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Innovations in Education

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Message from the editors:

The *16th Annual PanSIG Conference* was held at Meio University in Nago, Okinawa on May 20-23, 2016. The theme of the conference was, “Innovations in Education.” This was a collaborative effort from 26 Special Interest Groups (SIGs) within the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). The conference was highly successful and participants were able to attend presentations on a variety of topics from a wide spectrum in the fields of language teaching and learning.

This journal represents the second edition of the annual *PanSIG Journal* which includes a selection of papers from the conference. 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 *2016 PanSIG Journal* were consistently very high. This year’s conference saw one of the largest submissions of papers that we have seen for a PanSIG publication. The final papers that were selected for inclusion in the 2016 *PanSIG Journal* are a representative effort from the conference in Nago, Okinawa and 45 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

November 1st, 2017

The 2016 PanSIG Journal

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Literature and Language Teaching: Bridging EGAP and ESAP

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During a period of curricular change at a national university in Japan, instructors were asked to develop English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) courses which built on the foundation English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) courses to help improve students' language skills for effective participation in the global arena. The aim of the new ESAP courses was to meet the specific needs of students through particular disciplines which emphasized critical thinking. This paper describes a course which was developed using an authentic literary work of W. Somerset Maugham. The paper concludes by suggesting literature as an effective method of bridging EGAP and ESAP.

日本の国立大学では、先生は新しいカリキュラムのためのESAPコースを開発するよう求められました。目的は、EGAP基礎コースの知識を増やして、グローバルな文脈における学生のコミュニケーションを改善することでした。新しいESAPコースは、学生の特定の学習ニーズを満たし、批判的思考を強調しなければならなかった。本稿では、ウィリアム・サマセット・モームの本物の文学作品を使用して開発されたコースについて説明します。著者は、EGAPとESAPを結びつける効果的な方法として文献を提案している。

In today's world of second language (L2) learning, English is considered to be the default medium for academic, scholarly and scientific communication in a global context. One of the main concerns for L2 learners after having attained a certain language level is how to further increase their skills. Where beginner L2 learners tend to experience a drastic learning curve, once they have achieved a level where they are comfortable with conversation on familiar topics, the learning curve begins to plateau (Rowntree, 1981; Xu, 2009). In order for students to improve their English skills, it is thus important to add a component that challenges their current stage of linguistic competence.

English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) research has shown that an effective method of helping learners to advance their proficiency level is shifting the focus from studying the rules of the language to relating language learning to specific personal needs and interests (Strevens, 1988; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (p.19). Whereas similarities can be found between English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and ESAP in theory, ESAP in practice should acknowledge and emphasize the specific needs and goals of the language learner.

For the past few years, the undergraduate program had been experiencing vast curricular reform and teachers were expected to offer more challenging and varied ESAP courses in order for students to gain a deeper and broader understanding of specific knowledge areas. As such, teachers were asked to

Armstrong, M. (2017). Literature and Language Teaching: Bridging EGAP and ESAP. In G. Brooks (Ed.) *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 1-9). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

create syllabi to match the new curricular goals. EGAP, as taught to the freshman students, focused mainly on the acquisition of general language skills. The aim of the more advanced ESAP courses was for 2nd to 4th year students to acquire content in greater depth in a particular discipline while centering on language skills appropriate to the content. ESAP was thus considered to be an ascension of the EGAP courses in that it helped students to have a deeper understanding of how the general skills worked within specific situational contexts

Using literature in the EFL classroom has been gaining interest over the past two decades as communicative language learning in Japanese tertiary institutions has become more pronounced (Yoshimura, 2007). As attention continues to become more focused on preparing students for the global arena, literature has become an attractive and innovative option for EFL instructors to meet this ideal while at the same time, actively engaging students with learning materials (Bibby & McIlroy, 2013; Laskar, 2007; Okumura, 2009; Teranishi, Saito, & Wales, 2015). This paper describes the curricular approach taken by the researcher who developed an ESAP course. The aim of this course was to introduce students to advanced-level content which veered away from general textbook topics toward materials written *by* L1 English speakers *for* L1 English speakers. By introducing students to authentic materials, it was possible for the learners to see, understand and absorb language used in an authentic context. In this way, students were forced to activate their prior knowledge, expand inter/intra cultural awareness and improve skills of analysis to comprehend the new materials.

Contextual overview

This research took place at a national university in Japan. Participants in this study were eight undergraduate students taking a 2-credit elective course. The ESAP courses were the most advanced courses offered by the English department, thus it was important that the syllabus was challenging, reflected the wider academic needs of the learners, fostered critical thinking skills and where possible, promoted intercultural awareness. The specific pedagogical aim of the course was to improve discussion, presentation and reading skills through an in-depth focus on a literary work. For this course, the reading material selected was W. Somerset Maugham's "The Razor's Edge". In addition to the 90 minutes of classwork each week, students were required to complete an extra 4.5 hours of out-of-class learning which included reading the text and preparing a short presentation and discussion questions for their classmates. It was thus expected that this course would attract only the most motivated learners who sought to advance their language learning skills from the foundation EGAP courses to ESAP.

The eight participants who signed up for the course were 2nd to 4th year undergraduate students.

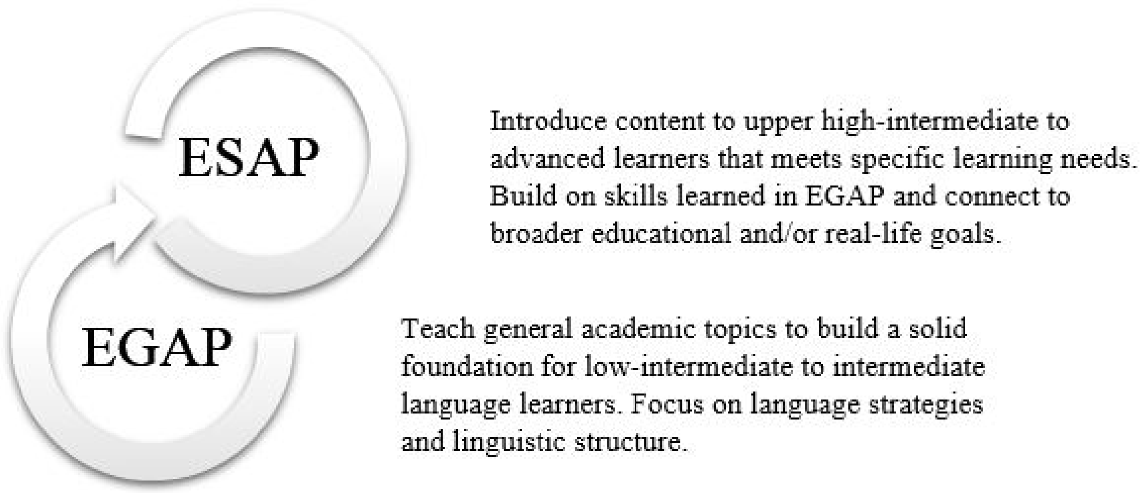

Figure 1. Ascension from EGAP to ESAP.

Four students were taking the course for credit and four non-credit students were taking the course simply to maintain their English proficiency level. This study focuses results on the four credit students as they were required to fully participate in the course and take the final examinations.

There was one main question which guided the research:

- How can literature be exploited in the EFL classroom to improve and advance specific language skills and promote critical thinking?

Literature in this study was considered to be any authentic piece of writing that had value, in literary circles, as art and not just entertainment. W. Somerset Maugham's "The Razor's Edge," was selected because it provided interesting reading content and the complexity of vocabulary was deemed to be acceptable for L2 learners to read and comprehend. Further, it reflected different values and aspects of young men and women in a changing society (the lost generation) which helped students to make interesting cultural, social and historical connections to contemporary issues. This allowed for more critical discussions about familiar themes and global issues as well as broader explanations of society as a whole.

Applying theory to practice: Curriculum development

Using an adaptation of Graves' (2000) framework of course development, the researcher put together a design for the new ESAP curriculum. Four areas were considered in detail:

1. Needs analysis
2. Goal setting
3. Course content
4. Assessment

Assessing needs

In creation of an ESAP curriculum, research literature has emphasised to some degree the importance of needs analysis and goal-setting. For Bojović (2006), the foundation of ESAP starts with the question: why does this learner need to learn a foreign language? (p.487). The answer determines the immediate learning need which then dictates the content of the curriculum. The first step in the process of curriculum development therefore, was to help students identify their central learning needs. Questions asked to participants were:

1. What do you hope to improve by taking this course?
2. What are your current L1 reading habits?

The needs analysis identified specific goals such as wanting to understand writing structure, read long sentences, deliver an effective presentation, and react spontaneously to peers during discussions. A wider goal that students thought would help prepare them for life after graduation was increasing intercultural awareness by broadening their views about the world. Identifying students' learning needs and incorporating them into the syllabus was thus central in helping to develop and shape a course that was relevant to students' future lives and could help sustain motivation throughout the semester. In a sense, this type of negotiation would likely enhance enthusiasm for improving reading and speaking achievements as the learners were allowed to be part of the decision-making process. Students were then made aware of the institutional expectations of the course in terms of the weekly workload in and out of the classroom.

Formulating goals and objectives

Table 1 illustrates the three approaches of teaching literature to EFL students which were considered to be the central factors in determining the course content: Cultural, language and personal growth (Bibby & McIlroy, 2013).

It was decided to take a more learner-centred approach and use the personal growth model as it encouraged students to examine the material closely, form opinions based on their own personal feelings and life experiences, use interaction to make learning more meaningful, purposeful and memorable, and evaluate their learning progress. The personal growth model also connected with the concept of conducting a needs analysis as part of the underlying philosophy of the ESAP course.

Table 1
Considering Focus During Curriculum Development

Approach	Definition
1. Culture	• The understanding and appreciation of different cultures and ideologies together with the development of perceptions of feelings and artistic forms (Carter & Long, 1991) • Literature should be seen as invaluable resource of motivating material and as a bridge to provide access to cultural background (Lazar, 1993) • Literature provides learners with authentic, pleasurable and cultural material (Hall, 2005)
2. Language learning	• Emphasises language as the medium to teach specific vocabulary and language structures (Carter & Long, 1991) • Literature encourages language acquisition, expands students' language awareness and interpretation abilities (Lazar, 1993; Short, 1996) • Literature provides a good model for good writing (Parkinson & Thomas, 2000) • Improves vocabulary expansion and reading skills (Hall, 2005)
3. Personal growth	• Engaging with the reading of the literary text, appreciating and evaluating cultural artefacts and in broader terms, the understanding of society, culture and identity within that social matrix (Carter & Long, 1991) • Literature educates the whole person (Lazar, 1990) • Literature enhances the psycholinguistic aspect of language learning as it focuses on form and discourse processing skills (Hall, 2005)

Conceptualizing content

In this category, the researcher considered the type of learning material and how the students would contribute to the course. Instead of using an EFL textbook, authentic materials were selected by the teacher and students (Table 2).

