there's Liz Sayer. Blonde, in the black dress. Do you remember her?
Sally: Yes, she used to sit next to me in class.
Akiko: Oh yes, that's right. Didn't you use to live near each other?
Sally: Yes. We're still good friends now, actually.
Akiko: Oh, and is that James Marsten with her?
Sally: Yes, but I didn't use to speak to him in those days.
Akiko: You didn't? He was very popular. He used to date Liz, you know.
Sally: Really? I didn't know that.
Akiko: Oh, yes. He used to date everyone, even me! I wonder what he's doing now.
Sally: He's studying to be a doctor.
Akiko: Oh, do you still know him?
Sally: Yes I do, Actually, we're married

Figure 1. Sample dialogue from *Breakthrough Plus 3*, p. 4.

ideas of “*honne*” (inner truth) and “*tatemai*” (outside face) in Japanese culture. This process gives students a wonderful opportunity for discussion, critical thinking, and creativity. It also creates an opportunity for empathy with the character which creates an investment in what they are doing (Dracup, 2012). Once the students have developed some of their own ideas about the relationships and personalities of the characters, they begin to try to demonstrate this through verbal and non-verbal signals (tone and body language), either privately, in pairs, or in front of small groups of peers.

From my observations, this process helps these dialogues to come alive. Students are more animated and interact with each other actively. They are no longer just facing each other, staring down at their textbooks. Students start to advise one another on how to make the backstories more evident through their action, thus reflection occurs naturally.

This can be taken a step further by having students take on the role of a director and filming their enactments. The students can watch the films, taken on their phones, and discuss how to improve their actions and acting. They do this for themselves, with little side coaching from the teacher, and give feedback to each other, creating a wonderful peer learning opportunity.

It is essential here that the teacher guide students gently and provide positive feedback, during and after these activities, so that students can improve without feeling judged (De la Roche, 1993). This is an essential part of creating the type of nurturing, supportive and safe environment that is necessary for learning to occur (Duff & Maley, 2001). Personal observations have shown me that students tend to enjoy being the actors and directors of these scenes as they seem to feel ownership over how it progresses. I have found even shy students really engage, particularly if they are given the opportunity to be the director before being

the actor. Students seem to forget about their normal shyness and fears as they are acting in character and the situation is fictional. It is important to note that while the situation and characters are fictional, the dialogue is authentic (Jackson & Schneider, 2000), particularly when the students extend the dialogue beyond what is written in the text in extension activities.

The greatest challenge is the first time this activity is introduced. It should be a topic that is rich with drama and is one that the students can relate to. Starting with a difficult dialogue with concepts that are far from their own experience can cause students to lose confidence. Simple, relatable dialogues that can be infused with the students’ imagination seem to be the recipe for initial success. So, in essence, character analysis is taking somewhat predetermined characters, stories, and scripts, and infusing them with rich descriptions, making them three dimensional so students can experience them more intensely and authentically. Character development takes this further.

Character Development and Role-Plays

Whilst character analysis, the exploration of relationships, and the addition of emotionally driven motivation adds more authenticity to the dialogues, role-plays are a step closer to what students will have to be able to do if they want to be able to use the language that they are studying in the real world. If the main goal of having students engage in discussions in the classroom is for these discussions to be as real as possible, one could argue then that perhaps free conversations, where students interact as themselves, would be more realistic. While there is some merit to free discussions and free discussion activities do have a role to play in the language classroom, for the

Your name is Susan Johansen. You work at the front desk the Norton Hotel. A guest, Mrs. Hayakawa, comes to the desk to complain about the construction noise by the pool. Offer her options (ex) changing rooms/taking a reduction in rate) and try to solve the problem.

Phrases: “How can I help you?”, “Would you like another room?”. “We can offer you a discount.”

Figure 2. Sample role-play card.

most part, many of the young students we teach do not have a wide range of life experiences from which to draw upon (De la Roche, 1993) which can make these types of discussions rather limited. Additionally, the power relationships both among students and between students and their teacher are quite stagnant and so the students are unable to explore more complicated and varied positions if free discussion is the only type of conversational activity that they engage in in the classroom (Kao & O'Neil, 1998). This is where role-plays are essential. Students can play different characters as can the teacher. In fact, it is highly advisable that teachers demonstrate in role as it helps to establish the tone of the role-play activities. This also adds validity to the activities and helps to emphasize the fact that the classroom is indeed a safe and equal environment.

In the past, I followed the typical procedure for role plays. Students were taught useful phrases to utilize and given a brief description of the characters (see Figure 2). Then students were tasked to perform the role-play, either in front of a class, for the teacher (myself), or privately amongst the members of a small group. Feedback was then given on the language being used in the role plays. This feedback could include such things as a few pronunciation or grammatical corrections on errors noticed by the teacher when monitoring the role play activities. It is also possible to comment on the physicality, which is how the student is using body language, posture, and facial expressions to convey the character's personality and emotions. After this feedback session the activity was done.

This process always felt like a gamble, as the success rate was highly varied. Learning from my peers, I tried

to include props or sound cues, such as ambient music, to create a sense of reality. These were good additions, and often helped, but they did not get to the core of what a role-play activity could, and should, be trying to achieve. Reality is created within the participants themselves, the actors. Once they are able to become the character and see the situation, then true, authentic communication can occur.

Character development is essentially taking character analysis a step further, adding more creativity. The student or actor puts their own imagination to work to bring a character to life. This will allow the students to be able to work "off script" and create original language in character. Granted, actors usually work with a script, but many take it a step further so they can, when it moves them, create action and words that go beyond the script, as if they were actually the character they are pretending to be. Also, the more detailed a back-story is, the more strongly attached one become to their character. The balance between this and the fact that characters are very clearly not the actor themselves gives more freedom to performers. The character is like a mask or a costume, almost like an avatar, and this is what allows even the most shy actor to put on sensitive, vulnerable performances. If this is the case for actors, then this could be applied to the language learner.

While it is not being suggested that teachers try to make their language learners turn into professional actors, the psychological mechanism of both investment in and distance from the characters they are pretending to be is something that can be utilized to help the students open up and be more expressive. Many studies have also shown that the students'

Name: Keiko Murakami
Age: 52

Basic Description:

- *married to Shunsuke Murakami (57), daughter is Mamiko (24)
- *work part-time at a supermarket, four times a week (Shunsuke works at ASICS sportswear company as an office worker)
- *daughter wants to marry an older man (45) who works part-time at a convenience store whilst trying to become a professional guitarist

Figure 3. Character card.

motivation to do research or engagement in activities can be increased with the use of in depth character preparation in role-plays and extended role-play dramas such as process drama (see for example, De la Roche, 1993; Dracup, 2012; Jackson & Schneider, 2000). The buffer of “it’s not you, it’s your character” can have a strong impact on the students, something that has been shown both in the literature and in my own classrooms.

Character development can also allow students to explore character conflicts, both internal and interpersonal, so as to add genuine emotion to their communication activities (Duff & Maley, 2001), something that is often lacking in classroom conversation activities. In my own classroom, I have noticed that my conflict adverse students actually seem to relish conflict, and the resolution of this conflict, once they understand it is their character and not themselves that are participating in this conflict. However, this can only happen if the students have really gotten into their character. The process of “putting on” their character, for both students and actors, necessitates a connection to that character and, for this to occur, character development is an essential step.

Let us now examine a practical example from my university classes. This activity is a role-play that is intended to allow students to practice arguing and negotiating. In this role-play three characters argue over a daughter’s desire to marry someone the parents disapprove of. Students are given various character cards (see Figure 3 for an example) and are asked to work. These groups can be composed of students who each play a different role (for example a group

of three students with one student each playing the part of either the mother, the father or the daughter) or in groups of students who are all playing the same character (for example, all members are the mother). The students created details about the characters based on a character development sheet (see Figure 4) that has been provided by the teacher. Note that the questions in the character development sheet should be tailored to the different characters and act as a starting point for discussion. The goal is to get the students to think about their character’s personality, their relationships with the other characters, and their motivation within the scene. Here the focus is about why Keiko is against the marriage of her daughter and what aspects of her life have led her to be against it. It is important that the teacher asks students questions that will help them to discuss their character’s internal and external feelings, as well as to develop their ideas about the relationships between the various characters. A hot-seating activity prior to doing the role-play can be helpful, and I have often used it at this stage. Hot-seating is an activity where the student sits, in role, in the middle of a circle of other students and possibly the teacher, and answers questions in character. It is meant to aid the student in developing their character further, filling in some blanks that could have been missed in their previous discussions.

After the development stage, the students are then asked to do the role-plays. The teacher may choose to have all the students do the role-plays in their groups, with no observers, or can choose to have groups observe each other, either in pairs of groups or in plenary. Naturally, it is important that the teacher uses discretion and takes into account the comfort

- 1) What is the relationship between you and your husband? Do you talk often? Do you get along? Who is stronger in your marriage? Who makes the decisions?
- 2) What is your relationship between you and your daughter? Are you close? Does your daughter listen to you?
- 3) When did you get married? Did you love your husband?
- 4) Do you have any regrets in your life?
- 5) Why do you work part-time? Do you enjoy it?
- 6) How would you describe your personality? Are you quiet? Soft? Aggressive? Strong?
- 7) Why do you disapprove of your daughter's marriage?
- 8) What are your views of marriage? Is this connected to your own marriage with Shunsuke?
- 9) What do you think you will do if your daughter marries this older man?

Figure 4. Character development sheet- KEIKO.

level of the students. I generally start with an initial practice within their individual groups. After they have completed this initial role-play with their group I give them time to reflect on how the role play went and brainstorm ways that they could have improved it. I then have the groups perform in front of a larger group. Feedback can be given after the students have performed in front of the larger group. At all times, the feedback must be positive and constructive. It should be given in a way that nurtures self-reflection and self-awareness whilst maintaining a safe environment. Reflecting on making the characters more realistic, brainstorming physicality, tone, and language content and trying it again, after reflection, was very beneficial and, especially when done peer to peer, the improvement shown in the students was noticeable.

The biggest issues that I have encountered with doing character development is that it can be time consuming. Assigning the development worksheet for homework is an ideal way to cut down the class time required for this type of activity and it also allows the students to reflect at their own leisure and comfort. Whilst this type of activity may not be a weekly activity, having this as a regular component of my communication classes has led to noticeable improvements in my own classes both in terms of the time it takes to prepare for role-plays and in the quality of communication that occurs during the role-plays. It has also helped to improve my students attitudes towards the class which has, in turn, led to an increase in student motivation.

Conclusion

Character analysis and development are additional steps that can be included in the teaching repertoire. While these activities can be time consuming, the benefits are worth it. The development of critical thinking and emotional intelligence is a valuable side effect, but the primary benefits are that the students be able to experience a wide range of situations and be given the opportunity to use their voice, body language, and vocabulary in an authentic way. These are the skills that allow students to truly express themselves in a second language. The activities suggested here are only an example of the myriad of possible activities that can

be used to develop characters and the teacher should use their own discretion and modify these activities to suit their own students.

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Uncovering Emotivation through Students' Narratives on Language Learning

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The present contribution focuses on Emotivation, a type of self-discovered motivation that is student-activated, which emerged from the analysis of self-narratives produced during a five year long study in the field of second language acquisition. The research was carried out at the University of Naples "L'Orientale." Nearly 500 Italian freshmen EFL students took part in the research that aimed to identify certainties, preferences, hopes and desires about second language learning (LL2), as well as students' current/projected visions about themselves and English-related matters. Autobiographically and anonymously, participants produced a total of nearly 1,000 written narratives written before (pre-V) and after (post-V) a guided visualization (GV). GVs were carried out using the Neuro-Linguistic-Programming (NLP) framework. Digitalized narratives were clustered in the EFL P.Æ.C.E. Corpus. Ongoing qualitative analysis has brought to light unexpected features, uncovered emotions, showed students' realities, and opened interesting windows for analyses on LL2. Emotivation, in particular, shows a new pedagogical path to educators who intend to obtain successful results in language teaching/learning.

本稿はEmotivationという、第二言語習得の領域における5年間の長期的な学習の中で生み出されるセルフナラティブの分析から生み出される、学生たちが自主的に見出し活発にするモチベーションのタイプに着目している。調査はUniversity of Naples "L' Orientale." にて行われた。およそ500人の英語を外国語として学ぶ(EFL)イタリア人学生たちに、彼らが第二言語の習得に関して確信していること、好み、希望や願いはどのようなものなのか、また、自分たち自身や英語に関する事柄についての現在/過去のヴィジョンはどのようなものなのかをはっきりと知るためことを目的とした調査に参加してもらった。匿名、記名を問わず、参加者たちはガイドドビジュアライゼーション(GV)の前(pre-V)と後(post-v)とでそれぞれ合計で1,000ほどの物語を作成した。ガイドドビジュアライゼーションは神経言語プログラミングのフレームワークを使用して実施された。デジタル化された物語は EFL P.Æ.C.E . Corpusに保存された。現在進行中の質的分析は予期しなかった特徴を明らかにし、感情をあばき、学生たちの現実を映しだし、第二言語の分析にとって興味深い窓を開いてくれた。特に、Emotivationは言語の教授/学習において実りある成果を得ようとしている教育者たちに新たな教育の道を示してくれた。

The present study reports on the uncovering of an internal driving force, called *EMOTIVATION*, which

emerged through the analysis of the data gathered from 2005/06 to 2009/10 at the University of Naples "L'Orientale" (UNIOR), Italy, which are clustered in the ELF *P.Æ.C.E.* Corpus (Landolfi, 2012a).

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The intent behind data gathering was to understand clearly and from students' direct voices, aspects of the L2 acquisitional path students manifest once they attend their first EFL course at university

after school training, a period that varies from 8 to 13 years. A beta test run in 2005 uncovered that many Italian freshmen approach university with inadequate competence in EFL (below B1 using the Common European Framework of Reference), wavering motivations, self-defeating attitudes, and high expectations.

In order to overcome the acquisitional blocks mentioned above, a transformative learning solution was necessary; a tool that could activate a change in students' learning perspective(s) and offer them new, self-assuring/self-induced rewarding acquisitional scenarios. Over other traditionally valid tools, preference was given to GVs performed within the NLP format that activates all five senses (Dilts, & DeLozier, 2000). Two reasons motivated the choice: GVs could be specifically designed (Webster, 2005) for pedagogical matters and could generate self-induced resolutions, which turned out to be the case as the following examples will illustrate.

GVs refer to the ability to mentally project images, situations, events, people and any other forms of content. They have already proved to be functional in various fields: sports (Porter, 2003), personal evolution (Denning & Phillips, 2003), creativity (Hall, Hall, Stradling, & Young, 2006), as well as in pedagogical settings (Hall, Hall, & Leech, 1993). They can favor changes in students' perspectives (Putcha, 1999), activate functional learning scenarios (Arnold, 1999), and provoke attitudinal mindset transformations (Landolfi, 2008).

In the pages to come, I will first introduce some examples of the ELF P.Æ.C.E. Corpus to frame and discuss students' narratives, then I will present the phenomenon Emotivation and its processes.

The ELF P.Æ.C.E. Corpus

The ELF P.Æ.C.E. corpus is slightly larger than 100,000 words articulated in five sections, one per each year of data collection. When compared to other known corpora, P.Æ.C.E. may result as being small but the authentic and anonymous narratives it gathers make it unique. P.Æ.C.E. narratives "are culturally rich and go far beyond the merely linguistic into the self-expressed affective factors of attitude, [...], identity and

awareness, but coupled with linguistic form" (Selinker in the Forward to Landolfi, 2012b). They vary from pluri-paragraphed narratives to short messages, letters, abrupt statements, unexpected stream-of-thought introspections, in/direct requests of help, and more.

An identical protocol structured all data collections. It foresaw three-phases: two writing moments (Phase One and Phase Three) spaced out by a GV articulated in Italian (Phase Two). In Phase One, students were invited to talk about their past histories with English, EFL educators and their learning path, touching upon any of the factors synthesized by the acronym P.Æ.C.E. (see below). In Phase Three, students were to deal with a visualized journey and personal relevant experiences. Participants could self-select the language (English or Italian), the length, the genre and the style but they had to respect the allotted time. In synthesis, the delivered GV invited participants to relax, delete whatever might be impinging on their LL2 path, get ready to take an airplane to their beloved L2 town and once there intermingle with native speakers. One assumption of this research was that by examining texts written by participants at pre and post visualization it may be possible to isolate the both the facilitating and debilitating factors affecting SLA.

Just a few typical extracts have been selected from this large P.Æ.C.E. corpus in order to give readers a sense of it. The extracts present pre-Vs (left text) and post-Vs (right text) written by the same participant in order to present a snapshot of their mental states before and after the GV. The texts have not been linguistically polished; 'xxx' signals students' erasures. Square brackets indicate omitted sections and curly brackets frame translated segments.

In Extract 1, the pre-V presents this student's self-depicted representation of his/her own present reality and personal desiderata about future life. Having in mind the acronym P.Æ.C.E., we discover that His/her Preferences ("I would like be," "I know") are unveiled as well as Expectations, dreams/hopes ("From this course I expect," "I hope," etc.), and Certainties ("I know," "I can do it"), all impregnated with Emotions ("My fears are," "be wrong"). The post-V deals with the effects of the visualization, in which the participant indicates

Extract 1. From Collection Five (Landolfi, 2012a, p. 278)

<p>1_10_25_EN_(118)</p> <p>From this course I expect to xxx be better in English and to xxx be sure in this beautiful language. I really like to learn xxx languages xxx above all if I can do it with foreign songs, but also because I xxx like know about the culture of other countries. I know and I hope that I can xxx xxx finish my studies, and learn all that could be important for my life. I hope that when I finished my studies I would be a good teacher or a good (traduttrice). My fears are that something could be wrong but if I do it with hard work I can do it.</p>	<p>2_10_25_EN_(68)</p> <p>This experience give me in some way power to realize my dream to go to the USA. It was so nice to know that I arrived in the USA with the airplane, and there was anybody who waited at me. I was so happy that I could, visited New York and other near countries. I hope that one day I could do this beautiful journey really. = ▶</p>
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Extract 2. From Collection Three (Landolfi, 2012a, p. 188)

<p>1_08_32_EN_(125)</p> <p>From this course I expect to xxx improve my English grammar and pronunciation. I like English but it is not easy to speak with a good pronunciation and I want to be xxx xxx xxx-native English like you prof. when I am in class I understand xxx my friends are nice and I like the class xxx xxx I do not like to sit on the floor but I am late and so ... I like to live in Naples with other students but I am a bit shy and speak little so ... many students say the exam is difficult I hope I pass it the first time. I like the your lessons on the computer, funny and interesting. You are new.</p>	<p>2_08_32_EN_(143)</p> <p>My computer is in the suitcase ... my brother brings me to the airport and I check-in precise. On the plane I meet a tall girl with blu eyes and red hairs. She is xxx xxx xxx at Dublin where I am going for to learn english at a xxx xxx international college. she lives near the college and I give my telephone number xxx xxx-she call me. I hear my voice in english and is different from italian I seem native ... Two dreams in five minutes. When I put the hand on my heart I see the scene in small pieces I understand the dream is a dream but I want it xxx xxx xxx-real: I study. I want to feel back the sensation of no mistakes, no failure, no bad grades. That was really a great sensation!!!</p>
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that the journey “*was so nice, a beautiful journey really,*” which made him/her “*so happy.*”) The possibility of being “*in the USA,*” and visiting “*New York*” gave him/her a novel push, sustaining the process of LL2 and refreshing his/her own motivation (“*This experience give me in some way power*”).

The student in Extract 2, reports “*A great [post-V] sensation.*” In the pre-V, we learn that, despite problems with grammar and listening, s/he likes English, classmates, living in Naples (probably a commuter), English lessons and the teacher. We also discover that s/he would like to have a good pronunciation and pass the exam easily.

In the post-V, the scenario changes, the student feels different (“*I hear my voice in English and is different.*”). The desire expressed in the pre-V “*I want to be native English*” has materialized in the post-V (“*I seem native*”). The GV has permitted “*two dreams in five minutes*” to come true in turn nourishing the desire to make it become reality “*I want it ... real*” because the sensation “*I seem native*” must be lived again. Experiencing “*no mistakes, no failure, no bad grades*” is such “*a great sensation!!!*” that pushes toward decision making: “*I study.*” In a word, s/he became emotivated (see below).

Looking at the Extract 3 pre-V, we can perceive

<p>1_07_14_EN_(77)</p> <p>I had many doubts in the choise of my university studies ...</p> <p>Naturally I love xxx-studying foreign languages, above all English since all my family lived for a while abroad, but I'm not sure of my actions, of my abilities and many times I'm afraid of comparison with people. I always try to be perfect in every singol case, but I can't.</p> <p>Nevertheless I'm ready to overcome all my obstacles and to improve my capabilities.</p>	<p>2_07_14_EN_(302)</p> <p>What an amazing and strange experience! I've never felt such sensations in xxx the travelling of my mind ... I felt so strong, so brave, so proud of my abilities in speaking English. It seemed that I was at home.</p> <p>I couldn't believe to have deleted all my problems with a hand, but it really happened and I felt so light when I was flying into the candy clouds: the panorama was incredibly gorgeous!</p> <p>Once there, I was excited, confused, trembling and even scared ... Could it work? Could I succed in my purpose successfully? oh yes, I could; as a matter of fact I xxx xxx left the airport and immediately met a nice guy who asked me informations about the place ... Oh ... with regard to the place, I forgot to mentionate the name of my city destination: it's Boston. Anyway I straightaway gave him the informations he needed and, in a surprising way, we even hit it off. We went to the "Hard Rock café" for a break and we talked for hours; it seemed that we've been knowing for years. Moreover, the background of music gave me a cut above so that I had no more problems with the language: xxx I ranged from an argument to another fluently and having fun at the xxx same time.</p> <p>I felt so good with myself, I was positive and I believed it was the first step of the infinity walk I had to undertake for my future life. Obviously I was dreaming and, as you know, all the dreams sooner or later come to an end, but I strongly hope that experiences like that could happen and could be lived for what they are since you really feel better!!!</p> <p>See u soon # drawing of a butterfly #</p>
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that, despite the fact that the student may have lived abroad with his/her family (*"since all my family lived for a while abroad"*) and his/her good linguistic/textual competence, still doubts are present (*"I had many doubts"*) as well as uncertainties about actions, abilities and personal comparisons in class (*"I'm afraid of comparison"*).

These are factors that would almost certainly impinge upon classroom performances and interactions and possibly lead this student to not attend class (attendance is not compulsory at UNIOR). If one limits the analysis of this student's self-portrait to just the pre-V, one would have an image of a rather anxious and timid student. Thanks to the post-V, however, it becomes clear that indeed, s/he could feel *"strong, brave, proud of my abilities in speaking English"* to the point of *"feeling at home"* with the target language (TL). S/he expressed disbelief after having *"deleted problems"* and was described *"flying into the candy clouds."* S/he then goes into a poetic, rather detailed description of the mental journey until,

toward the end of the narrative, s/he confesses this event to be *"the first step into the infinity walk [...] to undertake for my/[his/her] future life."* Though in a visualized context (*"Obviously I was dreaming,"*) all the same, the GV could change a skeptical and a fearful state into a *"really feel better"* state.

It is this state of feeling empowered (Extract 1), experiencing the incredulous realization that even a student may succeed and sound 'native like' (Extract 2), as well as a sensation of well-being (Extract 3) (which are all direct consequences of a GV) that defines a turning point capable of activating a different type of motivation: *Emotivation*.

From Motivation to Emotivation

This study has been informed by research on motivation in general (Deci & Ryan, 1985), motivation in foreign language (Gardner, 1985; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Weiner, 1979) and motivation in the field of cognition/brain (Bandura, 1986; Maslow,

1954). Most continue to posit dichotomous visions (integrative/instrumental, intrinsic/extrinsic). However, in the examples presented, regardless of their self-described motivations, the students all seem to be blocked and lack the force to undergo the risks required for language acquisition. Assertions similar to I can “*achieve my dream*” rarely appear in pre-V data. What is missing is a motivation grounded on an internal emotional certainty, (*Emotivation*) newly released, which pushes them to act.

The concept of ‘Emotivation’ is known in the field of psychology (Roseman, 2011). Prior to this study, it had never been applied to educational contexts. The changes reported in post-Vs unveiled its presence in pedagogical settings. *Emotivation* is a force that can be other-induced (e.g. by an educator) but must be self-activated and will precisely respond to one’s specific vision. Being self-generated, it provokes a positive mindset transformation and activates self-awareness. Further, the many occurrences of “*Now, I understand,*” and “*For the first time, I feel,*” that post-Vs contain,

suggest that this force was previously unknown to students. However, once emotivated, students could project positive self-visions recharged by a new motivation and get rid of prior negative feelings about EFL. For a detailed description on *Emotivation* and its processes see Landolfi (2012b).

Another emergence of *Emotivation* is captured in Ex. 4., which is interesting because of its differences in length/word count (pre-V 31 words versus 221 in post-V). Pre-V depicts a rather skeptical, demotivated, fearful and hurt female student who wants to “*forget about her past history*” with L2. In just a few words, she shares a learning scenario that would hardly support her new demanding path at university. Although she is intentioned to “*give it a try,*” still she is “*skeptical*” about her future and her heart is “*full of fears.*”

In the post-V writing, the difference in mood, attitude, motivation, desire, awareness and willingness to persist between her pre- and post-V narratives is striking. The unsuccessful, anchored doubts, skepticism, unresolved fears, and unconstructive class

Extract 4. From Collection Four (Landolfi, 2012a, p. 220)

1_09_03_IT_(31)	2_09_03_IT_(221)
<p>Sono scettica su cosa mi aspetta ma voglio provare. Il mio cuore è pieno di paure. Ho un passato da dimenticare con la mia vecchia prof. Ansie e altro ...</p> <p>{I am very skeptical on what is waiting for me but I want to give it a try. My heart is full of fears. I have a [schooling] past history with my prior teacher to forget about. Anxieties and more ... }</p>	<p>Inizialmente ho provato un certo fastidio a diventare cavia per le sperimentazioni della prof. Forse perché avevo paura di mettermi in gioco, di entrare nelle xxx profondità del mio essere e scoprire qls che non mi sarebbe piaciuto? Non lo so, ma ho deciso che avrei potuto provarci, prenderla come un'opportunità. Ho da subito chiuso gli occhi, e così sono entrata subito in sintonia con le indicazioni della prof. e con quella dolce brezza che ho percepito, ho sentito entrare nei miei polmoni. Silenzio. Non c'era più niente e nessuno. Solo la verità delle e nelle mie risposte. Forse è proprio per questo che ho provato un senso, anzi ho sentito una grande serenità. Ero tranquilla. Quello che ho da sempre desiderato, cioè viaggiare, incontrare persone di culture diverse, ma soprattutto interagire con esse, poteva diventare possibile. Sono ancora più consapevole del fatto che devo stringere i denti e lottare con tutte le mie forze. Ma non mi fa più paura. Il mio sogno è pieno di speranza. Devo aprire gli occhi, svegliarmi dal sogno è ora di costruire la realtà, la mia realtà. È solo il primo passo ... Il mio cuore è pieno di gioia, sta per scoppiare ... ma ce la farò? Io ce la metterò tutta. "God bless my way, grant me peace and joy"</p> <p>{Initially I felt a certain uneasiness [...]. Perhaps because I was afraid of stepping forward, to enter in the depth of my being and find out that I wouldn't like it? I do not know, but I decided that I could have given it a try, taking it as an opportunity. I immediately closed my eyes, and so I soon entered in syntony with the prof's indications and with that sweet breeze that I perceived, I felt entered in my lungs. Silence nothing or no one was there any longer. Only the truth of and within my answers. Maybe it is exactly for this reason that I felt a sense ore better I felt a great serenity. I was calm. What I've always desired, that is travel, meet people from different cultures but mainly interact with them, could become possible. I am even more aware that I must grit my teeth and fight with all of my strengths. But I am not afraid of it. My dream is full of hope. I must open my eyes, wake up from the dream. It is time now to build a reality, my reality. It is only the first step ... My heart is full of joy, it's almost ready to explode ... but will I make it? I will do my best. "God bless my way, grant me peace and joy"} }</p>

relationships describe in the pre-V narrative all vanish and new images emerge. They allow her to express a new determination “*I must grit my teeth and fight with all of my strengths,*” and a new self-generated awareness “*I am even more aware.*” She enjoys a new vision, experiences “*serenity*” and “*calmness.*” Her dream is now “*full of hope,*” her new reality is just ready to start because “*it is time now to build*” it. With her heart so “*full of joy*” that “*it’s almost ready to explode*” even the final feeble doubt “*will I make it?*” seems easy to be overcome because she “*will do [her] best.*” She could feel empowered by the GV and experience the activation of an *emotivational* desire to act in her life.

Discussion of Emotivation Processes

The mindset transformation that these examples have illustrated, define the major difference between motivation and *Emotivation*. *Emotivation*, once activated and recognized, allows learners to overcome bad memories and unrewarding experiences with EFL, deletes personal limiting beliefs, leads emotivees to trust in their own capacities, and build a new mindset where personal *emotivational* forces are the sustaining pillars.

Emotivation is a self-governed and self-activated phenomenon. It allows learners to avoid stagnating plateaus and induces self-inspiring resolutions to persist on the L2. *Emotivation* functions both at a deep level and at a surface level, which is summarized in Figure 1. The overlapping grey oval represents the initial portions of transformation that emotivees may have already achieved. Mindset transformation is an

ongoing process.

Emotivation at the deep level induces emotions, build awareness, and changes mindset. It uninstalls negative past experiences and potentiates positive ones thus provoking a mindset transformation. It favors the manifestation of a new self-activated awareness that in turn triggers a novel determination to pursue a given goal (i.e., competence in EFL). Each of these five processes would have remained abstract, unnoticed and undiscovered without the intervention of a GV and the possibility of analyzing participants’ narratives.

Emotivation at the surface level completes the students’ transformation. It looks forward and has effects on the here and now situation as well as on temporarily projected, possible future manifestations. In both cases, it induces calmness, serenity and novel energy reestablishing an inner homeostasis that replaces L2 anxious states or pessimistic mindsets with lightness, freedom and self-trust. Once homeostasis has been recreated, novel visions and decisions can promote and push for the right actions to perform in order to achieve emotivees’ intended goals.

Conclusion

The examples presented above, although in varying degrees of intensity, have illustrated *emotivation*-driven sets of positive mindsets unlocking negative states. Students report being freed from negative entanglements and profess to be projected toward a future where studying/learning and communicating in English can become their reality. The narratives in the EFL *P.Æ.C.E.* corpus show that when limits vanish, when anxiety and fears disappear, when negative mindsets are supplanted by positive beliefs and self-attainments (even if in a visualized modality), the desire to do whatever is needed to reach the intended goal (generally, competence in English) is activated and/or empowered. Once this new mindset has been activated, it can sustain students’ desires and efforts to learn an L2.

Although students were not monitored after the GVs in a formalized way, many students over the years have confirmed the validity of the visualized experience they had undergone in personal communications.

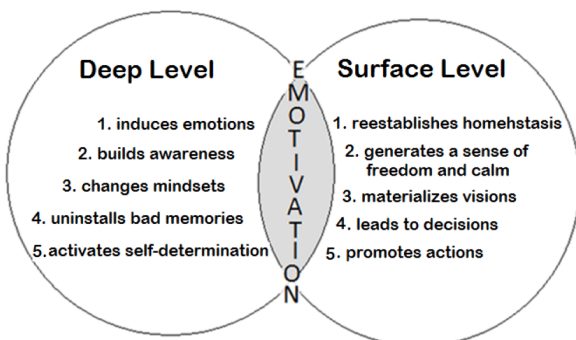


Figure 1. Basic characteristics of Emotivation.

They even stated that the GV had helped them throughout their entire career at university, regardless the subject matter. Indeed, well-structured and pedagogically-oriented GVs may work in favor of this activation and transform motivation into *Emotivation* thus changing the learning scenario. At a deep level, in that inner space where no one else may enter, where the Self governs, projected dreams become realities and emotivees can become constructors of their own success.

This research continues thanks to a newly received grant. The goal is to operationalize *Emotivation* constituent factors and identify those affective-emotional linguistic indicators that typify the phenomenon in pedagogical settings. It will hopefully underpin the linguistic and social/psycholinguistic factors that connect *Emotivation* to learning, as well as those that favor/inhibit or enhance acquisition.

Contemporary learners seem to be ready for novel ways to approach language education. Are we, researchers and educators of today, ready too? Are we offering them learning environments, materials and practices that empower them to discard negative past histories with L2 situations and EFL educators? The analysis of narratives in EFL *P.Æ.C.E.* leads me to hope that more emotivating practices can find a place in student-oriented learning practices. As L2 educators, we also may be called upon to change our own mindsets.

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The Joy of Using Narratives in Bilingual Preschools

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This paper presents five storytelling tasks that were chosen by two classes of bilingual EFL preschool students in Japan as their favorite storytelling activities. While enjoyable, these tasks also motivate bilingual EFL preschool students to engage in English through narratives, as well as increase the quantity and variety of English output over the course of a school year. The activities involve the use of props, such as puppets, markers, and mini-whiteboards and generally follow communicative-based language learning principles and encourage autonomous learning through peer interaction. This paper describes the five tasks and explains how to adapt them for learners of different ages, dispositions, and language levels..

本論文では、日本の幼稚園に通うEFLバイリンガル幼児対象の二クラスのお気に入りである、5つのストーリーテリングタスクについて述べる。これらのタスクは、生徒が楽しめるものであると同時に、ナラティブを通してEFLバイリンガル幼児が英語に触れるようモチベーションを与えるだけでなく、年間を通して英語のアウトプット量および表現力を増やすものである。指人形、マーカー、ミニホワイトボード等の道具を使用したこれらのアクティビティは、コミュニケーションに基づいた言語学習の法則に概ね則っており、生徒同士のやり取りを通じて自立学習を促すものである。本論文では、5つのタスクの詳細を説明し、それらを年齢、性格、レベルの異なる学習者に対して、どのように適合させるかについて述べる。

English education in Japan has been criticized for providing students with teacher-centered lessons in which students primarily receive English input through reading and listening exercises, but are given few opportunities to produce English output (Amaki, 2008). However, L2 research has shown that students cannot depend on input alone if they are to become proficient L2 speakers (Swain, 1985). Furthermore, students commonly rely on rote memorization of vocabulary and grammar forms to pass their English language courses, a process which can be both time consuming and demotivating. By adding narrative activities to their lessons, teachers can foster an

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environment which encourages students to produce output and keeps learners engaged.