Research in L2 acquisition states that as students will one day face authentic language outside the classroom, it is beneficial if they are exposed to genuine language inside the classroom (Stern, 1992; Widdowson, 1983). Daskalovska and Dimova (2012) write that advanced learners in particular benefit from authentic literary texts as they not only offer opportunity for discussion, but also motivate as students appreciate that they are reading a literary text in its original form. This position is also supported by Ur (1996). In practice, each week the students presented on a specific part of the story, facilitated discussions in groups and then considered specific aspects of their performance for improvement. The

Table 2
Student and Teacher Selected Learning Materials

Author	Teacher selected story	Student selected stories for comparative analysis	Author
W. Somerset Maugham	The Razor's Edge	The Little Prince	Antoine de Saint-Exupéry
		The Great Gatsby	F. Scott Fitzgerald
		Narcissus and Goldmund	Herman Hess
		The Sun Also Rises	Ernest Hemingway

choice of materials thus promoted both quality discussion and self-reflection. Toward the end of the semester, the four credit students presented their choice of self-selected stories to the teacher for approval and explained their rationale for selecting the material as well as the type of comparative analysis that would be conducted. In this way, the teacher could ensure that each student chose a different literary work and that it would stimulate a quality discussion.

Assessment

Students were assessed throughout the semester on weekly presentations, guided discussions and self-reflective practices. The course culminated in a comparative analysis of two literary works (*The Razor's Edge* / student-selected work) in the format of a 20-minute student-led presentation and discussion. The evaluation sought to identify whether the student was capable of thinking critically about underlying cultural, social and historical themes, could concisely present their ideas in an oral presentation and lead a critical discussion. A self-assessment in the final class was done as a short, written reflection. Students were asked to consider three points:

1. If the way they read/immersed themselves in books had changed
2. If they had achieved their learning goals; and
3. Which area of their performance they thought had developed the most.

Curriculum assessment was also carried out at the end of the semester through discussions with a colleague who was teaching a similar literature course. The instructors first examined the reflective reports written by students to see if the course had met expectations and needs. Following this, the instructors discussed reflective notes written on lesson plans to see if objectives had been achieved and how the curriculum could be improved in the future.

Discussion: Literature as a bridge between EGAP and ESAP

Discussions about the curriculum highlighted three specific areas which assisted in elevating student learning from EGAP to ESAP:

1. Student-centred learning
2. Meaningful input/output
3. Meeting wider objectives.

Student-centered learning

The student-centric learning syllabus was essential in helping students focus on individual learning needs. Table 3 illustrates the distinguishing characteristics between the EGAP and ESAP courses as it related to the student-centric classroom.

Authentic materials had intrinsic educational value to the students as they could reflect on current world events through a comparison of time periods. Weekly discussions, in many cases, showed that students had varied interpretations about similar events in the text. Seeing a particular event from different perspectives not only helped students to see themselves as individuals, but also understand and accept that there was more than one way of viewing the world.

Table 3

Distinguishing Between EGAP and ESAP: Student-centric Learning

EGAP	ESAP
1. Prescriptive lessons: lesson target decided by the teacher based on the university's set curriculum 2. Usually teacher-directed goal-oriented classroom 3. Focus on specific educational goals	1. Student-centric learning: Students take responsibility for selecting own discussion materials 2. Interactive/active learning space: Socially constructed meaning through student-led discussions and idea-sharing 3. Focus on student training: Students charged with doing content reviews themselves by identifying key moments in each chapter and providing a summary of their thoughts

Meaningful input/output

The interesting nature of literature was a motivating factor for students as they were able to imagine journeys to a different time and place, access different cultural, social and historical backgrounds and discuss complex themes. As literary texts often have multiple levels of meaning or can be interpreted in various ways, becoming actively involved in unravelling the text became a meaningful task. Widdowson (1983, p.33) once stated,

> It's not easy to see how learners at any level can get interested in and therefore motivated by a dialogue about buying stamps at a post office. There is no plot, no mystery, there is no character; everything proceeds as if communication never created a problem. There's no misunderstanding, there's no possibility of any kind of interaction. What happens is that learners simply mouth the sentences of their parts, and you don't actually get them interested in what they are doing.

In order to participate in a productive and critical classroom discussion, students should thus be given meaningful content that will expand their world-view, provide pleasure and stimulate their minds. Table 4 shows the distinguishing characteristics between the EGAP and ESAP courses as taught at the university.

Meaningful input encouraged critical thinking skills as students were able to ask questions that facilitated meaningful output. Some examples of themes which were critically discussed by students in comparison with *The Razor's Edge* were disillusionment; finding meaning in a meaningless life; rites of passage; superficiality; status and legacy; conflict between one's quest for material things and one's quest for understanding of the self and the universe; and the individual's life quest and how each journey is different. Countries visited throughout this journey which students found interesting were America, France, Germany and India. Students were also interested in identifying and making cultural comparisons with familiar museums, churches, palaces, monasteries, foods, currencies, economic events of the time (such as the Great Depression) and prices of goods. These were some of the areas of wonderment for the students as they sought meaning in the text. Further, they could have a sense of achievement after discussions in the realization that they could comprehend genuine language, lead a critical discourse and make connections to the wider world. In this way, student learning went beyond the study of the language learned in EGAP courses.

Meeting wider objectives

A final consideration when designing the curriculum was that the course would have an impact on students' immediate and wider goals. Table 5 shows the distinguishing characteristics between the EGAP and ESAP courses as it related to students' wider objectives.

Students' central needs as stated in the needs analysis were mainly to improve their discourse and reading skills. Their development was seen in two

Table 4

Distinguishing Between EGAP and ESAP: Meaningful Input/Output

EGAP	ESAP
1. Teaching to a one-size-fits-all test format 2. Every teacher taught from the same textbook. Same general skills course taught yearly leading, in many cases, to teacher stagnation and/or boredom 3. Assessment practices followed mainly textbook reading and listening comprehension exercises; vocabulary tests and strategy training.	1. Authentic materials introduced a different, surprising world in the form of a story. Texts were written by native speakers for native speakers 2. New materials selected by students dissected and discussed which led to student and teacher motivation. 3. Assessment practices focused on students' interpretations and analysis of their own chosen text.

Table 5
Distinguishing Between EGAP and ESAP: Wider Objectives Being Met

EGAP	ESAP
1. Teach foundation language skills to be tested within the classroom 2. Cognitive skills with little extension 3. Skills learned connected to gaining a course credit and not wider goals 4. Equal balance of skills. Language structure and skills taught in isolation	1. Teach intermediate to advanced meaning-focused skills to be used outside the classroom 2. Metacognitive skills: Testing critical thinking skills: Meaning extended with a connection to personal and cultural experiences 3. Transferability or application of skills such as problem-solving and thinking critically about specific aspects of learning to future language-related goals 4. Student language learning needs more selective based on future goals. Focus on specific skill to meet needs. L2 taught according to the context of the student's real-world goal

ways. First, students were more communicative as they became motivated by the stories, especially through sharing thoughts and ideas of characters and themes, as well as by agreeing or disagreeing with classmates and providing support for their ideas about character motivations and story outcomes. Second, students' approach to reading was also more critical in that they tended to look for what was implied or below the surface rather than simply reporting on the different stages of events in the story. Figure 2 demonstrates how students became more critical in their questions.

With regard to transferability of skills, two of the credit students stated that they were able to advance their language skills which would help them to feel more confident in unfamiliar settings; and the other two students who were advancing to graduate school felt that the discussion skills practiced would help them to be less fearful of responding to impromptu questions at international conferences. For all students, they were able to move beyond general conversational skills and topics (movies, hobbies, weekend plans, holidays, etc.) to discussing academic content at an advanced level.

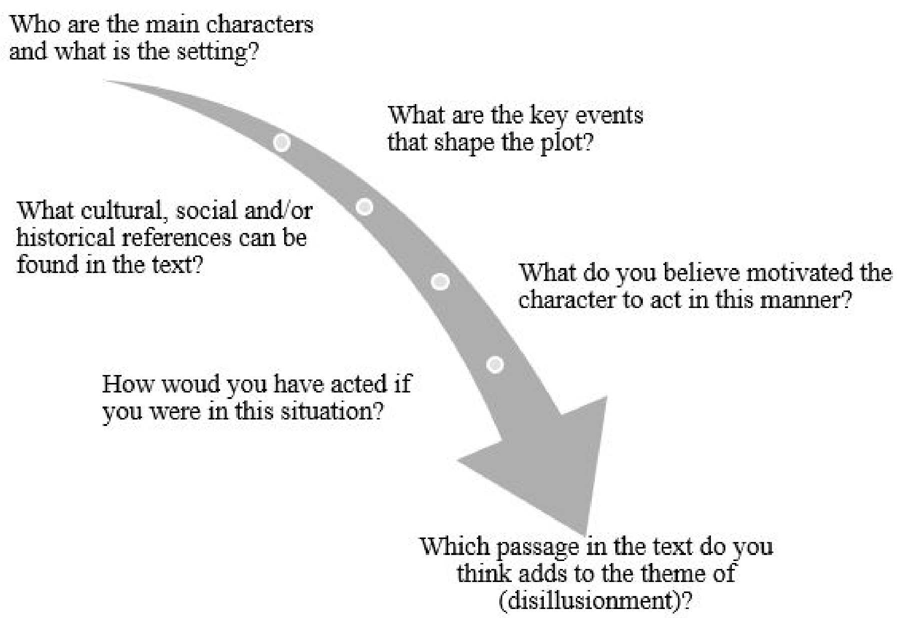

Figure 2. An illustration of students' development in asking critical questions.

Conclusion

In order for students to increase language skills, it is important to challenge current levels, view language as having deeper meaning and account for immediate and future language learning needs. Whereas EGAP gave students a solid foundation in the study of language forms and strategies, ESAP, using literature as the content, was able to focus more closely on the use and meaning of the language as well as assist in the holistic development of the student. That is, as the students underlying language learning needs were taken into account, they became more involved in the communication process by appreciating different viewpoints, their world-view broadened through making connections with varied country's cultures, history and society and their interest in the language was stimulated on a deeper, more meaningful level. The author thus concludes that the use of literature in the EFL classroom is an effective method of bridging EGAP and ESAP as well as helping learners advance to a higher level of language proficiency.