This paper presents five activities that have been shown to be effective for engaging young bilingual EFL students in storytelling tasks. The activities were designed by myself and my colleagues, Japanese teachers of English and native English teachers. While they were originally intended for use in international school kindergarten classes in Japan, these activities also can be adapted for use in non-bilingual classes. Of the dozens of language-focused and content-based activities we used with learners over the course of a year, the activities that are presented in this paper are the ones we found to be the most useful in eliciting student output and maintaining a fun atmosphere. These were also the activities that teachers were most likely to demonstrate to other teachers and to parents during open days.

Background

It has been shown that students should produce L2 output if they are to become proficient in their second language. For example, in a study of English students attending French immersion classes in Canada, Swain (1985) found that Canadian English students receiving content-based in French developed a near-native ability to understand that language, but continued to have difficulty producing it. She attributed this to the fact that the students were learning in French, but had comparatively few chances to speak or write in it. She hypothesized that students process new L2 language more deeply when they produce it than when they receive input. Long (1995) similarly argued that output is a necessary part of language acquisition in that it gives students an opportunity to test their understanding of new L2 knowledge, and to make necessary adjustments based on the feedback they receive. Nation (2007) suggested that learners spend half of their L2 study time producing output. One benefit of narratives is that students who are engaged in a narrative activity are required to produce output to successfully participate.

Another benefit of narratives is their utility as mnemonic tools. Narratives have been strongly linked with memorization (Buchanon, 2007). It has been shown that emotional arousal strongly influences long-term memory. By engaging students in storytelling activities, emotional associations can be made with the language being used. This makes it more likely that students will remember language used in storytelling.

The narrative activities that are presented in this paper are the ones in which myself and my colleagues found the students most willing to engage in. These activities foster a classroom environment that closely follows Mendelsohn's (1992) eight keys to teaching spoken English; *supportiveness, awareness, fun, feedback, interest, relevance, enthusiasm* and *strategies*. With each of these activities, the teacher creates a supportive atmosphere through group work in which team involvement is the key to success. At the same time, the teacher ensures that each student is aware of the purpose of the task and is participating. Students are generally interested in the storytelling and creative aspect of narrative-based tasks because the stories

that they hear and tell are relevant to their lives. The teacher's job is to spread enthusiasm and teach learning strategies, such as planning and turn-taking, that can help the students better express themselves through their stories.

The goals of these activities are to motivate students to use English in order to express what they already know, and perhaps to generate new and creative ideas. Such an outcome is itself intrinsically motivating. There is little competition, and points for creativity and effort can be given or withheld by the teacher depending on the atmosphere of the classroom. Many of these activities involve group activities that promote learner autonomy, and each student is expected to contribute. However, not every student is required to stand before the entire class and speak. The natural leaders are given an opportunity to shine, and the more reluctant students can produce English in smaller groups until they are comfortable enough to have their moment in the spotlight as a group representative. As a result these tasks can serve as a means of engaging unmotivated students and increasing the interest of already engaged students.

While these activities were designed for five- and six-year-old EFL students, variations of the activities have been used with four-year-olds and eight-year-olds, and they can be used with non-bilingual classes with some adjustments. In this paper, variations are suggested to help teachers implement similar activities that can be used in a different learning environment to engage learners while enhancing their language ability.

Activity 1: The Liar

Description

With a teacher acting as the puppet master, a puppet ("The Liar") narrates a story about a topic that the students are familiar with, such as jungles, dinosaurs, or the previous day's events. The puppet, however, tells lies about the events. Upon hearing a lie, the students respond in unison, saying "That's not true!" A volunteer then corrects the story. For example:

Puppet (to students): Yesterday, I went on a trip to Africa. I saw a white giraffe with stripes all over it

swimming in a river!

Students (together): That's not true!

Puppet: Oh, really? Why not?

Student A (to puppet): Giraffes aren't striped! They have spots, and they don't swim in rivers.

Puppet: Oh, right! That's what I meant. After that, ...

The teacher/puppet then continues the story, calling on other volunteers for correction. This activity is very effective at involving reluctant students and getting the attention of students who are distracted. If students do not hear the lie the first time, the puppet can elaborate.

Rationale and Evaluation

While this activity involves some speaking on the part of the students, it is largely a selective listening activity. It includes a number of Brown's (2007) principles for teaching listening skills. Students can also use listening strategies, such as making clarification requests, listening for key words, and looking for nonverbal cues from the puppet or the teacher. In other language classes, narration can be used as an alternative to simple true or false questioning, with or without a puppet.

Although this activity is useful for engaging unfocused learners and encouraging selective listening, it is important for the students to maintain a positive social image and high self-esteem (Dörnyei, 2001). For this reason, it is important for the teacher to be careful when attempting to elicit responses from reluctant students by using them as characters in the narrative being created. If the puppet says student B caught a balloon and flew away, and student B does not catch the puppet in its lie, other students might use that to ridicule student B later. In general, however, "The Liar" boosts the students' confidence once they have outsmarted the puppet.

Activity 2: Sock Puppets

Description

Each student is handed a sock puppet to use during a creative speaking activity. Such activities include participating in role-plays, designing a skit, or simply reading aloud. Students can use the sock-puppets

during individual speaking and planning activities with a partner, or as part of a production in front of the class as a whole. For lower level students who are not yet able to produce their own sentences, the puppets can be used in shadowing activities. As the teacher reads a passage, students can create different puppet voices to use to add a silly variation to the standard shadowing routine. Also, students iswhile the teacher encourages them to use voice variations. Alternatively, if older students need more time to develop their story, they can compose a narrative in writing before performing it with their puppets.

Rationale and Evaluation

A number of articles have advocated the use of puppets in young-learner ESL classrooms and have demonstrated its effectiveness in getting more learners to use their L2 (Ernst-Slavit & Wenger, 1998; Wilhelm & Leverett, 1998). Young learners become excited upon seeing the puppets, and that excitement carries over into the narratives that they create. The use of puppets is also a good opportunity for students to practice varying their intonation and emphasis to create a personality for the various puppets. In our classroom, the Big Bad Wolf puppet spoke in a slow, low voice, while the children who voiced our Three Little Pigs did so with bright and cheerful speech.

The use of sock puppets can be very effective for eliciting output from reluctant students who might be afraid of making a mistake and losing face in front of their peers. The use of puppets can help to reduce students' language anxiety by allowing them to maintain a positive self image (Dörnyei, 2001). Sock puppets can help with this by lightening the mood in the classroom and by creating a distance between the speaker and the peer or teacher, allowing students to assign the speech and the mistakes to the puppets. This can also encourage students to accept corrective feedback more readily than they might have otherwise.

Activity 3: Narratives as Mnemonics

Description

After the teacher introduces new vocabulary words, the students form groups and create stories that can

help them to remember the meaning of the words. For example, the word “kidnap” might be broken into two previously-learned English words, “kid” and “nap.” Students might then create a story in which a napping kid was taken away by a robber, later to be saved by a superhero or detective. Once the students have created a story, a representative from the group illustrates the story on a mini-whiteboard, and another representative presents the group’s story to the class. The students then write the new vocabulary word in their personal dictionary notebooks and draw a picture of the story/mnemonic next to the word. As a variation, students might compose a mnemonic story in English for homework, using their L1 as a mnemonic. For example, if a student is learning the word “goose,” they might associate it with the Japanese *gussuri*, an adverb which means “sleeping soundly.” The story could then involve a goose sleeping soundly.

Rationale and Evaluation

This activity is a variation of a mnemonic vocabulary learning technique known as the keyword technique, which Nation (2008) suggests can improve the learning of words by around 20-percent. While the keyword technique encourages students to use their L1 to create a mnemonic for new L2 vocabulary, this activity encourages students to learn new L2 vocabulary through previously learned L2 vocabulary. While many learners might find it too difficult to use English to develop a story, non-bilingual students can still remember a new English word by composing an English mnemonic story that explains how L2 vocabulary is used. Nation (2008) gives the example of an Indonesian learner using the Indonesian word *parit*, meaning “ditch,” to memorize “parrot”. The learner might tell a story of a “parrot” that got lost and flew into a *parit* (“ditch”), rather than up into the sky.

This activity was an effective way to have students create a narrative using a single word as a starting point for their story. While there is not enough time to provide a mnemonic for every new vocabulary word that students come across, our students brought up the mnemonic stories and the words used in them on several occasions. Our students particularly enjoyed

discussing “Mommy the Mummy” and the “Where?-Wolf,” months after they learned about “mummies” and “werewolves” in their Halloween unit.

Activity 4: Phonics Stories

Description

The teacher chooses a phonetic sound or sounds and teaches the sound and spelling to the students. Using flashcards, the teacher draws the students’ attention to words that contain the phonetic sounds being taught that day, such as *phone*, *photo*, and *graph* for “ph,” or *might*, *fight*, and *light* for “igh.” After the students become familiar with the pronunciation, spelling, and meaning of the words, the students form groups of four with each student receiving one word card. Each group is instructed to create a story composed of four sentences, one for each word card. Group-by-group, the students tell their stories, with each student speaking one sentence of their group’s story to the class. Points can be awarded for creativity, length, and presentation.

In a variation of this activity, the students meet in groups and use the cards to write and draw their stories. This gives the students more time to consider the language that they want to use, while still encouraging learning and the use of the target phonemes through peer interaction.

Rationale and Evaluation

Phonics is not uniformly taught in Japanese public schools (Kyrala, 2009). As classroom time is limited, teachers might feel that when compared with developing students’ grammar knowledge, vocabulary base, reading, writing, listening, and conversational speaking skills, phonics are a relatively low priority. By using phonics as a basis for communicative activities, students can still learn the sounds which are associated with English letter combinations, while also continuing to develop their other language skills (Naiman, 1992; Pica, 1984; Wong, 1985). In this way, a simple phonics lessons becomes an engaging communicative activity that encourages learners to actively read, listen to, and orally produce phonetic features in authentic communication.

Activity 5: Ba-Bam Vocabulary

Description

After giving each student a copy of a short passage or graded reader, the teacher previews the story and selects between eight and ten target vocabulary words from the story. The teacher explains the meaning of the words and writes them on a whiteboard. The whiteboard remains in view during the reading period. The students take turns reading sentences or pages in the story out loud. As they read a target vocabulary word, the rest of the class says, "Ba-Bam!"

In classes with older students, teachers can provide students with a relatively small list of either high-frequency, or academically useful, vocabulary, and ask students to underline the words as they come across them while reading throughout the year. Teachers can also play popular songs and ask students to count the amount of times certain words are sung.

Rationale and Evaluation

This activity keeps the students focused on both the content and the language of the story, while also helping them to notice the target vocabulary used in various contexts. By explicitly drawing attention to the vocabulary and language features, the students are more likely to retain that language information (Schmidt, 1990). Through this activity, students learn to examine the texts for specific vocabulary and explain the meaning of the words in the context in which they appeared. Furthermore, this activity allows students to encounter lexical items multiple times and in different forms, something that has been shown to be essential for vocabulary acquisition to occur (Nation, 1982). This activity is also very successful in keeping the students on-task and engaged in the story.

Conclusion

While there are many different types of narrative activities that can be used in the language classroom the activities presented in this paper were the ones which students requested the most and which the teachers observed to elicit the most English production from the students. While further research is necessary to determine the exact effect of these

activities on students learning both the teachers and the parents in the school where these activities were conducted agreed that the students demonstrated improvement in their speaking abilities and an increase in their confidence with using English. Students also improved their ability to communicate using English. For example, at the end of the year students generally wrote one or two more lines per journal entry than they had at the beginning of the year with improved spelling and grammatical accuracy. There was also evidence that the activities themselves were having a positive effect on the students' learning. For example when tested periodically throughout the year, most students also demonstrated the ability to read new words using the letter groupings, such as "igh", that they had been introduced to using the "Phonics Stories" activity described in this paper.

The activities follow communicative-based language learning principles and encourage autonomous learning through peer interaction. These activities give students incentive to learn and encourage frequent L2 output, two qualities that are missing in many EFL/ESL classrooms. Furthermore, the storytelling aspect makes the language use relevant to students, and this emotional connection should make it easier for students to remember the new language they encounter.

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Culture, Identity, and the Native-English-Speaking EFL Teacher in Japan

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For native-English-speaking teachers in Japan, our cultural background underpins how we teach English and also how we see ourselves as teachers. Far from being a fixed, static phenomenon, our teacher identity is formed and reformed by numerous contextual and discursive factors. These include our previous experiences as learners, our cultural Othering compared to Japanese teachers and learners, and the roles that we fulfil (and are expected to fulfil) as teachers. One such role is that of teacher of culture. However, essentialised views about culture and uncertainty about what and whose culture we should teach often leads to problems (and problematic cultural representations) in the classroom. As native-English-speaking teachers, our role as teachers of culture involves emphasising the pluralist nature of ‘Western’ culture. This includes attempting to address the potential marginalisation of non-Caucasian cultural narratives.

日本の英語を母国語とする教師にとって、我々の文化的背景が、英語の教え方及び我々が知るところの教師としての我々自身をどう判断するか的基础となっている。定着し変化がない現象とは程遠く、教師のアイデンティティは多数の文脈的かつとりとめのない要因により形成、再形成されている。それらの要因は我々の学生時代の経験、日本人教師や生徒と比較しての差別化、そして教師として全うすべき役割が含まれている。なかでも文化教育としての役割だ。然しながら、狭い視野や教えるべき文化について不確かな情報は授業中に問題になり得る。文化を教える役割を担った英語を母国語とする教師として、我々の役割は西洋文化の多元的性質を強調する事に関わっている。この役割には非白人文化の将来的な排斥が含まれている。

Whereas culture was once largely associated with matters of ethnicity/nationality or art, it is now used to describe a broad range of social phenomena (fan culture, workplace culture, school culture, and so on). Culture is ever-present in EFL teaching, and it affects not only how teachers view themselves as teachers, but also the kinds of teaching practices they engage in. As Duff and Uchida (1997) highlight:

Mathieson P. (2016). Culture, identity, and the Native-English-Speaking EFL teacher in Japan. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 107-113). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Whether they are aware of it or not, language teachers are very much involved in the transmission of culture, and each selection of videos, newspaper clippings, seating plans, activities, and so on has social, cultural, and educational significance (p. 476).

Defining “culture” precisely is difficult, but the notion of culture as representing group-level-negotiated perceptions and assumptions about how the world is or should be is a common view (Barker & Galasinski, 2001; Norton, 1997). Yet, as Leung, Harris and Rampton (1997) highlight, generalising about the culture of a particular group (such as along ethnic

lines) contains inherent danger, because the world is not divided into neatly defined, uniform linguistic and cultural groups. Thus, it is highly problematic to posit that a British EFL teacher shares the same culture as an Australian EFL teacher, even though both speak the same language; and it is equally problematic to suggest that a Caucasian American EFL teacher and a Hispanic American EFL teacher share the same culture, notwithstanding that both are American. One of the themes that will emerge in this paper is that, in relation to EFL teaching in Japan, culture should be conceptualised in a “pluralist” (Bhabha, 1994, p. 8), multidimensional, non-essentialised sense, which takes account of both intercultural differences (for example, between Japan and ‘the West’) and intracultural differences (such as between French Canadians and English Canadians).

With the foregoing in mind, the focusing questions of this paper are how culture influences classroom practices in Japanese EFL classrooms, and how this in turn affects the identity of native-English-speaking teachers (NESTs) working in Japan. A key element underpinning both questions is the notion of native-speakerism (Holliday, 2006), and particularly the widely-held perception in Japan that NESTs – who are conceptualised as cultural Others in relation to Japanese non-native-English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) and students – are the ideal English language teachers (Geluso, 2013; Rivers, 2011a).

Native-Speakerism within the Japanese EFL Context

Debate about what (or rather who) constitutes a native-speaker is a very contentious issue. For the purposes of this paper (and with particular regard to the Japanese EFL context), I define NESTs to be people hailing from one of Kachru’s (1986) Inner Circle countries (for a fuller discussion of the complexities surrounding native-speakerism, see Davies, 1991, 2003 and Medgyes, 2004). This contextualised definition of NEST is reflected in the make-up of the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme, which is the principal provider of non-Japanese English teachers within the Japanese public school system. As of 2010, over 90% of teachers working in the JET

Programme were NESTs from Inner Circle countries, including roughly 50% from America alone (CLAIR, 2010). And although Japanese public schools now employ increasing numbers of English teachers from Expanding and Outer Circle countries, NESTs are widely regarded as ideal models of and resources for teaching English. Holliday (2006) illustrates this point:

Native-speakerism is ... characterized by the belief that ‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology (p. 385).

This characterisation results in the ‘Othering’ of NESTs, who are positioned as binary opposites of NNESTs and students. NESTs, as members of the English language ‘in-group’, are perceived to possess unique knowledge of pragmalinguistic, sociolinguistic, and cultural English norms, in addition to mastery of communicative competencies such as producing fluent, connected speech. In contrast, NNESTs, as members of the ‘out-group’, are seen to be trained analysts and expounders of English as a “static code” (Geluso, 2013, p. 103), whose principal area of expertise is in linguistic competence (understanding grammar structures, and so on).

A corollary of the Othering of NESTs in Japan is the somewhat controversial notion of the ‘ideal’ NEST. Many see the employment of NESTs in Japan as a heavily racialised practice, whereby, in addition to hailing from an Inner Circle country, the ideal NEST is also Caucasian (Kubota & McKay, 2009; Rivers, 2011b; Rivers & Ross, 2013). This view not only essentialises ‘Western’ culture as a homogenous whole (Leung, Harris & Rampton, 1997), but also marginalises non-Caucasian cultural narratives (such as Maori culture in New Zealand, or Vietnamese immigrant culture in Australia).

Identity

General Theories of Identity

One of the dominant strands in the literature on identity is the idea that identity is “dynamic across

time and place” (Norton, 1997, p. 419). A key component of this dynamism is the idea that identity extends beyond the individual, and is co-constructed with others, principally through language (Duff & Uchida, 1997; Holliday, Hyde & Kullman, 2012). Tsui (2007) develops this further by positing that identity evolves through negotiation (particularly negotiation of meaning) and identification (how we relate to the environment around us, and our ‘lived’ experience of participating in and belonging to that environment).

Related to this is the notion of identities being formed and re-formed discursively. Ivanic (2006) posits that identity is constructed discursively within particular social contexts in three ways: by address (how the person is spoken to or written about), by attribution (representations made by others regarding the person’s status), and finally by affiliation (how that person relates to others). An example of this kind of discursive identity construction within the Japanese EFL context is the role of the Assistant Language Teacher, which is not only a form of address but is also a role description that is widely used in relation to NESTs working in Japan – particularly on the JET Programme.

However, this discursive element to identity construction does not represent the complete picture as far as identity construction (or identification) is concerned. As Fairclough (2003) states, “people are not only pre-positioned in how they participate in social events and texts, they are also social agents who do things, create things, change things” (p. 160). Thus, our life experience and our attitudes and views are of course also fundamental aspects of our identity construction and identification.

Teacher Identity

These negotiated, reflexive, and discursive aspects of identity construction are particularly relevant for NESTs in Japan, particularly given that many NESTs come to Japan with little or no formal teaching experience (McConnell, 2000). Accordingly, NESTs’ teaching environments and experiences in Japan have a hugely significant impact on the shaping of their teacher identities.

One of the crucial drivers in the ongoing

negotiation of teacher identity is the tension between teachers’ views about teaching on the one hand, and the teaching roles that are (sometimes unwillingly) thrust upon them on the other. Walkington (2005) sees teachers’ ideas about teaching and being a teacher as having a symbiotic relationship with the teaching roles they are expected to fulfil, noting that the “functional competencies of being a teacher are ... shaped by the individual’s evolving perspectives and philosophies of teaching” (p.54). This view is echoed by Duff and Uchida (1997), who see the construction of EFL/ESL teacher sociocultural identity as an interplay between previous learning, teaching, and cultural experiences, and contextual factors such as classroom and institutional environments.

Obviously such experiences and contextual factors will vary from teacher to teacher, as will the roles which they are expected to fulfil. There are a wide array of EFL teacher roles identified in the literature, including entertainer (Rivers, 2011b), collaborator with other teachers (Walkington, 2005; Cohen, 2008), language model and verifier of English usage (Geluso, 2013), vendor or salesperson of English (Farrell, 2011), and of course teacher of culture (Duff & Uchida, 1997). My focus in this paper is on NESTs as teachers of culture, and in particular how this role plays out in Japanese EFL classrooms, and also how it affects the construction of NESTs’ teacher identity.

Classroom Manifestations of Target Language Culture

Cultural Content Issues

What language teachers teach and their actions within the classroom are both directly and indirectly influenced by cultural norms (Duff & Uchida, 1997). This is particularly so for NESTs in Japan, most of whom are expected to teach about aspects of ‘Western’ or national culture, in addition to teaching English.

But exactly what aspects of culture are we expected to teach, and how can we combat seemingly widespread essentialised notions of ‘Western’ and national culture in Japanese EFL classrooms? I contend that it is crucial that NESTs convey to our students (and NNESTs) the multifaceted, pluralist

nature of culture. One means of doing so is providing students with opportunities to reflect on their own culture (and other cultures) by developing their critical cultural awareness, which Byram (1997) defines as “an ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one’s own and other cultures and countries” (p. 53). Such critical cultural reflection can be achieved by, for example, having students (perhaps with some teacher prompting) brainstorm commonly-held ‘outsider’ conceptions of Japan (about its culture, its people, and so on), and then discussing why they think these conceptions exist, and to what extent they agree or disagree with them.

And from that introspective, critically reflexive starting point, students could examine the nature of their own cultural assumptions and stereotypes about other cultures – such as Abrams’s (2002) ‘culture portfolio’ projects, through which students studying German as a foreign language examined particular stereotypes about Germans, Austrians, and Swiss through initial critical discussion, Internet research, and ultimately correspondence with people from the culture to which the stereotype related (via interviews, online forum discussions, and so on).

Crucially, I believe that part of this inculcation of critical cultural reflection includes dispelling essentialised views of NESTs and their culture(s), and equally importantly, addressing the marginalisation of non-Caucasian cultural narratives. As an example of the latter, teachers could implement a culture portfolio project similar to that developed by Abrams (2002), whereby student pairs or groups are required to research and give presentations about minority ethnic groups within ‘Western’ countries (for example, native-Americans, or immigrant groups such as West Indian Britons). And in order to satisfy the ‘critical’ facet of critical cultural reflection (particularly to meaningfully address actual or potential cultural stereotypes), the research phase could involve online correspondence with representatives of the minority ethnic groups, as well as members of the wider society within which those ethnic groups reside (native Americans and Caucasian Americans, for example). In these and other ways, NESTs in Japan can and should

do even more to include more disparate aspects of the target culture(s) in their lessons.

Culturally-Loaded Practices?

In addition to *what* NESTs teach, a further way in which culture impacts upon the EFL classroom dynamic (and indeed teacher identity) is in *how* NESTs teach. The communicative approach to language teaching is perhaps one such example of an arguably culturally-loaded teaching method. Specifically, Ellis (1996) highlights the emphasis that is placed on language learning processes and meaning in the communicative approach, which he contends are born out of Western values and pedagogical norms, and which he and others also claim are at odds with the preoccupation with language learning outcomes and form in many Asian EFL contexts (Ellis, 1996; Simpson, 2008; Zhang, Li & Wang, 2013).

In Japan, notwithstanding the fact that many NESTs may aspire to teach communicative English, many who are teaching at junior and senior high school level find themselves teaching English classes which focus on preparing students to pass university entrance examinations, with little emphasis on communicative English (Geluso, 2013). In such cases, NESTs should perhaps aspire to fulfil the role of “cultural mediator” (Ellis, 1996, p. 217). This involves acting as a conduit between contrasting (possibly culturally-bound) teaching methods and styles by showing understanding and empathy regarding cultural differences on the one hand, and identifying and exploiting elements of confluence on the other. For example, supplementing form-focussed instruction on how to logically present ideas in English essay writing with meaning-focussed pair and small group discussion exercises (where students generate and test ideas) is a simple and effective way of mediating between outcome- and process-oriented teaching methods.

Culture and NEST Identity

These cultural features and practices also play a crucial role in shaping NESTs’ identities as EFL teachers. NESTs are culturally Othered – as native-English-speakers, we are positioned as experts of cultural, sociolinguistic, and pragmalinguistic aspects

of English, which, as I noted earlier, contrasts with NNESTs, who are regarded as linguistic experts (given their formal English language training background).

This division of classroom roles – with NESTs effectively cast as culture experts, and NNESTs as language experts – contributes to the common perception in Japan that NESTs are not seen by their NNEST colleagues and students as ‘real’ teachers (McConnell, 2000). This is reinforced by the use of the term *Assistant Language Teacher* to describe many NESTs, and also by common experiences such as NESTs being seated separately from their NNEST colleagues. In this sense, the identity of the NEST as cultural oddity is not only co-constructed (through the interplay between our teaching environment and our relationships with our NNEST colleagues and our students), but is also a product of the way we are addressed and represented discursively.

However, underpinning this co-constructed and discursive dynamic to NEST teacher identity is our own sense of what Fairclough (2003) refers to as social agency (our background, beliefs, and so on), as well as our previous learning and teaching experiences, and our overall teaching philosophy (Duff & Uchida, 1997; Walkington, 2005). And here again culture is implicated. Thus, Carol (from Duff and Uchida’s study) chose to seat her students in a circle, which she attributed to her positive learning experiences from the alternative school that she attended in America (Duff & Uchida, 1997).

A final thought on NEST teacher identity is the importance of critical self-reflection, particularly in relation to how culture is bound up in our identity as NESTs, and how it plays out in classroom interactions (Duff & Uchida, 1997; Cohen, 2008; Farrell, 2011). Through such reflection, NESTs can develop a better understanding of their role as acculturators, and can hopefully help Japanese learners (and NNESTs) develop non-essentialised, pluralist views of target language culture (be it ‘Western’ culture generally, or NEST national culture).

Concluding remarks

Culture not only defines our identity as NESTs in Japan (we are predominantly seen as repositories

and transmitters of target language culture), but it also features prominently in classroom interactions – particularly through essentialised ideas about target language culture on the part of NNESTs and Japanese learners, and how NESTs address such issues. Reflecting on the role culture plays in the classroom and its role in shaping our NEST identity is crucial, as it will not only help us to develop a deeper understanding of what and how we teach, but it will also better equip us to negotiate our identity as NESTs (Duff & Uchida, 1997).

Finally, and with the above in mind, I hope that future research in this area brings to the fore more diverse (particularly non-Caucasian) cultural narratives. This will (hopefully) not only help to dispel the notion of the Inner Circle, Caucasian NEST as the ‘ideal’ English language teacher, but will also open up Japanese learners and NNESTs to non-essentialised, more pluralist representations of target language culture.

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An Introduction to Self-Access Learning Centers at the University Level

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Self-access Centers are a place where motivated students may study to find additional outlets for their desire to learn more and provide resources to help the students attain the goals they wish to achieve. Studies into Self-Access Centers are still not mature and the cost-performance issues are always challenging university budgets. The contributors will briefly present useful suggestions to help the student body with higher motivation and access to tools to meet their second language acquisition goals.

セルフアクセス(自己学習)センターとは、モチベーションの高い学生が自分の学力を延ばすための手段を見つけることができる場所である。また、学生が言語能力を習得するために必要な資源を用意しています。セルフアクセスセンターの効率性についての研究はまだ浅いため、費用・効果分析や妥当な予算は定めにくいことが現状である。このレポートは、モチベーションの高い学生が自分の語学習得の目標を達成するために必要な手段や資源を提案します。

Because of individual differences, language separation, and differences in teaching styles, it is difficult to determine the exact amount of time needed by an individual to acquire a second language (L2). However, researchers have tried to establish some sort of baseline for how long it takes, on average, to reach a certain level of proficiency in an L2. For example, Nakashima (2006), found that between 3,000 to 5,000 hours are necessary to achieve basic proficiency in an L2 if the learner starts from an early age. That number of hours is probably unattainable for most Japanese students. Most students in the Japanese Educational system typically receive only 740-920 hours of English classroom education by the time they graduate from high school (Hato, 2005).

How can universities get the number of hours students are exposed to an L2 up so that students can reach a basic level of proficiency in that language, be more communicative, and have more intrinsic motivation? Creating more opportunities on campus for interaction outside of class in the L2 is one way to increase the opportunities students have to speak English. Self-Access Centers (SACs) are one way that universities are doing this (Reinders & Lazarro, 2008). Self-access Centers also have the added advantages of helping students to be more motivated, to study autonomously, and to stretch themselves (Hughes, Krug, & Vye, 2011). For many students these SACs provide them with their first experience with independent study and can result in them learning many skills that they will be able to apply for the rest of their lives.

A Self-Access Center can be defined as an area open to students on campus that provides a convenient space for learning to take place independent of the teaching they receive in the classroom. It also provides

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another place where students can receive exposure to English, or other languages. Students join these centers to learn more about a topic or skill that interests them, to improve their grades, or to improve their grammatical understanding and vocabulary. Some of the SACs that the authors of this paper observed in the Kansai area also gave students guidance and advice on how to create their own self-study program.

SACs allow students to focus on both increasing their linguistic knowledge as well as improving their fluency, while at the same time encouraging them to develop effective learning strategies. The center may also provide practice with reading or writing; have grammar or vocabulary exercises available for the students to practice with; or may have the previous years' tests or exams for students to use to help them study. SACs are beneficial for students because they can provide students with assistance in areas that the students' classroom teachers may have difficulty addressing. This is because classroom teachers may not have the time to spend helping each student individually with certain problems or they may not be trained to counsel students on an individual level. Other secondary roles of SACs are to provide an encouraging learning space, applicable resources, and advisors who are sensitive to the individual needs of the students and have the ability to facilitate students' development as independent learners.

For an SAC to be successful it needs to have staff that are able to cater to the various needs and personalities of the students and the facilities to allow them to do this. The physical layout of the SAC can vary depending on the space and equipment available and the purpose of the SAC. Some SACs have places to study using multi-media sources. These centers may have DVD's, tablets, or computers that the students can make use of while visiting the SAC. Some have reading rooms where students may choose from magazines, books, graded readers, or newspapers.

The most important resource of the SAC is the staff. At the most basic level, staff members provide practice for students in both listening and speaking. The staff of the SAC are also tasked with creating a positive learning environment for the students, helping students to improve their language skills, and

giving students the assistance they require to develop as independent learners.

Development of Self-Access Centers

In the 1960's, research in English language learning and teaching tended to focus on the teaching methods rather than the learner. The change in the focus from a teacher centered to a learner-centered curriculum in the 1970's and 1980's resulted in a more humanistic approach in the English language teaching process (Morrison, 2008). As this trend deepened, students began to search for, "some personal control over either or both the planning (goals) and management (support) of the learning process" (Reinders & Lazarro, 2008). SACs are one way that universities can provide students with more control over their own learning process.

SACs can find their roots in the domain of resourced-based learning, which is a type of learning where the learner's focus of interaction is with the learning resources. The students are given the resources to learn in the manner of their choosing outside of the teaching/classroom environment. One important part of the 'self-access' aspect of this learning style is that these SACs further develop the progression of the learner's autonomy by giving them opportunities to exercise their intrinsic motivation to acquire an L2 outside the classroom without having to worry about the connected burdens of grades and meeting instructor's expectations.

Close integration with teachers of foreign language classes, international students, and the corresponding center for International Studies is also key to the success of the SAC. When these various entities are well connected, the staff members of the SAC are able to work with language teachers to provide tasks or homework to help students overcome the fear that they may experience when attempting to communicate in a foreign language outside of the classroom setting. Without the structure that exists in the EFL classroom, many students are unsure about how to communicate in English. However, the ability to experience the freedom of communicating in an L2 outside of classroom constraints is key to forcing the students to confront their paradigm of language

learning, and allows them to experience first hand how languages can be used to communicate and relate ideas.

There are a number of things that a teacher can do to help ensure that their students make use of the SAC in ways that will create a positive experience for each individual student. For example, passports could be made to record students' attendance in the SAC and the record could be shown to the teacher for rewards. Classes can also be brought to the SAC facilities for an introduction to the services that are offered by the center. Having students go to the SAC as part of the class will help to familiarize them with how the SAC works. This increased familiarity could then, in turn, make them more likely to attend the SAC on their own, even when they are no longer required to do so for class.

Of course, using such extrinsic motivation is not in itself 'self' access, but training students to feel relaxed often stokes the fire of intrinsic motivation. Scaffolding between classes and the SAC can bring a quasi-outside of class experience that may lead to students being more motivated to study a language outside of class.

Assessment is Still a Work in Progress

As research on SAC is still in its infancy, deciding how to assess the centers has brought to light some of the difficulties in measuring success in this type of educational setting. The difficulties inherent in measure the success of these centers can be problematic because various parties within the university system with vested interest in SAC would like to see results that prove it is a cost effective and time effective approach to learning.

The difficulty in assessing the success of SAC is that these centers can be examined on multiple levels. Measuring the gains students make from accessing the center is difficult at best. It is difficult to determine if the gains that students make in their L2 learning after going to a SAC is because of the opportunities afforded to the students by the school, or because of the students motivation to learn the language. Gardner and Miller (1999) suggest some ways of evaluating the effectiveness of the SAC such as:

- Asking learners which facilities they used most
- Asking staff about their work at the SAC and the learners there
- Conducting observations of the facilities and student interactions
- Giving out questionnaires to a random sample of users to find out why they use the SAC.