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Why Do My Bilingual Kids Never Bloody Swear?

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This paper considers why the elder two of the author's four (bilingual Japanese/English) children almost never imitate their father's habitual bad language. This state of affairs may well contradict Krashen's theory of comprehensible input. Drawing on transcripts of conversations he recorded with the children over the course of a year and a half, the author wonders whether there has been sufficient input of swear words for the children to pick up on. He also considers the limited opportunities the children have for English output generally, the relative absence of swearing in their dominant language, and their consciousness of taboo language, as other possible factors.

本稿は、なぜ、筆者の２人の子ども（日英バイリンガル）が、父親の習慣的な罵り言葉を模倣しないのかについて考察する。ここで提示する事例は、Krashenの理解可能なインプット（comprehensible　input)の理論に矛盾しているようである。1年半にわたる筆者と子どもたちとの会話スクリプトをとおして、子どもたちが罵り言葉を習得するのに十分なインプットがあったのか、分析する。また、子どもたちが英語をアウトプットする機会が限られていること、および、優勢言語による罵り言葉がほとんどないこと、タブーな言葉という意識があること、そして可能性のあるその他の要因について考察する。

A while ago an English friend remarked on the frequency with which I swear, curse and generally blaspheme. Perhaps it's an Irish characteristic. Indeed, the most highbrow newspaper in my homeland, The Irish Times, recently ran a feature about the joy of cursing.

> A friend who moved to the UK about 20 years ago, reported that, owing to strange, disapproving stares, he had to curb his cursing ways when he got off the flight and felt it necessary to catch up once on Irish soil and in the correct company... But there are occasions that really do call for a good old swear. (Logue, 2016)

As the journalist indicated, it does seem that there is more bad language on the western shores of the Irish Sea. However, even if the Irish are relatively relaxed about swearing, it's not something I set out to do in front of my children but sometimes it slips out. What's unexpected, is that my two sons and two daughters (whom my Japanese wife and I are trying to raise bilingually,) almost never reproduce the offensive language. On the face of it, this would seem to contradict Krashen's theory of language acquisition. "Studies provide consistent evidence that we acquire language and develop literacy primarily from understanding what we read and hear, that is, when we obtain comprehensible input." (Jarvis & Krashen, 2014, p.1). If that is the case, shouldn't my children be understanding and indeed imitating all of my comprehensible input, including the reprehensible portions? I should make it clear from the outset that this question came about after I had already begun researching my children's bilingualism. Swearing was not the original focus of the research and as such this paper should be regarded as an early study that invites questions, (as much as answers them), and invites

Bradley, M. (2017). Why do my bilingual kids never bloody swear? In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 10-17). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

other researchers to follow up on the questions posed.

Respondents' Language Background

In order to investigate this apparent conundrum I decided to examine the corpus I've collected of my two older children's English. Over the course of a year and a half, I recorded Malachy and Mariko once a week when I drove them to their elementary school. The journey takes around 25 minutes. Often, this is the only time they'll speak English during the school week – they attend a Japanese medium school, speak Japanese with each other, their friends and the rest of the family. They did attend one-hour-long English lessons twice a week after school with a native speaker teacher for about a year during the recording period. The classes were small, only 3 or 4 students in total, but unfortunately the lessons were frequently cancelled.

Malachy and Mariko hear some English at home – my wife and I always talk English together, I sometimes read them stories in English and they regularly watch American movies and TV – but they don't often produce it. At weekends I consciously try to engage them in English but the conversation often slips into Japanese, particularly since the younger two siblings rarely produce sentence length utterances in English. I don't speak Japanese to the children, and seldom speak it in front of them. If Malachy and Mariko speak to me in Japanese, in theory I just ignore them. In practice such a strategy generates too much ill feeling, so if I understand what they're saying I try to respond in English without commenting on their language choice. Occasionally my frustration at their reluctance to use English does boil over and I berate them for using Japanese. On the other hand when they do have something they want to tell me, Malachy and Mariko will switch quite naturally to English.

In the six years we have been living in Japan the children have visited Ireland with me on four occasions, for an average of three weeks at a time. Both Malachy and Mariko were born in Ireland. We moved to Okinawa when they were 4;6 and 2;10 respectively. Effectively, we are rearing our children while mostly using the one person, one language approach.

Data

I recorded my morning chats with Malachy and Mariko (using a Zoom voice recorder) between September 10th 2014 (when they were aged 8;11 and 7;4 respectively) and December 2nd 2015. An excerpt from one such conversation can be found in the Appendix. On those occasions when the children were reluctant to engage in conversation, we played games of 20 Questions (where one person thinks of an object or creature, and the others have to guess what it is by asking only yes/no questions.) Often the children lapsed into Japanese when addressing each other but when talking to me, by and large, they used English.

Results

Whilst I had long wondered if my children were getting enough English input per se, latterly I became worried that they might be getting too much of a particular kind of input - swearing. However when I read through the transcripts, there were only two incidences of me using bad language during this period (see below) and there are no cases at all of the children reiterating any taboo language on tape.

The context for the following extract from November 3rd is that I had inadvertently driven over a flower pot which had been left on the driveway outside our house.

03/11/2014

Noise of a bang

ME* (Angrily) What's that? What the fuck? Who leaves things on the road?

MARI* I didn't

ME* Don't leave things on the road. I know you didn't leave that but other days I've come and there have been bicycles and other things and you can't....(They laugh)
It's not funny. You can't see them Marichan.

MAL* What is that?

ME* That was a flower pot, put in the bloody way

In this December 12th extract I had just turned out of a small side street onto a major multilane road. Having misjudged the turn, I ended up in the wrong lane facing the oncoming traffic.

02/12/2015

ME* ..oh wrong lane...oh shit...(beeping noise indicating my car is reversing) ...oh, Daddy's bad...

MARI* yes (giggling)..

MAL* yes, you're bad.

I made a total of 52 recordings during this period – though I confess that some weeks I forgot to record and other weeks I recorded more than once. However if school holidays are discounted, it averages out at about one recording per week. Clearly, a couple of instances of swearing over the course of 16 months is not much input for the children to pick up on, especially when the profanities were different on each occasion. But just because I don't curse much when I'm being recorded, doesn't mean that I always choose my words so carefully. When I am speaking to the children during the school run I know that I am being recorded and at some level therefore, decide to moderate my language in keeping with the observer's paradox. Off–mic, I definitely swear more. I am conscious that I regularly take the Lord's name in vain, particularly when driving. I also know with near certainty that, with just one exception, I've never heard Malachy or Mariko repeat any of this bad language.

The one time I did hear the children swear was in January 2016. We were at home and I had just, somewhat violently, banged my head on an extractor fan in the kitchen/living room. Annoyed (in part from the fact that I hadn't learned from previous collisions), I reacted by shouting "Fuck You!" All four children were in the room at the time and they looked up when I yelled. The youngest immediately, gleefully, gave a passable imitation of what he'd just heard and the others followed suit. (I tried to rescue the situation by pretending that I'd actually said "Thank You" but they were clearly skeptical.) After a few seconds the foul mouthed chorus petered out and I haven't heard any of them utter that, or any other expletive since.

Discussion

So why did they imitate me on this occasion and not on others? I initially thought it may have been because the youngest (at the time aged 3;8) was a great mimic and that the older children had, to some degree, lost that skill. In other words I thought that younger children acquired new words more easily than their elders. This assumption is contradicted however by O'Grady (2005) who states that while children between two and six acquire on average ten new words a day, by age six they "go on to learn as many as twenty new words per day over the next several years." (p.8). Perhaps then the reason for my 3 year old's enthusiastic repetition wasn't so much because his powers of language acquisition were superior to those of the other children. Perhaps it had more to do with the fact that he was the only one who didn't realize the word was taboo.

Compared to native English speaking children, my children's relatively chaste language choices are a little unusual. According to Kristin and Timothy Jay (2013) "children's acquisition of a taboo lexicon and taboo etiquette are normal language phenomena that occur in the context of normal cognitive and sociocultural development" (p.472). Their paper which focused on white middle class children in New England found that by the time youngsters had entered primary school, most had around 42 taboo words and phrases.

Children often acquire swear words from their parents but it's not clear at what stage they begin to appreciate the taboo nature of these words. As Jay and Jay point out more "systematic study of child swearing is needed to document the ages of emergence of taboo language use and changing value" (ibid p.460). It does seem though that once children begin to understand the purpose of swearing, they become reluctant to reproduce it in front of their parents. Perhaps they feel a need to practice such language with their peers first. Since my children don't fraternize with other English speaking children, they don't have any opportunities to experiment with bad language, and perhaps that is why they don't acquire it. "Learning to understand a language requires that you have had opportunities to hear it. Learning to speak a language implies that you have had opportunities to speak it. These opportunities are vital." (De Houwer 2009 p.95) If this hypothesis - that my children don't swear because they can't try it out with friends - is true, then we should expect Malachy and Mariko to repeat other non-standard language that I use, language which doesn't carry any taboo and which they could use unselfconsciously in front of their father. Below are examples of some of the Irish colloquialisms which pepper my speech.

12/01/2014

ME* Ok people I've got another 20 questions for *youse*

20/10/2014

ME* But Mari chan you know the shovel outside, the blue one, *sure* that's very big.

10/03/2015

ME* You got a very weak one when Malachy had it but you were only a *wee* baby maybe two months old

01/12/2014

ME* *Ach* Marichan…parrots, millions of them. About 70 million

15/12/2014

ME* *Aye*, so what are you doing now?

In our recorded conversations I used *youse* (meaning *you* plural) three times, s*ure* five times, w*ee* three times, *ach* twice and a*ye* once. With the exception of "wee" however, there are no examples in the transcripts of Malachy and Mariko reproducing any of these words. Mariko used *wee* on three occasions (two of these were in the same conversation on 19/03/2015) but maybe this is because my wife also frequently uses *wee* in her English conversation.

02/03/2015

MARI* And it's a *wee* bit small

19/03/2015

MARI* Yeah.. but Daddy Choa doesn't like nato but if you eat nato with rice maybe em, there's rice in it so maybe there's no nato's taste a *wee* bit

Since the children don't repeat any of the idiomatic language I use (with the exception of *wee*), irrespective of whether it is taboo or not, it is difficult to accept the hypothesis that Malachy and Mariko don't swear because they haven't had any opportunities to practice. They have had opportunities to use other non-taboo colloquial phrases in their conversations with me but they never took them.