One other way of measuring the success of the SAC is to see the roles it played on campus and how it fulfilled those roles. Some of the roles include the use of a SAC as a language and independent learning center, as a learner support area, as a resource center, or as an enabling center. While the other roles may be more clearly defined the role of a SAC as an enabling center is one that is often overlooked. According to Morrison (2008), the enabling role is one where the center will act as a catalyst for the development of independent learning skills and encourage further experimentation and enhancement to language learning skills.

Other research provides other suggestions as to how a SAC can be evaluated. Reinders (2005) emphasizes the need for teachers and staff to stress to students the importance of learning these self-access skills and being proactive. He suggests that giving school credits to students for their effort in the SAC may help improve student involvement in SACs as they would perceive the credit as recognition of their time spent and this would encourage them to invest more time and effort in coming to the language center. This may also, in turn, lead to higher motivation levels from the language center participants, which would keep the effort of the staff who are involved with the running of the SAC from going to waste. Reinders continues to suggest that students may benefit from staff teaching students how to study to become more of an independent learner.

The ability to measure the success of SACs is not ready to be labeled tried and true. The SAC is not a regular part of curriculum; student participation is 100% voluntary, so students study at their own pace and on their own volition. In this respect the very fact that students have this facility available to them and that they are willing to use it shows that an SAC

is succeeding. However, further research needs to be done on how a SAC operates and how it interacts with the process of learning if we are to be able to provide a more concrete method of evaluating the success of SACs.

Self-Access Center Success Stories

Much of the previous research on SAC has included surveys, interviews, questionnaires, and evaluations given to students. Students who are willing to put the extra effort into learning have insightful comments on how the centers have changed their lives. Morrison (2008) interviewed individuals who were participants in a SAC at a Hong Kong tertiary institution language center about their ideas with regards to the roles of a SAC. By looking at how different stakeholder roles view the purpose of a SAC we can better understand how to evaluate the success of SACs.

One learner gave his reason for visiting the SAC, "...when I find there is something I need to use in English and then I will go to the centre to find things out" (Morrison, 2008, p. 129). For this learner the SAC fulfills the role of resource center, and it is possible to see how a SAC could be a source of resource based learning and independent learning skills for students.

Other ways that SAC are measured are through the staff and their comments on their interactions with the students. One staff mentioned on how the SAC will further students' learning strategies, "... I think the more that students experiment with things, the more they learn about themselves, strategies that are suitable for themselves, the ways they like to learn..." (Morrison, 2008, p. 130).

The SAC at Osaka Gakuin University

The authors of this paper have been involved in research into SAC at the universities where they work. This includes an unpublished survey of 129 freshman students at Osaka Gakuin University in 2013 near the end of their first academic year. The SAC at Osaka Gakuin University is open every day and the students are encouraged to use the facilities any time they are free. Students' top three reasons for attending the SAC were first to talk with native English speakers, second to enjoy learning English through enjoyable activities, and third, in order to improve their TOEIC scores (see Figure 1). Having this knowledge let the SAC staff prepare materials for the students that were better catered to these needs.

On the same survey the staff asked about the students' career goals concerning English and their

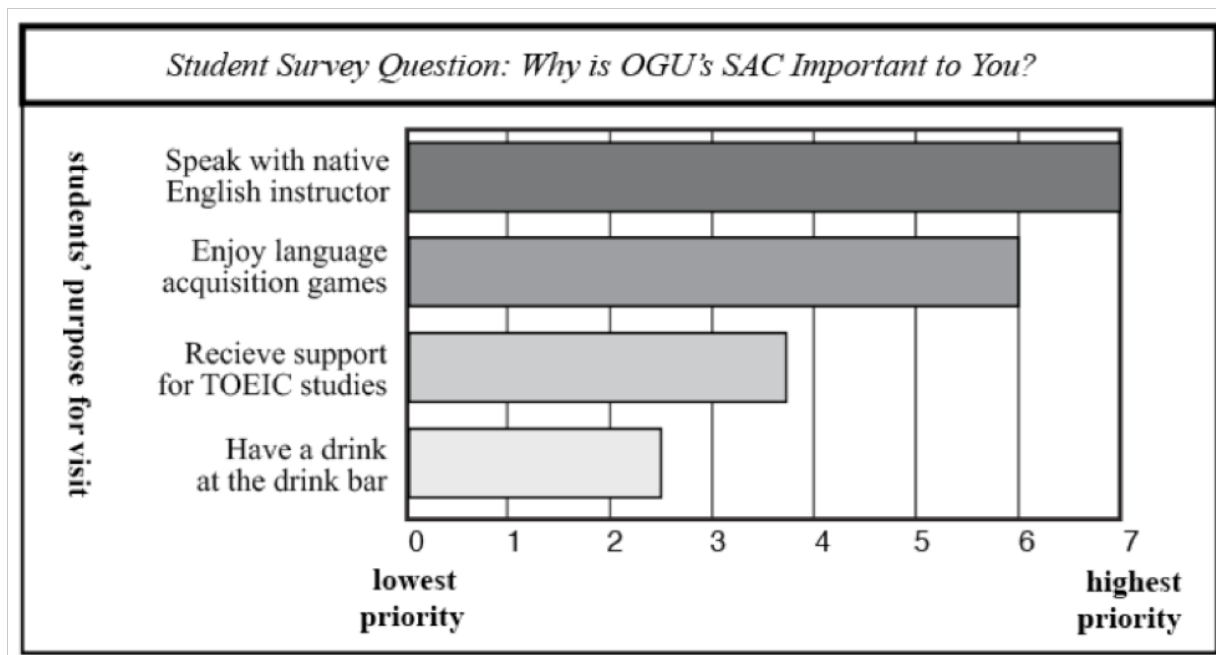


Figure 1. Student answers to survey question "Why is OGU's SAC Important to You?"

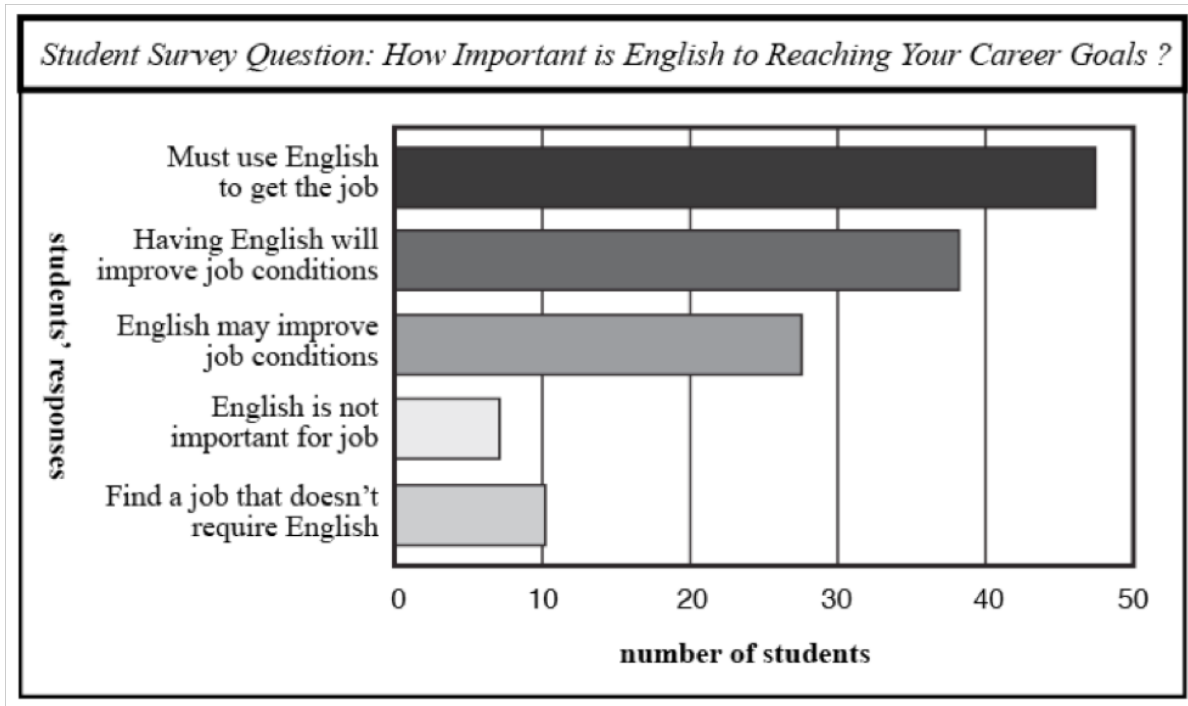


Figure 2. Student Answers to Survey Question “How Important is English to Reaching Your Career Goals?”

future jobs. Many students recognize certain career paths require better English communicative skills than those they can obtain in their limited English classes. Some students travel abroad on exchange programs or study at English conversation schools outside of their regular classes, but those are both costly options. Considering the fact that the SAC’s services are offered to the students for free, many students understand the SAC as an invaluable resource. The majority of the students who attended the SAC, 85 of the 129 freshman students, recognized the fact that the extra English conversation practice and advice provided by the staff would help better themselves for more rewarding future job opportunities (see Figure 2).

SACs in Kansai

One way to understand the benefits offered by SAC is to visit one. The following is a list of SAC facilities in the Kansai area of Japan. Several of these facilities will, by appointment, introduce their system, as well as answer questions for those considering creating a SAC.

- O-Zone at The Cube – Konan University, Nishinomiya Campus. <http://www.konan-cube.com/>
- The Village E³ [e-cube] – Kinki University, Higashi Osaka Campus. <http://www.kindai.ac.jp/>

[english/campus/facilities.html](http://www.osaka-gu.ac.jp/english/campus/facilities.html)

- The International Chat Lounge – Osaka Gakuin University. <http://www.osaka-gu.ac.jp/english/campus/ichat/>

For more information on SAC at Japanese schools and institutions nationwide, please check the JASAL website for a database of SAC which is freely available to the public (<https://jasalorg.wordpress.com/lls-registry/>). JASAL is the Japan Association for Self-Access Learning. While their list has SAC registered from all over Japan, the list is only partial.

Conclusion

With the growth of the number of L2 learners around the world, support for these students has become increasingly important at the university level.

As research into SACs is still in its infancy there is no clear scale by which the success, or failure, of a SAC can be judged. Because of this many universities are reluctant to invest the time and resources needed to establish and maintain a SAC at their institution. However, the benefits of providing this type of service for students may not be that easy to quantify. In the literature, the majority of the authors expressed trepidation, or the need for further research, on how to measure the success of SAC. Lumping students

into one group as in a survey or some other latitudinal study does not do justice to the independent work each student accomplishes and the effort they make to take part in something outside of class. Success can be measured in test scores, but can also be measured in student satisfaction, changed lives, and a growth in independent learning. Success could be as simple as providing a place that supports learners in their lifelong linguistic endeavors.

SAC will have a part to play in L2 acquisition as their use becomes even more widespread. Students will have the opportunity to see language outside of the classroom; not as a subject or something to be learned, but rather as something to be used to get to know another person and to communicate with others. Having a better command of an L2 will at the same time lead to greater self-efficacy that may create the *esprit de corps* of a community of L2 users on campus.

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Understanding Japanese Language Teachers' Experiences of Failure Through Narrative Inquiry

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Through sharing narratives, two Japanese language teachers redefined their failures and inner conflicts, and came to a deeper understanding of their teaching beliefs. It was revealed that inner conflict, with its resultant unpleasant feelings, was created by 'sacred stories' (Clandinin & Connelly, 1996), lying deep in teachers' consciousness, that teacher should not make mistakes, and that relationships of mutual trust with co-workers reduced their sense of conflict. Their narratives suggest that relationships of trust between fellow teachers came to be seen as crucial in terms of their on-going teacher development. Applying narrative inquiry to teachers' recounted experiences can allow them to identify sacred stories which cause inner conflict and the necessary steps needed for their future development through reflecting on their situations. It may be said that reflecting on their narratives of teaching practice is a crucial component of teachers' professional development.

本稿ではナラティブがもたらした教師の実践知への影響について検討する。2名の日本語教師と筆者とで行った語り合いは、それぞれが抱えていた失敗と葛藤の捉え直し、教師の役割や教育の捉え方を知る機会をもたらした。また、不快感情を伴う葛藤は、教師は間違えるべきではないという教師の意識の奥深くにある「聖なる物語」(Clandinin & Connelly, 1996)が原因となって生じていること、教師間の信頼関係があれば、その葛藤が軽減されることが明らかとなった。そして、この同僚間の信頼関係は2名のそれぞれの異なる経験の振り返りから、教師の成長にとって重要であることが示唆されている。ナラティブ・インクワイアリーによる振り返りは、現状の問題を見直すことで、葛藤をもたらす聖なる物語の同定を可能にするだけでなく、今後の成長に必要な環境についての指摘を生み出した。教師の成長には日々の実践を過去の経験を含むナラティブを通して内省することが重要であると言える。

This is a narrative inquiry study into how Japanese language teachers deal with the negative feelings resulting from failures in their teaching practice. Teachers' experiences and the stories they tell about them form part of their "professional knowledge landscape" (Connelly & Clandinin, 1995), which in

turn has an effect on their emotions and professional practice. Talking about and listening to these kinds of stories of practice with co-workers is one of the ways to promote teacher development (Hargreaves, 1994). Teachers' feelings about their practice have an influence on their perception, thinking, and overall development (Hargreaves, 2000). Emotional events that generate negative feelings such as dissatisfaction, resentment, pain, and uneasiness remain especially strongly in teachers' memories. Sharing these events with others might further a teacher's development (Day & Leich, 2001).

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Clandinin & Connelly (1996) divide teachers' stories into three categories: 1) 'sacred stories' — stories which lie deep in teachers' consciousness and which form the basis of their practice, 2) 'cover stories' — stories told outside the classroom to demonstrate their competence as teachers, 3) 'secret stories' — stories lived out in their own classroom. In the context of Japanese as a Second Language (JSL) teacher education, Aoki (2009) claims that sharing 'secret stories' and other types of story between trusted teachers changes their perspectives on practice, which in turn will lead to teacher development. Moreover, Aoki (2010) suggests that JSL teachers use a small-scale narrative inquiry to try and identify 'cover stories' told to protect themselves (and perhaps even aggressively put down others), and free themselves and others from the 'sacred stories' of the all-knowing never-erring teacher.

Narrative Inquiry into the Experiences of Two Teachers of Japanese as a Second Language

I began this research after observing that a colleague, Hiroko (pseudonym), was visibly upset after a class and, after talking about it, it became apparent that she was experiencing some internal conflict. Conflict is defined as a situation arising when we have divergent perspectives on a problem and it occurs both externally and internally. Conflict arising from playing the role of teacher can lead to mental and physical fatigue or cause burnout (Tanaka & Takagi, 2008). It is necessary to support teachers who are experiencing mental fatigue in order to avoid teacher burnout (Kinoshita, 2009). Firstly, we need to understand the situation that the teacher is involved in. According to Rushton (2004), narrative in the form of stories is a powerful research tool in educational settings because teachers' knowledge is narrative knowledge created and constructed through stories of lived experiences (Bruner, 1986). Narrative inquiry provides a means to understand teacher experience (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) and "a rich back drop for understanding the contextualized situations in which teachers come to know what they know and make the decisions that they do" (Sudtho, Singhasiri

& Jimarkon, 2014, p. 453). Moreover, Connelly and Clandinin (2000) state that through narrative inquiry, teacher's knowledge is positioned along each of three-dimensional spaces, which are temporal (past, present, and future), personal or existential, and place.

Following the above, I conducted this research to hopefully make opportunities to explore teachers' inner conflict and development by re-positioning them along three dimensions. In this paper, I would like to share two teachers' narratives that were co-constructed with me, elaborating on how this narrative inquiry into their experiences of failure and internal conflict promoted their teacher development.

Participants and Context

Both participants teach Japanese as a second language for overseas students at universities in Japan. I became acquainted with the participants as colleagues who provided Japanese lessons during our time working together for three years at a university in the Kansai area. In this intensive program, teachers provided four and a half hours of classes per day, five days a week. Each language class was tiered according to ability and consisted of about 20 students. We have been on good terms with each other within and outside the work place. The reason why I selected them is that 'secret stories', including emotional events, must be shared with trusted people in a safe environment (Clandinin & Connelly, 1996).

The first participant is Hiroko (pseudonym). She majored in law at university, but after taking a Japanese language education class, she became interested in teaching Japanese. After graduating from university, she went to China to teach Japanese for two years. After returning to Japan, she entered graduate school to study Japanese language teaching, and since then she has been teaching Japanese to international students at various universities and language institutions for nine years.

The second participant is Toshi (pseudonym). He studied English at a university and while majoring in English, he went to Australia as an exchange student gaining some experience in teaching Japanese. After returning to Japan, he also went to graduate school to major in Japanese language teaching. After graduate

school, he moved to Korea to teach Japanese at a university. He came back after two years, and has been teaching Japanese language at various universities for six years.

Methodology

Two interviews were conducted face-to-face individually for about 90 minutes each. Before the first interview, I informed them about the purpose of the research, which was to examine how and why inner struggles stemming from the experience of failure affects teachers' practice and development. I conducted the interviews in Japanese at a quiet café where the atmosphere was comfortable enough to ensure that we felt free to talk about their experiences. The interview was audiotaped and transcribed. I translated all of the quotations used below from Japanese into English. I started the interviews with questions about their teaching experience, focusing on topics such as the experience of failure, recent classroom practice, and pivotal events. In addition, I encouraged them to reflect on all of their experiences including memories of our teachers when they were children because it is necessary to look at the outside classroom world to understand teachers' knowledge (Clandinin & Connelly, 1995). After the first interview, I sent them an e-mail detailing my analysis to confirm whether I had understood them correctly or not. After about three weeks, I conducted a second face-to-face interview to further my analysis.

Teachers' Narratives

Narrative inquiry with Hiroko

During the first interview, Hiroko recounted a disappointing event.

I taught a wrong answer in an advanced reading class at the university. I didn't notice at that time, but I found I had made the mistake when my co-worker, Mrs. K, asked me what I had taught the students as the correct answer. Two excellent learners went to K-sensei to confirm whether my answer was right or not. Then K-sensei told me that I might have made a mistake, and I was really really shocked. I had been feeling down for a

while.

Having also had a similar experience of feeling low after teaching an incorrect answer, I shared my experience and we thought about why she had felt so depressed. However, we failed to find a satisfactory reason to explain the intensity of her negative feelings given that she had simply confused her learners. In order to find the reason, I needed to explore our sacred stories, so we first shared our teaching and learning experiences, and then the topic turned to teachers we had in our childhood. Her parents are both teachers and she had been surrounded by teachers since she was very young. It emerged that she often used to assess her teachers and now didn't want to be assessed by her students (in the same way she had done as a student). It became apparent to me that Hiroko held a sacred story that teachers must maintain good reputations. I sent her an e-mail detailing my initial analysis and she replied during the second interview:

After the first interview, I looked back and noticed that I felt blue just because I was deeply ashamed to have my mistake pointed out by K-sensei. Even though she is now one of my friends, I was embarrassed. Even though I made a mistake in the classroom, the learners didn't hate me and I haven't been badly assessed by the institution. Since I accumulated many such experiences like this over the years, I've gotten used to making mistakes and become rather numb to them. That's why I don't remember any failures that I have made in recent years. I think it can't be helped, unless there was some sort of penalty system for my mistakes.

As Hiroko reflected on her sense of failure that she had discussed in the first interview, she came up with a reason to explain why she had felt depressed. During the second interview, she pointed out a problem that she perceived as common among teachers who have taught for several years. Moreover she reflected on her practice and concluded that the problem stemmed from the relationships among teachers:

For instance, if I teach an unfamiliar subject that I have never taught before, I would ask my co-worker

how I should teach every time I experience trouble. But I won't ask anyone now because I already have teaching experience. So, I think that we should point out our colleagues' mistakes when we carry out team teaching, but actually we don't. If we don't change this situation, we will repeat the same mistake. It would be better for our development to be frank with each other.

Through our interview, she could come to terms with her 'secret stories' regarding the negative feelings arising from her recent mistake. Moreover, she thought about how to improve work issues for her future development.

Narrative Inquiry with Toshi

The mistake that really sticks in my mind is one that I made while I was in Korea. I conducted language classes without thinking about the goal of the course. I just followed what my predecessors taught me. But the more I did this, the more I regretted that I had no policy for language education. I still feel very sorry for students at that time and even now I sometimes feel like this in my classroom.

In the beginning of the interview, Toshi told me about this inner conflict. Interestingly, he often pointed out how his teachers had taught him in junior high school and what he guessed the teachers had wanted to do. At this point I noted that he seemed to pay a great deal of attention to teaching methods, and asked him what he thought a teacher should be like.

I thought that teachers must not make a mistake, should answer correctly and need to organize classes completely. I felt so much pressure. But as I got used to teaching, my focus on issues shifted to educational philosophy and purpose. I always fail in explaining Japanese grammar. I never feel I'm doing well, and I think there is no success in my language classes.

It is clear that one of Toshi's 'sacred stories' is that teachers must not make mistakes. Midway through the interview, after he recalled his failure to establish a goal for the course he was teaching, he reflected on what he thought the problem was. Then I asked him

about his practice in more detail.

I was so disappointed. For example, when I couldn't explain the difference between similar words, but it was ok. I forget that kind of negative feeling soon because I can explain again in the next lesson, or ask my co-workers to correct my explanation. Rather, I have gotten to a place where I know I will be able to handle it well next time.

I paid attention to the 'co-workers' he mentioned because I had discussed teacher relationships with Hiroko before this interview. I told him that if he had a good relationship with his co-workers, then he would not have to worry, even if he did something wrong. I asked more deeply about the relationship with his co-workers, and then Toshi went on to describe it like this:

At the university I worked at, almost all of my co-workers were senior teachers. That makes me feel at ease to work there. And there are no vertical relationships, novice teachers and experienced teachers, part time teachers and full time teachers are all equal. Even experienced teachers are so humble that I can ask them something easily. I wonder if this is based on a relationship of trust. I couldn't really articulate this exact nature of our relationship but now I think about it, I think it was based on trust. You're right. You taught me that we trust each other. We have some meetings to prepare textbooks and to study, so I realized that we have relationship of trust. This is so interesting that I think I'm going to tell them. Maybe I changed like this because of the situation I worked in. We need this for our development.

He looked back on his teaching experience and noticed his ideas about language education have been changing as he develops relationships among co-workers. Our discussion could lead to finding that the trust and equitable relationships built between co-workers at his work place gave him opportunities to resolve his errors and reduce any resulting inner conflict. We can see that this reflection was a significant part of his on-going teacher development through narrative inquiry.

Conclusion

By conducting narrative inquiry into two participants' experiences of failure, they could reflect and re-conceptualize their practice in terms of their own past experiences, extract their problems from their context and examine what they would need for future development. Looking across the two narratives, I can identify some common problems Japanese language teachers encounter.

1) Inner conflict related to 'sacred stories' lying deep within teachers' consciousness

Both teachers have suffered from inner conflict when they made an error, affected by the 'sacred story' that teachers never make mistakes. They reflected on these errors, not as isolated incidents, but as stemming from their meta-level pedagogic approach. They became able to resolve errors they made while teaching quickly and almost automatically as they acquired knowledge and teaching skills through practice. However, this did not solve their inner conflict. Fundamentally, from the point of view of teacher development, it was necessary for them to reveal their 'sacred stories' that caused their inner conflict to be extracted and they could subsequently reflect upon their experiences outside of the classroom.

2) Inner conflict reduced by the relationship of trust with co-workers

Hiroko drew the conclusion that teachers need to build a relationship of trust from her unpleasant experience, as mentioned above. A teaching community consists of relationships between co-workers and is a professional learning community (Hord, 1997) where teachers can learn and develop as Toshi's narrative proved. Both of them have taught for several years and are thus neither novice teachers who need advice, nor professional teachers who are expected to give advice. They are, from a professional development point of view, more isolated than novice and professional teachers. They need more professional connections with co-workers or need to be actively involved in professional learning communities.

In conclusion, narrative inquiry provided teachers with a chance to reappraise their practice as they reconstructed their teaching histories and transformed these experiences into better future practice. Between

trusted teachers in a safe place, 'secret stories' are difficult to some extent to be shared because 'secret stories' are perceived in teachers' perspective affected by 'sacred stories', and might be easily transformed into 'cover stories' when being told to others. If teachers share their 'secret stories', they unconsciously reflect on their own experiences in the context of 'sacred stories' and then rationalize them for self-preservation to convey to other teachers. 'Sacred stories' lying deep in teachers' consciousness persistently influence their perceptions of teaching practice, therefore, sharing 'secret stories' must uncover what 'sacred stories' lie behind them. Through this type of sharing, teachers can reflect their own practice free from negative feelings and thereby further their professional development.

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The “I Have Seen It, but Don’t Know It” Yes-No Vocabulary Test Option

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Yes-no vocabulary (YN) tests offer two options: yes (I know it) or no. Although pseudowords were introduced to deal with the problem of overestimation of lexical knowledge commonly found in this format, previous research has shown that underestimation also occurs. The aim of this study is explore a third (I have seen it, but I don’t know it) option designed to capture underestimation. Undergraduates (n =303) knowledge of 10 words measured by a translation (L2 to L1) test was compared to their responses on a YN test of the same items, in order to identify instances of over- and underestimation. The translation mean of 6.57 was higher than the YN mean of 6.27, suggesting overall underestimation on the YN test. Direct comparison of the two tests found that 92.5% of all instances of underestimation occurred with the “I have seen it, but ...” option (283 of 306).

Yes-no語彙テストではyes (私はこの単語を知っている) またはnoの2つの選択肢が用いられている。疑似語は、この形式でよく見られる語彙知識の過大評価問題に対処するために導入されたにもかかわらず、過小評価もまた生じることがこれまでの研究で示されてきた。本研究の目的は、過小評価を捉えるために考案された第三 (私はこの単語を見たことはあるが、意味は知らない) の選択肢について調査することである。翻訳(L2からL1)テストによって測定された大学生(303名)の10語の語彙知識は、過小評価と過大評価について確認するため、同じ項目のYN語彙テストにおける彼らの回答と比較された。翻訳テスト結果の平均は6.57であり、YN語彙テスト結果の平均6.27より高く、全体にYN語彙テストにおける過小評価が示された。2つの調査結果の直接比較では、過小評価の全回答数の92.5%が “I have seen it, but ...” の選択肢(回答数306のうち283)で生じたことが分かった。

Yes-no checklist tests rely on students self-reporting their knowledge of the items presented by either checking the words they know or selecting between two options, either a “yes” (I know this word) or “no” (I do not know it). One of the weaknesses of such self-reporting that has been identified is the participants’

tendency to over-estimate their actual word knowledge by signaling “yes” when in actuality they do not know the correct meaning. To counter-act this tendency to over-estimate lexical knowledge, pseudowords were introduced to the self-report format by Anderson and Freebody (1983), and to the field of second/foreign language acquisition by Meara and Buxton (1987). To better adjust yes-no (YN) test scores to account for such overestimation various scoring formulae, using the pseudoword data, have been introduced (Anderson and Freebody, 1983; Meara and Buxton, 1987; Meara, 1997; Huijbregtse, Admiraal & Meara, 2002), as have

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TABLE 1
Previous Studies Focusing on Overestimation and Underestimation

Study	criterion measure	overestimation	underestimation
Eyckmans (2004)	Trans. (L2 to L1)	30.6% - 48.0%	12.0% - 25.4%
Mochida & Harrington (2006)	MC test (VLT)	5.4%	6.4%
Stubbe (2012)	MC test	4.5%	21.23%
Stubbe (2014)	Trans. (L2 to L1)	24.6% - 25.8%	0.07% - 4.4%

Note: Trans. denotes translation test. VLT denotes Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1990; versions 1 and 2, designed by Schmitt, Schmitt & Clapham, 2001).

correction formulas based on multiple regression (Stubbe and Stewart, 2012; Stubbe, 2013). However, overestimation is not the only weakness of the self-report format. Huibregtse, Admiraal and Meara (2002) explain that the format assumes that either a participant either really knows the word or she/he does not. "This assumption does not allow for various degrees of knowing, apart from perfect knowledge and absence of knowledge" (Huibregtse, Admiraal & Meara, 2002, p. 232). It has been demonstrated that low-level Japanese university students often possess partial word knowledge (Stubbe, 2014), which might go unmeasured by the usual two-choice YN checklist test format. In addition to partial word knowledge, uncertain word knowledge can also lead to some test-takers selecting "no" (I do not know this word) to items which they actually do know the meaning of. This is referred to as an underestimation and, unlike overestimation, nothing has yet been devised to account for underestimation in the YN testing format.

Prior studies focusing on overestimation and underestimation in YN tests

A number of researchers have investigated overestimation as well as underestimation of lexical knowledge on the self-report checklist format by comparing participants' results from a YN test with a criterion measure such as a subsequent multiple-choice (MC) test or a translation test of the same items. Eyckmans (2004), in a series of experiments comparing YN results with a subsequent L2 to L1 translation test with low-intermediate Belgian French-speaking learners of Dutch, reported

overestimation rates (self-report "yes" matched with an incorrect translation) between 30.6% and 48%, with underestimation (self-report "no" matched with a correct translation) rates ranging from 12.0% through 25.4% (see Table 1). Comparing self-report results with a subsequent MC test, the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1990; versions 1 and 2, designed by Schmitt, Schmitt & Clapham, 2001), Mochida and Harrington (2006) reported overestimation rates of 5.4%, and underestimation rates of 6.4% for their high-proficiency learners. This greater amount of underestimation can be viewed as a result of the MC test being an easier than format than the translation test (Laufer and Goldstein, 2004). Similarly comparing self-report results with a subsequent MC test, but with lower-proficiency learners in Japan, Stubbe (2012) reported an underestimation rate that greatly surpassed the overestimation rate (21.3% versus 4.5%, respectively). More recently Stubbe (2014) compared YN results with an L2 to L1 translation test, again with lower-proficiency Japanese university students. Overestimation rate for that study's loanwords were slightly lower than for the non-loanwords (24.6% and 25.8%, respectively), while underestimation was significantly greater for the loanwords (4.4% versus .07%, respectively).

Finally, Pellicer-Sanchez and Schmitt (2012), confirming Laufer and Goldstein (2004), found slight underestimation overall when YN scores were compared to MC results, but none when compared to translation test results. The above studies provide no clear consensus on the degree of underestimation commonly found in YN vocabulary tests.

Research Question

The purpose of the present research was to determine the possibility of assessing the partial or uncertain word knowledge which causes underestimation of lexical knowledge commonly found in the YN checklist test by introducing a third option to the format. In addition to the usual “Yes” (I know this word), and “No” (I do not know this word) options; this short study explored the inclusion of a third choice: the “I have seen it, but don’t know it” option. The research question is: Can the “I have seen it, but don’t know it” be of use in determining the amount of underestimation found in a YN test?

Method

Sample and Research Context

The sample consisted of first year and second year undergraduate students ($n = 303$) of mixed majors, studying English as a compulsory subject, at a private university in southern Japan.

Item Selection

Five loanwords and five non-loanwords were chosen from the university’s wordlist: 1600 words from the most frequent 2000 words of the English language, as presented by the *Longman English-Japanese Dictionary* (Bullon, 2007). Based on the item difficulty estimates found in Gibson and Stewart (2011), five loanword – non-loanword pairs of comparable difficulty were selected (see Table 2.). Item difficulty means for the loanwords were -.81 and -.73 for the non-loanwords (negative figures are easier). A *t*-test revealed that the

difference was not statistically significant ($t = .878, df = 4, p = .430$). The effect size (Cohen, 1988) was also very small ($d = .071$), confirming that the loanwords were on average only slightly easier than the non-loanwords.

Testing Procedure and Evaluation

A testing instrument was developed which contained three parts. For each word students were asked to: A) self-report their knowledge using the YN format containing three choices: (1) I don’t know it; (2) I have seen it, but I don’t know the meaning; or (3) I know it; B) write two meanings for each item; and C) write one sentence for each definition they had written. Students were encouraged to try to write definitions and sentences for all words. Participants were not made aware of the presence of loanwords in the item list as this may have encouraged them to select “(3) I know it” in the self-report section for words they did not actually know, then simply provide katakana transcriptions in the translation section. The test took between five and fifteen minutes for students to complete. All test taking was undertaken during regular class time. The short length of the test (10 items) was chiefly due to the depth of the test and the “in class” nature of the study. As students were asked to write full sentences for each word, the variance in completion time was substantial. Finally, as participants were aware of the translation and sentence generation requirements prior to commencing the test, they may have been more conservative than they would have been on a YN test without these additional

TABLE 2
Item Difficulty for Loanwords and Non-Loanwords

Loanword	Item Difficulty	Non-loanword	Item Difficulty
address	-1.79	Send	-1.73
original	-1.93	Choose	-1.64
Cover	-1.18	Law	-1.01
Suit	0.79	Meaning	0.52
balance	0.06	Result	0.23
Mean	-0.81	Mean	-0.73
SD	1.19	SD	1.05

obligations. This conservatism likely increased the amount of underestimation while decreasing the amount of overestimation of lexical knowledge in the self-report section. The self-report section was graded using an optical scanner. The translation section was graded by one of the co-authors who is a native Japanese speaker with a high level of English proficiency. A word was considered known in this section, and awarded one point, if one or both of the translations were correct.

Results and Discussion

Means, standard deviations (SD) and reliabilities for both sections of the research instrument are presented in Table 3. Overall, students reported knowing a mean of 6.27 of the 10 words on the self-report section. The second section, translation results, had a higher mean at 6.57, suggesting that the students were conservatively under-estimating their knowledge on the self-report

section. A paired *t*-test revealed that the difference between the two means was statistically significant ($t = 2.259$, $df = 302$, $p = .025$, two-tailed). However, the effect size of the difference was small ($d = .104$). The reliability of the self-report section (.90) showed good internal consistency, which is generally perceived as acceptable at approximately Cronbach's Alpha = .7 (Devellis, 2012). The reliability for the translation section was lower at .78. This can be attributed chiefly to the limited number of items. The "I have seen it, but ..." option was selected more than four times as often than the "I don't know it option", possibly suggesting that the students had partial knowledge of the items, or were uncertain of the accuracy of their knowledge.

Table 4 presents a direct comparison of the self-report and translation results for all 10 items and 303 participants, which allows for determination of overestimation and underestimation of word knowledge on the self-report test. Overestimation

TABLE 3
Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), and Reliability for Each Section of the Research Instrument ($n = 303$, $k = 10$ items)

	Mean	SD	reliability
Self-Report			.90
3. I know it.	6.27	3.36	
2. I have seen it, but ...	3.00	2.91	
1. I don't know it.	0.73	1.76	
Translation	6.58	2.54	.78

Note: Reliability is Cronbach's alpha.

TABLE 4
Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), and Reliability for Each Section of the Research Instrument ($n = 303$, $k = 10$ items)

Self-report result	overall	correct translation	incorrect translation
I know it.	1899 (62.7%)	1688 (55.7%) confirmed known	211 (7.0%) overestimation
I have seen it, but ...	911 (30.1%)	283 (9.3%) underestimation	628 (20.7%) confirmed unknown
I don't know it	220 (7.3%)	23 (0.8%) underestimation	197 (6.5%) confirmed unknown
Overall	3030 (100%)	1994 (65.8%)	1036 (34.2%)

Note: percents are based on full 3030 incidents (303 students X 10 items), rounding-off errors exist.

occurred when an “I know it” on the self-report test was matched with an “Incorrect translation”. Underestimation occurred when either an “I have seen it, but ...” or “I don’t know it” was matched with a correct answer on the translation test. The overestimation rate of 7% seems low compared to Eyckmans (2004; 30.6% - 48.0%) and Stubbe (2014; 24.6% - 25.8%), which also featured a translation test as the criterion measure. The combined underestimation rate of 10.1% (306 of 3030) is greater than this 7% overestimation rate, and close to the 12% reported in Eyckmans (2004). That underestimation exceeds overestimation was not previously observed with translation test criterion measures (Eyckmans, 2004; Stubbe, 2014), but was with the easier multiple-choice criterion measures (Mochida & Harrington, 2006; Stubbe, 2012).

The percentage of selections of the “I have seen it, but I don’t know it” option followed by a correct translation of the item (underestimation) is substantially higher than for selections of the “I don’t know it” option followed by a correct translation. It appears as if adding the “I have seen it, but I don’t know it” option to the YN checklist format is useful for capturing partial, or uncertain, word knowledge. A full 92.5% of all instances of underestimation occurred with the “I have seen it, but ...” option (283 of 306). Put another way, while 283 of the 911 uses of the “I have seen it, but I don’t know it” option were followed by a correct translation (31%), only 10% of the uses of “I don’t know it” were (23 of 220).

Conclusion

This study has been a short exploration into the possible usefulness of including the “I have seen it, but I don’t know it” option into the standard two-choice YN checklist test format. Low-level Japanese university students ($n = 303$) sat a three option YN self-report test followed immediately by a translation (L2 to L1) test of the same 10 items. Mean test scores were higher on the translation test, suggesting that the students had under-estimated their knowledge on the YN test. Overall, underestimation was found to be greater than overestimation (10.1% versus

7.0%, respectively). It was also found that 92.5% of the underestimation was captured by the new “I have seen it, but I don’t know it” option. In this study 31% of the uses of this new option resulted in cases of underestimation. To answer the research question presented above, it appears as if this new option can be useful in determining the amount of underestimation present in YN test results. Whether this 31% rate is applicable to other samplings of items and English learners warrants further investigation.

Future Research

As the participants represent a convenience sample and the items were limited and not randomly selected, it is difficult to generalize beyond this specific university and the selected words. Future research that repeats this experiment with a different sampling of learners and a much larger pool of items is necessary to gain a greater understanding into the usefulness of this new option. Conducting the YN test separate from and prior to the translation test may result in under- and overestimation rates more in keeping with previous studies. Future research could also investigate whether a change in the wording of this additional option improves results. For example, an option like “I am unsure of this word’s meaning” may be more effective than the “I have seen it, but I don’t know it” option used in this study. It may also be possible that adding this option had an effect on the overestimation rate of 7% as well as underestimation rate. Regrettably this study was not designed with any items presenting the traditional two-choices, “I know it” or “I do not know it”, as a control. Future studies should include both types of YN test questions: one type containing the traditional two options and the other type containing these two plus a middle option. If these experiments are carefully controlled, it may be found that including this new option affects the amount of lexical overestimation and/or underestimation, and this knowledge could be used to improve the YN vocabulary test.

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Connecting Reading, Writing, and Culture through a Literacies-based Approach to Narrative

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Globalization has had an impact on many different aspects of higher education in Japan. In particular it has led to an increase in the number of universities that are choosing to promote an international experience as a way of fostering intercultural awareness. This has created issues for many English language programs as research has suggested that the dominant skills-based, communicative approach to teaching English may not be effective for developing the kinds of literacies that allow students to succeed while studying overseas (Kramersch, 2006; 2014). In this paper, we focus on one unit of a course. This unit is built around the use of narrative texts and demonstrates how a program can meaningfully connect reading and writing to help students both understand academically challenging cultural content and to promote textual and linguistic awareness. We argue that this 'linking of literacies' (Hirvela, 2004) is necessary if we want students to develop the kinds of reflexive disposition towards language and discourse that will enable them to actively participate in different cultural contexts.

グローバル化は日本の高等教育の様々な側面に影響を与え、殊にグローバル意識の育成を目指した国際経験促進のためのポリシーは、英語教育プログラムにおける問題を生んでいる。具体的なものとして、応用言語学の文献では、現在優勢を振るっているスキルベースのコミュニカティブアプローチは既に学習者に対し最も役立つかもしれない種のリテラシーの構築には効果的でないかもしれない(Kramersch, 2006; 2014)と論じられている。本論文では、プログラムがどのようにしてリーディングとライティングを学問的挑戦を要する文化的 content とテキスト及び言語意識を一つにするリテラシー演習として意味深く繋げることができるか、それを明らかにするナラティブのユニットに焦点を置き、複数リテラシーのリンク(Hirvela, 2004)が、学習者が異なる文化環境で活躍するのに必要不可欠な学問的および社会的参画を可能とする種の、言語と談話に対する再帰傾向の構築に重要であることを論じる。

Government funding, through the “Global 30 Project”, to selected universities that encourages Japanese college students to study abroad (see

Owens, J., & Johnson, N. H. (2016). Connecting reading, writing, and culture through a literacies-based approach to narrative. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 133-141). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Aspinall, 2013) is emblematic of the strategic increase in the global nature of Japanese higher education. Internationalization, however, comes with concomitant pressure to raise proficiency standards and foster greater intercultural understanding, at a time when standards in education in Japan have been falling through demographic pressure and as a result of the *yutori kyoiku* (or relaxed education) policies of the 1990's (see Lassegard, 2006). In this educational

context, the dominant discreet, communicative skills-based approach to foreign language education may not be effective, due to its lack of cultural content and its narrow view of language as a set of skills to be mastered (see Kramsch, 2006; MLA, 2007; Schulz, 2006).

In this paper, we focus on a unit of work within a first-year university reading and writing course that tries to address these problems by using a syllabus that involves learners progressing through units of work focusing on different text types and discourses (see Gee, 2002; Byrnes, Crane, Maxim, & Sprang, 2006). We also present and discuss an assignment submitted by one of the students who was enrolled in this course to demonstrate the effectiveness of this new course in raising genre awareness in students. The course being discussed in this article is structured so that the students are involved in iterative cycles of textual analysis, interpretation, and production as the focus of the content shifts from the familiar texts of daily interaction, progressing through literary texts, and again onto the texts and discourses of public and academic settings (Gee, 2002). This is done so that students are able to experience and produce a range of genres, discourses and rhetoric types, as research has shown that this experience will better allow them to “participate effectively in the world outside the ESL classroom” (Hyland, 2007, p. 48). This course demonstrates further how meaningfully connecting reading and writing as literacy practice can help students to begin to understand academically challenging cultural content as well as improve their textual and linguistic awareness.

Background to the Program

In 2012, Kanda University of International Studies (KUIS) was the beneficiary of a large government “Global 30” grant to promote study abroad opportunities for our learners in western universities and colleges. A primary concern for preparing learners for longer study abroad experiences is to have students reach the requisite levels on institutional tests such as IELTS and TOEFL. Universities in the United States, for example, typically require a score between 450 and 500 on the TOEFL IBT for an undergraduate student to enter a program as an international student.

Reading proficiency is an important component of the TOEFL and the TOEIC examinations that are used as markers of progress at our university. So, in planning the redevelopment of our courses, we were mindful of this aspect of student proficiency. However, another important concern is with our learners’ experience once they actually make it abroad. Our program needs to prepare learners for multiple literacies, both digital and text based, if they are to succeed in meeting the challenges of studying and living abroad. A preliminary needs analysis was done across the entire first year population of our students and this confirmed, amongst other things, the fact that for this generation of students, online and digital texts are now the most common way that they interact and access information and entertainment (for a discussion of the importance of digital literacy see Kress, 2003). With this emerging online literacy, it has been argued, comes the need for critical thinking and interpretation skills, or as McPherson (2008) explains it: “students need to learn how to master reading and writing, but also learn how to communicate – to compose, to problem solve, and understand across a wider set of culturally diverse and multiple meaning making forms” (p. 37). The curriculum in place at KUIS up until 2012 lacked the appropriate content or approach that could really develop this kind of disposition towards language, culture and text.

Indeed, up until 2012, the reading and writing program for first year students had been developed with commercial textbooks that focused on the two aspects of written text as if they were entirely separate. The reading course featured extensive reading, through graded readers, and the writing course focused almost exclusively on the five-paragraph essay. If we consider Kern’s (2000) argument that literacy involves interrelated cognitive, linguistic and sociocultural aspects, it is clear that what was really missing from the courses was the sociocultural element. More importantly, the program was also lacking the sense that reading and writing are intimately connected dimensions of written communication. It became clear that we needed to base our instruction around “a more unified discussion of relationships between readers, writers, culture, and language learning” (Kern, 2000, p. 2).

Combining Reading and Writing:

Foundational Literacies

The multiliteracies-based approach (New London Group, 1996) was chosen to provide the foundation of the program because it offers a theoretically coherent orientation to language education that deals with both the textual and the cultural diversity that define globalization. As explained above, the course was designed to allow students to encounter as large a variety of text types as possible - that is, they were exposed to a range of different discourse types and rhetorical modes, to build awareness and textual capacity (Widdowson, 1983) in preparation for more advanced foreign language literacy courses in their second year of study, and beyond, in future study abroad contexts. Gee (2002) argues that most texts fall into primary (experiential, sense-of-self), blurred (literary) and secondary (institutional, 'public') discourse types. Additionally, 'narration' is traditionally seen as one of the four rhetorical modes, the others being exposition, description and argumentation (Meurer, 2002) that comprise the fundamental ways that meaning is constructed in academic and public contexts. Given this basic structure, we were able to map out an overall scheme for the new course that ensured learners were exposed to, and came to understand, different discourse types, as represented in Table 1.

Organisation of the Narrative Unit

The course is then organized into seven different content units, with narrative texts being taught as one of four content units in the first semester (along with

email, recipes and product reviews). Key to the design of all of the content units was the overall pedagogical heuristic that is provided in the multiliteracies literature (See Table 2).

Throughout the progression of the narrative unit (approximately ten lessons in total) students are first, in situated practice, asked to tell meaningful stories from their own experiences. They are then, in a sequence of overt instruction activities, introduced to Labov's (1972) model of narrative structure, exposed to a range of different sub-genres of narrative, and asked to analyse the extent to which the five-part model is applicable to the examples they have been given. The sub-genres that feature in the narrative unit include travel blogs, personal narratives, traditional folk stories, news stories, and constructed narratives. The folk stories include fables and legends from a variety of different countries and different cultural contexts in order to accentuate the universality of certain forms and features of narrative texts (such as narrative structure). When exposed to each sub-genre, learners are given vocabulary tasks and within the unit there are also explicit lexicogrammar focus activities. Throughout the course, students are also asked to reflect on the field, tenor and mode of given texts; to consider the writer, their purpose and the target audience; and to consider the idea of 'language as choice', that is fundamental to the literacies-based approach. Within fairy tales, for example, students are asked to think about what unique, literary words or phrases are used, and why. With news stories they are asked to consider why news narratives often use a mixture of formal and informal lexis. Most of these activities take place as group discussions. Students

TABLE 1
Overview of the Course

Discourse Type	Classroom Texts	Production Texts: Assessment
Primary	Personal email, Recipes, Recounts Personal narratives	Personal email Recipe Recount
Blurred	Folk tales, Poem, Song lyrics, Short story	Literary narrative
Secondary	Information report, Essay, Business correspondence, Formal email, Product review, Newspaper feature article	Information report Product review Persuasive essay

TABLE 2

Overview of the Narrative Unit

Pedagogical Sequence	Realization in the Narrative Unit
<i>Situated Practice:</i> Immersion in meaningful practices within a community of learners	Personal narrative: learners tell, read and analyze personal narratives with a view to creating their own story and voice based on their own experiences
<i>Overt Instruction:</i> Scaffolding learning through explicit attention to key concepts and metalanguage	Narrative structure and vocabulary: Learners study Labov's (1972) narrative structure (main theme, scene setting, complicating action, further action, result and evaluation) and apply the model to several different narratives in different discourses
<i>Critical Framing:</i> Problematizing or looking again at what has been learned and applying the knowledge to new situations or problems.	Contrast between western and Japanese folk tales: Japanese folk tales often lack the moral aspect of western folk or fairy stories. Understanding why this might be the case is an important insight into narrative and culture.
<i>Transformed Practice:</i> Shifting meaning across boundaries of genre, mode, and or context (New London Group, 1996).	Re-writing a narrative for a different textual genre: Applying the new understanding of how narratives work to a different rhetorical situation is both a learning experience and provides opportunity for summative assessment.

are also exposed to a 'genuine' (as opposed to a constructed) personal narrative, written by a student of approximately the same age but from a different culture, based on the theme of growing up/change (Charlton, 2010). This particular narrative was chosen as it provides a relevant example of a 'small' narrative in which very little drama occurs, demonstrating to students that a narrative does not need to be dramatic. Students are then exposed to pseudo-personal narratives that are superficially similar to this personal narrative. These samples are taken from online sources that are used to sell a spiritual guide/ series of self-help books (Secret, 2016), where the 'customers' supposedly share their own personal experiences, but where the actual intention is probably persuasive rather than informative or humanistic. Students are invited to notice and then reflect on these underlying differences.

Example of Student Work: Transformed Practice

The key tasks within each unit feature reading and comprehension activities. There are, however, typically two key 'production' activities in each unit, one of

which is the final assignment, where, in the case of the narrative unit, students write their own personal narrative. The rubric for this assignment grades the students on their ability to show understanding of and to apply narrative structure, as well as their ability to produce the mechanics, lexicogrammar and content appropriate to their task.

The other productive activity that students are asked to do in each unit is a more creative one and is in keeping with the idea of transformed practice, as described briefly in Table 2. Starting with a text in one sub-genre, students are asked to redesign the text according to different rhetorical and functional aims, ultimately producing a text that has the same content but that is appropriate for a different audience and purpose. In the narrative unit, learners are typically shown a video from a famous advertisement that has redesigned the ending of the *Three Little Pigs* fairytale in the form of a news story (Guardian, 2012). In this case, both the mode (from written/oral to audio-visual) and sub-genre (from fairytale to news narrative) have been transformed, and this has led to other differences, for example the meaning and the target audience of the two narratives are different.

After reflecting on these changes, students are asked to re-write one of the narratives they have read, either a fairytale into a news story or vice versa. After they have changed the genre of the narrative, students are then asked to describe and explain the changes that they made. For example, why the changes they made to the vocabulary or structure of the narrative were seen as more appropriate for their new purpose, etc. A student example is shown in Appendix A. This student chose to transform the Japanese fairy tale *Yuki Onna* into a news story (the student's name has been changed). The Japanese folk tale offers us a different cultural perspective on narrative and is a good example of critical framing, where students are asked to look again at material they feel they have already understood. The idea of human agency in light of the overwhelming power of nature is a common theme in Japanese literature and art, and having Japanese learners re-think not only narrative, but other cultural texts (e.g. the famous Hokusai woodblock print 'the great wave') that they are familiar with, from this new perspective, can lead to interesting classroom discussions.

Looking at this transformed narrative that was produced in class, we can observe that the student has clearly made some significant changes to the original text that suggest that she has, to a large degree, achieved 'genre consciousness'. She is clearly aware of the differences in form, style and content of each sub-genre (fairy tale and news narrative) and her transformative practice here makes that salient. In terms of content, the student has changed the meaning of the story. While the original tale was about a mysterious and beautiful ghostly lady who killed one man and married another in a human guise, the transformed news story instead foregrounds the 'crime' itself and the suspicion surrounding it. It also places the action in the modern day. Mystery and horror, which work well in traditional tales, make way for rumour and suspicion, as is often the case with genuine news reports of this type.

The student, in her reflection (see Appendix B), confirms these choices were rooted in her awareness of the traits of different sub-genres: "In the Japanese story we never know why the action happened and usually fairy tales have a reason. This was difficult to

decide, and so finally I made it a story that hasn't been solved." Similarly, she later comments, "The story is not a Japanese folk story and so I must to make (sic) the explanation clear to the reader."

The student demonstrates awareness of the stylistic differences that exist between fairytales and news stories. Visually, she has chosen to use a picture and has a headline that is written in a large text. She also makes use of sub-headings. Once again, we know these are conscious choices the student has made as she explains in her reflection, that, "Sub-headline can be used in a newspaper to help the reader", and "I put in the picture... to a follow (sic) tabloid style. If there is a criminal the tabloid tries to show them and especially they like to have pictures of beautiful girls!"

In terms of lexicogrammar, here too she has chosen to make significant changes in her retelling of events. As she explains, "I used more conversational style. I took out literary words for the different newspaper style", hence "dazzling white garments" become Gucci designer clothes. The news narrative, deliberately, also makes greater use of "short paragraphs." In doing so, the student has clearly thought about the target audience and typical tabloid reader and engineered her language with this in mind: "This makes it easier to read for audience who doesn't have much time – maybe they are reading on the train to work."

In completing a transformative task, students are acting with agency and as authors are taking a more active role in their own learning: "The focus on transformation rather than on acquisition makes the designer agentive... with the designer's interests in this occasion of design and in relation to that audience" (Jewitt & Kress, 2003). In transforming meaning across genres, the affordances and constraints of different ways of representing meaning are highlighted, thus facilitating a creative and critical disposition towards the rhetorical work of narrative. This activity, we argue, leads to heightened awareness of the act of communication in written text itself. For educators, looking at the student complete a transformational task allows us to gain "insight into the variation and range" of a student's "meaning-making" abilities (Stein, 2008, p. 44).

Conclusion

In this short paper, we have argued that discreet, skills-based approaches to reading and writing are problematic due to their restricted cultural content and inherent lack of awareness of written text as essentially an act of sociocultural communication. We have used the example of a unit built around narrative genres to highlight a productive way that we are using bring reading and writing together through a focus on the construction of textual meaning. We have also included an example of a transformational narrative assignment written by a student to illustrate the ways in which this technique is succeeding in our context. This is by necessity only a brief snapshot of the kind of work and activity that our learners are engaged in, and we believe that it is important to design our individual courses and then the overall curriculum to engage learners in this type of meaningful engagement with texts, language and culture. Additional work is required to further develop our materials and to better understand the efficacy of our approach for language education in the increasingly global context of Japanese higher education.

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Appendix A: Student's news story

Police Looking for Mystery Woman: Is She the Sendai Murderer?

By Staff Writer: Yuri Saito

Police yesterday were looking for a woman who they think might be very dangerous. She was reported as disappeared from her family home by a neighbor. Nobody can understand the story of how she has left her family and police are asking for help with this mystery. According to the reports, the woman is called Yuki Onna and she has black hair and is very tall. She is usually seen wearing expensive designer-label white clothes.



Mrs. Yuki Onna: Have you seen her?

A witness said they saw her leaving the home very quickly with suspicious behavior. Her husband is very upset. His name is Minokichi. He is famous in Sendai because he was the apprentice who lost his boss in the famous accident that was never solved 20 years ago. He now has 10 children. Where has his wife gone?

Nobody could talk with Minokichi yesterday but one of his friends told us he was very happy with his life recently. However, neighbours told our reporter that they heard a woman screaming and threatening to kill somebody late at night yesterday.

The famous accident happened when Minokichi, and his boss, Mosaku were cutting wood in a nearby forest. Because of the bad weather they stayed in the business hotel. But the next morning Mosaku was found dead. It was a very strange story because Minokichi was fine and there were no witnesses. Sources close to the family said in a rumor that people nearby thought Minokichi had killed his boss during the night.

Big Suspicion

There was big suspicion in Sendai. Did Minokichi steal money from his boss and company? It was never understood the story of their relationship. Minokichi said it was the snow and cold that killed his boss but it was difficult to show evidence in court to support this story.

Shortly after this event, Minokichi got married and had many children. He didn't seem so sad about the death of his old boss after all. Many people thought so.

Police are thinking there might be a relationship to the disappearing woman and Mosaku. Did he kill her as well? Is she the murderer? If you have information, please help the police with this terrible story.

Appendix B: Student's reflection

Reflection:

1. How did you change the organization?

The story has to be shorter to fit tabloid style. Headline is not full sentences. Sub-headline can be used in a newspaper to help the reader. I tried to make the story modern with a new police force and fitting the style of newspapers of today. In the Japanese story we never know why the action happened and usually fairy tales have a reason. This was difficult to decide, and so finally I made it a story that hasn't been solved. It is difficult to fit that part of the story into a new kind of text for me.

2. How did you change the style?

I used more conversational style. I took out literary words for the different newspaper style. For example, in the story describes her clothes as "dazzling". But since this is modern times I wanted to use designer-wear, like Gucci. I also had to break up the story into short paragraphs. This makes it easier to read for audience who doesn't have much time – maybe they are reading on the train to work.

3. How did you change the story?

The story is not a Japanese folk story and so I must to make the explanation clear to the reader. In the folk story nobody knows why it happened. A newspaper tries to tell the story to be clear. I found that tabloids like to use gossip and rumor to make their story and so I used the neighbors and things that people said to tell the story.

4. What other changes did you make? Why?

I put in the picture for Yuki Onna to a follow tabloid style. If there is a criminal the tabloid tries to show them and especially they like to have pictures of beautiful girls!

Authorship in Task-Based Performance

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Scholarship in task-based learning abounds with recommendations for practitioners in the design and implementation of tasks that can facilitate language learning. However, the psycholinguistic focus that this scholarship pursues rarely sheds light on the interactional procedures of peers during tasks. This paper takes conversation analysis as a tool to show how two learners perform a story construction task. The analysis reveals how learners actively negotiate their subject positions during tasks. Implications for teacher intervention in task design and task implementation which can complement current task-based teaching recommendations are suggested.

タスク中心の学習研究では、言語取得を促すタスクを活用した授業構成と実施に対する提言が溢れている。しかしながら、心理言語学に基づいたその研究は学習者がタスクを参与する相互行為の組織をまれに明らかにしていない。本稿では会話分析を手段として、学習者がストーリーの復元というタスクをどのように実行するかを検討する。この分析においては、学習者は能動的に主観のポジションを交渉することが分かり、また、その結果の焦点にあて、近代のタスク中心の指導方法の提言を補完するタスクデザインと実施を着目する。

Recommendations for task design and implementation are abundant in task-based language learning scholarship (Ellis, 2012, 2006; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Willis & Willis, 2007). However, Hall, Vitanova and Marchenkova (2005) point out that pedagogy design has been based on research in a psycholinguistics tradition. This has focused on facilitating “learners’ assimilation of new systemic knowledge into known knowledge structures” (p. 2). Firth and Wagner (1997) argue that this view of second language acquisition is “individualistic and mechanistic and that it fails to account in a satisfactory way for interactional and socio-linguistic dimensions of language” (p. 287).

In a review of peer-interaction research, Philp,

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Adams and Iwashita (2014) called for more research into how peers can enhance or constrain learning. Recently, a number of studies have examined how language learners gradually change the way they participate in tasks (Hellerman & Cole, 2008; Platt, 2005). Block (2007) reviewed interviews with a student, and he highlighted the importance of the subject position of learners in the foreign language classroom (p.151-163). In other words, learners’ identities are implicated during L2 interaction.

In spite of the emerging research into peer interaction, practical insights are still lacking in the literature and there is little for teachers to take into the classroom. Wong and Waring (2010), however, use insights from conversation analysis (CA) of native speaker interaction to provide practical classroom ideas. Gardner (2013) argues that CA can shed light on the interactional features of learners as they engage in tasks. The conversation analytical method involves identifying the actions of participants in interaction in

order to understand the practices of particular types of interaction (Sidnell, 2013). In fact, Wooffitt (2005) asserts that “(d)uring interaction speakers orient to, and display to each other in the design of their turns, what they understand to be the salient features of their context” (p.64). This research uses conversation analysis to examine learners’ subject positions during peer interaction to add detail to our understanding of these interactions and suggest practical insights to improve task design and implementation.

Methodology

Two second-year university students volunteered to take part in the study. They were non-English majors and had both studied English for approximately seven years. Their TOEIC scores placed them at the low-intermediate level, but probably due to a lack of speaking experience, their oral proficiency was low. The data analysed here is taken from the learners’ communication class, in which this researcher was their teacher. During the lesson, the students created, re-told, and wrote very short stories (see Appendix A for the lesson plan), and the discussions between the two students during the pre-task provided the conversation data. The students agreed for the task to be recorded with a voice recorder placed on their table. The recordings were transcribed by the researcher using Jefferson’s CA notation as outlined in Wooffitt (2005) (see Appendix B).

In the pre-task, the students created four short stories, each using a different picture taken from English Firsthand (Helgesen, Brown, Mandeville & Rost, 2001). The pictures were partially hidden so that the scenes required inferencing and interpretation.

This encouraged more collaborative discussion to create the story. The students were each given their own worksheet and were instructed not to show each other the sheets. This ensured that the students made spoken reference to items in the pictures, and avoided pointing to the items.

Analysis

The basis of CA’s empirical approach is known as next-turn proof procedure. Participants in interaction create turns through action formation and action ascription (Levinson, 2014). Action ascription occurs when the next speaker assigns an action, such as requesting, to the current speaker’s turn. This is a projection of what the current speaker is doing, and the next speaker begins to form a response to this projection (Hayashi, 2004). The ascription is revealed in the response of the next speaker, and provides the conversation analyst with the empirical evidence to interpret the conversation. The next-turn proof procedure is applied to the extracts below. The students’ language journals are also employed to assist the interpretation.

Extract 1: Friendship Identity

The pictures were arranged on the worksheet in a block of four, two at the top and two at the bottom. In Extract 1, the students, A and B, are trying to refer to the picture on the top left. Turns 9 and 12 are significant in that they show A’s dispreferred responses to B’s previous turns.

In turn 8, B attempts to refer to the picture by stating its location relative to other pictures on the worksheet. In turn 9, A is perhaps simplifying the reference to the top left picture by assuming a left to

EXTRACT 1

- 6. B: (0.5) hmm let’s start
- 7. A: Yah hah (clearing throat)
- 8. B: [hmmmm left . uhhh
- 9. A: (.) first pict-hh-ure hh= (smiley voice)
- 10. B: =a- first pictu:::re
- 11. B: er: lefto:::(struggling sound)up=
- 12. A: [’h ’h ’h ’h yah ha ’hhhhh ha ha ha ha
- 13. B: = [huh huh (.) huh huh (.) huh huh
- 14. B: >okay ↑ <

right reading frame. However, turns 10 and 11 show that B has mistaken A's reference for a sequence repair. It is possible that B has interpreted A's utterance as the following unspoken ground rule: this opening stage of the discussion needs to be announced as the "first picture". After making the announcement in turn 10, B continues the search for a location reference word in turn 11. A makes another dispreferred response in turn 12, by refusing to help B find a location reference word. Instead, A uses laughter to cue B that he understands which picture is being indicated. Simultaneously in turn 13, B shares the laughter, but his low pitch intonation seems to signal confusion. In turn 14, he suddenly realises that A understands the reference and progresses the discussion.

Although only nine turns, Extract 1 shows how the students work to create intersubjectivity at the beginning of a task. From B's perspective, A is displaying dispreferred responses. However, this helps B to realise that his partner understands which picture is being referenced. In fact, A chooses to use within-speech laughter (Jefferson, 1979, pp. 82-83) to simultaneously cue B that he understands. In this way, he mitigates the dispreferred responses.

A deployed conversational strategies to build intersubjectivity while simultaneously showing consideration for his partner. It could be argued that A is authoring himself in those moments as a friend. In fact, in his language journal, A indexicalised friendship and cooperation on a number of occasions, writing "I want to enjoy talking with my friends during our discussion", "I want to hear my friend's ideas", and "We should build good discussion together". This complex juggling of task focus and friendship-identity negotiation is reflected in this sequence of turns.

Extract 2: Pressure Reduction

Real time conversation is often fraught with the pressure of needing to follow up a turn with another turn. Speakers will be aware of transition-relevance places (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974) within a turn, and the grammatical, tonal and pragmatic design of these within any turn-construction unit acts as a signal that the next speaker can talk or the next turn can be taken. This gives rise to the issue of speaker

rights (Clayman, 2013). Extract 2 is an example of how the students demonstrated adherence to fundamental turn taking principles and utilised strategies to deal with the limits of their own English production skills. Through these strategies, specific roles for the students emerged out of this conversation.

In this extract, the students are trying to describe the scene and formulate a plot. B starts by suggesting that the character had had a good day, to which A asks for follow up details with the question "why?" B supplies his idea in turn 137. In turns 135 and 137, B begins his utterance with a:::: and u::::, signaling his turn, but gaining time to find the words. Turn 137 is a tonally and syntactically complete turn construction unit, but there is a pause at turn 138, followed by "mm". Turns 137 and 138 suggest that A may have been expecting more information from B. This assertion is supported by earlier sequences in which A had provided many of the details for the plot of the first picture. A may have expected that, in the spirit of collaboration, B should provide details of the second picture.

Thus, the pause in turn 138 constitutes a dilemma for A. Should he lengthen the pause and thereby refuse to take the turn, or should he take the turn? Lengthening the pause might risk putting more pressure on B, but taking the turn would mean taking the responsibility to add details to the story. In turn 139, A fills the ensuing silence. Then, in turn 141, the "Okay" utterance acts as a sequence transition which changes the footing of the conversation. In other words, A now has the responsibility of adding details to the story.

With the conversation footing now changed, in

EXTRACT 2

- 135: B: a::::: good day maybe
 136: A: why:: ↑
 137: B: u:::: (1.4) she looks like happy
 138: A: (0.4) mm
 139: Yah (.) I see
 140: B: [mm
 141: A: Okay
 142: She is good day so:
 143: mmm
 144: B: mm::::::::::

turn 142, A acts to diminish the responsibility on them both. This provides conversationally legitimate breathing space. In other words, the conversation pressure of turn taking has been reduced, and both A and B are comfortable with thinking out loud in turns 143 and 144. In sum, this sequence shows that A was positioned with the task of reducing the conversation pressure by B, and A actively constructed a subject position as someone willing to do so.

Extract 3: Problem Solver

Extract 3 is a continuation of Extract 2 and shows how A moves away from a cooperative role to focusing on the task itself. What is interesting about this sequence is that A employs dispreferred responses in order to focus attention on task completion. In turn 145, A refers to what the character is doing in the picture. However, it is difficult to see what the character is holding. Perhaps A's upwards intonation in turn 145 demonstrates hedging of the item (a letter). B provides his idea in turn 148. Both turns 146 and 148 show that B is taking a collaborative role. In fact, B's tendency to support the flow of information and build on A's utterances was a consistent feature in the earlier extracts, in particular in turns 11 and 137.

Turn 149 is A's dispreferred response to B since he does not build on B's suggestion. B remains cooperative in turn 150 by trying to follow A's thread. It is possible that the dispreferred response could be seen as A's attempt to make more salient a problematic feature of the task. A continued to make suggestions about the plot, and by turn 171 it becomes apparent

that A was trying to connect plot details with the details in the picture.

The number of vocalisations, such as "mm", in this extract suggests that A was thinking deeply, and the degree to which he was aware that turn 149 was a dispreferred response cannot be inferred from the extract alone. Nonetheless, the change of focus brings out A's complex thought processes. In his language journal, A makes it clear that he values a step by step approach to learning. In explaining his successes, he writes: "First I suggested it to decide whether it was a good day or a bad day. Second we thought about why we thought it was a good day and a bad day. Third I started to think about a situation. I can derive this talk very well."

Discussion

A cursory glance at the extracts could lead to the conclusion that student A was dominant and student B was passive. However, closer examination of the extracts and correlation with the language journals suggests that A is using dispreferred responses to cue his partner towards intersubjectivity, to alleviate turn-taking pressure, and to make salient the problematic features of the task. B is using collaborative responses in his turn allocations to show support for these conversational shifts. In fact, while student B was the less proficient of the two, he did have opportunities for more extended output at times. These often occurred during collaborative responses and built on A's ideas.

Interactionist and socio-cultural approaches often

EXTRACT 3

- 145: A: 'hh she hhh (clear throat) she has letter ↑ (.) maybe
 146: B: [yah
 147: A: so:::: (1) mm::::
 148: B: [letter from Obama ↑ ha ha ha
 149: A: 'hh mm >why< w(hh)hy (2.5) (struggle) eh hhh 'h n this place=
 150: B: =o::: (5)
 ...
 169: A: (1.5) a:: gomen nashi de
 a:: sorry scratch that
 170: B: [hah ha ha
 171: A: Tsunagaranakatta (laughter)
 I couldn't connect it.

discuss the appropriateness of peer interaction in terms of dominant/passive and high/low-proficiency dichotomies (Philp, et al. 2014). However, the analysis here shows that students authored their respective subject positions in the task as learning director and learning collaborator while successfully maintaining their friendship roles. The analysis offers observations into how students strategically deploy conversational elements in ways which display their various learner identities. Further research is required to demonstrate whether or not these sequences are common.