Perhaps the primary reason why my children don't use bad language is simply that there is a lack of input. This seems plausible given that according to De Houwer (2009) "there needs to be a lot of input" for children to become bilingual (p.94). However O'Grady (2005) says that "children are able to learn a new word after hearing it used only once or twice." (p.50) Perhaps this apparent difference of opinion can be explained by the fact that O'Grady is talking primarily about monolingual children while De Houwer is speaking about bilinguals. It does seem that when it comes to a bilingual child's weaker language, hearing a particular word a couple of times is probably insufficient to prompt acquisition of the item. As Suzzanne Romaine notes in her book Bilingualism (1995), "A very common outcome to the 'one person- one language' method was a child who could understand the language of both parents, but spoke only the language of the community in which they lived" (p.186.) Perhaps my children's failure to imitate my language, my bad language as well as my good, should be seen in this context. There simply hasn't been enough input, nor have there been enough opportunities for output either.

Apart from paucity of input there may be other reasons why my children eschew bad language. According to Jay and Janschewitz (2008) "The main purpose of swearing is to express emotions, especially anger and frustration" (p.267). But just because my children don't swear it doesn't mean they never vent their frustrations. During our recorded conversations when they became upset they would often resort to Japanese phrases, or their literal English translations, to show displeasure, as shown in the three examples below.

08/12/2014

ME* I've got a 20 questions Mariko

MARI* *iya da* (*I hate it*)

14/01/2014
MAL (to me) * *Urusai* (*Be quiet!*)

15/12/2014
ME* Marichan, have you got your seatbelt on?
MARI* Daddy *warui* (*Daddy is bad*)

But if Malachy and Mariko only insult me in Japanese, why don't they use something a bit stronger? Why don't they swear at me in Japanese? Maybe the reason is that, as one Japanese lady Tomomi quoted in Dewaele (2010) says, "in Japanese we don't really have swearwords" (p.124). The same claim is made by De Garis and Sakai (2009 p.45) and whilst one may quibble with such an assessment it is undeniable that much less swearing happens in ordinary Japanese conversation compared to Irish ones. And this may be another reason why my children don't curse in English. If their dominant language was Italian or French or German, rather than Japanese, they may be more inclined to copy my swearing in English. The reason being is that many European languages contain cognates of English swear words, and those that don't often have direct equivalents for many of the English expletives. However, my children are probably never exposed to any direct Japanese equivalents for the profanities which I use. Certainly, I have never heard their mother swear in either Japanese or English.

There are then a number of possible reasons why my children don't swear. A limited amount of input would seem to be the chief cause but perhaps we should also consider the limited opportunities they have for output. Furthermore, the fact that they hear little or no swearing in their dominant language, Japanese, is probably also a factor. It is however too early to draw any definitive conclusions – I have been recording the children for less than a year and a half and I guess I really won't know how successfully they've acquired English, for several years to come. I hope I may be able to offer a more definitive hypothesis for their lack of swearing once I have collected and analyzed significantly more data. Of course in the interim they may have come to embrace profanity, as teenage rebellion activates the passive knowledge of swearing which they must surely possess.

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Appendix

Transcribed excerpt of recorded conversation 19/03/2014.

ME*	And Marichan why, why did you want to find Yuki Sensei? Because you?
MARI*	Because I, I spilled a,
MAL*	no, dropped
MARI*	a something, dropped a ..dropped (*says something in Japanese I don't catch*)
ME*	You dropped a tissue?
MARI*	No, no, no (*repeats the Japanese phrase*) like *katsu*… like *katsu* but inside there's there's…..at inside there's onions in
MAL*	No, it is a katsu
ME*	Oh OK
MARI*	and I dropped that one but
ME*	on the floor?
MARI*	Yeah but there was nobody….nobody
ME*	to clean it up?
MARI*	No, no, no, nobody was
MAL*	*interrupts in Japanese*
MARI*	no, nobody was, was
MAL*	*interrupts in Japanese*
MARI*	…*chigau ano….yasumi*… was not…
ME*	oh, nobody was off
MARI*	Nobody was off so…
MAL*	So what about le, le, you'll le, you'll be go like less…so what about le…
ME*	Oh one person didn't get, I see….Were you giving out the food, Marichan?
MARI*	A wee bit
ME*	You were helping to give out?
MARI*	No, but I was giving the, the, the chopsticks to everybody and I try to give to Koryu but, but I bump into Koryu's, Koryu's table and the ??? katsu was, right, nearly fell off
ME*	It was on the edge, was it?
MARI*	Yeah

ME*	and it did fall off?
MARI*	um
ME*	Aww. And why did you go looking for Yuki Sensei then?
MARI*	Because teacher said Yuki sensei have it, maybe
ME*	Has another one?
MARI*	Yeah
ME*	ahhh, ok. So did you find her in the end?
MARI*	Hmm
ME*	And did she give you a new one?
MARI*	Hmm
ME*	she did? That's good. So everybody was happy....Who...The person whose *katsu* fell on the floor were they angry or crying or?
MARI*	No
ME*	I think in May chan's school they would be crying wouldn't they?
MAL*	No, cause you'll give it, so you'll give it to who drop it
ME*	Aye, I know but at first they don't know that you're gonna get the new one.... so nobody was absent, nobody was off school
MAL*	No, you'll give it to the person who, that will, it fall...that..
ME*	When you say "give it", do you mean the new one or the one that fell?
MAL*	No, you'll give it to, to, what do you say?
ME*	The person...
MAL*	Who fell, make it fell
ME*	Ah, who made it fell, aww, so Mariko because Mariko dropped it, so Mariko has to take it. Is that what you mean, yeah?
MAL*	Hmm
ME*	but it was an accident
MARI*	But Daddy, really Daddy I didn't, I but Sione said I didn't do it. Sione said Sione saw some boy push me and I...

Student Sleep Patterns and Learning Outcomes

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Research has consistently demonstrated that lack of sleep negatively affects cognitive and assessment performance, mood, and classroom behavior. But many questions remain about the true sleep habits of Japanese students. This study examines student sleep habits, reasons attributed for sleep choices, and these behaviors' potential effects on classroom success. Students' predictions and self-reflections on sleep behavior will be explored, as will measurements of student sleep over an academic year. Suggestions for how universities might encourage healthy sleeping habits, as well as the potential benefits for students when better sleep is attained will also be discussed.

調査によると睡眠不足は認識力、教育評価、気分、授業態度に悪影響を及ぼすことが一貫して示されています。しかし、日本人生徒の実際の睡眠習慣について多くの疑問が残ります。この調査では生徒の睡眠習慣とその理由、そして授業での成果にどう影響しているかを分析しています。生徒の睡眠習慣に対する予想と内省を述べ、一年を通して生徒の睡眠量の測定も示しています。大学側が生徒に対して規則正しい睡眠を促す方法の提案と、健康的な睡眠を得ることでどのようなメリットがあるか示しています。

Maintaining a healthy lifestyle involves a balanced sleep-wake cycle. A number of crucial physiological activities happen during sleep, including some that impact the ability to process and retain information. Recent findings reveal that peaceful sleep at night can improve learning abilities (Simon, 2012), and that certain phases of sleep are significantly associated with memory reinforcement in the human brain (Wilhelm, et al., 2011). This study focuses on the sleep habits of female Japanese university students, and what affect sleep may have on their physical and mental wellbeing, as well as academic success.

Exploring how poor sleep habits may adversely affect students' academic performance at the tertiary level was an important basis for this study. In addition to our research aims of measuring the extent of this problem among Japanese university students and probing their explanations for their sleep behaviors, we also sought evidence from existing studies on how poor sleep behavior can negatively impact classroom success, the combination of which may empower instructors with the data necessary to help augment this behavior in their student populations.

Many researchers have used an instrument called the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI) to measure in detail both the length and quality of participants' sleep. Baert, Omey, Verhaest, and Vermeir (2015) measured the sleep quality of over 800 university students before fall exams and correlated their PSQI scores with the results of those assessments. What they found was a strong indication that higher levels of sleep quality correlated with higher exam scores, to the extent that a difference of one standard deviation higher on the PSQI meant an average increase of 4.85% on assessment scores. This kind of direct link between students' sleep behaviors and classroom performance further strengthens the argument that there are real consequences for sleep-related choices. Although we did not use the PSQI for this particular

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study, we have put it to use in our next set of data collection, and hope to present on our findings using this instrument soon.

In addition to the findings of Baert, et al., the team of Liu, Verhulst, Massar, and Chee, (2015) found that sleep loss has the potential to dull a person's cognitive abilities and make stress less manageable, and sleep deprivation has also been linked to poor attention, memory, and problem-solving skills (Chiang, 2013).

How sleep affects mood and motivation is also crucial in establishing a clear picture of how these behaviors affect students' mental and physical states. Rosen, Gimotty, Shea, and Bellini (2006) investigated changes in the sleep habits of medical interns, as well as explored psychological issues that arise due to sleep deprivation. Their results indicate a strong correlation between long-term sleep deprivation and higher rates of depression and burnout. These findings provide further evidence that psychological well-being is also at risk when student populations fail to get sufficient sleep.

But what length of sleep is ideal for students at the university level? While there are differences between individuals and across ages in regard to recommended lengths of sleep, a consensus in the literature is that sleeping around 8 hours a night can increase productivity in day to day activities (Youngstedt & Kripke, 2004). For our population, the National Sleep Foundation in the United States recommends young adults between the ages of 18 to 25 sleep between 7 to 9 hours a night (Hirshkowitz, 2015).

Research Questions

Our objectives for this study concerned a range of sleep-related issues, from measuring the length of sleep in our population over an academic year to exploring the reasoning attributed to sleep behaviors, as well as investigating students' reflections on how sleep affects academic performance.

1. What are the sleep habits of tertiary-level Japanese EFL students?
2. How accurate are students at assessing their own sleep behavior?
3. What justifications do students provide when asked to explain their sleep choices?
4. In what ways do students believe their length of sleep affects their academic performance?

Methods

The study was conducted in three separate phases during participants' first academic year at university. In the first phase, a survey was administered to incoming freshmen beginning their spring semester. The goal of Phase 1 was to have participants estimate their current lengths of sleep (at that point), and provide some predictions on how their sleep behavior would change during university, in addition to asking about other sleep-related issues. In the second phase, weekly surveys were administered to students throughout their spring and fall semesters (a total of 30 weeks). Phase 2 was our attempt to measure the lengths of sleep our students were getting week to week and produce a data set from which we could draw conclusions about the actual sleep habits of this population. In the third phase, a survey was administered to students at the end of their first academic year. In Phase 3 we asked participants to again estimate their lengths of sleep and reflect back on their sleep changes over their first year of university, as well as asking about other sleep-related issues.