Conclusion

The above analysis provided insights into the finer aspects of peer interaction, and these insights have implications for teaching practice. Teachers can introduce “identity negotiation” resources that students can use during tasks. One example is what I call the “Pit Stop”. It acts as a time-out from the discussion in English (Ellis, 2006) with the option to use L1, but with the sole purpose of solving an L2 language problem collaboratively. This may provide students a way to enact their agency to become legitimate participants in their group while at the same time directly eliciting the help of their classmates with language issues. Another example is to embed communication strategies into the curriculum. Certain communication strategies could be presented to learners as “leadership skills” or “collaboration skills”. As a specific example, students could analyse short discussion transcripts, looking for specific strategies, such as holding the floor through self-selection (Wong & Waring, 2010, p.48-49). The idea is to imbue communication strategies with values congruent with or having the potential to develop learners’ identities. The efficacy of these teaching approaches would need testing in the real world, and given the insight that conversation analysis has provided here, a similar methodology could be employed to measure the effects of these techniques on learning.

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Appendix A: Lesson Plan

Task Sequence	Student Role	Additional Information
Warm up	Introduction to story telling	Overview of story structure.
Pre task	Create a short story in pairs based on pictures. There are four pictures and students have to create a story for each picture.	Some information is missing from the pictures, so students are encouraged to make up a story to complete the missing information.
Task	Students choose one of the stories they made and re-tell the story to another classmate.	Review story structure and allow students to make notes to plan their story.
Post task	Students write the story which they told.	Complete for homework if necessary.

Appendix B: Transcription Symbols

The transcription symbols used here were taken from Wooffitt (2005, p. 211-212), and are based on those created by Gail Jefferson.

(0.4)	The number represents a time gap in seconds.
(.)	A pause less than two tenths of a second.
-	An abrupt stop in speaking
·hh	In-breath
hh	Out-breath
> <	Speech speeds up noticeably
:::	Preceding sound is stretched. More colons indicate more stretching.
↑	Intonation rises
(explanation)	The researcher describes non-verbal events.
=	Contiguous speech
[Concurrent speech
.	A full stop means a stopping fall in tone.

An Introduction to Gamification: Developing a Personal Narrative through Questing and Blogging

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Gamification has shown great potential to motivate people to do a wide range of activities. Gamification is “the use of game elements and game-design techniques in non-game contexts” (Werbach & Hunter, 2012, p. 26). In EFL education, gamification does not mean using games to learn language but refers to leveraging game design techniques such as competition, collaboration, and narratives to engage and motivate students. This paper introduces the concept of gamification in education, suggests how students can develop their own personal narrative through questing and blogging, and examines data collected in relation to student opinions towards the quests. Data collected over a 14-week semester at a Japanese university showed that students (N = 42) enjoyed the quests, and by doing the quests they felt they had improved their English ability. The data also showed that the quests made students not only reflect on their own lives, but also the world around them.

ゲーミフィケーションは人々に幅広い分野においてやる気を出させる偉大な潜在能力を秘めている。これはゲームの要素、設計技術をゲームではない環境に取り入れる事である。これは言語学習にゲームを用いる事ではなく、競争、協力、物語等、一種のゲームの技法を教育に導入する事で学生を引き込みやる気を出させる事である。本論文は、教育におけるゲーミフィケーションの定義と、どの様に学生が「冒険(タスク)」の完成により物語を成長させるのかの研究と生徒の感想を調査したものである。資料は1学期(14週間)でこれらの冒険を完成させた日本の大学2クラス (N = 42) の学生がこれらを楽しんだ事を示している。更に、彼らはこの冒険の旅に出る事により、英語能力が向上したと実感したのである。加えてこのデータは、これらの冒険が学生を彼ら自身の人生を深く考える機会を与えただけでなく、彼らの視野を世界に広げた事を示している。

A common misconception by people not familiar with gamification is that gamification is the concept of playing ‘fun’ games to learn something. That is known as game-based learning which is different to what is currently referred to as ‘gamification’. Gamification is

“the use of game elements and game-design techniques in non-game contexts” (Werbach & Hunter, 2012, p. 26). It is about motivating and engaging people by applying game elements such as competition, collaboration, and rewards to the structure of an activity or course. There are a wide range of gamification techniques. This paper will firstly outline gamification and then explain how the gamification technique ‘narrative’ could be implicitly encapsulated on a student’s weekly blog using ‘quests’ and personal diary entries as the content. Data collected in relation to students’ attitudes toward the quests will also be

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examined and discussed.

Gamification

Gamification has shown great potential to motivate people to do a wide range of activities. One of the catalysts for the recent gamification movement was the Nike+ Running App in 2010. The Nike+ Running App motivated people to run more often by tracking, analysing, and comparing individuals' running data. Since then, businesses have been increasingly looking to gamification as a way to motivate and engage employees and customers (Werbach & Hunter, 2012).

In his seminal book *The Multiplayer Classroom*, Sheldon (2011) examined how gamification can be applied to educational courses from primary school to university. Eight case studies included in the book showed positive trends in relation to:

- points, badges, and leaderboards,
- allowing students to choose their own activities,
- collaboration and competition,
- engagement levels of students which led to improved grades and class attendance.

The most common and easiest way to gamify an activity is to just add points, badges, and a leaderboard (PBL) (Werbach & Hunter, 2012). However, just adding these components is a narrow approach to gamification which may not lead to the learning and engagement a teacher desires (Kapp, 2012). It could also damage existing interest and motivation (Deterding, 2012). By focusing on PBL, teachers are "taking the thing that is least essential to games and representing it as the core of the experience" (Werbach & Hunter, 2012, p. 106). Jenson (2012) states that the objects of desire in a game such as points and badges need to have meaning. Rich meaning can come from careful consideration of all the dynamics, mechanics, and components.

Werbach and Hunter (2012) say that there are three major design elements to consider when gamifying an activity: dynamics, mechanics, and components (DMC). Components are the 'things' (e.g., tasks, achievements, avatars, badges, points, leaderboards, levels, teams), mechanics are the specified interactions between the 'things', the processes that drive the action (e.g., challenges, chance,

competition, cooperation, feedback, rewards), and dynamics are the higher-level emergent interactions which are a result of the implementation of those components and mechanics (e.g., emotions, narrative, progression, relationships, etc.). With the right blend of mechanics and components a teacher can attempt to achieve a certain dynamic. A teacher should only use the gamification elements which are suitable for their classroom.

Kapp (2012) conceptualises gamification as being either 'structural' or 'content'. Structural gamification is the "the application of game elements to propel a learner through content with no alteration or changes to the content" (Kapp, Blair, & Mesch, 2014, p. 55). The primary focus is to motivate by using game components such as points, badges, and leaderboards. "Content gamification is the application of game elements, game mechanics, and game thinking to alter content to make it more game-like" (Kapp et al., 2014, p. 55). For example, incorporating a narrative into a task makes the task more game-like but it does not make it a game. Kapp states that 'structural' and 'content' design are not mutually exclusive and gamification implementations work best when they are used together. Research (Hamari, Koivisto, & Sarsa, 2014) has indicated that gamification is useful in education but more research is required to understand the effect of specific elements. This paper will focus on the gamification elements of quests and narrative; however, content unlocking using levels is also addressed.

Quests

A game generally uses a variety of quests to challenge, engage, and entertain the player. A quest typically has an objective and task description; with successful completion of the task leading to some type of reward (Ashmore & Nitsche, 2007). Education-related gamification implementations often utilise quests as a novel way to deliver learning content to students. The quests in this study are language learning tasks developed by the author of this paper, who is also the researcher and teacher, to improve students' English ability, encourage students to interact and build relationships with various people through real-world

TABLE 1
Levels and Quests

Quest #	Quest Type	Quest Theme
Level 1: Week 1	Theme: Introduction to the game	
Level 2: Week 2 - 3	Theme: Getting to know you	
1	Narrated PPP	About yourself & language learning history
2	Write	Self-Assessment: Strengths and weaknesses
3	Video	Goals for the semester
Level 3: Week 4 - 5	Theme: Thinking about others and improving your own life	
4	Write	Interview a foreign friend
5	Write or Video	Pay it Forward
6	Write	30 Day Challenge
Level 4: Week 6 - 7	Theme: Looking forward to the future	
7	Video	Interesting job discussion
8	Write	Travel research
9	Narrated PPP	Something related to your major
Level 5: Week 8 - 9	Theme: The World Around You	
10	Write	Video news discussion
11	Video	Conduct an interview
12	Speak & Write	Respond to a TED Talks presentation
Level 6: Week 10 - 11	Theme: Learning through new media	
13	Video	Documentary Discussion
14	Write or Video	ELLLO website
15	Listen & Write	Learning English Podcasts
Level 7: Week 12 - 14	Theme: Reflection	
16	Write	Presentation critique
17	Write	Reflecting on the semester
18	Write	Design your own quest

English usage, and increase students' L2 motivation. Based on highly renowned and relevant motivational theories, the researcher developed over 20 quests that can be used in any EFL context with students who have achieved at least a pre-intermediate level of English.

The first is Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (1985), which says that when people are engaged in activities requiring competence, autonomy, and relatedness, they become intrinsically motivated to succeed. The second is Dörnyei's "Ideal L2 Self" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 105), which states that

when learners visualise the person they want to become in the future, they are motivated to become this person. The third is Yashima's (2002) 'International posture' construct which is concerned about Japanese EFL learners "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different culture" (p. 57). International posture was included as studies (Yashima, 2002; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004) have shown that Japanese

students who are more internationally inclined tend to demonstrate more motivated learning behaviours compared to students who are not.

The quests utilise various types of media (e.g., narrated PowerPoint presentations, video and voice recording, internet websites), each with different requirements on how it should be completed and then displayed on the students' blogs. An outline of the 18 quests used in this study is presented in Table 1. Although not actually used in this study, an example quest can be found in the Appendix.

Narrative

Employing a narrative is another element of game-design theory that can be applied to gamification implementations. Just like a game, a narrative is not essential for structural gamification; however, a narrative can help provide a rich context for learning (Kapp, 2012). The context of learning is considered an important factor in second language acquisition (Collentine & Freed, 2004) and also in gamification (Hamari et al., 2014). Game mechanics tied together with a narrative can pull the game together into a coherent form (Kapp, 2012) which should lead to deeper engagement, progression, personal growth, and self-development (Rodrigo, 2015).

There are some basic elements to consider when developing a narrative. Stories generally require characters, a plot, tension, and resolution (Kapp, 2012). Booker (2004) describes stories as fitting into one of seven basic plots: Overcoming the monster, Rags to riches, The quest, Voyage & return, Comedy, Tragedy, or Rebirth. In order to change the behaviour and minds of the players, it is best if the storyline mirrors real-world issues and is relatable to the lives of the players (Rodrigo, 2015). Many gamification implementations in education such as Classcraft incorporate a fantasy narrative (Keeler, 2015; Sheldon, 2011). A fantasy narrative may be effective for students in elementary school, but possibly unsuitable for university-level students. Post-structuralist research suggests self-narratives can play a positive role in SLA by destabilising first language identities and provoking reconstruction of an individual's sense of self (Benson, 2011; Giddens,

1991). Therefore, for this study, the researcher chose to not incorporate an explicit narrative but hoped students would develop their own personal narrative, probably without realising it, by combining evidence of quest completion with a personal English diary into one blog post. This combination was an attempt by the researcher to more deeply connect the quests to the students' real lives, ideally with each weekly blog post acting as a chapter of their personal narrative over the semester. The blogging platform Blogger was used for this purpose as it is robust, can handle various media easily, has privacy controls, and it is easy for authorised people to access and leave comments. Their personal narrative may not be clear to students whilst making their blogs, but it is hoped that when they look at their blogs in the future, they will remember the narrative of their life during that time. See the Appendix 'How to submit section' for more information.

The basic outline of the levels, quests, and their corresponding themes are outlined in Table 1. Each level, excluding the Level 1 introduction, should be completed over a two-week period. The gamification technique of 'content unlocking' was incorporated to limit access and encourage completion of certain quests at specific times of the semester; this would also help students progress through the quests without being overwhelmed by too many quests to choose from. Each level has a choice of three quests. When a student completes two of the quests, the teacher will give the student the URL to access the next level. The levels and quests were published on the researcher's blog which the students had access to. Due to current copyright concerns, a link to this resource cannot be provided.

Methodology

Procedure

Students in this study were part of an elective English course (four-skills, TOEIC 550-650) that met three times a week, for 90-minute lessons at a private Japanese university. The classes were approximately 50% male and 50% female. One class a week for each class was conducted in a computer room. Students were told to complete their weekly blog entry before

TABLE 2

Mean Data from Surveys

Q1: How much did you like Level ...?	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7	All levels combined
M	3.83	3.79	3.69	3.80	3.95	3.90	3.81
SD	0.85	0.82	0.94	0.84	0.90	0.80	0.87
Q2: Did you like being able to choose which quest to do?	M = 3.95 SD = 0.90						
Q3: Did these quests improve your English ability?	M = 3.83 SD = 0.75						
Q4: Did the quests change the way you think about yourself?	M = 3.32 SD = 0.80						
Q5: Did these quests change the way you think about other people and the world around you?	M = 3.42 SD = 0.72						
Q6: Do you feel motivated to keep studying English?	M = 4.22 SD = 0.77						

the start of that class. Students primarily worked on the quests and updating their blogs for homework; however, about 30 minutes of the computer room class time was allocated for students to share and discuss their most recent blog entries in small groups. Students were also encouraged to read and comment on other students' blogs. Any remaining time of the 30 minutes was used by students to discuss, plan, and work on future quests. These quests were worth a maximum of 40% of the students' final grade for the semester. Each quest was worth up to 4% of their grade depending on how well the student completed the task. Only the top-ten graded quests were incorporated into the 40%.

To understand students' attitudes toward the quests, a survey was administered to collect data from the two participating classes ($N = 47$) after every level from Level 2 to Level 7 during the 14-week semester. After each level, students responded to the survey items using a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = Strongly disagree, to 5 = Strongly agree) which asked students how much they liked each level. The survey after Level 7 included five extra items which required students to reflect on the semester. The survey was conducted using Survey Monkey in English as the researcher felt students had the ability to comprehend and respond to the questions comfortably. Forty two students

successfully progressed through the seven levels and also completed all the surveys. Data collected from students who did not complete everything was omitted from this data analysis. The pertinent survey items and the averaged data are displayed in Table 2. The surveys also included open-ended questions which asked students to explain why they liked or disliked a certain quest; however, the analysis of this data is outside the scope of this paper.

Results and Discussion

Table 2 shows that all the data collected from the students generally showed positive attitudes towards the quests. There were only minor fluctuations in the data collected about how students felt about each level. Data in relation to Q2 shows that students liked being able to choose which quest they could work on. Data about Q3 shows that students believed that the quests helped them improve their English. Data collected for Q4 were not as strongly positive as the other questions; however, students generally felt that the quests made them reflect about their own lives. Data from Q5 shows that more than just thinking about their own lives, the quests made students think about the lives of other people and the world around them. The extremely positive data from Q6 cannot

be purely attributed to the quests as many factors affect student motivation; however, it does show that students have finished the course with high motivation to continue studying English. All this data suggests that designing quests based on the tenets of Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory (1985), Dörnyei's L2 Motivation Self System (2005), and Yashima's (2002) 'International posture' construct can be an effective approach to engage and motivate students.

Conclusion

If based on sound pedagogical theory and relevant contextual knowledge, it appears that gamification techniques can be used in educational settings as an innovative way to engage and motivate students. However, it is probably not the most appropriate approach for all courses. Teachers should hopefully understand the context of their classroom and be able to decide whether implementing gamification would be an effective approach or not. Gamification implementations do not have to be obtrusive endeavours that overwhelmingly encapsulate the class by incorporating as many game mechanics as possible. In fact, teachers may only need to utilise one or two mechanics to achieve their goal without students being aware that the class or activity was even gamified.

Inspired by post-structuralist ideals, the researcher in this gamification-related study attempted to allow students to weave their own personal narrative, instead of incorporating a generic narrative. If successful, this type of personal narrative in educational gamification could evolve into a meaningful alternative to the traditional, stale narratives. However, a limitation of this study was that no data were collected to answer whether students felt that the quests and diary entries actually led to the development of a tangible, personal narrative for the semester; this will be rectified with a future follow-up study in which students reflect on their blog.

Finally, based on casual observations made by the researcher, the omitted data due to incompleteness of levels and surveys came from some students who appeared to not be interested in the quests; possibly due to laziness, or failing to get off to a good start to the quests. This should be addressed at the beginning

of future courses by the teacher providing lots of support and explaining to the students why and how this student-centered learning approach is beneficial for their English language development.

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Appendix

Example Quest: Narrated Cultural PowerPoint Presentation

Goal:

To make a narrated PowerPoint presentation.

What is a narrated PowerPoint presentation?

It is a PowerPoint presentation in which you have recorded your voice and set the timings for each slide so that the presentation can run automatically.

Example narrated PowerPoint presentation:

<http://tinyurl.com/gt4ubr>

How to make a narrated PowerPoint presentation:

Search YouTube for “how to make a narrated powerpoint presentation” or ask your teacher for a specific URL.

Topic:

Anything related to domestic or international culture. For example: politics, festivals, history, food, relationships, school anything you are interested in!

How to submit:

In PowerPoint use the File -> Export -> Create a Video function to convert your narrated PowerPoint presentation into a movie file. Post this video to your blog after your weekly diary entry.

Length: 5-10 minutes

Grading Rubric	Score
Choice of topic and interesting information	/4
PowerPoint presentation design	/5
Length of presentation	/3
Clarity of voice	/3
Submitted correctly	/5
Total	/20

Can Narrative Stories Engage and Provide Enjoyment to Beginner-level Learners of Japanese?

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This paper illustrates an experiment introducing a narrative story in a small beginner-level Japanese language class. It will describe how the target learners perceived this experience after a few weeks of studying Japanese. This experiment also helps us think about whether the introduction of narrative texts at an early stage can benefit the learning process of Japanese language learners and whether reading narrative stories can engage and provide beginner-level learners of Japanese with enjoyment.

本稿では、入門レベル日本語学習者のクラスにおける物語の導入の試みについて述べ、物語の読みに対する学習者の反応を提示する。初めて日本語を勉強する日本語学習者は物語の読みをどう捉えるのか、物語文を読むことが日本語学習初期段階において役立つか、学習の動機付けにつながるかについて検証する。

Previous studies in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) have indicated that language learners can benefit from using literature in the language class and the position of literature in the language classroom has been explored in many ways (Duff & Maley, 1991; Hall, 2005; Paran, 2006, 2008). Although literature was the main input in the era of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and then later neglected with the start of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) where the focus was on practicing conversation and communicative skills, there has been a strong move towards the study of literature as a learning material in the foreign language class. Research on the relationship among foreign language learning, culture and literature has also increased in recent years (Bobkina, 2014). Many researchers claim that

literature can help promote L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge, grammatical knowledge, sociolinguistic and pragmatic knowledge, cultural awareness, and critical thinking (Gajdusek & van Dommelen, 1993; Hall, 2005; Kramsch, 1993; Maley, 1989; McKay, 2001; Paran 2006, 2008). Literature is also considered "inherently authentic" and "very motivating due to its authenticity" (Khatib, 2011, p.202). Furthermore, reading literature in the language class can be an enjoyable learning experience (McKay, 2001; Richings 2012). In this sense, recent studies indicate the potential benefits of literary texts in foreign language learning. On the other hand, in Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL) little attention has been given to the use of literature. More precisely, there is little explicit discussion about its usage and its potential benefits, and Japanese literature as a learning material is rarely used in the JFL class (Richings, 2012). If used, it is only used in advanced-level classes or for the study of Japanese literature itself. Furthermore, many teachers are reluctant to use literature because they lack confidence about their literary skills or knowledge

Richings, V.A. (2016). Can narrative stories engage and provide enjoyment to beginner-level learners of Japanese? In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 158-161). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

about and the way to use it. As a result, most Japanese classes focus on “practical Japanese” only (Richings, 2013). This study forms part of ongoing research into how literature is used and perceived in JFL and reports on an investigation of the perceptions of beginner-level learners of Japanese toward the use of Japanese literature in the JFL class. It also examines if reading narrative stories can engage and provide beginner-level learners of Japanese with enjoyment, and helps us think about whether the introduction of narrative texts at an early stage can benefit the learning process of Japanese language learners.

The two research questions addressed in the present paper are:

1. How do beginner-level Japanese language students perceive the reading of a narrative story after less than a year of studying Japanese?
2. Can reading a narrative story engage and provide enjoyment to beginner-level learners of Japanese?

Methods

Participants and Context

The participants were a group of beginner-level learners of Japanese at a private Japanese university. The group consisted of seven masters and doctoral students. They were on an exchange program in English, meaning that they did not have to take any Japanese language classes if they did not want to. The class the researcher taught was a volunteer Japanese language class, so the participants could not get any credits for this class. Some students had learnt a few Japanese words before coming to Japan but none of the students could read or write hiragana or katakana. The class met once a week, 12 times per term, for two terms. Each class was 90 minutes long. The class was initially taught using mostly English, and gradually shifted to using Japanese. Although this was a volunteer class, the syllabus was to teach the students basic Japanese grammar and basic Japanese sentence patterns, in other words, to teach them “survival Japanese.” Teaching the hiragana and katakana writing system was a curricular option that the teacher exercised. The primary goal of the teacher was to examine if the reading experience

of a short narrative text after a two semester course was in any way fruitful in the learning process of beginner-level learners of Japanese. In order to answer the two research questions mentioned above, a short questionnaire with two open-ended questions which took no longer than 5 minutes to complete was administered to the participants immediately after the reading experience. The first question was, “How did you feel about reading a Japanese narrative text at this stage in your learning process?” The second question was, “Did you enjoy this reading activity, why or why not?” At the time of the reading and the questionnaire all seven students were present.

About the Class

In the first class, the teacher told the students that the objectives for this class were to be able to express simple sentences and ask simple questions in Japanese, and to read at least the hiragana writing system. The final goal set out was to be able to read and understand the content of a short simple text in Japanese and as Murdoch (2001) mentions, to obtain a basic understanding of context, events, and characters. All students agreed to these goals. The first 20 minutes of the class focused on reviewing the previous class, the next 50 minutes were spent on new content, and the last 20 minutes were spared for practicing first the hiragana writing system. Once all hiragana syllables were learnt this time was dedicated to learning the katakana writing system. By the end of the first term, most of the students could produce simple sentences: introducing themselves, asking for directions, going shopping etc. Also, they were able to recognize and read almost all hiragana symbols. The katakana writing system was only introduced in the second term. By the end of the year, after a total of 24 classes of Japanese, all students could recognize and read almost all hiragana and katakana symbols, but still with difficulty. At this stage they had not read any Japanese text longer than 100 words, other than the conversation dialogues in their textbook. So, at the beginning of the second term, the teacher announced again what the final goal was: being able to read and understand the content of a short simple text in Japanese. The students were told they would read a short Japanese story in hiragana

without the alphabet readings. All students were enthusiastic about the idea of being able to read a text completely in Japanese.

About the Text

The text used for the reading was *Urashima Taro*. *Urashima Taro* is a traditional Japanese folk tale said to date back to the 8th century and first appeared in the popular illustrated fiction style, called *Otogizoshi*, during the 15th century. The story is about a fisherman who rescues a turtle from the bullying of children who are playing on the beach. He is rewarded for this with a visit to the Palace of Ryujin, the Dragon God, under the sea. He stays there for a couple of days and receives the kind welcome of the princess. But after his return to his village, he finds himself more than a hundred years in the future. First, the story and its history were introduced in English to build students' background knowledge. Next the text was read out loud by the teacher and the students were asked to follow the hiragana readings and to think about the meaning while listening. After the first reading, the teacher read the text again looking at content rather than word for word translation, and asked if the students could retell the story in English. Finally, some words and expressions considered useful for their daily conversations were looked at more closely and the class finished with a few minutes of discussion. The students' grammatical knowledge, vocabulary, and Japanese writing system reading skills were very limited, so consequently this activity was a big challenge for most.

Results

In the questionnaire, all the students reported that reading a text in hiragana after this short period of learning Japanese was really difficult. They stated that only one 90-minute class per week was not enough to master Japanese quickly, and the class, being a volunteer class, wasn't motivating enough to do additional study at home or work beyond the classroom. But in spite of these disadvantages, all the students mentioned that they enjoyed reading the story and the text that had been chosen. Some students

also wrote that although they could not understand every word they could understand the storyline and content. This shows that students who have a limited degree of grammatical knowledge, vocabulary, and Japanese writing system reading skills could still reach a good level of understanding. Other students reported that reading a narrative text could be useful for learning the Japanese writing system, in this case hiragana, and Japanese sentence structure in general. Furthermore, they commented that reading more of this type of texts could help them build reading skills. In all, the student responses to the reading activity and the teaching methodology proposed by the study were extremely positive, in spite of the fact that all of them had encountered a Japanese literary text for the first time. But what is most important for this study is that the students could acquire the confidence to read something in a new language and writing system. Taking these results into consideration, in answer to research question 1, it can be concluded that beginner-level Japanese language students think that reading a narrative text after a limited amount of instruction is very challenging but meaningful. In answer to research question 2, it can be said that reading a narrative story can engage and provide enjoyment even to beginner-level students. Moreover, the results showed that this kind of reading experience can benefit the learning process of beginner-level students in terms of their reading skills and knowledge of Japanese sentence structure. In that event, even at this stage, interaction with literary texts can provide not only a basic understanding of the story, but also conditions for enhancing students' more general language skills (Murdoch, 2001).

Discussion

Notwithstanding its small scale, the results of this study confirmed previous research from EFL about the usage of literature in the foreign language classroom. Notably, that reading narrative stories can engage and provide learners with enjoyment, and can benefit the learning process even at an early stage. This study also revealed that, as in EFL, the use of literature in JFL is a research field with many possibilities and could therefore be further explored. However, it should be

noted that the present study dealt with one single and particular JFL situation, with a limited number of participants. Also, for further research, the usage of a different text could have generated different results which is an important factor to consider. Thus, to generalize the possible benefits of literature in a beginner-level Japanese classroom environment a more detailed comparative study would be needed with a focus on specific approaches and associated activities.

On the other hand, the present study is part of ongoing research into the usage of literature in JFL that contributes knowledge to the practical applications of literature in JFL. Through exploring how literature is perceived and can actually be used in JFL, the researcher hopes to provide reasons for using alternative instruction methods in the future.

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Using Focus Groups for Qualitative Feedback on Psychometric Instruments

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The paper reports on the qualitative results which emerged from a focus group study conducted in order to troubleshoot and adapt a psychometric instrument measuring locus of control (LoC). Psychometric instruments are used to measure psychological traits and aptitudes as an aid to researchers in a variety of fields, including second language acquisition and language education. While statistical factor analysis and other statistical methods can be used to assess their reliability and validity when creating, adapting and attempting to improve instruments, it can also be valuable to gain a qualitative perspective, such as can be had through focus groups. The results of this study showed that the use of focus groups yielded a wide variety of useful insights.

本論は統制の所在(LoC)を測る心理測定尺度の問題を解消し他の状況に適応させるためにフォーカス・グループ研究から得られた質的結果を報告するものである。心理測定尺度は第二言語習得や言語教育を含め、様々な分野の研究者が心理特徴や能力を測るために使われている。尺度の作成、適応や改善の場合では統計因子分析やほかの統計方法で尺度の信頼性 妥当性を評価できるがフォーカス・グループのような質的な観点から見ることも価値がある。本論の研究からフォーカス・グループは様々な有益な示唆を与えることが分かった。

This qualitative focus group study was conducted as part of a mixed methods approach to the analysis of a psychometric instrument with the dual aims of adapting the instrument to the Japanese tertiary educational setting, as well as troubleshooting problems with the scale which were discovered through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Rupp, 2016). This focus group study is not meant replace, but rather to augment the statistical analysis conducted on the instrument as a means of providing an additional resource for interpreting the scores provided by CFA. The instrument under consideration was the Kambara

Locus of Control 43-Item Scale (see Appendix). This scale was designed for use at the secondary level in Japan but was deemed suitable through contact with the scale's author, Professor Kambara [M. Rupp, personal communication, May 14, 2014], for use at the tertiary level with modifications.

Adopting the Focus Group Approach

In order to obtain the emic perspective of tertiary level Japanese students, a focus group approach using university students was judged to be the most appropriate method, as this method allows for ideas and opinions to emerge from natural discussions, and for the emergent discourse to be further elicited, developed and confirmed. Among group interview methods, the focus group approach is considered to be one of the most popular qualitative research methods, and having been used for decades in academic social

Rupp, M. J. (2016). Using focus groups for qualitative feedback on psychometric instruments. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 162-170). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

science research it has now come into its own as a standalone data collection method. For researchers trying to find out why people believe certain things, focus groups are viewed as one of the best approaches as they allow the researcher to gain access to the nuanced reasons behind the answers to questions (Stokes, 2005).

This method exploits a group effect wherein complementary interactions of the group allow for unique insights due to the cross stimulation of ideas expressed among the members through a process known as the cascading effect (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002). Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick (2008) found that focus groups are a useful complement to quantitative research methods in the social sciences as an exploratory tool and when verifying the results of a quantitative study. Morgan and Spanish (1984) also indicate that focus groups can provide opportunities for triangulation in research when added to other qualitative or quantitative data collection strategies, and while Morgan (1988) notes that though focus groups cannot substitute for other kinds of research, they occupy a distinct position among methods in that they can provide access to otherwise difficult to obtain data.

In this study the focus group discussions were preceded by individual surveys about the instrument in order to provide a basis for the group discussions that followed. In this way, the focus group approach can also provide a triangulation of the data on a number of levels: the *individual* level – as the student comments are first individually obtained without consultation among members; the *intragroup* level – through a comparison among group members as they elaborate the data through their discussions; and finally the *intergroup* level – here a broader triangulation of the results arises from comparing the outcomes that arise among the different focus groups.

What is Locus of Control?

Locus of control (LoC) is a psychological construct that originated from the work of Julian Rotter (1916-2014), having its roots in his Social Learning Theory (1954). He later developed the first LoC scale in 1966 (Rotter, 1966). *Locus* means location or place, and

in this construct the controlling location for events in an individual's life can be viewed as being external (E) or internal (I). LoC is conceptualized as referring to a uni-dimensional continuum, ranging from E to I in various domains. Internal LoC means that the person believes that they are in control of their life, and external LoC means that the person believes that their life is controlled by external factors such as chance, fate, or powerful others. A high internal LoC has been shown to play a positive role in EFL learning as it can help students take control of their own learning (Ghonsooly, 2010) and is usually viewed as a healthy and desirable trait. However, being overly internal can also have adverse consequences, such as a tendency to excessively blame oneself for failure and to become neurotic. Conversely, though having high levels of external orientation is usually seen as too passive and fatalistic for successful outcomes, sometimes individuals that have a high level external LoC can actually benefit from the happy-go-lucky and easygoing attitude they may have towards life.

Rotter (1975, 1990) emphasized that locus of control is not a binary typology, but rather represents points on a continuum, as opposed to an either/or proposition. Although locus of control is a generalized expectancy, and can be used to predict behavior across situations, there may be domain specific situations in which people switch from behaving like externals to behaving like internals. One example of where this type of switch can occur is in domains in which the person has notable skills and experience, or conversely, a lack thereof. Some of the domains in which LoC scales are used include: *health* – to predict patient outcomes through protocol compliance; *business* – for employee evaluations; *education* – for student and teacher evaluations; and *psychology* – for the psychiatric evaluation of prisoners, parents, and children.

Locus of Control and Learner Autonomy

The LoC construct is one of a number of constructs, such as those offered by attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1967), self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977), and self-determination theories of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985) that are all notionally related to the construct of learner

autonomy (Holec, 1981; Duttweiler, 1984; Oxford, 2003). Although promotion learner autonomy is seen as a trait important enough to have been emphasized by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) for more than a decade (MEXT, 2003) there has been little empirical research which shows its predictive power on learning outcomes. Learner autonomy is a complicated construct with many dimensions (Oxford, 2003; Tassinari, 2012), and given the failures to date to directly measure learner autonomy (Horai, 2013a; Horai, 2013b), the author has proposed an alternative solution through the measurement of notionally related constructs, such as LoC (Rupp, 2016), of which this study is a qualitative component.

The Importance of Kambara LoC Scale

In the Japanese literature, the most prominent LoC scale found was one created by Kambara (1982, 1987). This scale was developed for investigating the LoC levels in a Japanese high school context. It was originally an 18-item scale that was later expanded to 43 items in order to better measure LoC as it relates to the lives of high school students. It is this expanded version, the Kambara 43-Item LoC Scale, that has been predominantly used for the last 30 years in Japan with studies using it appearing in a wide variety of domains, ranging from developmental psychology (Kanda, 2006), educational studies (Hosaka, 2007; Kambara, 1987) to studies about employee psychological distress in Japan (Fushimi, 2011). The popularity of this instrument made it a good candidate for investigation and adaptation to the tertiary level in Japan. The Kambara 43-Item LoC Scale consists of 43 statements for which students answer on a 4-point Likert scale which ranges from strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, somewhat agree to strongly agree.

Method

While psychometric instruments are normally dealt with using quantitative methods, this study is reporting on a qualitative focus group approach adopted as a means of providing explanatory resources for issues which emerged in a prior statistical analysis by the

author (Rupp, 2016) and also as a means of adapting the instrument to the tertiary level of education.

Participants

Five mixed-gender focus groups consisting of first year university students majoring in the sciences were created with each focus group ranging in size from four to six members, with a total of 27 participating students ($N = 27$). Members were randomly assigned to a focus group. The author was also a participatory member in the discussions, and all sessions were audio recorded, transcribed and translated by the author.

Procedure

Before beginning the focus group discussions, the students were first given the Kambara 43-Item LoC Scale Appropriateness Survey (results shown in the Appendix), consisting of the actual LoC instrument, which the students were asked to complete prior to evaluating the scale, and a separate survey for the students to evaluate the scale in terms of appropriateness to the tertiary level and for both potentially problematic scale items as well as overall scale issues. After writing their overall impressions of the instrument, students then analyzed and judged each item in a separate section with space for writing comments next to each item. With regards to appropriateness to the tertiary context, the students also had check boxes for “yes”, “no” or “not sure” next to each item, in answer to the question “Do you feel that this item is appropriate for university students?”, along with space for writing elaborative comments.

After completing the survey individually, students were moved to the focus group sessions. The discussions included issues related to the items' appropriateness to the tertiary level, as well as the overall perceived fitness of the LoC scale in general, including all aspects of both form and content. The time required for the actual focus group discussions, excluding the time needed for the students' individual completion of the instrument and the appropriateness survey questions, ended up being approximately 15 minutes per group. The amount of time for discussion was not predetermined, but rather based on the needs of acquiring information on the items which the

students found problematic. When the discussion on those items was exhausted, the focus group sessions were closed. These feedback and discussion sessions were later transcribed and translated from Japanese into English by the author. The author took part in the focus group discussions, mainly by taking meeting notes, eliciting elaborations and clarifying the opinions given by the focus group members, allowing the students lead the discussions.

After the results of the focus group meetings were transcribed and translated, the students' comments were gathered together for each scale item, as well as into the categories which had emerged for general scale feedback. The data from the meeting notes were also analyzed and categorized for emergent themes. The item appropriateness data were also entered into a spreadsheet in order to calculate the number of votes each item for the three categories regarding item appropriateness: YES; NOT SURE; and NO. Comments regarding each item were also collated according to item, along with general comments about the scale from both the written surveys, and triangulated with the data that emerged in the focus groups based on the analysis of the meeting notes and audio transcriptions.

Results

The results of the focus group study yielded data that can be categorized as general survey issues and item specific issues. Additionally, scale items were ranked in terms of perceived appropriateness based on the tabulated results (shown in the Appendix). The following general survey issues emerged from the focus group discussions:

- Likert Scale Issues
- Japanese Language Issues
- Age Inappropriateness
- Item Content Difficulty
- Survey Length and Item Repetitiveness

Likert Scale Issues

The first surprising point that came up in the discussions was that a number of students felt that

the ordering and range of the Likert scale should be reversed, going from positive to negative:

1 = I agree 2 = I somewhat agree 3 = I somewhat disagree 4 = I disagree. Some students felt confused by the Kambara scale starting with 1 = I disagree. Though not a universal sentiment, students who pointed this out appeared to feel quite strongly about it. Many students also expressed a desire for a 5-point Likert scale as they felt they could not give accurate answers when there was truly no preference. This can be a tricky issue as some researchers feel it is important to force a choice, rather than leaving an easy middle answer which can be chosen with less serious consideration. In this case more nuanced results might be possible with a 6-point scale.

Japanese Language Issues

Another unexpected theme that emerged was that the Japanese language seemed somewhat unnatural to some of the students, even though it was a native speaking Japanese researcher had created the items. Some students felt that the Japanese seemed like it was translated from English. Others also felt that the items should be qualified by adding the words "I think" to the beginning of the statements. The grammar itself did not appear to be questionable, with the exception of Item 6 – "My good fortune and misfortune are determined by chance." The students recommended including the particle "ni" (に) in the underlined phrase to read as follows: 自分が幸福になるか不幸になるかは偶然によって決められる. It was also suggested to change the ending of Item 6 to "depends on your mindset" (自分の心次第) because even after random events, whether one feels they are fortunate or unfortunate about the results depends on that person's unique outlook and values. As a non-native speaker of Japanese, these subtle nuances would be nearly impossible to catch without the free flowing feedback and discussion as provided in the focus group format. There were many other examples of suggested changes to the Japanese wording of various items.

Age Inappropriateness

The next theme that unexpectedly emerged was that although this instrument was designed for use at the

secondary school level, a number of students in this higher tertiary focus group study conversely felt that some items were set at a much higher target age group. Some students said that they felt this instrument would be very hard for high school students and younger to answer, as they are likely not to have given thought to such issues yet. Item 26 – “Getting into my first choice university depends more on luck than ability” was the only item explicitly directed at high school students and for this item it was suggested that it either be removed or merely changed to the past tense.

Item 21– “If I try hard, I will be able to get the job I want” and Item 22 – “Marrying an ideal partner depends on fate or luck” were cited as examples where students said they had not yet even begun to think about such topics. One student said that perhaps around the age of thirty, this would be a more relevant question. Along those lines, Items 5, 6, 9 and 14 were noted as being hard judge for someone who had only lived for twenty years.

Item Content Difficulty

Item 25 – “I often do impulsive things without being aware of them” was said to be unclear in meaning. It was criticized for requiring someone to be aware of not being aware, which was viewed as a contradiction in terms. Item 31 – “In your case, when it comes to test results, they are often influenced by your physical condition or other random events”, Item 36 – “There is no use in thinking about how to make friends with members of the opposite sex as such things are determined by fate/depend upon luck” and Item 41 – “My grades depend on the teacher”, were all noted as difficult questions to answer, as they were too childish (31), too negative (36), or excessively taboo (41).

The issue of negativity also arose with a number of students noting that the entire instrument had an overabundance of negative words and connotations. They would have preferred more positive questions to be included in the instrument. Additionally, Items 24 and 36, which involved making friends “with members of the opposite sex”, were viewed as unnecessarily placing an emphasis on gender, and a number of students felt that simply using the word “friends”

would be sufficient.

Survey Length and Item Repetitiveness

Finally, a common complaint about the instrument was the amount of repetition through similar questions, or questions asking the same thing, merely using reverse language through negative modifiers. This seems to have been very tedious for many students and is likely to produce bad data as student test fatigue sets in towards the latter half of the items, leading to random responses. An example of an item highlighted by the focus groups is Item 4 – “I decide my own life.” and Item 5 – “My life is decided by fate.” While the students experienced these kinds of questions as redundant, there is a measurement rationale for measuring a construct from both a positive and negative frame as a means of addressing response set bias and issues of item skew.

Discussion

Numerous issues emerged from the focus group discussions, but the most critical one appears to be the length of the instrument. The original Kambara LoC Scale (1982) had only 18 items, and based on the students’ feedback, a much a shorter scale appears to be preferable. The author’s experience in an earlier pilot study of the instrument involving 1200 high school students confirms this notion, as it was observed that as item fatigue set in, towards the latter half of the questionnaire, the students made an increasing number of mistakes, such as skipping questions, or circling answers in a predictable pattern such as a zigzag. The reduced implementation time required for an instrument with fewer items scale would be an additional benefit.

Recommended Changes based on Focus Group Feedback

Based on the feedback from the students, the changes that should be made to the instrument are as follows:

Vastly reduce the number of items and repetitive content, while avoiding items with high numbers of “no” votes, while including items with the highest numbers “yes” votes.

Avoid the unclear and age inappropriate items.

Make the scale more refined by adding further points for discrimination to it, and reverse the ordering of the scale to conform with the what the students perceive to be the standard ordering.

Adopt focus group suggestions for Japanese language changes where appropriate or necessary.

The author plans to implement a modified and abridged instrument based on the recommendations above and conduct a confirmatory factor analysis to check the validity and reliability of the modified instrument.

Conclusion

Adopting a focus group approach has allowed the author to become aware of many issues that would likely have never been noticed otherwise. The focus group format also provided the students with a chance to express themselves more fully and freely than in normal student-teacher interactions. This was a role they seemed to appreciate, feeling empowered as their opinions about the instrument were being valued by the teacher. They were given a chance to say what they thought about the instrument rather than merely being surveyed under it. In this study, the focus was on the form and content instrument itself, but one could also adopt a focus group approach towards an analysis of the results of instruments, as a way to gain deeper insight into the thinking underpinning the students' answers. By going beyond the statistical data through the use of focus groups the author was both pleased and humbled find answers to questions that were not even known to ask beforehand, adding a valuable avenue of understanding through which to improve the psychometric instrument.

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Appendix

Kambara 43-Item LoC Scale

(Translated by author; including the Item Appropriateness Results - YES, NOT SURE, NO)

Note: "I" refers to items measuring internal LoC and "E" for those measuring external LoC. Students taking the surveys do not see such information.

Item	I/E		YES	NOT SURE	NO
1	E	It is best to just go with the flow.	10	4	20
2	I	I can be a great success if I work hard.	5	1	20
3	I	Anyone will be able to understand me if I try my best to communicate with them.	5	1	19
4	I	I decide my own life.	6	1	10
5	E	My life is decided by fate.	7	9	14
6	E	My good fortune and misfortune are determined by chance.	6	5	16
7	E	What happens depends on the situation.	8	1	13
8	E	My friends can't understand me no matter how hard I try.	9	2	15
9	E	Life is like gambling.	4	8	21
10	I	It is useful (meaningful) to think about what I want to be in the future.	3	0	17
11	I	If I try hard, I can do anything on my own.	3	4	17
12	I	Usually, things turn out better if I make my own decisions.	8	0	20
13	I	My happiness or sadness will be determined by my own efforts.	4	0	14
14	I	I will be able to live my entire life as I plan to.	7	3	15
15	E	My future is determined by fate or chance.	4	6	12
16	E	What happens does not depend on my efforts.	5	7	18
17	I	I can be a friend with anyone if I try.	6	1	15
18	E	Your efforts and success are not really related to each other.	4	5	16
19	I	If I am careful about my actions, people will trust me.	6	2	16
20	E	My ability to make good friends depends on the class or club's atmosphere.	5	4	18
21	I	If I try hard, I will be able to get the job I want.	6	1	14
22	E	Marrying an ideal partner depends on fate or luck.	7	4	18

23	I	It is easy to get a good score on tests if I prepare for lessons and review afterwards.	7	1	16
24	I	I can make friends with the opposite sex if I try.	6	2	14
25	E	I often do impulsive things without being aware of them.	9	2	11
26	E	Getting into my first choice university depends more on luck than ability.	7	7	17
27	E	Being able to maintain long friendships depends on the external situation (environment).	6	1	19
28	E	When you take actions, it is more often the case that others have suggested them rather than you acting upon your own desires.	5	1	17
29	I	If a class in school is boring, it is because you are not interested in that subject.	5	2	20
30	I	I always decide what I'm going to do.	4	0	13
31	E	In your case, when it comes to test results, they are often influenced by your physical condition or other random events.	6	6	18
32	E	It is hard for me to do things as I have planned.	5	1	15
33	E	We can't change how smart or stupid we are.	5	5	19
34	I	Maintaining friendships depends on your effort.	5	0	16
35	I	If necessary, I can suppress my desires at any time.	7	1	10
36	E	There is no use in thinking about how to make friends with members of the opposite sex as such things are determined by fate/depend upon luck.	7	7	17
37	E	My actions tend to end up going along with the flow of circumstances.	6	1	21
38	I	The results are far better when I prepare for exams in advance.	3	0	20
39	I	It is important to think about my actions in order to have good relationships with my friends.	4	1	17
40	I	Even if my friends have different ideas, I place a priority on my own actions.	7	1	18
41	E	My grades depend on the teacher.	3	3	18
42	I	If I am kind to my friends, someday they will help me.	6	2	0
43	E	I often find myself doing things that I don't like to do.	2	17	6

Expanding Horizons: Scaffolding Techniques for Teaching Global Issues

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This paper explains how the introduction of a number of English content courses at the author's university has led him to explore the use of various techniques to scaffold the content of his classes so that students get the most out of the courses. The author will briefly outline theoretical support for scaffolding and then share many of the techniques he uses in his English-medium courses to bridge the gap in level between the course material and the current English proficiency-levels of his students.

本稿は、大学に英語のcontent-based coursesを導入するにあたり、効果的かつ効率的なコースをどのように構築するかについて説明するものである。content-based coursesとは、言語そのものについてではなく学習する内容や情報を中心に構成された第二言語指導のことである。そのコースにおいては、学生が最大限に授業の内容を理解できるように、いわゆるscaffolding（足場）としての様々な方法と工夫を探究する必要がある。本稿では、まずscaffoldingの理論的背景を説明し、次に、学生の現在の英語力と授業内容のレベルの差を埋めるために使用する様々な方法を共有する。

The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) established the Global 30 program in 2008 to “nurture internationally competent individuals by creating an academic environment where international and Japanese students can learn from one another” (MEXT, 2009, p. 3). One important feature of the program is that non-Japanese students will be able to earn a four-year degree entirely in English. The program has an ambitious goal of having 300,000 foreign students studying in Japan by 2020. Though Shizuoka University of Art and Culture (hereinafter SUAC), where the author teaches, is not eligible to participate

in the Global 30 due to lack of English-medium content courses and its small size, the program has had a knock-on effect nonetheless on the curriculum at SUAC.

While there are a number of terms used to refer to English-medium instruction, these terms are often pedagogically indistinguishable from each other (Cenoz, 2015). As such, I have chosen to use the term “English-medium instruction.” Ultimately, the goal is to teach both the subject content and the language the subject matter is presented in. Noteworthy benefits of English-medium instruction include that students are exposed to a large amount of language via stimulating content (Brinton, 2003). Another important benefit is that language is contextualized; language is not taught as isolated fragments but in context, allowing students to draw connections to what they already know (Snow, 2001). Also, successful learning can lead to an increase in intrinsic motivation as students see

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themselves improving (Grabe & Stoller 1997).

According to Wood (1976) the concept of “scaffolding,” or “providing assistance to students to help them achieve what otherwise would be too difficult for them” (p. 91), is a useful concept to keep in mind when planning English-medium courses. Benson (1997) notes that scaffolding is a “bridge used to build upon what students already know, to arrive at something they do not know” (p. 126). A useful way to do that is by breaking concepts, lessons and tasks into smaller, more manageable parts and presenting them to students with some type of support. Implicit in any attempt to grade material for easier comprehension is an understanding of the student’s prior knowledge and abilities. Experienced instructors familiar with particular contexts, student populations and their needs can make deliberate choices based on direct knowledge of ability levels and standardized test scores. The aim of this paper is to explain some of the techniques used in English medium courses to bridge the gap between course content and the current English proficiency-levels of students.

Context

SUAC is a small, prefectural university of about 1,500 students located in Hamamatsu, Shizuoka, Japan. The university is purposefully marketing itself as a smaller, regional school strong in foreign language education and features its English program and English-medium content course offerings prominently in marketing materials.

Currently, the author teaches a Survey of English Literature course in English. Until 2015, when a new, three-course English-medium Global Studies module was introduced, this was the only English-medium course at SUAC. Experimenting with the techniques explained in this paper in the English Literature course has proved to be good preparation for the new Global Studies module. In addition to the Survey of English Literature course, the author currently teaches one of the Global Studies courses. Each semester-long course meets 15 times for 90 minutes per session, and only one section of each course is offered.

These four English-medium courses are available to students in the Department of International

Culture. The departmental TOEIC average for first-year students was 534 points on the test administered in December 2015. The available English-medium courses have had enrollment averages of 40-50 students to date. Despite a relatively high average departmental TOEIC score, currently, there are no prerequisites and any student in the department may take the courses. Predictably, student performance has proven to be somewhat uneven; some students do quite well and others struggle. In order to provide the best quality instruction possible for all students, the author has begun exploring approaches and techniques that will allow him to deliver English-medium instruction while ensuring that the content is accessible considering the current proficiency-level of students.

Scaffolding Techniques

This section will describe some scaffolding techniques used by the author that can help students achieve mastery of English-medium content that may otherwise be beyond their current proficiency-level.

Goals

In planning lessons it can be very useful to set clear and achievable lesson goals and articulate them to students. At the beginning of each lesson, a teacher may write the objectives for the day on the board. The goals should be simple and, importantly, achievable for students, otherwise they could end up being demotivating if not achieved. An example of a goal for a lesson from a unit on climate change may be “to learn the five main causes of climate change.” This goal is clear, measurable and achievable. The last few minutes of the lesson could be used to have students, individually or in pairs or groups, make a list of the five causes of climate change. If a majority are unable to do so, the teacher may choose to either adapt his or her lesson (or the goal) to ensure that it is reached the next time.

Schemata

The author has noticed significant differences in the amount of background knowledge students have for his Global Studies course and his English Literature

course. Most students have some knowledge of issues such as climate change, migration or terrorism. However, many of them are unfamiliar with English literature beyond perhaps Shakespeare. This suggests spending time on an activity to help students activate their schemata about a topic at the beginning of a unit could be useful. Students can work in pairs or groups to brainstorm words or phrases (or even draw pictures) about a topic. Next, they can either share their list with another pair or group, or contribute to a whole-class mind map compiled on the whiteboard. This activity can build student confidence by demonstrating that they know more about a topic than they may realize.

Pre-teaching Vocabulary

However, even when students do have some background knowledge about a topic it can still be necessary to pre-teach vocabulary and expressions that they are unlikely to have met previously. For example, words like “atmosphere,” expressions like “sustainable development” and concepts like “tragedy of the commons” in a unit on climate change may be unknown (at least in English) to a majority of students. How much time to devote to pre-teaching these terms should depend on how important the words or expressions are to the overall understanding of the unit.

Visual Support

Many Japanese university students are used to their professors lecturing for 90 minutes without any visual support at all. This may be acceptable for students hearing an academic lecture in their native language but it is not satisfactory pedagogy when teaching an English-medium course to students with far less than native English proficiency. It is necessary to use visuals to make input more comprehensible (and to reduce boredom). A well-chosen image with a brief explanation can often convey information that would take many minutes to explain, and possibly still not lead to understanding. For example, a visual showing a field with different ranchers grazing increasingly more cattle on common land and the resulting damage to the land can often convey the “tragedy of the commons” concept much easier than a wordy

explanation. As with pre-teaching vocabulary, the teacher should decide how critical the information is and how to most efficiently and effectively present it.

Another factor that may considerably help improve comprehension is the pairing (or grouping) of students. There are many possible ways to do this; students can be assigned a different partner every lesson or left to choose their own partner. Classmates can stimulate each other to achieve more than they would be able to achieve on their own. They will certainly be able to ask each other’s questions, check comprehension and gauge their understanding in comparison to each other. Pairing students is usually more of an art than a science as some pairs work wonderfully together and others fall flat. The author has found that allowing students to choose their own partner one week and assigning them a partner the following week often works well. In this way, teachers can purposely pair a higher-level student with a lower-level student and also ensure that unproductive pairs are not together longer than one week while also allowing students the opportunity to choose who they work with, at least some of the time.

Providing a Model

Providing a model, for example of how to take good notes, can be another effective technique to scaffold challenging content. Preparing a handout with an outline of a PowerPoint-based lecture can help students understand what the key points of the lecture are. This is something they may be unlikely to be able to do without the outline. An outline can serve as a model to guide students as they learn how to take good notes. For example, a note-taking outline for a lecture about Soft Power may have the following entry: “Soft Power can be contrasted with _____” in which students would be required to listen and fill in the words “Hard Power” on the blank space provided on the outline. As students improve, the amount of detail in the outline can be reduced as the bridge that scaffolding provides is progressively removed. One drawback of this technique that I have found is that students sometimes tune out for much of the lecture and only pay attention when they see a slide with an answer that goes on their note-taking

outline. One way around this problem is to require less closed-ended “right or wrong” answers on the note-taking outline and more open-ended questions that ask students to interpret and draw conclusions based on what they have heard. Rather than ask for only the words “Hard Power” a better example might be “Explain two ways in which Soft Power and Hard Power are different?”

Checking Comprehension

Comprehension questions provide a good check for students to gauge how much of the content they understand. For example, students can work individually to answer questions about a topic and then compare their answers with a partner. Pairs can join another pair to form a group for a final check of answers. Students can then ask the teacher to answer any questions that are still unclear. In a multiple-week unit or in the latter part of a lesson, questions can become more difficult to promote discussion and deeper inquiry into a topic. Questions could move from comprehension questions to more challenging inference questions and finally discussion questions. As noted above, questions without one “right” answer can encourage students to share opinions and ideas and allow teachers to get a sense of whether students are getting a deeper understanding of the material. Many incorrect answers or unproductive discussions can indicate to teachers either that they must do a better job of presenting the material or choose different questions.

Graphic Organizers

Another useful technique to help students make sense of challenging material is to use graphic organizers. This can be incorporated into the note-taking model or used independently. Organizing material visually can help students make connections between concepts that they may otherwise be unable to make (Katayama, 2000). Similarly, video can be another good medium to make challenging content more accessible and to break up a lengthy lecture. Even a dense video can be made comprehensible when multiple listenings are permitted and tasks move from easy to increasingly difficult. In a first listening, students may be asked

simply to watch and number a set of words in the order in which they are heard. Two or three simple comprehension questions can be asked during a second listening, and a third listening could involve a Cloze/gap-fill activity. Creative activity design can allow virtually any video to be productively used in class. Again, the ability of students to answer correctly or not can give a teacher valuable hints as to whether the activity has been well designed or not.

Information Gap Activities

Information gap activities can also be particularly useful in English-medium classes because they have inherently clear outcomes. Info gaps can be used to review or confirm comprehension when students are randomly given one of two handouts with incomplete information. Students can then be asked to fill in the empty spaces on their handout by asking questions of classmates with the other handout. They will know they have completed the task when their handout is filled-in and will be getting communicative speaking practice as well. One way to utilize information gaps in content classes is as a review of material presented in the lecture. For example, many of the important points of the lecture can be listed on the info gap handout. After they have compiled all the information on their handouts, students can work together to complete another column asking if the statements about the lecture material are true or false. Too many incorrect answers can be another indication that material is not effectively getting through to students.

Review & Reflection Techniques

Reflective journals can help students think about their performance and consider areas in which they may have room for improvement. They can be a way of “encouraging students to think more deeply and teachers to listen more effectively” (Beveridge 1997, p. 34). One way to approach reflective journals could include a combination of entries based on teacher prompts like asking students to share how they felt about course content, assignments or level of difficulty and students being free to write anything they’d like about a lesson or unit. In addition to the checks built in to the activities mentioned above, reflective journals

can also be useful for teachers to gather data about student learning experiences in order to improve a course when it becomes clear that students have found something too challenging, inaccessible, or the opposite.

Reviewing important vocabulary and concepts, perhaps with a fun activity such as a crossword puzzle, could also be included in a content-based course. Some may question the pedagogic value of doing this but, in the author's experience, crossword puzzles get an overwhelmingly positive response from students, which has convinced me of their utility. Playing a quiz-type game, with students in pairs and the first pair to answer a question correctly receiving a point, is another fun way to review material. Friendly competitions can keep students on task, increase motivation, reduce students' affective filter and promote cooperation while also reinforcing lesson content.

Finally, reserving the last few minutes of class for students to do a self-assessment is also often productive. Students answer a few questions about what they learned that day, what was difficult for them and what they have questions about. Finally, they can assess their overall performance for the day on a five-item Likert scale from excellent to poor. This can be seen as a modified version of a reflective journal and is a chance for students to let a teacher know how difficult they find the lesson content and, therefore, what parts of a lesson may need more scaffolding or should be redesigned.

Conclusion

Teaching content courses in English to non-native speakers in an EFL context requires experimentation with various techniques and activities to ensure that course material is comprehensible to students. This paper has attempted to explain some useful techniques for scaffolding course content. It seems clear that there is a trend in university-level education in Japan towards more English-medium instruction. The need for effective scaffolding techniques and activity sequencing to make challenging high-level content accessible to non-native level students will continue to be an important issue and one deserving of ever more attention. Therefore, teachers interested in providing

the best quality instruction possible would be wise to, at a minimum, be aware of some of the many techniques to scaffold challenging content to meet our students' needs.

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Problem Solving and Community Engagement at a University Student Conference

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This paper reports on a conference designed to help Japanese university students develop practical English skills. In Japan, students seldom have an opportunity to use English in any real context, which lowers motivation and hampers the development of integrated language skills. This was the impetus for the creation of the Asian Community Engagement Conference (ACE), a platform for raising social awareness and community engagement through English discussion, presentation and problem-solving activities. This paper discusses the ACE Conference goals, problem-solving activities, consensus building and group dynamics, and student experiences at the conference.

EFL環境下において、学生達にとって、各課程で学んだスキルを実践する機会は皆無に等しい。英語話者があまり在住しておらず、コミュニケーションの手法として英語を用いる観光インフラが整っていない日本において、これは顕著に現れる。英語を使用する機会が欠如しているために、結果として、日本の教育システムは、英語による伝達能力の発達よりも、言語知識に特化した言語能力を重点的に行っている(2009年、岩井)。改善方法として、学生が実践的な英語スキルを発達させることのできる現実的なシナリオを用意することが挙げられる。これを元に、アジア・コミュニティ・エンゲージメント・カンファレンス(Asian Community Engagement Conference (ACE))が誕生した。ACE会議の目標、問題解決への取り組み、合意形成、集団力学、および会議において学生が経験したことについて説明する。

Conference Goals

This paper reports on a university student conference designed to help develop the productive English skills of students. As Japan relies more heavily on international trade, it is believed that the development

of communicative competence is an essential part of preparing Japanese students to become members of a global workforce (Iwai, 2009). However, many university students have not had experience in the collaboration, creation, and the exchange of ideas that is necessary to fostering students with practical English skills (Xiaoping, Mohan, & Early, 1998).

The university student conference discussed in this paper took place on January 24 and 25, 2015 at a university in Osaka, Japan. The conference included 48 students from various universities and majors. The two-day conference consisted of two parts: poster

Sheehan, M. D., Sarich, E. P., Thorpe, T., & Dunn, R. (2016). Problem solving and community engagement at a university student conference. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 177-184). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

presentation sessions by students who reported on their current research and presentations by student teams who worked together at the conference to devise solutions to problems related to global issues and community engagement. After an explanation of the pedagogical and theoretical background on collaborative learning, a description of the processes used to engage students in problem solving and collaborative learning at the conference will follow. The paper will conclude by listing some of the limitations of these activities and give suggestions to teachers who are interested in replicating this event.

The student conference had a number of goals that were intended not only to improve students' language skills, but also to give the participants a chance to network with people from other academic fields and universities, and to take part in problem-solving activities and collaborative learning. The aims of the conference were two-fold: (1) to give students an opportunity to create and deliver a poster presentation in their area of study; (2) to give students an opportunity to work together on a team to discuss problems, reach a consensus, and present their solutions.

Studies of communicative skills and cooperative learning

English education in Japan has always suffered from a gap between the ideal and the reality. The Ministry of Science Education and Technology (MEXT) states on their homepage that in response to rapid globalization, the development of communication skills is especially important for Japanese students (MEXT, 2014). However, a recent report on a comparison of world TOEFL scores indicated that Japanese scores in English speaking and writing are the lowest in Asia (ETS, 2014).

In Japanese junior and senior high schools, most English classes tend to be non-communicative and teacher-centered, taught in a familiar classroom setting with classmates that all know each other, and are roughly at the same level of language proficiency. This traditional methodology does not foster the development of productive English skills among

students. Students taught using the abovementioned methodology need to be exposed to a new learning environment and different approach to English language study in order to meet the needs of a diverse workforce.

Much has been written about the benefits of task-based and collaborative learning in EFL settings (McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007; Richards & Renandya, 2002). Larsen-Freeman states that, "cooperative or collaborative learning essentially involves students learning from each other in groups" (p. 164). In this setting, students must share ideas and listen to the opinions of others. These essential skills will be necessary for many students in their future careers. Encouraging students to see the benefits of learning from each other in English creates a positive language-learning environment, helps develop confidence, creates more opportunities for language output, and improves students' English comprehension. Moving students outside of the classroom, and away from the teacher-centered, textbook-focused setting "helps students learn how to learn more effectively" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 164).

Similarly, Apple (2006) pointed out that cooperative learning fosters intrinsic motivation among students; and Shaaban and Ghaith (2005) have shown that cooperative learning among students helps develop integrated learning, which "addresses and integrates the pedagogical implications of the sub-skills as well as the functional and interactional models of language" (p. 14).

The ACE student conference was designed to create cooperative learning opportunities by having students work on teams with students from other universities, from different academic backgrounds, and with different language levels. It was hoped that the chance to work with a diverse group of students would be stimulating, and working on familiar social problems would be relevant to students as well as help build community awareness and unity. For educators who are interested in having their students take part in the activities described below, please refer to a description of the conference format given in Table 1 in the appendix.

Poster Presentations

Holding students individually accountable for their work is thought to be one of the main tenants of collaborative learning (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1998), and poster presentations are thought to be an effective way of motivating students to explore subjects more deeply (Morgan, 2012). Poster presentations at the ACE conference were intended to give students a chance to present on a familiar topic that they had studied in their university courses in the preceding fall semester. This activity helped build confidence, encouraged students to become experts in their fields of study, and also provided a warm-up to the more challenging problem-solving presentations that would be required of them in the second part of the conference. Having the students use a familiar topic to prepare and practice their poster presentations over the course of a semester enabled them to develop the skills and confidence that would be called upon when they took part in the larger, more complex tasks of the problem-solving presentations.

Problem-solving Presentations

After the morning poster presentation sessions, the remaining part of the conference was devoted to a problem-solving workshop and subsequent team presentations of the students' solutions. Students were put into four teams and each team of 10-12 students was given a list of four problems. The teams were given materials to help guide them through the process, including a handout on brainstorming techniques, a guide on how to define problems, instruction in the steps to follow in the problem-solving process, and a status timeline so that students could monitor their progress and stay on task. Within each team, the students discussed each of the problems and chose one problem to solve. Table 2 lists the problems that students were given. Students were teamed up with learners from other majors and universities as a way to make this process more interesting and to encourage a wide range of ideas from people with different backgrounds. Table 3 lists information about the conference participants.

Consensus Building

After agreeing on which problem to solve, students worked in groups to define it and discuss it. They brainstormed possible solutions, and after negotiation, settled on the solution they would advocate. They then began to formulate a plan to implement their solution. During the discussions and presentations, the medium of communication was English.

Using a self-created process, the groups examined their solutions. Within each group, students had to discuss, question, answer, make suggestions, and explain their ideas. The goal of this stage was to determine what needed to be done, who would do it, when it would be started, how it would be carried out, and why these actions would solve (or at least alleviate) the problem. The process that students took part in is an example of cooperative learning.

Group Dynamics

The students that attended ACE were organized into four groups based on the principles of cooperative learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1998). Students were separated into heterogeneous groups, consisting of different backgrounds and English proficiency levels in order to approximate the kind of group dynamic they may experience in a global work environment. A secondary motivation was to lessen anxiety among lower-level students by having them rely on the strengths of some of their higher-level peers.

Assigning a realistic task that was socially relevant fostered positive interdependence among group members. The outcome was completed by cooperating together within a common workspace. The tasks were intended to raise students' desire to participate.

Large group assignments with students of different levels and backgrounds and the limited teacher involvement fostered an environment where roles and responsibilities formed organically. Naturally, senior students with higher English levels tended to take on leadership roles, but working with peers on the relevant task created a sense of obligation among those students with lower linguistic levels to offer support in different ways, such as working on the PowerPoint presentation, or providing solutions or ideas.

Presentation Planning

After deciding on their solutions, students began planning their presentations. This process included researching background information on their chosen topic, writing, creating multimedia artifacts, revising, and eventually rehearsing for the presentation.

The defined goals of the presentation were to create a clear, attention-grabbing title slide, followed by an outline slide. Students were then expected to define the problem, its symptoms and causes. They then had to explain their solution in detail, using graphics, charts, and data to support and elucidate their ideas. In their conclusion, students were expected to suggest a viable resolution to the problem, as well as follow-up plans for future remediation.

Teacher involvement

One of the precepts of developing communicative competence is student-centered learning in which the teacher takes on the role as facilitator (Iwai, 2009). During problem solving-tasks at ACE, much of the work done by teachers was undertaken behind the scenes, deciding on the schedule and terms of the conference agenda, determining the problem-solving themes, and organizing the students into groups. During the actual group work, five advisors (teachers) helped the students begin the project with brainstorming tasks to get started, and then established highly motivated learners as group leaders to help facilitate the groups in the beginning. After initial ideas began to form and group leaders started to take over, the advisors stepped back, rotating among rooms to question students on their ideas, give feedback, and to help spur things forward.

Presentations

The student presentations took place during the afternoon on the second day of the conference. Students adhered to the presentation schedule and arrived at the presentation area prepared and ready to present. More information on the student presentations and materials can be viewed at the ACE website: <http://acestudentconference.weebly.com/>. The presentations were delivered successfully and students were able to feel a sense of accomplishment

brought about by cooperative learning and teamwork. The conference advisors were pleased with the variety of solutions and creativity of the presentations that were developed in such a short period of time. Teams presented solutions to problems 1, 2 and 3 respectively (see Table 3).

Students' Reactions

Examples of student testimonials are listed in Table 4. More testimonials can be found at the ACE website: <http://acestudentconference.weebly.com/>. The student testimonials from this two-day student conference indicate that the conference provided a number of valuable learning experiences. Students could use English in a setting that was outside of the classroom with people they had never met before, listen to new ideas from a variety of people, work on a team to think of a practical solution to a problem, and then present their ideas and rationale to a large audience.

Limitations

After the positive results of the first ACE conference in January 2015, the organizers have also successfully completed the second ACE conference on December 19 and 20, 2015. The second ACE conference allowed the organizers to refine the conference format, and overcome some of the limitations of the first conference. Instructors interested in replicating the event described in this paper, should be aware of the following limitations. Access to university facilities on weekends or when classes are not in session is an essential element to holding a successful conference. Furthermore, teachers must be teaching courses that allow them to have students work on poster presentation assignments. Finally, since there are multifarious benefits to having students from different universities and majors work together, organizers must build a network of teachers who are willing to dedicate a significant amount of time preparing their students, organizing the event, and seeing it through over a weekend.

If the above requirements are not feasible, an alternative format must be considered. For instructors who are eager to have students take part in poster

presentations and problem-solving and collaborative learning activities, the events described above may be able to be replicated on a smaller scale with one or two courses (depending on class size and student levels). If teachers do not have access to information related to community problems, they may be able to substitute the problems with issues around their university campus. However, if this is done, much may be lost in terms of authenticity, and students will wind up working in the familiar setting of the classroom with students they may already know. Furthermore, there are time constraints since university courses in Japan generally meet once a week for 90 minutes. As a result, the authors would advise instructors to at least collaborate with colleagues who are teaching similar courses at their home university, and take time outside of regular lesson periods for the event.