The surveys were written in the students' L1 and included a range of questions regarding their sleeping habits. A mixed methodology was employed for data collection, including numerical, binary "Yes"/"No" responses, and open-ended items used in each survey. Both paper and electronic collection methods were used over the three phases.

Participants

The participants were English Communication majors from a 2-year college in central Japan. All participants were female and their L1 was Japanese.

Results

Phase 1

In this initial phase conducted at the beginning of the 2015 academic year, 170 participants responded to the six-item survey.

Item 1: "On average, how much do you sleep each day?" The mean calculated for this item was 5.76 hours of sleep per night for all respondents. This number translates to an average of 5 hours and 46 minutes of sleep per night as estimated by the participants. Although not a direct measurement of how long these students sleep, this estimate was used to gauge how long the students believe they sleep and was used as a basis for comparison to the actual lengths of sleep measured in Phase 2.

Item 2: "Do you think that is enough sleep?" "Yes" responses were measured at 34.12%, "No" responses at 65.29%, and 0.59% of participants did not respond to this item.

Item 3: "Is getting enough sleep important to you?" "Yes" responses were measured at 99.41%, and "No" responses at 0.59%.

Item 4: "In high school, how regularly did you nap in class?" Participants were asked to use a 4-point scale to estimate their napping frequency. Responses were "Often", "Sometimes", "Only occasionally", or "Never". "Often" responses were calculated at 19.41%, "Sometimes" at 32.35%, "Only occasionally" at 32.94%, and "Never" at 14.12%.

Item 5: "Do you believe how much you sleep at night affects your studies?" "Yes" responses were measured at 96.48%, "No" at 1.76%, and 1.76% of participants did not respond to this item.

In addition to the Yes/No responses, participants were also asked to explain their choices in writing. Some sample explanations for "Yes" responses to Item 5 included:

"If I'm sleepy, I can't remember what I've learned."

"My ability to think completely changes."

"If I sleep enough I can work hard at studying."

"I'm always sleepy anyway, so if I don't sleep enough, that gets worse."

Unfortunately, none of the participants who responded "No" to this item provided an explanation as to why they didn't believe sleep length affected their academic performance.

Item 6: "Do you think your sleep habits will change as a college student?" "Yes" responses were measured at 81.18%, "No" responses at 17.06%, and 1.76% of participants did not respond to this item. Some sample explanations for "Yes" responses to item 6 included:

"The time I come home will be later, and the time I wake up will be much earlier."

"I will have a part-time job, my circle, and I will hang out with friends at night." [There were 25 mentions of part-time jobs among respondents in this section]

"I have to do my makeup and other things."

"My life rhythm will change."

Some sample explanations for "No" responses to Item 6 included:

"Daily habits don't easily change."

"My sleep rhythm is already set."

"From a young age, I have gone to bed early."

"I fall asleep quickly."

Phase 2

Throughout the second phase of our study, we collected data once a week over the 30 weeks of the 2015 spring and fall semesters from 156 participants. A total of 1746 entries were recorded over this period. Phase 2 was the main data collection phase of our study and allowed us to measure students' length of sleep by asking them to report once a week on how long they had slept the night before the survey. The results showed a mean sleep length of 5.78 hours per night over the two consecutive semesters (translating to an average of 5 hours and 47 minutes per night). Although this data collection method only sampled the students' sleep one night per week, our thinking was that students would be able to more accurately report on their lengths of sleep if asked only about the previous night. More on the possible limitations of this collection method will be explored in the Discussion section.

One startling finding is that, among the participants, only 25% had slept for 7 or more hours on average, which indicates a high rate of sleep deprivation when compared to the 7-9 hours per night recommended for this population (Hirshkowitz, 2015). Explanations provided for lack of sleep included: homework responsibilities, part-time jobs, time with friends, inability to sleep, entertainment priorities, and other reasoning related to school, social activities, and work.

Phase 3

The final phase of our study was conducted in the final week of the 2015 academic year, with 94 participants responding to this five-item survey. The goal of this final step was to have participants reflect back on their first year in university and gauge how and why their sleep behaviors may have changed, as well as how sleep has affected their academic performance. Similar to Phase 1, this was not a direct measurement of the students' sleep patterns, but instead an estimation on the part of the students and a request for explanations as to their behaviors.

Item 1: "On average, how much do you sleep each day?" For all respondents, a mean of 5.64 hours of sleep per night was measured (translating to an average of 5 hours and 38 minutes per night). This is a drop from the participants' estimation of 5.76 hours observed in Phase 1, and less than the actual length of sleep (mean = 5.78 hours) that we measured during the 30 weeks of the 2015 academic year.

Item 2: "For you, do you think that is enough sleep?" "Yes" responses were measured at 26.60%, "No" responses at 68.08%, and 5.32% of participants did not respond to this item. This is a drop of 7.52% in "Yes" responses from Phase 1, also indicating an increase in self-reported sleep deprivation at the end of their first year of university.

Item 3: "How often do you nap in class as a college student?" Using the same 4-choice format from Phase 1, the responses were as follows: "Often" at 15.96%, "Sometimes" at 34.04%, "Only occasionally" at 43.62%, and "Never" at 5.32%. Although fewer students in Phase 3 stated they "Often" nap in class as compared to Phase 1, fewer students also responded with the "Never" choice, indicating a greater clustering among the center choices. Notably, nearly 95% of respondents stated they engaged in napping behavior at some point during university, supporting the concern that this is a widespread problem at the tertiary level. More on this issue will be explored in our Discussion section.

Figure 1 illustrates the different responses concerning in-class napping in high school (reported in Phase 1) and in their first year of university (reported in Phase 3).

Item 4: "As a college student, do you believe your amount of sleep per night has affected your studies?" "Yes" responses were measured at 31.91%, "No"

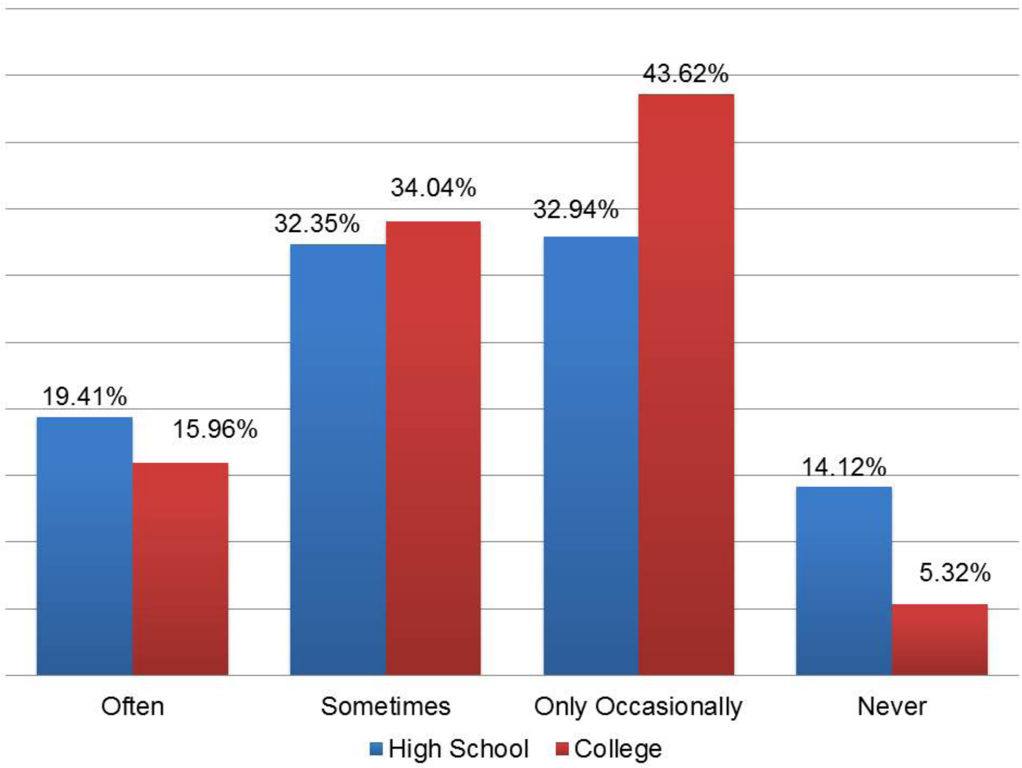

Figure 1. Comparison of high school and college napping frequency.

responses at 67.03%, and 1.06% of participants did not respond to this item. This is a drop of 64.57% in "Yes" respondents from Phase 1, and one of the most startling findings of this study. The written explanations for "Yes" responses followed similar patterns to what we observed in Phase 1. Sample explanations for Item 4 included:

"On days I sleep, I can better remember what I learn."

"My grades have gone up."

"I sleep more in class."

"I'm not sleeping enough, so my concentration has gone down."

We will explore possible reasons for this drop in concern in our Discussion section. Once again, no written explanations were received from students who chose the "No" response for this item.

Item 5: "Have your sleep habits changed since becoming a college student?" "Yes" responses were measured at 67.02%, and "No" responses at 32.98%. In Phase 1, 81.18% of participants predicted their sleep habits would change, so this indicates a 14.16% drop in "Yes" responses since the initial survey. Some sample explanations for "Yes" responses to Item 5 included:

"The time I go to bed has become later than before."

"I never come home before midnight because of my part-time job."

"I wake up earlier, so my amount of sleep has decreased."

"I'm busy so my sleep has become irregular."

For this phase as well, none of the participants provided explanations for their "No" responses. We plan to investigate this further in our future studies.

Discussion

When comparing our findings to the 7 to 9 hours of sleep per night recommended by the National Sleep Foundation in the US (Hirshkowitz, 2015), we believe that we have found sufficient evidence that the participants in this study suffer from a lack of sleep, with an average of 5.78 hours per night measured over the 2015 academic year (n=156) during our direct measurement in Phase 2.

On the other hand, the participants on average were seemingly able to accurately assess their amount of sleep, with an average of 5.76 hours a night estimated by the participants in Phase 1. The measured length of sleep (average 5.78 hours a night) was only a 0.02 hours (1.2 minutes) different from their initial estimation of the sleep length average. This accurate estimate seems to imply that students are conscious of the sleep choices they are making when comparing their initial estimation (Phase 1) with our measurement of their sleep lengths (Phase 2). However, one limitation may be that students did not accurately report on their sleep lengths in Phase 2, perhaps in an attempt to present the authors with favorable findings, although this would not seem to be the case with the overall short lengths of sleep reported by the students during the data collection phase. Again, the once-a-week format of reporting sleep length was chosen in an effort to gain accurate reporting, with the thinking that people are able to recall their sleep times from the night before and their wake times on the day of the surveys within a reasonable margin of error. Independent measurement of the actual sleep lengths of participants would, of course, be beneficial, but how this may be attained without pervasive methods is still an open question. More accurate methods of collecting health data such as this need to be explored in future studies of this kind.