Conclusion

As language educators, we are all aware of the benefits of working together to share ideas and present on our research at academic conferences. The ACE conference has taught the authors that these activities can be equally beneficial (and inspirational) to our students. Insights gained from this student conference will be used to organize other conferences. It is hoped that other educators will be inspired to either participate in future conferences, or organize their own student conference.

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Appendix

TABLE 1
Format of the Conference

	Pre-conference Preparation	Activities at the conference
<i>Poster Presentations (Day 1, 9:30am- 12:00pm)</i>	Students who volunteered to join the conference were enrolled in courses with conference advisors or organizers. As part of their coursework, students did research on a topic, prepared a poster presentation and practiced delivering the poster presentation in the course.	Students set up their posters in an open area at the conference site and took turns presenting their posters and also viewing other poster presentations. Each session took approximately one hour and included Q&A sessions. There were two sessions to accommodate the number of presentations.
<i>Problem-Solving Presentations (Day 1, 1:30pm-5:00pm; Day 2, 9:30am-5:00pm)</i>	Students were given instructions on the conference format and goals and told that they would receive four problems to discuss and would have to choose one problem to solve and give a team presentation on. Students did not receive the problems until they met in groups at the conference in the afternoon of day 1.	Students were put into teams of 10-12 students. The teams consisted of mixed levels with students from different universities and majors. Students had to choose a problem to solve, brainstorm ideas for the solution, make a PowerPoint presentation, practice the presentation, present the presentation to an audience of about 50 people, and take part in a Q&A session about their presentation.

TABLE 2
Problems Given to Teams to Discuss and Solve

Problem 1

Elementary schools have long summer vacations. It can be difficult for working mothers to take care of their children during summer vacations. Children have a lot of homework, but may not have many healthy, fun or educational activities to take part in. Children need to spend their summers doing healthy and educational activities. Working mothers need support.

Think of an innovative plan to solve this problem. What can you do to make summer vacation more healthy, educational and fun for elementary school students in your community? Propose specific ideas to solve this problem.

Problem 2

Japan has been trying to increase the number of foreign visitors and become more international. Communities will play an important role in welcoming foreigners to Japan.

Create a plan for a sustainable, international-friendly community. What innovative events or services will help communities become more welcoming to international visitors?

Problem 3

There are many benefits to having young people interact with older people in their communities. Both generations have a lot to teach each other.

Think of an innovative plan to foster interaction between these two generations. You can consider a number of areas: education, childcare, Information Technology, and the environment.

Problem 4

According to a United Nation’s report, the number of people aged 65 and above in Asia is expected to grow to 857 million in 2050, which will then account for 18% of the total population. This will likely pose a great challenge on the healthcare and social welfare system. However, at the same time, an increase in the number of elderly people will also expand the seniors market, creating many business opportunities. These opportunities do not only refer to the traditional healthcare products, like walking sticks or wheelchairs, but also entertainment and service needs. Think of an innovative business idea that caters the needs of the elderly in your community.

Note. Teams had to discuss all four problems and agree on one problem to solve.

TABLE 3
Problem-Solving Team Member Backgrounds

University	Major	Language Level	Nationality
Hannan University	Economics	Low-intermediate	Japanese & Chinese
Hannan University	International Communication	Intermediate	Japanese
Kindai University	English Communication	Upper-Intermediate	Japanese
Shizuoka University of Art and Culture	International Culture	Intermediate	Japanese

Note. Teams had mixed levels and majors

TABLE 4
Student Comments on the Conference Experience

I am a little shy. But at the ACE conference, I could speak English with the other members and they could understand me. I was also able to present my ideas in front of many people in English. After the conference, I became motivated to study English more, because it was fun to use it. I want to go again next year!

In this two-day-conference, I met many new friends and had progress in learning English. In order to complete the project presentation, we exchanged views with each other and achieved consensus finally. I felt very happy.

I have never been overseas and so I have never used English before. At the ACE conference, we didn’t care about our English level. We all could talk freely and at our own pace. I also learned from the other students many great ideas about developing an internationally-minded local community. It was a great experience for my life!

It is an amazing event and we have to use our knowledge at a maximum and create something fast.

Note. Comments edited for clarity by the authors

Mindfulness in Educational Settings

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Although the word *mindfulness* originally applied to Buddhist doctrine, it is coming to be recognized for having educational applications. Educators may seek to find ways to cultivate greater mindfulness in students, or they may seek ways to become more mindful themselves. Research is indicating that subtle changes in the way teachers give instructions could have the effect of making students more mindful, and some schools are introducing mindfulness meditation training for students. As for teacher mindfulness, mindfulness meditation practices are being developed and tried while mindfulness workshops and programs are being offered. This paper identifies several approaches to cultivate mindfulness in education and provides brief descriptions of their efficacy.

マインドフルネスは、もともと仏教の教義に適用されるが、教育用アプリケーションを持つために認識され始めています。教育者は、マインドフルネスを学生に育成するため、そして自分自身の意識を高めるための方法を模索することができます。その研究では、教師の微妙な変化や命令は、学生を意識させる効果を得ることができることを示しています。教師のマインドフルネスとして、数々の研究、開発が行われ、試みられています。本稿では、いくつかのこのようなアプローチを識別し、それらの効果を簡単に説明します。

Mindfulness became commonly used in English after Buddhist scholar Thomas William Rhys Davids used it to translate the Pali term *sati*. In Buddhism, *sati* is important as the first of seven factors of enlightenment. Piyadassi Thera (1960) goes so far as to write that *sati* is the “most efficacious in self-mastery, and whosoever practices it has found the path to deliverance (enlightenment)” (p. 7).

While the English translation *mindfulness* never contained the loftiness or nuance of the Pali term, it did maintain the basic meaning of “being in the present” and having presence of mind. In simplest terms, it means paying complete attention without confusion or forgetfulness.

Spiri, J. (2016). Mindfulness in educational settings. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 185-190). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Heffernan (2015) writes that in the 1970s, American Buddhist teacher Jon Kabat-Zinn sought to “scrub mindfulness of its religious origins” (para. 4). Kabat-Zinn refined the definition to “the awareness that arises through paying attention on purpose in the present moment, and non-judgmentally” (as quoted in Heffernan, 2015, para. 4).

Mindfulness in Education

It’s not difficult to imagine why a term like *mindfulness* would find its way into education. Maintaining composure in class is of utmost importance for a teacher. Attending to the educational needs of 20 or more individuals is not a simple matter. Classes do not unfold smoothly for teachers who themselves do not notice the atmosphere, setting, and most importantly the way students are interacting with their environment and with each other. And yet, as the term *mindfulness* implies, the challenge for teachers is

to not only pay attention to what is happening in the classroom, but what we are feeling as well. As Jennings (2015a) writes, “With mindful awareness we can both sense and observe our internal states” (xii). As such, mindfulness in education may refer to programs or movements to cultivate teacher mindfulness, or lessons to help learners become more mindful.

Mindfulness for students

In *The Power of Mindful Learning*, Langer (1989) has claimed that no measure such as new school curricula, higher standards for testing, or increased budgets, “will make enough difference unless students are given the opportunity to learn more mindfully” (p. 3).

Furthermore, Langer has demonstrated the positive effects of mindfulness and the conditions under which it flourishes. Her approach has been to research relatively small ways in which teachers can help lead students to mindfulness. For example, in one unpublished study, Dudkin, Brandt, Bodner and Langer showed that teaching material conditionally “allows students to manipulate the information creatively in a different context” (as cited in Langer, 1989, p. 18). High school students with the same education in physics were split into two groups. One group received straightforward directions explaining a video and subsequent questionnaire. The second group was given identical directions with the additional conditional statement: “The video presents only one of several outlooks on physics, which may or may not be helpful to you. Please feel free to use any additional methods you want to assist you in solving the problems” (p. 18). The result was that both groups performed equally well on direct tests. However, the second group, who had received additional conditional instructions, was more able to use the information in the video creatively. In addition, students who were not given the additional instructions tended to complain more about the material.

The theme of exploring whether open-ended directions lead students to lateral thinking is common in Langer’s mindfulness research. Langer writes, “If novelty (and interest) is in the mind of the attender, it doesn’t matter that a teacher presents the same old thing or tells us to sit still and concentrate in a fixed

manner” (p. 43). In a study involving math lessons for high school students, Ritchhart and Perkins (2000) similarly found that “conditional instruction may be useful in reframing traditional didactic, including textbook, instruction in mathematics” (p. 39).

In addition to Langer’s research on how rewording instructions can make students more mindful, there are other approaches teachers can take. One way is to take time in the classroom to have students do a mindfulness meditation. This meditation involves silently sitting with an erect spine—usually crosslegged or in a lotus position on a floor cushion—for about 5-15 minutes. BBC reporter Nikki Mitchell describes a mindfulness program in Berkshire, England: “... ten and eleven year-olds are focusing on their breathing, and learning to let go of any destructive thoughts” (Mitchell, 2015, 0:04). Any school with adequate floor space can have learners do this sitting meditation either directly on the floor or sitting on a small cushion.

Sitting meditation on a floor cushion is not practical for most foreign language classes in Japan which tend to have over 20 students in rooms with clunky or immovable desks and hard floors. However, Freedman (n.d.) of the Insight Meditation Center notes that while sitting on the floor is best because of the stability it offers, a chair can serve as an adequate alternative. In this case hands can be kept on thighs or folded on the lap. The key point is keeping an erect spine, which can be achieved by sitting more towards the front of the chair with feet flat on the floor. This option makes mindfulness meditation a possibility in any classroom, including crowded university classrooms.

A teacher in the Berkshire mindfulness meditation program explains, “We had such success with (mindfulness meditation in the classroom), and it had an impact on behavior, concentration, (and) learners, we decided that this year we’re going to roll it out to every class ranging from our nursery children to our year sixes” (Mitchell, 2015, 0:16).

In addition to mindfulness meditation in chairs, university and other language teachers can find more subtle ways to introduce students to mindfulness.

Without ever mentioning mindfulness, I have



Figure 1. Yoga “Standing Pose” adapted for classroom with shoe bottom not touching body.

asked students to take a few deep “calming breaths” during class. Furthermore, students may also be asked to do a yoga “standing pose” (see Figure 1) as part of a stretching routine. To avoid having shoes contact clothing, the ankle (not the shoe) can be placed on the upper thigh. Students may hold this pose for one minute while focusing on breathing.

A verbal way is to introduce mindfulness affirmations. Ray Davis, founder of the “Affirmation Spot” website explains: “Affirmations are a thought replacement tool. They help you become conscious of the thoughts you’re thinking and replace habitually negative thoughts with habitually positive ones” (Davis, n.d., para. 5). He has suggested 30 educational affirmations for students such as “Today I set aside my fears and achieve all my educational goals” (Davis, 2013). Educational affirmations, which students can read and take a minute to silently reflect on, can be adapted to promote mindfulness. A few sample affirmations written by the author are below:

- I am calm, focused, and ready to learn.
- Today I will listen deeply, notice subtle things, and have keen awareness of my interactions with classmates.

- I will become aware of any tendency to stop listening during class and focus my attention on language learning tasks.

Mindfulness for teachers

In contrast to Langer’s approach to introduce or encourage more mindfulness in students, a second way that mindfulness is being introduced into education is the training of teachers to be more mindful themselves. A teacher’s attentiveness is not a traditional area of focus for professional development. Bransford, Darling-Hammond and Bradford (2005) have identified three major areas that can improve a teacher’s classroom performance. First, teachers can deepen their knowledge of their subject. For example, knowing more about the English language will help English teachers teach more effectively. Second, teachers should have pedagogical knowledge, knowing the best and most appropriate methods and activities from a wide range of choices. And third, teachers should make the right professional commitments to help students reach their full potential. It would seem a focus on mindfulness would be outside the realm of these domains.

However, a fourth area of importance has been suggested, and that is “professional dispositions” (Dottin, 2009). “Disposition” can also be looked at as presence, or the character of the individual teacher. A focus on disposition might create discomfort among educators and researchers because a person’s character is not generally seen as malleable. Roeser, Skinner, Beers, and Jennings (2012), however, see disposition largely as a skill. The “habits of mind” that compose disposition include “tendencies to gather data through all of the senses, to be aware of and reflect on experience in a nonjudgmental manner, to be flexible when problem solving, to regulate emotion and be resilient after setbacks, and to attend to others with empathy and compassion” (p. 167).

The Practice of Mindfulness

Writing for *Greater Good: Science for a Meaningful Life*, educator Patricia Jennings (2015b) suggests various practices such as focused breathing, open

awareness (a meditation practice aimed at noticing how we're feeling, etc.), and loving-kindness (a meditation practice that aims to cultivate loving acceptance of yourself and others) that will bring about seven benefits of mindfulness for teachers. These were originally Buddhist practices aimed at getting practitioners into the mode and habit of mindfulness.

Jennings then articulates seven educational benefits of these practices: understanding our own emotions; realizing more effective communication with students; managing difficult students; setting up a positive learning environment; strengthening relationships with students; slowing down; and building community. One of the keys in the classroom is to improve the quality of listening. Teachers who slow down and take a deep breath (both literally and figuratively) have greater capacity to listen and respond to students in an appropriate manner.

North American educators have created workshops and programs to make more teachers aware of the benefits of mindfulness. Below are three such institutes with their varied aims and approaches.

The Center for Mindfulness

The Center for Mindfulness in Medicine, Healthcare and Society (<http://umassmed.edu/cfm/>), an institute within the University of Massachusetts Department of Medicine, is perhaps the oldest mindfulness institute in the world having been started by Jon Kabat-Zinn in 1979. In over 35 years of programs more than 22,000 individuals have completed their eight-week mindfulness-based stress reduction program. The institute offers programs such as "Beginning to Teach: Living Inside the Classroom" and tools that address stress reduction, professional education, and research.

Mindful Schools

This organization (<http://www.mindfulschools.org/>) was set up to address problems with students in U.S. public schools such as a pervasive inability to focus, impulsiveness which leads to classroom management issues, high levels of stress for both students and teachers, and a lack of connection between students and their school communities. Mindful Schools offers online training courses to help teachers learn

mindfulness techniques and subsequently utilize those techniques with learners. Their six-week fundamentals course covers the basics of mindfulness meditation, dealing with emotions and the role of mindfulness when communicating. Meanwhile, their "Mindful Educator Essentials" online course helps practitioners learn more about mindfulness and eventually introduce mindfulness in the classroom.

Garrison Institute

One of the three key fields that the Garrison Institute focuses on for reform and development is education. The Garrison Institute's "About Us" page explains their goal is to "apply the power of contemplation in practical, systematic ways" (Garrison Institute, n.d., para. 7). The institute offers programs that help teachers reflect deeply to skillfully deal with day to day stress. Relevant research seeks to integrate methods and insights from neuroscience. Methods such as meditation to cultivate attention are grounded in science and expected to pass the rigors of proper studies to investigate their efficacy.

In addition to institutes and programs that explicitly help educators cultivate mindfulness, there are other programs that seek to help educators gain awareness and improve their interaction with learners. Like mindfulness, these approaches address internal states to improve classroom teaching. Two such approaches are explained below.

The NLP practice of The Circle of Excellence. Neurolinguistic programming (NLP) was developed by Richard Bandler and John Grinder in the 1970s as a way to enhance communication and facilitate personal development. NLP has since been applied to numerous educational settings, including those in English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (ESL). For example, Pishghadam, Shapoori, and Shayesteh (2011) showed a significant relationship between NLP and teacher success.

The Circle of Excellence practice is based on the NLP technique known as "anchoring." This involves focusing on positive and successful moments until you actually have that positive feeling (such as confidence). The practitioner imagines that these positive feelings are somehow stored (i.e. "put in your pocket") to be

accessed when needed. Later, in a classroom situation for example, the calmness, compassion, or confidence can be readily accessed. Hence, the practitioner cultivates a reservoir of positive states that can later be accessed.

Counselling-style listening in EFL. Although this research was conducted in an English lounge, the methods can be applied to a classroom situation. In order to build rapport with lounge students and realize greater conversational flow, Taylor (2012) followed the explicit directions of Friedman (2005) regarding how to conduct “experiential listening.” This involved a kind of meditation and focusing on slowing the breath in order to realize a state of greater calmness. It also had an element of the Circle of Excellence practice as the facilitator focused on an incident of superior rapport in order to make that feeling manifest again. Taylor (2012) explained that once she reached the desired state, she followed Friedman’s practice of “observing or ‘grokking’ the whole of the student so that (she) could be aware of their physical presence, postures and motions” (para 2). This entire process can be seen as an effort to cultivate a state of mindfulness that makes a positive impact on interactions with language learners.

Conclusion

The cultivation of mindfulness can include students and/or teachers. In the case of students, teachers may introduce a mindfulness meditation. Due to the greater number of contact hours and the advantages of having a homeroom that can be equipped as the teacher sees fit, this approach may be most appropriate for primary age children. In a university second language classroom, teachers may make instructions more open-ended, introduce a short yoga standing pose, or have students read and reflect on mindfulness affirmations. Having students who practice such mindfulness methods do questionnaires with comments would be a good starting point for mindfulness researchers.

There are various factors that make teaching a challenging profession. Class size may be large, students may be unmotivated or tired, and teachers may feel pressure and stress to perform or have students perform well on tests. Along with learning pedagogy

and enriching content knowledge, teachers may seek to cultivate mindfulness to better handle classroom interactions. There are many promising approaches to cultivate mindfulness that could be researched in future studies. Teachers may take up the study and practice of mindfulness. In addition to doing a mindfulness meditation for 10-50 minutes every morning in their own homes, teachers may do a 5-10 minute pre-class meditation. This would incorporate some aspects of a formal meditation but include class preparatory approaches such as visualization of teaching the approaching class. Keeping a journal during a semester of mindfulness training would provide self-reported data for researchers. Finally, if practiced long enough with enough focus, future researchers may want to look at the effect that a pre-class meditation has on brain waves utilizing electroencephalography (EEG) monitoring.

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Class Narratives through a Language Portfolio

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This paper explores the role of a Language Portfolio (LP) implemented in TOEIC preparatory classes at a Japanese university in the 2014 spring semester. LPs were used as a means of improving student autonomy and facilitating classroom interaction. LPs have been identified as an effective tool in the language classroom as they necessitate active involvement by students as well as allow for an appropriate level of intervention by teachers. In the class discussed in this paper, the LP played a significant role as a tool for students to reflect on class content and as a resource that they could use while reviewing for quizzes. The majority of the students surveyed reported that their LPs had contributed positively to their learning. The LP also served as a communicative tool between the teacher and the students, allowing the whole class to share individual learning narratives.

本論では、日本の大学で2014年度前期TOEIC準備コースに導入したランゲージ・ポートフォリオ(LP)の役割を検証した。LPは学生の自主性を向上させ、クラス内のやりとりを促進させるために用いられた。LPは学習者の積極的な関与、教員の適宜な介入を要するという点で、語学学習において効果的な学習ツールだと考えられている。研究の対象になったクラスでは、LPは授業内容の振り返りや、小テストの準備を助けるツールとして重要な役割を果たし、過半数以上の学生はLPが彼らの学習に寄与したと報告した。また、LPは教員と学生の間での伝達手段としての役割を担い、個々の学生の学習記録をクラス全体で共有することもできた。

The European Language Portfolio (ELP) is one of the most prominent examples of LPs. It was first introduced in 2001 as an application of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) to promote learner autonomy including self-reflection, self-assessment, and self-regulated learning, by encouraging teachers and students' involvement in these processes (Little, 2012). Martyniuk (2012) offers a description of three key components of the ELP: the Language Passport, Language Biography, and Dossier. The Language Passport serves as a certification of a learner's language competences, and can be used to

evaluate the learner's language proficiency level using a proficiency checklist, which is based on common criteria accepted throughout Europe (for more details about the Language Passport see CEO, 2001). The Language Biography describes a learner's experiences with language learning focusing on what they can do in the target language. In this component, goal-setting and self-assessment checklists, such as "I can" checklists, which expand on the descriptors contained in the self-assessment grid, are essential to facilitate the learner's involvement in planning, reflecting on, and assessing their own learning processes and progress (for more details about the Language Biography see CEO, 2006). The Dossier is a collection of examples of a learner's personal work to illustrate his or her language competences. Given that the ELP was developed for a learning situation where a variety of languages and

Teraoka, M. (2016). Class narratives through a language portfolio. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 191-197). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

cultures converge, it was necessary to adapt the ELP to meet the requirements of a Japanese monolingual EFL class.

For example, with the Dossier, the author wanted to use documents that all of the students in the class would have in common as examples of students' personal tasks. This was done to allow her to observe individual students' overall learning processes in the class. The tasks that the author was interested in monitoring included class preparation (before class), class work (during class), and class review (after class). For this purpose, three types of documents were created by the author to be included in the LP: vocabulary lists, a daily worksheet, and review quizzes. Before every class, students were required to look up approximately 30 vocabulary items on the vocabulary list that would be learned. These items were selected by the author. The daily worksheet outlined the tasks that would be covered in that class, and students were required to complete it in class. They were also required to reflect on their learning for the day by commenting on the worksheet about what they had learned, what they had achieved, and what they found to be the most challenging (see Appendix A). The review quiz was an assessment tool that was used to measure students' learning. It focused mainly on the vocabulary and grammar learned in the previous class. It also aimed to encourage students to revisit their LPs and reflect on their learning, as the content of the review quizzes were mainly derived from the vocabulary list and the daily worksheet. Students were required to compile these three documents after each class and place them in an A4 file with 20 pockets. This file and its contents were what constituted the LP. The LP was examined by the author at the middle and the end of the semester. Students were given a grade on the file using the following grading criteria: "completion" (whether or not the daily worksheet had been completed) and "organization" (how well the handouts had been organized).

Methods

Participants

The participants were 133 university students from

three TOEIC preparatory classes: two TOEIC A classes for 2nd-year students and one TOEIC 1 class for 3rd and 4th-year students. There were 80 male students and 53 female students. The English proficiency level of all the participants was pre-intermediate, corresponding approximately to TOEIC scores between 350 and 450. During the 2014 spring semester, the students met with the author once a week for 90 minutes over a 15-week period. The class was an elective class and the main goal of the class was to help students to achieve a TOEIC score of 520 or above. The textbooks used in the two TOEIC A classes and the TOEIC 1 class were different, but both had separate instructions for the listening and reading parts, and focused on improving the test-taking strategies of the students.

Procedure

Two self-assessment checklists were created by the author and given over the course of the semester. Self-assessment checklist 1 was distributed in the middle and Self-assessment checklist 2 was given at the end of the semester. These self-assessment checklists were designed for the students to assess their own learning progress and processes using a 5-point Likert scale. The questions on these checklists focused on both the students' perception of their acquisition of the learning strategies they were being taught for the listening and reading parts of the TOEIC and their ability to meet the class requirements. Other aspects that were self-assessed were revisitations of their LPs, class review, class preparation, class participation, and out-of-class study, all of which would promote students' self-learning and learner autonomy. In Self-assessment checklist 1, two open questions were included to seek information from the students regarding their individual learning goals for the latter half of the semester and how they planned to achieve them. Self-assessment checklist 1 served as an introductory tool for the students to get accustomed to self-assessing their learning processes and their ability to meet class requirements. One of the difficulties related to the implementation of LPs in Japan's EFL context is, as Horiuchi et al. (2010) point out, that students are not accustomed to self-assessment. The participants

in this study were no exception. After the author looked at Self-assessment checklist 1, it was returned to the students with the written feedback from the author. Self-assessment checklist 2 included three open questions regarding the students' judgements about their achievement of their own learning goals, whether the students did something additional to improve their learning after they had conducted Self-assessment checklist 1, and how the students felt that their LPs had contributed to their learning (see Appendix B). Self-assessment checklist 2 was used to discover and analyze students' perceptions about the role of their LPs.

Results

The majority of the 133 students who completed Self-assessment checklist 2, 82% (n = 109), answered that the LP had benefited their learning. On the other

hand, 17% (n = 22) answered that they were not certain about the LP's positive effect on their learning, while 2% (n = 2) of the students said that their LPs did not benefit their learning at all (see Table 1).

When asked how the LP had benefited their learning, 96% (n = 128) left some comments. Among them 57% (n = 73) said that it had helped them to review what they had already learned and to prepare for the review quizzes. In addition, 15% (n = 19) reported that their LPs helped them to acquire learning strategies for the TOEIC, and another 15% (n = 19) reported that revisiting their LPs had given them a better understanding of grammar and vocabulary (see Table 2).

Discussion

The majority of the students reported that they believed that their LPs had made a positive

TABLE 1
Study Skills and Class Requirements for Self-assessment

Questions and Assessment	5	4	3	2	1
	n	n	n	n	n
	%	%	%	%	%
Did you organize worksheets and handouts in your portfolio?	98 (74%)	28 (21%)	5 (4%)	2 (2%)	0 (0%)
Did you often revisit your textbook and portfolio to prepare for review quizzes?	43 (32%)	71 (53%)	18 (14%)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)
Did you bring your textbook and portfolio to class?	95 (71%)	30 (23%)	5 (4%)	2 (2%)	1 (1%)
Did you actively participate in class through individual or group work?	31 (23%)	72 (54%)	24 (18%)	5 (4%)	1 (1%)
Did you study for TOEIC outside of class?	13 (10%)	41 (31%)	57 (43%)	13 (10%)	9 (7%)
Did you reflect on your learning through your portfolio?	17 (13%)	70 (53%)	40 (30%)	4 (3%)	2 (2%)
Did your portfolio benefit your learning?	35 (26%)	74 (56%)	22 (17%)	0 (0%)	2 (2%)

Note. 5 = very much; 4 = to some extent; 3 = neither yes nor no; 2 = not very much; 1 = not at all

TABLE 2

LP Contribution to Learning

Reason	n	%
Helped with review practice for review quizzes	73	57%
Helped to acquire learning strategies for TOEIC	19	15%
Enhanced grammar understanding and built vocabulary	19	15%
Helped with TOEIC preparations before the test	7	5%
Helped to discover weaknesses of learning areas	6	5%
Helped as a concise reference book	4	3%

contribution to their learning. As discussed above, there were a number of reasons the students gave for why they thought their LPs had a positive effect on their learning. The majority of the students surveyed felt that their LPs had helped them to prepare for review quizzes. This result could be interpreted to mean that the value of the LP for these students is directly related to its ability to help them to pass the course, rather than its role in expanding the scope of their out-of-class learning. This is not surprising, as the main reason the majority of the students gave for registering for these courses was to accumulate credits. The benefit of this is that, for these students, the LP was seen as a practical tool that they could use to study for review quizzes. Because of this, they were more likely to complete the tasks involved in making the LP. As such, teachers need to be flexible with the aims of LPs while still ensuring that it is constructed in a way that enhances learner autonomy including self-reflection, self-assessment, and self-regulated learning.

The LP showed improvement of the quality of students' self-reflections over the course of the semester. At the beginning of the semester, when asked about the most challenging task during the class as part of self-reflection for the day, some students used to respond by merely writing "Part 4: short talks listening" or "Part 7: reading comprehension." However, as they became more accustomed to self-reflections, they began to include more details about the difficulties that they had. For example, some

students reported that they became more confused in the listening part of the TOEIC when the order of information heard and the order of questions asked were different. Furthermore, others said that although they knew the answer to the question asked in the reading passage, it took a certain amount of time to determine the best possible answer from four choice items because they had to interpret and paraphrase the words and phrases used in these items.

It was also possible to identify ways in which students customized their LPs. Some students used different colored inks to highlight their mistakes or achievements, while others created their own cartoon characters for the worksheet and had them talk about learning strategies or study skills. Through fifteen sessions, the students' LPs became a storybook of their learning processes, experiences, and achievements. LP customization can infer that students were actively engaged in self-recording their learning in class.

Limitations

While the initial results of this study are promising, there are still some issues that need to be looked at when assessing the value of LPs in the classroom. One of them is that the validity of self-assessment can be difficult to establish. Sato (2010) discusses inconsistencies between how students and teachers assess students' learning performances. She attributes this discrepancy to students' lack of self-knowledge and insufficient understanding of the importance of

self-reflection. Therefore, it is important to encourage students to set achievable and realistic learning goals and plans, and reflect on their own learning both in and out of class.

Conclusion

Implementing an LP in the class needs active involvement by students as well as teachers. It is also essential for teachers to appropriately intervene in students' learning processes in the class and to encourage them to be a self-regulatory learner. In this study, even though the same handouts were distributed, the same instructions were made, and the same requirements were imposed, individual students' LPs were not the same. The LP turned out to be a storybook of each student' learning processes, experiences, and achievements. Therefore, LPs may provide students a good opportunity to keep their own learning records or narratives that help them to assess, reflect on, and plan their own learning.

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Appendix A

Can-do for today

Unit 2: Fundamentals 2 (Check it ✓ : when you can do □)

- Part 2: Write key words and phrases
- Part 5: Analyze each question

➤ Part 2: Questions and Responses

1. (): _____
2. (): _____
3. (): _____

➤ Part 5: Incomplete Sentences: Form vs. Meaning

	● Pre-task: Identify either grammar questions or vocabulary questions
	● Post-task: Regarding grammar questions, what grammatical knowledge is necessary?
	● Post-task: Regarding vocabulary questions, what are the key words that determine the answer?
1.	_____
2.	_____
3.	_____

➤ Self-reflection

1.	What I've learned: _____
2.	What I've achieved: _____
3.	What I've found most challenging: _____

Note. This is not a complete version of the can-do for today. Examples of listening and reading parts are chosen.

Appendix B

Self-assessment checklist 2

1. Acquisition of learning strategies

Part	Strategies	Self-assessment				
1	Focus on content words: nouns & verbs especially	5	4	3	2	1
2	Focus on question types: WH, Yes/No, Choice etc.	5	4	3	2	1
3/4	Pre-read questions and predict the situation	5	4	3	2	1
5	Identify either grammar or vocabulary	5	4	3	2	1
6	Look before and after the missing parts	5	4	3	2	1
7	Look at the title or the email subject and predict the content Look carefully for paraphrased expressions	5	4	3	2	1

2. Requirements for the course and promotion of your own learning

Did you organize worksheet handouts in your portfolio?	5	4	3	2	1
Did you often revisit your textbook and portfolio to prepare for review quizzes?	5	4	3	2	1
Did you bring your textbook and portfolio to class?	5	4	3	2	1
Did you actively participate in class through individual or group work?	5	4	3	2	1
Did you study for TOEIC outside of class?	5	4	3	2	1
Did you reflect on your learning through your portfolio?	5	4	3	2	1
Did your portfolio benefit your learning?	5	4	3	2	1

3. Open questions

Did you achieve your learning goal? Justify.

Referring to the Self-assessment checklist1, what did you do to improve your learning?

How did your portfolio benefit your learning?

Note: 5 = very much; 4 = to some extent; 3 = neither yes nor no; 2 = not very much; 1 = not at all

JUEMUN Journalism: Taking Digital Journalism Simulations to a New Level

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This article describes a digital journalism simulation called JUEMUN Journalism. JUEMUN, the Japan University English Model United Nations, is an annual event in Japan that brings together students from around the globe to participate in a Model United Nations (MUN). A component of this event includes teams of journalists who cover the activities that take place at the MUN, and report on them in four media formats: podcasts, video broadcasts, written chronicles and editorial cartoons. The planning, negotiation, and collaborative experience coupled with the technological expertise students gain by participating in JUEMUN Journalism supports them in many areas of the workforce that require 21st century skills. After an explanation of the origins of this project, a description of the implementation of JUEMUN Journalism will be given.

本稿は、JUEMUNジャーナリズムと呼ばれるデジタル・ジャーナリズム・シミュレーションに関するJUEMUN(日本大学英語模擬国連大会)は、世界各国からの学生が参加する年に1度のイベントである。その中の部門の一つとしてジャーナリスト・チームがある。彼らは、本イベントの取材し、4つのメディア(ポッドキャスト、ビデオ、文書記録、漫画)を用いて報告を行う。計画、交渉、技術担当学生との協同等を行い、21世紀において社会で必要なスキルを習得する。本プロジェクトの始まりに続き、JUEMUNジャーナリズムについて説明する。

Shortly after the founding of the Japan University English Model United Nations (JUEMUN) conference in 2010, two needs became apparent. First, the organizers needed a way to document the event in order to assist in promoting it. Second, there were

a large number of students who showed interest, but lacked the skills, time, or confidence to participate as country delegates. Being a country delegate at a JUEMUN conference can be an overwhelming experience in terms of preparation and participation. In the preparation phase, students are required to conduct detailed research into their assigned countries as well as familiarize themselves with the rules and protocols of the United Nations. During the JUEMUN conference, they must participate in a simulation of the United Nations that includes giving speeches, attending lectures, and discussing global

Thorpe, J., Sheehan, M.D., Sarich, E.P., & Dunn, R. (2016). JUEMUN journalism: Taking digital journalism simulations to a new level. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 198-204). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

issues, all in English.

To encourage more students with various interests and abilities to gain important 21st century skills, JUEMUN's cofounder, Todd Thorpe, established JUEMUN Journalism in 2013. The inaugural team of seventeen JUEMUN journalists from Kinki University provided in-depth coverage of the 2013 JUEMUN conference. The three digital formats of video, podcasts, and newspaper chronicle still remain strong and JUEMUN Journalism has evolved greatly since its initial year. The additions that have been made to JUEMUN Journalism and the rationale behind those changes will be described below along with an explanation of the implementation of JUEMUN Journalism and the various aspects involved.

Educational Goals of JUEMUN Journalism

In Japan, English education has often been criticized for focusing too heavily on linguistic competence, meaning the ability to understand the component parts of language, at the expense of fostering communicative competence, or the ability to use language in a meaningful and productive way. JUEMUN journalism seeks to extend opportunities for JUEMUN participants by offering them a method through which they can develop real-world skills in an authentic environment. Moreover, Stillar (2009) reported that Japanese universities need to provide more activities that have a consciousness raising effect on students. JUEMUN journalism addresses these issues by exposing students to global issues and having them report on them as news stories. This approach fosters a greater depth of understanding of the issues while concurrently helping lower-level students to improve their English language skills. Furthermore, critical thinking, and the ability to express one's own opinion is a crucial part of English education that has often been found lacking in Asian countries such as Japan (Long, 2003). JUEMUN Journalism attempts to remedy this situation by having students demonstrate their understanding of what they learned at JUEMUN in a meaningful and productive way.

Participation in JUEMUN Journalism fosters an integrated set of skills and background knowledge, both about important global issues, and more

specifically about the craft of journalism. It also does so in an environment in which students can develop their English skills, while at the same raising student awareness of cultural differences through international exchange. Students are taken through the stages of story production from brainstorming and storyboarding all the way through to online publishing. Students are responsible for gathering relevant information, evaluating and processing it, observing events and conducting interviews. This is no small task considering JUEMUN 2015 had 276 participants from 30 different countries, 47 participating universities, 25 advisors, five guest speakers, and a large number of volunteers and staff that participated in ongoing events from Friday morning to Sunday afternoon. The number of simultaneous activities that take place at JUEMUN can appear chaotic to the untrained eye. Amidst all this activity, journalists are tasked with developing stories in different formats, editing and revising their work, and finally publishing high-quality final products to the JUEMUN Journalism website.

JUEMUN Journalism Implementation Journalism Formats

In 2015, 28 students participated as JUEMUN journalists in four different digital journalism formats. The newspaper journalists reported on JUEMUN events by writing articles. The podcast journalists covered various JUEMUN events by creating audio broadcasts, and the video journalists used a variety of skills to cover events in a digital video format. Editorial Cartoons, the fourth JUEMUN journalism format, were added to the JUEMUN Journalism experience in the 2015 conference. Editorial cartoonists captured their impressions of JUEMUN events by creating several drawings and short manga.

JUEMUN Journalism teams and pre-conference assignments

After applying for positions and being vetted by advisors, JUEMUN journalists were assigned to two-person teams and put in contact with each other approximately three months before the JUEMUN

2015 event, which was held in June. The teams were encouraged to get to know each other and participate in pre-JUEMUN journalism assignments for each respective format they were assigned to. The goals of these assignments were to help students get to know each other as well as become familiar with any software or hardware that they would be required to use at the event. The assignments also helped the student journalists learn about the global issues that they would be reporting on in their assigned meeting room. Study guides were also made available to the students to prepare them to use the equipment, software, and familiarize them with the events that they were going to cover. For the most part, the JUEMUN teams consisted of multi-cultural pairs of one Japanese and one international student and the medium of communication was English. However, the journalists were given the freedom to report in other languages as well. One video team included Korean subtitles and narration in their videos, and the podcast journalists included two Chinese students who created podcasts in English and Chinese. In addition, some of the international newspaper journalists wrote stories in Japanese, while Japanese journalists wrote in English. The editorial cartoonists included students with an interest in drawing and art; some of the students have aspirations to be manga artists or illustrators in the future. All of the student journalists submitted assignments to their advisors before the JUEMUN conference; these tasks allowed the advisors to evaluate students' work and have an indication of their level of motivation and storytelling skills.

Journalism equipment and support

Each journalism team was given access to equipment that would help them create their materials. The podcast teams had IC recorders and computers with Audacity software on them. Each video team had their own dedicated video camera with a microphone and tripod, and a Mac computer with iMovie video editing software. The newspaper journalists were provided with IC voice recorders, digital cameras and computers that included word processing software. The editorial cartoonists were given a variety of stationery supplies for drawing cartoons.

Journalism advisors were available throughout the conference to consult with the students on storyboarding, taking footage, recording audio, using the editing software, and on how to upload the videos and podcasts, and chronicle stories to the JUEMUN Journalism website; cartoonists received support in scanning and uploading their editorial cartoons to the website. All of the news that the students produced was uploaded to the JUEMUN Journalism website: <http://juemunjournalism.weebly.com/> during the event so that all of the JUEMUN participants, and the public, could see stories of the events at JUEMUN in real time. For JUEMUN 2015, a promising graduate student who is majoring in journalism was assigned the role of Editor-in-Chief; she was responsible for overseeing the journalism teams and managing the workflow. This assignment gave the Editor-in-Chief hands-on experience managing a newsroom and in project management.

The role of the advisors consisted mainly of troubleshooting, encouragement, and facilitating, as it was felt that empowering the teams to take ownership of the stories that they produced would maximize the development of practical skills and their JUEMUN experience. Overall, the student teams were highly independent and required very little oversight. Although each JUEMUN team was responsible for every aspect of the process, different roles and responsibilities developed organically. Some teams tended to divide the responsibilities, having one student responsible for gathering footage, or audio, while the other member focused on editing. Other teams preferred to consult on every aspect of the process together. Teams were also encouraged to experiment with a variety of reporting and production styles such as straight one-on-one interviews, condensed versions of lectures, and the use of subtitles and narration.

Challenges

In the initial stages of JUEMUN journalism, one practical consideration that came up involved equipment use and maintenance. The equipment needed to be checked to see that it was in good working order, and the method of transferring

Meeting Room #1	Meeting Room #2	Meeting Room #3	Meeting Room #4
<p>Newspaper Pair (Chinese & Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>	<p>Newspaper Pair (Chinese & Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>	<p>Newspaper Pair (American & Japanese) In ENGLISH AND JAPANESE</p>	<p>Newspaper Pair (Malaysian & Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>
<p>Video Pair (Korean & Japanese) In ENGLISH AND KOREAN</p>	<p>Video Pair (Filipino & Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>	<p>Video Pair (Filipino & Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>	<p>Video Pair (Canadian & Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>
<p>Podcast Pair (American & Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>	<p>Podcast Pair (Chinese & Chinese) In ENGLISH AND CHINESE</p>	<p>Podcast Pair (Indonesian & Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>	<p>Podcast Pair (Mongolian & Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>
<p>Cartoonist (Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>	<p>Cartoonist (Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>	<p>Cartoonist (Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>	<p>Cartoonist (Japanese) ALL in ENGLISH</p>

FIGURE 1. JUEMUN 2015 Journalism teams and formats.
 Note. There were 28 journalists.

information among the cameras and IC recorders had to be verified. In this regard, a brief explanation of how to use the equipment and how the materials were to be uploaded helped streamline the process. One problem that occurred during JUEMUN 2014 was that the batteries on two of the camera microphones died and some of the first videos that were taken had poor sound, or no sound at all. This problem was turned into a learning opportunity, however, since students chose to experiment with different reporting methods, using subtitles, background music and narration to relay their messages rather than lose the footage. They were able to create quality videos despite having encountered technical problems.

The journalist teams experienced several issues during the course of JUEMUN, such as dealing with equipment malfunctions, learning how to use editing software, and interpersonal communication. In some instances, student journalists had to overcome their own shyness or lack of assertiveness that initially was an obstacle to getting interviews or scoops. However, these are all issues that real journalists will have to face, and helping students overcome these challenges

in a safe and nurturing environment fostered the development of several life skills. In this regard, the advisor’s role is to facilitate the process, guiding rather than instructing, and offering advice and encouragement when needed.

Covering events and gathering information

To keep all of the journalist teams on target at the 2015 conference, JUEMUN Journalism coverage boards were made by the conference organizers and provided to the journalists in each format. These coverage boards included a list of the scheduled events throughout the conference and designated different teams to report on them. This information gave the students clear goals and also ensured that there would be balanced coverage of all the events at JUEMUN. The coverage board outlined all of the stories that needed to be covered throughout the conference, but there was also enough time and freedom built in for journalists to be able to report on other stories that they thought would be interesting. The daily coverage boards for each format were printed as posters and displayed in front of each of JUEMUN Journalism

editing room as visual guides to keep them on schedule. The journalist teams, Editor-in-Chief and the advisors documented the status of their stories on these posters throughout the conference. An example of a coverage board is shown in Figure 2.

number of guest speakers come to the conference and give lectures to a select group of students and later participate in question and answer sessions. The educational benefits of these lectures are considerable; giving delegates at JUEMUN a chance to learn from experts in the field and bring back valuable

One component of JUEMUN is to have a

**JUEMUN JOURNALISM
PODCAST TEAM (Friday, June 26th)**

Day & Date	Event	Format Coverage Podcast (P), Video (V) Chronicle+ Cartoonist (C)	Teams PT(1-4) VT(1-4) CT(1-4)	Name(s) of Journalist(s)	Title of News	Status							
						Interviewing/ Reporting in Progress	Interviewing/ Reporting Finished	Writing / Editing/ Narration in Progress	Writing / Editing/ Narration Finished	Checked & Approved	Uploaded to the JUEMUN website		
F R I D A Y J U N E 2 6	Journalist Guest Speaker Ms. Kaoru Nemoto 11:00-12:00 Room: Building B-10th floor: Multimedia Room	P	PT1										
	Meeting Room #1 Session #1 12:30-14:15 Room: A-101	P	PT1										
	Meeting Room #2 Session #1 12:30-14:15 Room: A-102	P	PT2										
	Meeting Room #3 Session #1 12:30-14:15 Room: A-302/304	P	PT3										
	Meeting Room #4 Session #1 12:30-14:15 Room: A-303/305	P	PT4										
	Opening Ceremony 14:30-14:45 Room: November Hall	P	PT2										
	Main Speaker Mr. Kiyotaka Akasaka 14:45-15:45 Room: November Hall	P	PT3										
	Main Speaker Mr. Kiyotaka Akasaka Q&A 16:00-17:00 Room: November Hall	P	PT4										
	Meeting Room #1 Session #2 16:00-18:00 Room: A-101	P	PT1										
	Meeting Room #2 Session #2 16:00-18:00 Room: A-102	P	PT2										
	Meeting Room #3 Session #2 16:00-18:00 Room: A-302/304	P	PT3										
	Meeting Room #4 Session #2 16:00-18:00 Room: A-303/305	P	PT4										
	Dinner Party 18:15-20:00 Room: KURE	P	PT1										

1 Required News Story
 +
 1 news story of your choice
 OR
 2 Required News Stories

FIGURE 2. JUEMUN 2015 Journalism Coverage Board, Podcast Teams, Day 1.
 Note. Enlarged, colored coverage boards were made for each day of the event.

information that will help them in their discussion groups. Journalists are also invited to attend these guest speaker sessions and report on them. After one of the guests gave his speech at JUEMUN 2015, several journalists were allowed access to a question and answer session, an important opportunity for the journalists because the chance to interact with the guest speakers, rather than just cover events from the outside was particularly engaging. This smaller, more intimate environment not only allowed the journalists to ask specific questions, but the guest speaker was able to answer questions from the students in greater detail and more candidly.

One issue that was particularly pertinent for the journalists was to find the best time to interview JUEMUN participants. During formal and informal debates, the delegates were often so focused on understanding the content of the sessions that they were somewhat reticent to be interrupted or interviewed. Lunch breaks and when the delegates were moving between sessions were often the busiest times for the journalists because that was when the delegates were relaxed enough to share their impressions with everyone. Finding the balance between when to interview and when to produce content was a big challenge that the journalists needed to overcome, and the advisors saw a huge improvement over the course of three days. In addition, many of the journalists originally saw their roles as one of filmmaker, podcaster, writer and editor. They came to realize, however, that skills such as planning, implementation and getting the participants to open up about their experiences, were also integral parts of the process. One team learned very quickly, for example, that asking a delegate for permission to be interviewed was less successful than simply walking up to them and asking questions.

One final project that the JUEMUN video journalists were given was intended to explore the lighter side of JUEMUN. Each of the teams was asked to take a series of short five-second videos of the different JUEMUN participants performing for the camera. All of the shorts were then gathered together, edited, and put to music. The final video was played for

all of the JUEMUN members at the closing ceremony. The teams enjoyed working together with the advisors on this group project; it was well received by all of the participants and advisors and provided a fun memory for all the participants at JUEMUN.

Journalism simulations and education

JUEMUN Journalism started as a way to give students an opportunity to participate in an international event on their own terms. Students were able to get the support they needed from their peers and advisors while also learning technical skills and developing language skills. Students also showed a great deal of creativity and experimentation, as well as problem-solving skills. All of these experiences will help them in a number of careers. Students were given the chance to work in an international setting and create materials that can be archived and added to their portfolios and used to help them attain jobs in the future.

The types of activities that students partook in at JUEMUN Journalism can be duplicated in other educational settings and at other events. Some examples include setting up a team of journalist to cover speech contests, sporting events, community festivals, or open campus events.

Now that the formats have been proven to appeal to learners with various skill sets and learning styles, additions will continue to be made to JUEMUN Journalism in the area of additional languages and media formats such as photo journalism. JUEMUN Journalism also plans to expand by incorporating live streaming video of breaking news reports as well as the use of twitter for frequent updates on what is occurring at the JUEMUN conference. In its third year, JUEMUN Journalism continues to play a positive role in preparing university students for the rigors of a more international and multicultural workforce both nationally and internationally, by providing them with more multicultural cooperative learning opportunities in English and hands-on digital communication experiences. Learn more about JUEMUN Journalism and enjoy the high quality stories that were published by student journalists' at: <http://juemunjournalism.weebly.com/>.

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Bringing Theory into the Classroom: Widdowson's Framework for Pedagogic Mediation in Individual Practice

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Widdowson's (1990) teacher mediation framework presents a means for practitioners to incorporate professional knowledge into their classroom practices. While outlining a model for putting the framework into practice, Widdowson does not, however, suggest the specific means or procedures by which this might be done by individual teachers in their own classrooms, nor have such been described in the literature. This paper presents a narrative description of a teacher-researcher's efforts to develop a practical process for implementing this framework in the classroom by describing the process as well as raising several issues overcome in the course of doing this. It also discusses some of the consequences of implementing the model and its limitations.

ウイドウソンの提唱する教師が介在するフレームワークには、実践者がその教室での実践に、専門知識をどう組み込むかという手法が含まれる。ウイドウソンはこのフレームワークを実践に用いるモデルについて触れはしているものの、教室で教師がどう具体的な方法や手順を取るべきかについては提言しておらず、先行研究もなされていない。本研究は、このフレームワークを教室での実践に結びつける事を目的に、教師が実用的プロセスを築くために行った取り組みをナラティブに描写したものであり、この実践中に起きた問題点の解決例を挙げつつ、そのプロセスを明らかにしたものである。またモデルの実践によって導かれた変化と、研究の限界についても検討する。

The gap between educational theory derived from research and classroom practice is a long-standing concern in language teaching (Lantolf & Pohner, 2014), as is the need to provide teachers with a tool to bridge this gap and assist them in bringing professional knowledge into their classrooms (Kessels & Korthagen, 1996).

One means for bridging the theory-practice gap

Xethakis, L. J. (2016). Bringing theory into the classroom: Widdowson's framework for pedagogic mediation in individual practice. In G. Brooks, M. Porter, D. Fujimoto, & D. Tatsuki (Eds.), *The 2015 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 205-213). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

is suggested in Kumaradivelu's suggestion to teachers to "theorize from practice and practice what they theorize" (Kumaradivelu, 1999, p. 458). To do this, teachers need to ground their classroom practice in theory by operating within a framework of "principled pragmatism" (Kumaradivelu, 1994, p. 30). Widdowson (1990) defines this as "a continual process of self-education through an evaluation of practice in reference to theory" (p. x), and his framework for pedagogic mediation is presented as the means to do this.

The need for such a tool in this study was the result of this teacher-researcher's experiences in employing collaborative learning techniques in a third-year university level ESP class. The purpose of the class

was for small groups of students to plan and present an original architectural design. One of the difficulties found in the class was the degree of interaction and cooperation among group members. A number of collaborative learning techniques were incorporated into the lessons in an attempt to improve these. While employing these techniques led to better interaction and cooperation among the students overall, some of the techniques worked well and some did not; some were effective in one class and not in another, and this raised the question of why. It was felt that a better grasp of the underlying principles of collaborative learning might provide a better understanding of how and why these techniques worked, as well as insights into why they did not work in some instances.

Block (2000) characterizes Widdowson's framework for pedagogic mediation as a model for "what teachers do with research which is already done independent of their contextualized needs" (Block, 2000, p. 139) and as a framework for explicitly tying professional knowledge to aspects of practice by grounding it in principles derived from this knowledge.

While presenting a model for implementing the framework in practice, Widdowson (1990) does not, however, describe the means or a process by which practitioners might implement the framework in their own practice to bring theory into their classrooms. The teacher-researcher in this study attempted to put the framework into practice and to ascertain whether or not a practical process for implementing the framework could be developed.

This paper presents a narrative description of the author's efforts to accomplish this. It describes the process (See Appendix A for an outline of this process) and examines a number of issues faced in doing this.

Putting the Framework into Individual Practice

Pedagogical mediation is a process through which teachers work to understand how the concepts and ideas taken from professional knowledge can be made applicable to their individual contexts and how they can be brought into the classroom. Teachers must

appraise theoretical ideas and concepts in light of their own teaching situation in order to determine the relevance of any theoretical proposition to their own particular practice. They make connections between the techniques they employ in their practice and the professional knowledge that informs them. They work to draw out principles which can serve as guides for practical action in the classroom, and using these principles as their foundation, they then develop activities or techniques which embody these principles.

In this framework, theories and other forms of professional knowledge do not provide ready-made answers to problems or puzzles teachers face in the classroom but serve as a means to help teachers "identify factors that call for further enquiry in the classroom" (Widdowson, 1984, p. 30). Widdowson (1990) sees this process as analogous to a process of scientific research. After coming to an understanding of the theory in question, the teacher then develops hypotheses (principles for practice). These hypotheses are then tested out in the classroom through techniques and activities based on them. The impact of these activities on learning and classroom practice is observed and these observations serve as evidence to judge the validity of the hypotheses and the activities.

The model Widdowson provides to give structure to this process consists of two stages (Figure 1). The first of stage of the model, appraisal, is concerned with theory. The two steps that make up this stage, interpretation and conceptual evaluation, are concerned with coming to an understanding of the theoretical knowledge in question and drawing out

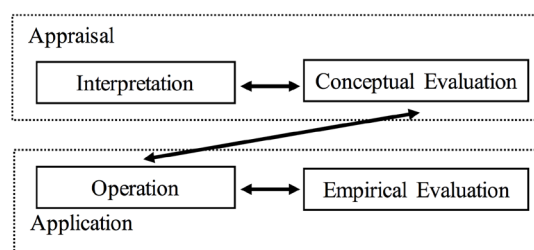


Figure 1. Widdowson's model of pedagogic mediation..

principles and concepts to be examined for relevance to one's own practice.

As my own first step in this process, I began by reading a range of sources on collaborative learning, including its philosophical bases and theories of learning which underlie it (Moll, 1992; Smith & MacGregor 1992; Doolittle, 1995; Oxford 1997; Swain & Kinnear, 2010), principles for its implementation (McGroarty, 1992, 1993; Cohen, 1994) and techniques for its operationalization in the classroom (Kagan & McGroarty, 1993; Barkley, Cross, & Howe, 2004). Potential principles from each reading were drawn out and recorded for each reading.

Through this process, I drew out almost one hundred principles on a wide variety of topics related to collaborative learning and collaborative language learning. I did not feel as though I had really expressed my understandings of the theories with this process, however. I felt that I had merely collected a long list of maxims, lacking a sense of connection to my practice:

Just drawing out the pedagogical principles may lead to a mastery of techniques, but it lacks the contextual knowledge to truly internalize it and be able to put it into action. Simple maxims, like principles, are good for reminding us or as guides in planning but might not give enough information to truly adapt them to any situation. (Entry 24)

Porter, Goldstein, Leatherman and Conrad (1990) recommend that journals be used in helping to make sense of theory, as a place for "exploring, reacting" and "making connections" (p. 229). To better express my understanding of the readings, I chose to write journal entries after re-reading each of the sources. These entries were organized around a set of questions to help make clear the arguments the author was making, the information they were trying to present and the possible principles that could be drawn out of the article, its concepts and its theories. The aim was to present a synthesis of the ideas, concepts and techniques found in the readings.

Verity (2000) notes that journals are often used as a place to give "one thoughts a more objective reality" (p. 183), and my own journals began to take

on this role – allowing me to see how the principles were tied to the theories they were based on and giving me a forum to explore my own understandings of the theories and how they might relate to my own practice, as I noted in one of my journal entries:

Some means of expressing understanding provides context for the pedagogical principles. The bare principles only provide the 'how' and the 'what'; the context provides the necessary 'why.' The 'why' is needed to be able to alter the principles to meet new contexts; the 'why' provides flexibility...making it easier to adapt the principles to better fit your context. (Entry 23)

The second stage of Widdowson's model, application, is focused on putting principles to work in the classroom. The two steps in this stage, operation and empirical evaluation, are concerned with developing classroom techniques and evaluating their effects on the learning process.

To carry this out, I wrote out lesson plans for each of the lessons, detailing the activities I was to carry out in the class. Each class was focused around a specific goal or topic and collaborative learning activities were used to scaffold the students' interactions from more to less structured. It was hoped that this would provide guidance, set up problems and suggest procedures to help create more productive interaction (Cohen, 1994, p. 21-22) in their group discussion on their designs in the latter part of each class.

An example of this, the first class encouraged team building among the members (Barkley, et al, 2004; Kagan & McGroarty, 1993) using a think-pair-share activity to provide them with a low-pressure opportunity to discuss their choices for the group project and a three-step interview activity to create a comfort zone and come up with a team name. The group as a whole then discussed their ideas and decided on their project as well as the location, the target customers and the overall concept of the design.

After writing up each lesson plan, I conducted a retrospective written report to bring to light the thought processes behind the planning of each lesson. (See Appendix B for an excerpt from one of these reports.) This report served as the means for making

clear my reasons for choosing specific activities and their hoped-for outcomes, as well as the connections between the materials and activities in the lesson and the pedagogical principles that informed my choices. It provided a frame of reference for reflecting on the roles the principles played in the lesson, with principles from some sources (e.g., Smith & MacGregor, 1992; Donato, 1994; Doolittle, 1995) informing everything I was doing in the cycle of lessons as a whole, principles from other sources (e.g., Barkley, et al, 2004; Cohen, 1994, Foster, P., & Ohta, A. S. 2005) focused on each particular lesson, and yet others (e.g., Kagan & McGroarty 1993, McGroarty 1992) focused on a particular activity or set of activities. These principles provided me with a powerful means of conceiving of the purpose of the activities and a strong rationale for using them in my class. This was my first attempt at the mediation of theory.

However, the sheer number of principles and the lack of some overarching principles to guide my decisions presented difficulties in planning the second lesson. This led me to go back and re-examine Widdowson's description of the conceptual evaluation step. I realized that simply using the principles as I had was not truly what mediating theory meant. For Widdowson (2003), "the findings of research, and the theories they sustain, cannot be directly transferred to the contexts of particular classrooms" (p. 27). This is what I had mistakenly tried to do. The principles drawn from the literature provided rationales for using the activities and materials, but they did not express my own reasoning nor provide a justification for implementing them in my own practice. I had failed to develop a set of my own "valid principles of general relevance," as Widdowson (1990, p. 32) terms them.

The purpose of the framework and the model is not for teachers to apply theory, but to appraise it, to "use it as a catalyst for reflection on your own teaching circumstances, or...as a point of reference from which to take bearings on your own practice" (Widdowson, 2003, p. 27).

Following this realization, I worked to develop several more general principles which were to serve as my own "bearings". These self-created principles guided my choices in planning and implementation

(the operation step of the model) throughout the cycle of classes, and so they were termed "operational principles" to distinguish them from the pedagogical principles drawn out of the readings, which served to inform my own principles. These principles brought together the many principles from the literature and expressed my own understandings of them, serving as a bridge between the evaluation of professional knowledge and putting it into operation. They provided self-articulated reasons for my classroom practices and a rationale for using collaborative learning in my classroom. They came to form an important part of the classroom evaluation process as well.

To gather empirical evidence to evaluate the effects of the activities on the learning process, I employed a number of data collection methods. A teaching journal recorded my impressions of the class and the students' learning. The classes were videotaped and observation notes detailing classroom events were taken. In addition, the students were given short (5 to 7 questions) surveys at the end of each class, with a longer (11 questions) survey given at the end of the final class. The data were given a sense of reliability and validity through the triangulation found in the three different views of the same events – my viewpoint, an objective reference and the students' viewpoint – present in the data.

The question that arose in this step of the process was how to tie my observations and the students' surveys to the operational principles guiding my planning. One possible solution to this was suggested in a journal entry:

Should or could these principles be restated as questions? If I can develop a question or questions based on the principles this might allow me to see them as something whose answers I can find in the observations I make in the class. (Entry 34)

Following up on this idea, I used my operational principles and the activities carried out in the class as the basis for questions that would give me something to look for when observing the student's interactions as well as guide the entries in my teaching journals.

Additionally, I revised the surveys, which had focused on the students' interest in the class as a whole and the projects which they were carrying out, and their use of English in the class, by adding questions which restated my principles in language the students could understand and yet still maintained their central ideas. Using these questions helped to reveal student attitudes towards the activities and materials based on these principles. The surveys now more fully examined the student's view on their learning and the effects of collaborative learning on this.

The process as portrayed above (and outlined in Appendix A) provided me with a preliminary working procedure for the implementation of Widdowson's framework in the classroom. My attempts to resolve the above issues led me to several realizations concerning the role the framework was playing in my practice, two of which are discussed below.

Realizations

First and foremost was the centrality of developing one's own theory-grounded principles. Simply using principles drawn from theory as maxims to guide the choice of classroom activities (Long, 2009) is insufficient to truly engage with the ideas in question, as I found out in my initial attempts. Practitioners must develop their own interpretations of the theory and work out their own principles to put into practice for the model to be effective.

In my case, the operational principles I developed guided my lesson plans and activities, the way I conducted my classes, and the way I hoped the students would react to the materials and their classmates. The principles were grounded in theory, focused my observations and were reflected in the student surveys. They tied together what I did and saw and what the students did and saw, allowing me to see much more clearly how my actions in the classroom led to learning by the students. My principles brought all aspects of my practice together, allowing me to see the class as a unified whole from top to bottom.

Secondly, implementing Widdowson's model provided me with an organized framework to carefully consider the issues involved in putting professional knowledge into my practice. By working through

its four steps I gained a deeper understanding of the professional knowledge and how it related to my own practice. By putting these ideas into operation and then observing and evaluating their effects, I was able to begin to perceive the ways in which these 'abstractions' could be made concrete, and how to more explicitly link theory and my practice together. It provided the means for going from theory to practice and back, as I noted in a journal entry:

The model is making the ways in which professional knowledge is put to use in my classroom more apparent -- bringing it out into the light day in a sense. And at the same time giving me the chance to think more clearly and purposefully about why I'm doing what I'm doing. This model provides a means of focused reflection – targeted at how a teacher sees their classroom practices in relation to professional knowledge. (Entry 44)

Conclusion

Smith (2000, p. 8) remarks that developing an "appropriate methodology in and for their own classrooms" is "the heart of what it means to teach appropriately, in any context". Widdowson's framework can provide practitioners with a tool for doing this. Its recursive nature provides the practitioner with multiple opportunities to reflect on and learn from their experience, allowing them to see how professional knowledge can be applied in specific teaching contexts. Tools such as these are needed for teachers to be able to take charge of their own teaching situations and aid them in their own development of their pedagogical skills.

The process outlined in this paper can provide individual practitioners with the means to critically engage with theory in a reflective manner and so consider the relevance of particular theories to their own context. It also encourages practitioners to explicitly bring theory into the decision-making process and link it to specific aspects of their practice through the development of self-derived principles which guide their classroom actions. Finally, it allows them to gather evidence from the classroom on the impact of these principles. First, by using these principles as guides for classroom observation and

journal entries, and second, by using them as the basis of surveys to gain the students' perspective on the impact of these principles in the classroom.

While the time and effort needed to implement the process outlined above, may not be available to all practitioners, it is hoped that this paper will provide both an impetus and a basis for other teachers to explore their own means of employing Widdowson's framework in their classroom in order to help better ground their practice in professional knowledge.

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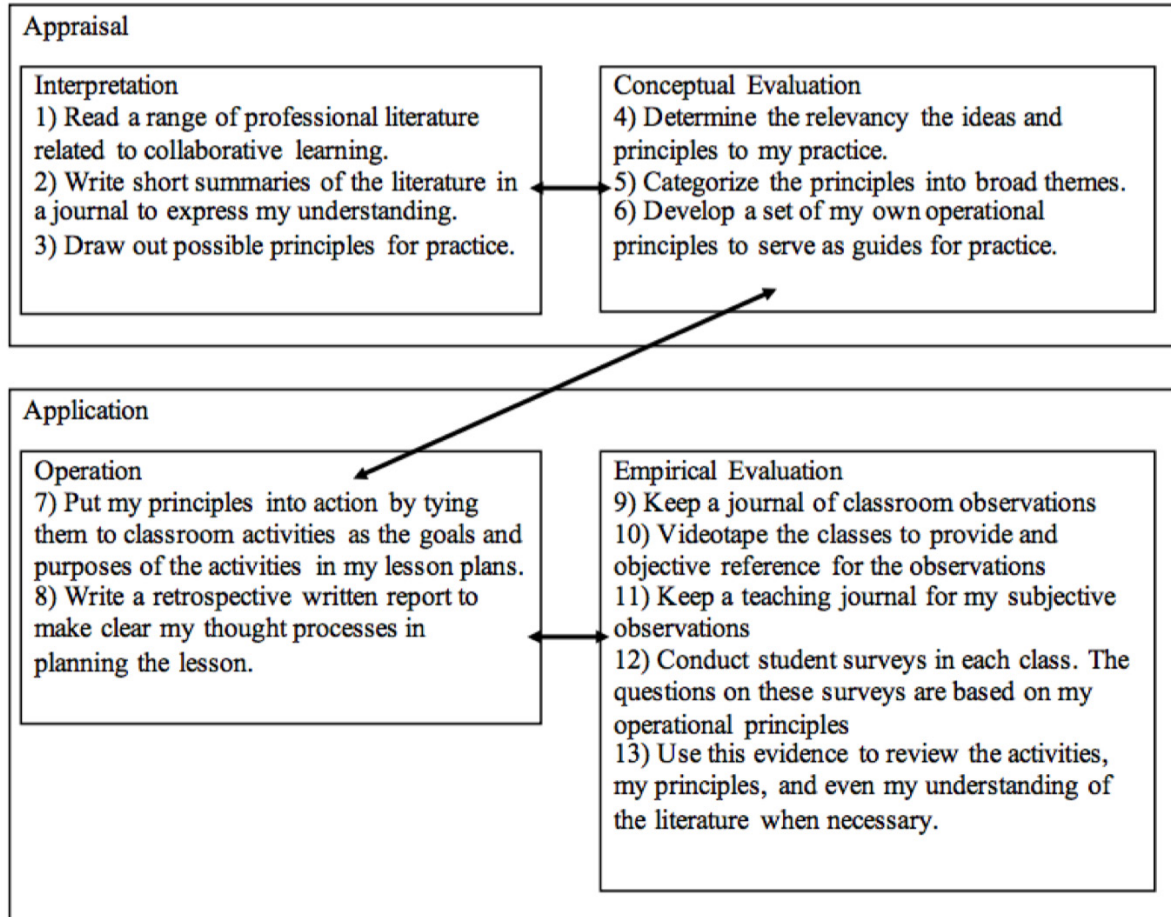
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Appendix A

Steps Followed in Implementing Widdowson’s Framework for Pedagogic Mediation in Individual Practice

The figure below shows the steps that were followed in putting Widdowson’s framework to use in individual practice.



Steps followed in implementing Widdowson’s framework for pedagogic mediation in individual practice..

Appendix B

Excerpt from Retrospective Written Report on Planning Lesson 1

Activity: Pick projects – Write-Pair-Share activity

The pedagogical principles I'm following here are:

1. Simultaneity Principle – having Ss speak in pairs or small groups increases overall speaking time and number of students engaged. (Kagan and McGroarty, 1993, p 55)
2. One-way tasks (listen to a speaker and then switch) may provide lower level learners with more practice in extended speaking and listening. It may provide them with the opportunity for extended discourse in L2 and give them confidence in their ability to express themselves and understand others. (McGroarty, 1992, p 49)
3. Create a productive non-threatening environment that encourages effort. (McGroarty, 1993, p 40-41)

This is the first true collaborative activity. After I quickly go over the project options on the sheet, the individual students will choose their top three choices and give a reason why for each one, they will then tell their partner their choices, the partner will ask 1 follow-up question and the students will switch roles. (2)

This format will give the students time think on their own and allowing them to write out their answers and read out their answers will help alleviate the tension of speaking and expressing their opinion (1). Asking 1 follow-up question ensures that the listener pays attention.

This also acts as a rehearsal for students to express their preferences later in their group when deciding on the group project. (3)

Activity: Icebreaker/Three-step interview

The pedagogical principles I'm following here are:

4. Include one-way (giving and justifying opinions) and two-way (sharing of information) tasks. (McGroarty, 1993, p 34-35)
5. Students must have a responsibility to make their own contributions to the interaction, i.e. each student has to exchange information or resources (to interact) to achieve group success (positive interdependence and individual accountability). (Kagan and McGroarty, 1993, p. 50)
6. Team Building can help create a supportive environment within the team. (Kagan and McGroarty, 1993, p 59)
7. Icebreakers ease tension creating a more comfortable environment and they create an expectation of interaction and so are useful as introductions to meaningful and ongoing collaboration. (Barkely, et al, 2004, p. 30)
8. Setting aside sufficient time for students to get to know each other to build trust to develop a sense of community...can ensure the course gets off to a positive start by helping to orient students towards CL. (Barkely, et al, 2004, p. 41)

The goal of this activity is for the team to find out what they all have in common by discussing six prompts in pairs, then switching partners and repeating the activity. All four members will then use the prompts to find what they all have in common and to use this to come up with a team name (2, 4, 5). This will help build a sense of team spirit as well as serving as a low-stress means of getting the group members to interact with each other in English allowing the group members to feel comfortable with each other (3, 6, 7, 8)