For the items concerning sleep's effect on academic performance, the shift in "Yes" responses from Phase 1 to Phase 3 was surprising. At the beginning of the year, over 96% of the students believed that their length of sleep had some influence on their classroom success. Many students indicated that their memory ability, concentration, in-class napping and other important factors for learning changed depending on their length of sleep. However, when asked again at the end of the school year, the rate of "Yes" responses dropped to around 32%. This extreme drop in concern in regard to sleep's effect on academic success was not expected. Due to the lack of explanations for "No" responses to this item in Phase 3, further study is required to understand this shift in concern.

Another issue raised by this study was the seeming pervasiveness of in-class napping behavior by university students (with around 95% of respondents reporting having napped in class during their first year). Although napping during class time as a widespread problem may not surprise many instructors, this study gives evidence beyond just the anecdotal that this is indeed a problem that exists and requires some type of response. The next step in addressing this issue will be to find the root causes of in-class napping behavior, and further explore how this behavior might be eliminated in the classroom.

Ultimately the question can be raised of how best to promote positive sleep habits among this population, especially with this evidence indicating widespread sleep deprivation. We don't expect our findings indicating sleep deprivation among EFL students in Japan will come as a surprise to many instructors, however, we believe that the results we have obtained as to the extent of the problem, as well as the students' own words on why this behavior exists, will be beneficial in starting to combat this problem. Although individual instructors can make this effort, the argument could be made that this is a policy issue that should be addressed at an administrative level. But what measures might be effective or even possible in Japan? Baert, et al. (2015) make a case that all tertiary-level students can benefit from intervention and health education, and have demonstrated the positive effect better sleep can have on assessment scores and student health. Could the sleep behaviors of Japanese university freshmen be modified by limiting classroom workloads or placing restrictions on part-time work and club activities? Barring measures that alter students' freedom of activity outside the classroom or instructor freedom regarding the volume of coursework, a strong case can be made that, at a minimum, health education targeting sleep behavior should be provided to address these issues. With those measures in place, perhaps pervasive sleep deprivation, in-class napping, and other detrimental behaviors could be reduced.

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Developing the Rikkyo English Discussion Corpus

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The Rikkyo English Discussion Corpus (REDC) is a small-scale corpus of learner English containing fourteen hours of Japanese learners of English classroom discussions. In development for three years, the purpose of the corpus is to provide data for research, inform curriculum design and for use in teacher training. This paper explains its development from data collection to coding. It also looks at the first REDC research (Opitz, 2016) and the implications of it on the corpus. Finally, it outlines the future of the REDC. The author hopes that this paper would raise awareness of the corpus as data resource and provide insight for any researchers considering building a spoken corpus of learner English.

立教英語ディスカッションコーパス（REDC）は、日本人の英語学習者による14時間の英語のディスカッションのクラスをまとめた小規模なコーパスである。作成に3年間を費やした本コーパスは、研究データの提供、カリキュラムデザインについての情報提供、教師研修での利用を目的としている。本稿では、データ収集からコーディングまでについて述べる。また、REDCについての最初の研究（Opitz, 2016）に触れ、本コーパスについての考察を検討する。最後に、REDCの今後について述べる。本稿により、本コーパスがデータ資源として広く認知され、英語学習者の会話コーパスの作成を検討している研究者への手助けとなれば幸いである。

The development of corpora has allowed researchers to reveal linguistic traits by analyzing large amounts of language data. Analyses which seemed nearly impossible previously can now be performed simply and accurately by computers making data more empirical (McEnery & Xiao 2001). It has had a noticeable effect on language pedagogy and methodology. Leech (1997) notes that corpora research influences materials development and language assessment while language students are being encouraged to use corpora themselves as part of self-guided learning. Compared to written corpora there are fewer spoken corpora because they are time-consuming to transcribe and code. As a result spoken corpora tend to be smaller than written ones, which means it is more difficult to find significant patterns which are revealed in written corpora analysis. (Adolphs & Knight 2010). Results can be just as revelatory though. Biber et al. (1999) compared spoken and written English corpora to show the differences in their lexis and grammar. Shin and Nation (2008) used corpora to show the most frequent spoken English collocations. While much research that affects language teaching uses native speaker spoken corpora to find a target English, there is far less research using learner corpora. Muller (2005) built a learner corpus of native and non-native English speakers describing a Charlie Chaplin film to examine the use of discourse markers. Gotz (2015) used the *Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage (LINDSEI)* to look at frequent errors in German learners of English. Nevertheless, this field remains under-developed and any opportunity to add to this should be taken.

As a response to the lack research into learner spoken corpora (LSC) the Rikkyo English Discussion Corpus (REDC) is being developed as a resource for

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future research of learner spoken English (LSE). This paper explains the design and methodology of the corpus while discussing some of the considerations made in its development. I will examine the first published research using the REDC and its implications on the design of the REDC. The paper finishes with an outline of the future plans for the REDC.

What is the REDC?

At Rikkyo University all freshmen students are required to take two English Discussion classes (EDC), in the Spring and Fall semesters. It is a skills-based communicative language class where students are taught discussion skills and are given an opportunity to practice these skills in extended discussions. On average, the classes have eight students and in the discussion groups three to five students (usually four) talk about a particular topic for sixteen minutes. The main purpose of thecourse is to develop students' fluency. The EDC courses also complement the students required English reading and writing classes (Hurling, 2012).

Due to the fact that there was a large number of learners of English all discussing the same topics week-by-week, a colleague (Timothy Opitz) and I approached the faculty academic coordinators with the idea of collecting audio recordings of a large amount of discussions to build a language learner corpus. The main purpose would be to provide data for research, resources for staff training and aid in future curriculum and materials design.

Design

The EDC is a unified curriculum where all students discuss the same topics and are taught the same discussion skills such as asking for opinions, giving reasons, etc. The student topic is semi-controlled, as students are given the goal of discussing the two questions but their own content is unrestricted within that topic. As the topic remains the same the output of the students varies. Thus it made sense for the corpus to be designed to look at the frequency of linguistic acts. McEnery & Hardy (2011) note that corpora should be designed in a way that avoids the possibility for researchers to select certain parts to draw favourable conclusions. Rather, corpora should have a single set of data where everything is randomly selected. As such it was important that the data for the REDC represented a random set of students. However, there were some restrictions in achieving that random selection. Due to university policy and the nature of the permissions needed to record, transcribe, and analyse participants' speech, we decided that it would be better to record data from two sets of classes: my own and my colleague's. This was not a big problem, as we could still record fifty-two discussions per week over two fourteen-week semesters. However, it would be an immense task to record and transcribe that much data. Our test run of transcribing one hundred and forty minutes of discussion took around twenty hours to complete. As a result of this a new data collection schedule was created to make a large amount of data achievable for two people to transcribe.

Data collection was set to occur six times over the academic year. My colleague and I would record ten discussions each week. The participants recorded were selected randomly from the classes each week but a range of levels of classes were selected by the researchers based on the students English level test which is taken upon entering the university. Based on recommendations by Adolphs & Knight (2010), every participant in every class signed a *Consent to Record and Transcribe* form regardless of whether they were recorded. Participants were made aware that transcribed data may be distributed but their anonymity would be protected. Audio recordings would be kept until the REDC research ceased. The data collection used voice recording equipment. Data collection occurred between April 2014 to January 2015. 766.42 minutes of discussions were recorded and transcribed.

Transcription

As Detey (2012) highlights, there is no standard approach to transcription for corpora. Secondly, researchers often create corpora with a specific idea of what they wish to research. In the case of the REDC, the data were collected and transcribed before a research hypothesis was adopted. As audio data were to be retained so that they could be adapted in the future, the first transcribed data were written in a simple transcription form using CHAT (see MacWhinney, 2000 for an explanation of its functions). CHAT was selected due to its intuitive and simple design, which allows various linguistic analysis including mean length of utterance and generating word frequency lists. The CHAT system is also designed to analyse a variety of speech and it is connected to the CHILDES database of various spoken corpora, thereby allowing future comparative research.

The first transcription took around nine months to transcribe and finalize, ultimately producing sixty fourteen-minute data sets. Below is an annotated sample transcription showing the metadata and linguistic phenomena included in the first transcription.

Figure 1 is a sample of this data and shows the types of linguistic phenomena which were transcribed. By transcribing reformulation and retraction, a researcher could examine interlanguage (e.g. Chiang & Mi, 2011 for a similar study). Repetition data are often used in research into functional meaning (e.g. Lyster, 1997).

One of the main issues encountered during transcription was finding a consistent approach for defining a single speaking utterance. In speech analysis, there is difficulty knowing where an utterance begins and ends (Levelt, 1989). In the case of the first REDC transcription, utterances that did not follow English lexical/grammatical conventions often caused debate. This was particularly common with the transcription of backchanneling (reactions). In the table below, there is a short extract highlighting the issue.

In this extract (Figure 2) one of the coding single utterances. This extract has five utterances (units). It opens with participant MS3 asking the other participants to comment and then follows on with additional questions for confirmation. FS1 gives a single reaction. MS3 checks for confirmation with a single reaction with rising intonation. Then FS2 gives three single reactions in short succession which are transcribed as one utterance. Now in this case, the three reactions in succession performed the same discursive function as FS1's single reaction. It seems that speakers of English have a tacit idea of single utterances however in the case of transcribing them it seems that it is based on the transcribers opinion. This was due to the fact that there was no specific research purpose at that time for the corpora. Lampert and Ervin-Tripp (1993) highlights that researchers should develop their own theory of how speech should be built with a corpora based on what they wish to research. Though this was the initial transcription where there was opportunity to re-transcribe at later point not having a specific reason for transcribing

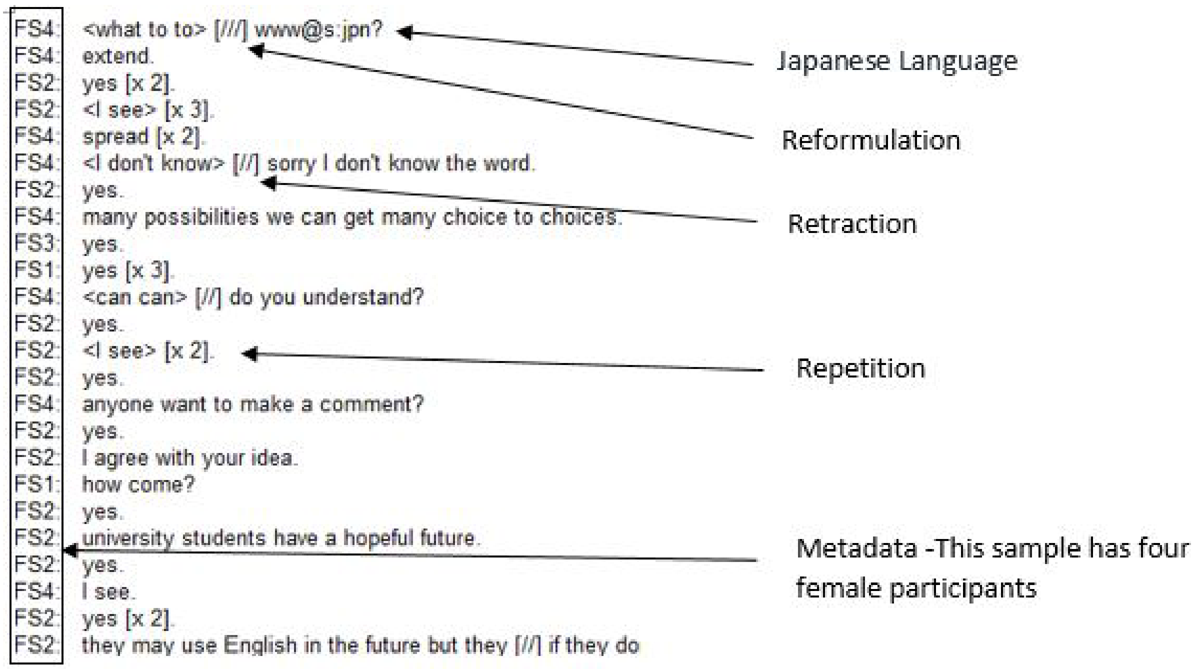

Figure 1. Sample of transcribed data.

```
*MS3:  do you have any ideas?
*MS3:  yes or no?
*FS1:  no.
*MS3:  no?
*FS2:  no [x 3].
```

Figure 2. Sample of transcription of English reactions.

hindered this stage of development.

Personally, the process of transcription was a stimulating experience. EDC assessment is formative, where students are given grades based on their discussion performance. By transcribing my own students' language output, I became aware of performance issues I had not noticed before in class. This in turn had a positive effect on my own lessons plans.

Exploring the data

After the transcription stage, initial analysis of the students' data was performed. Word lists were generated and compared between the different levels of classes, gender, and against the homework reading upon which the class discussion was based. MLU data highlighted some of the issues of transcription, including that a reassessment of the transcription was needed before proceeding with any research related to the topic. A Discourse analysis of function language use produced some interesting tentative data about the course curriculum, highlighting that the target language were being taught had a strong effect on production of content within the discussion. In other terms, the data suggest that some indicators of spoken fluency changed positively throughout the course. Finally, the data from my classes and the data from my colleague's classes were compared. The EDC has a unified curriculum, but how the classes are taught are at the discretion of the instructor.. As such, we considered how our students' performances differed. This led to the first REDC publication (Opitz, 2016).

My colleague and I had a different approach to teaching backchanneling to EDC students. My colleague used choral repetition cards separated into four functional types. This was a response to Cutrone's (2010) idea that backchanneling in Japanese is more frequent but has less variety compared to English. He suggested that this feature continues in Japanese learners of English's interlanguage. The purpose was to increase the variety of backchanneling to shift students' output to more native-like responses. Opitz (2016) found that students who received weekly choral repetition drilling showed an increase in the quantity of backchanneling. However, using Type Token Ratio (TTR) analysis as an indicator of backchanneling diversity, he (Opitz, 2016) found no significant difference between the choral repetition class and the control group.

The study did highlight the issues with variables when doing research using the REDC. Firstly, the REDC is a very small spoken corpus (around 48,000 words), and in the case of the Opitz (2016) study this meant that individual participants had an effect on overall performance. He noted that in the control group from one week 50% of the use of 'yes' occurred in one class and that 23% of 'yes' usage from that week came from one student. Secondly, other variables such as motivation, class topic, cognitive weight and students trying to meet class performance goals may all affect results.

Limitations

There have been a few issues with the development and use of the REDC which has caused research to been delayed. Firstly, by using audio recording to collect data sometimes caused issues in identifying the speaker in some cases. If a project like this was to be undertaken again, audio/visual recordings would be preferable. Another issue is that the REDC no longer represents the current EDC curriculum. Since the data collection period some of the discussion topics have been changed or replaced so its usefulness to EDC curriculum writers has been diminished. In light of these two limitations, the REDC is also less useful than expected as a tool for teacher training.

Recommendations

For anyone wishing to develop their own spoken learner corpus there some points worth noting based on my experience of developing the REDC. Firstly, before undertaken data collection it is essential to have a clear idea of what you are investigating. In the case of the REDC, we collected data before knowing exactly we would use it for research. Though this is not necessarily a negative point in corpus development though it meant that we spent an extensive time considering how to transcribe data. This meant that transcription often stalled and data had to be transcribed again. Much of this could have been avoided if we had agreed on a research focus before undertaking the data collection and transcription. Secondly, CLAN is an extremely useful program for people who are trying to take their first steps in building a spoken corpus. It has an easy-to-understand interface and can be used to perform a wide-range of functions. Finally, practice transcribing and design your transcription period based on how much you can do. Transcribing data is a long, sometimes tedious process so for someone who is trying to build their first spoken corpus it is important to start small.

The future of the REDC

Opitz and myself have initiated two more studies using the REDC which look at backchanneling and measurements of fluency. Both studies need extensive recoding of the data though lessons learnt from the first transcription have made the approach more streamlined. Some of the tentative results did suggest that students were getting more fluent. MLU and lexical diversity measurements show that students were speaking for longer and using a wider range of words. This suggests the purpose of the classes as being achieved. These results were done as part of the exploration process of checking that coding was correct for the CLAN program and as such should be taken cautiously. The author that there were slight drops in some performance measurements in the Lesson 12 stage of the Spring Semester. This evidence was used to support feedback on curriculum design. The author concluded that Lesson 12's discussion topic (*What makes people happy?*) was possibly was too challenging for most students to generate ideas. This brief overview of early results has provided inspiration for future research. There are plans to expand the REDC to include native speaker discussions of the same topics to provide comparison data.

Conclusion

The development of the REDC has been a long process. Firstly, despite being a small-scale spoken corpus, it took two people around eighteen months to collect and transcribe the data, and another year to produce its first publication. Though time-consuming, it created a unique set of data for future research into spoken fluency. Future publications will have learnt from the issues of the original transcription process and hopefully will begin to show the worth of the long labour of its development. I would highly recommend other researchers to develop their own spoken corpora. Many institutions in Japan have speaking-focused curricula that focus on developing fluency. Spoken learner corpora research can offer a different perspective how fluency is measured thus having a positive effect on future curriculum design. Future spoken corpora research into linguistic features such as word-frequency, lexical variation and lexical density will shed light on the meaning of spoken fluency. Potential findings would affect how instructor would teach spoken English and would inform assessment of speaking skills. As a researcher I look forward to seeing more spoken corpora research as it would add to this growing field of research.

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How Repair Becomes Noticeable

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Previous conversation analytic research (e.g., Butterfield, 2016) has demonstrated that repair sequences may be one potential site in which learning occurs. However, learning may only occur if the trouble source speaker notices that their utterance has been repaired. Some researchers (e.g., Schmidt, 1990) argue that noticing is an essential condition for second language learning to occur. The present study investigates an interactional environment and linguistic resource that are conducive to making repair noticeable to the trouble source speaker. It explores the possible reasons repair does not go overlooked and also examines the ways that trouble source speakers demonstrate that they understand that their utterance has been repaired.

既存の会話分析の研究(e.g., Butterfield, 2016)では修復シークエンスは学習が行われ得る場であるということを示した。しかし、トラブル源の話者は自分の発話は他者に修復されたということに気づかなければ、学習が不可能かもしれないのだ。第二言語の学習としての必須条件は「気づき」と主張する研究者(e.g., Schmidt, 1990)がいる。本稿ではトラブル源の話者にとって修復が明白になる相互行為の環境や言語的なリソースを検証する。また、修復が見逃されない理由を探り、トラブル源の話者は自分の発話が修復されたことを理解しているということを示す方法を検討する。

In the field of conversation analysis (CA), repair refers to the "practices for dealing with problems or troubles in speaking, hearing and understanding the talk in conversation" (Schegloff, 1997, p. 503). Repair is not limited to fixing errors or mistakes, rather, it is also a resource that is used by interlocutors when there is a problem of intersubjectivity, which is how interlocutors demonstrate their understanding of each other's actions (Schegloff, 1992). In this paper, I use the word 'repair' to denote the practices used by participants to address intersubjectivity issues as well as the correction of errors. Repair consists of two basic components: a repair initiation and a repair proper, which can be thought of as the solution to the problem.

This study examines an interactional environment and linguistic resource used by teachers that help repair to become noticeable and therefore "recognizable as repair" (Lerner & Kitzinger, 2015, p. 62) to the producer of the trouble source. They are: (a) when a teacher joins a conversation between two students to perform repair, and (b) when a teacher uses the phrase, "you mean." Schmidt (1990) argues that noticing is an essential condition for second language learning to occur. By this, he means that learning only occurs when learners are consciously aware of the input. Previous research (e.g., Butterfield, 2016) has shown that repair sequences are sites in which learning can occur. This study is significant because if repair sequences can be sites in which learning occurs, and noticing is an essential condition for learning to occur, then identifying environments and linguistics resources that help learners to notice their mistakes should be of extreme importance to language teachers.

All of the repair considered in this study concerns problems of speaking by students. Sometimes repair

Butterfield, J. (2017). How repair becomes noticeable. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 31-36). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

is initiated by a student, the speaker of the trouble source, or by a teacher. Other-initiations of repair have varying strengths in regards to their ability to locate a trouble source and stronger repair initiators are preferred (Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977). Sometimes other-initiated repair and other-repair do not clearly locate the trouble source, and go overlooked by the trouble source speaker. This study explores the possible reasons repair does not go overlooked and also investigates the ways that trouble source speakers demonstrate their receipt of the repair. Koshik (2005) points out one way that language teachers get students to notice and self-repair their problematic utterances is by repeating students' utterances in the previous turn with rising intonation. This study also discusses other methods that teachers use to show students that their utterance has been repaired.

Methods

The data used in the present study come from approximately sixteen hours of interaction in a university language lounge, which many Japanese universities have been creating in recent years in order to provide a place for students to practice and learn English. The interaction was audio-video recorded and was transcribed according the transcription conventions developed by Gail Jefferson (See Atkinson & Heritage, 1984). In the transcripts the teachers are listed as T1, T2, and so on, and the students are listed as pseudonyms such as TK and RS.

Analysis

This section explores an interactional environment in which repair is made noticeable to the speaker of the trouble source as well as a linguistic resource deployed by teachers which demonstrates to students that their utterances have been repaired. I will first discuss how repair becomes noticeable when a teacher joins a conversation between two students to do repair.

Teacher Joins a Conversation Between Two Students to Do Repair

One way that repair becomes noticeable is when a third party, who is not a recipient of the talk at that moment (Goodwin, 1981), joins a conversation to do repair. In this section, I examine how a teacher's sudden participation in a conversation between two students engaged in an activity to do repair draws attention to the repair, therefore making it noticeable. In both of the examples in this section, the speakers of the trouble sources receipt the repair by repeating it.

In the following extract (Extract 1), the students, TK and RS, are doing an activity in which one student describes a job and the other student is supposed to guess what that job is. The interaction begins with TK asking RS "do you have >many money<?"

RS responds to TK's question with "ah" and a nod in line 02. TK treats RS's response as insufficient as shown by his pursuit of an answer by apparently recycling the same question from line 01 in line 04. But before TK is able to fully produce the word "many", RS responds with "many money". This is

Extract 1

```
TK:    do you have >many money<?
RS:    ah ((nods))
       (1.4)
TK:    do you have ma-=
RS:    =many money
TK:    many hu- money
T2:    °much money°
TK:    ah mu- much money do you have much money? [much money
RS:                                              [°much money°
TK:    much money ha ha ha sorry ha ha ha sorry
RS:    hn:: yes
TK:    yes
RS:    yes
TK:    yes yes
RS:    yes
TK:    oh
       (2.6)
```

followed by TK saying, “many hu- money”, which T2, the teacher, acting here as overhearer (Goffman, 1981), repairs with “°much money°”, produced in a quiet voice. Schegloff (2000) points out that other-initiations of repair occasionally do not occur in the turn just subsequent to the trouble source when the participant who is not a recipient of the talk initiates repair. In this extract, T2 is not a recipient of the talk and it is possible that he is withholding his repair until he sees if the recipient of the talk will initiate repair or not. After TK does not initiate repair, T2 joins the conversation and deploys an other-initiated other-repair. In line 08, TK states, “ah mu- much money do you have much money? much money”. RS also produces the phrase “much money” in the following line in overlap with TK’s final “much money”. In line 10, TK again repeats “much money” and apologizes for his perceived mistake with “ha ha ha sorry ha ha ha sorry.” In the following turn, RS answers TK’s reworded question with “hn:: yes.”, which also works as a repetition and clarification of his positive response in line 02. In this interaction, two students are engaged in an activity and T2’s participation in the activity is not required. Nonetheless, his sudden intervention in the interaction to do repair has become the focus of RS and TK’s attention. T2 orients to “many money” as being problematic as demonstrated by the fact that he joins the conversation to do repair.

Both RS and TK demonstrate their receipt of the repair by repeating “much money”. TK does this in line 08 when he reproduces his question, replacing the words “many money” with “much money” and RS indicates his receipt in the following line by repeating “much money”.

Similarly, in the next extract (Extract 2) two students are having a conversation and even though the teacher is not a recipient of the talk, he suddenly joins the interaction to perform repair.

The interaction begins with HN asking TY, “where have you been (.) to?” In line 02, TY responds with “uh England Australia Austria Canada eh:: Czecho”, and this is followed by a 1.4-second gap. Schegloff et al. (1977) point out that occasionally other-initiations are performed slightly after a trouble source turn is possibly complete and that this sometimes results in the next turn being somewhat delayed. They also state that when a gap follows a trouble source turn, it creates an additional opportunity for the speaker of the trouble source to initiate repair. This extract is an example of one such case. Following the problematic turn, there is a 1.4-second gap, in which TY could self-initiate repair. Schegloff et al. (1977) also assert that these additional opportunities for self-repair are often taken by the speaker of the trouble source. In this extract, however, the speaker of the trouble source does not use the opportunity to do self-repair. Following the gap, T2 performs other-initiated other-repair, stating, “Czech Republic”, and after he says “Czech”, TY repeats “Czech”, but because it was produced in overlap with T2’s “Republic”, he recycles “Czech” again, which is followed by “Republic”. T2’s participation in the conversation, the location of the other-repair, the turn subsequent to the trouble source, as well as the isolation of the repaired utterance help to make it clear that the previous utterance is being repaired. Also, because the repaired utterance does not contain rising intonation, which could be seen as a providing confirmation of the previous utterance, and the fact that it is slightly similar to but different from the previous utterance locates the trouble source and makes the repair stand out. Although T2 is not a recipient of the talk, because his turn does not contain continuers or receipt tokens, which often come after non-problematic utterances, it serves to demonstrate to the producer of the trouble source that his utterance is being repaired. TY demonstrates his receipt of the

Extract 2

```
01      HN:    where have you been (.) to?
02      TY:    uh England Australia Austria Canada eh:: Czecho
03             (1.4)
04      T2:    Czech [Republic
05      TY:          [Czech Czech Republic Germany and Switzerland
06      T2:    oh
```

repair by repeating the repaired utterance.

Bolden (2011), in a conversation analytic study, demonstrates how a participant who is not the producer of the trouble source is sometimes selected to perform repair. She explains that the speaker who initiates repair "interjects the repair initiation into the ongoing course of action in such a way as to not break its contiguity" (p. 245). In the two examples from my data presented above, the teacher is not a recipient of the talk, but interjects to perform repair, thus stopping the progressivity of the interaction. In the language lounge, it is the teacher who controls the interaction and therefore has the right to alter the interaction.

Teacher's Use of "You mean"

In this section I explore one phrase that teachers use to demonstrate to students that their utterance has been repaired. Repair initiations differ in their abilities to locate trouble sources (Schegloff et al., 1977). Phrases such as "you mean" serve to mark the words that precede or follow as a repair proper. Schegloff et al. (1977) provide evidence that other-correction can be downgraded through the use of uncertainty markers such as "I think" and "you mean" and by various types of questions. In the extract below, the use of "you mean" demonstrates to the speaker of the trouble source not only that their previous utterance is problematic, but also that what precedes is possibly the more appropriate word or expression.

Prior to the interaction examined in Extract 3, T1 instructed the students to ask each other what they did on the weekend, which they finished doing. After that, the teacher selected students one by one to explain what their partner did on the weekend. The extract begins with YK reporting about her partner TK, "on Sunday he went to Yokohama?", while looking at TK as if to confirm that what she is saying is correct.

TK confirms that YK's sentence is correct in line 02, stating, "yes", after which YK continues explaining that TK went "with his friends" and "they went to karaoke and Doutor" in lines 03 and 05. TK again confirms that her statements are true in lines 04 and 06 with "yes" and "yeah". YK attempts to continue her turn in line 07 with "and," but begins laughing and in the next line TK states, "hanging in- hang in- hang in", which is followed by YK repeating "hang in". In line 10, after briefly laughing, TK continues his turn with "Doutor in Doutor. I hang there with my friend". T1 then performs other-initiated other-repair on TK's utterance with "hung- hung out? you mean". Schegloff et al. (1977) comment that one way to initiate repair is through the use of "you mean." They found that other-correction consisting of "you mean" and modifications marked by uncertainty "is not asserted, but it is proffered for acceptance or rejection" (p. 379). Benjamin (2012) investigated the use of "you mean" to initiate repair and focused on how it is used to perform understanding checks in cases where the repair initiation is not produced immediately after the turn containing the repairable. The examples that he presents differ from this extract in that the repair initiation occurs immediately after the turn that contains the trouble source. They are similar because the use of "you mean" serves to locate the trouble source for its speaker. The isolation of the trouble source, the rising intonation on the word "out" as well as the phrase "you mean" help to illustrate to TK that his utterance is problematic.

Extract 3: 1-1-23:15

```
01     YK:    on Sunday he went to ((looks at TK) Yokohama?
02     TK:    yes
03     YK:    for hn with your with his friends
04     TK:    yes
05     YK:    hn: uh he went to- uh they went to karaoke and Doutor (looks at TK)
06     TK:    yeah
07     YK:    and hh ha ha ha
08     TK:    hanging in- hang in- hang in
09     YK:    ah hang in
10     TK:    ha ha ha ha Doutor in Doutor. I hang there with my friend
11     T1:    hung- hung out? [you mean
12     TK:                    [hang out [hang out hang out
13     T1:                              [hung out okay
```

Since "hung out" is produced with rising intonation, it requires a response from TK, which he provides in line 12, stating, "hang out hang out hang out", showing that he was unable to hear that T1 is saying "hung out" and not "hang out". Schegloff (1997) argues that "some turns are hearably or analyzably produced as 'repeats,' even if in one or more respects they actually fail to reproduce (either in whole or in part) their apparent, nonetheless, retrievable target" (p. 525). Although TK's "hang out" is not an exact repeat of T1's "hung out", it is a repeat attempt and therefore can be treated as a receipt through repetition. Because the first "hang out" is produced in overlap with T1's utterance, "you mean", he has to produce it in the clear to make sure that it is heard. TK's second production of "hang out" overlaps with T1's "hung out" in line 13 and the third time he produces it, "hang" is said in overlap with T1's "okay". This "okay" seems to be an acknowledgement of TK's attempt to correctly repeat the repaired utterance. Although TK is unable to produce the words "hung out", T1 decides to let the mistake pass (Firth, 1996) as shown by his acceptance of the previous utterance with 'okay' and his lack of repair.

Discussion

This study investigated an interactional environment and linguistic resource used by teachers which help to make repair noticeable to the trouble source speaker. In all of the examples in this study, students demonstrated their understanding that their utterance had been repaired by repeating the repaired utterance. This study was an attempt to use CA to show how repair can be made noticeable to second language learners, which is extremely important because, as Butterfield (2016) demonstrates, repair sequences can be potential sites of learning. However, learning may only occur if the student notices that their utterance has been repaired. By understanding various contexts and resources which help to make repair noticeable to the trouble source speaker, teachers can help students to notice that their utterance has been repaired, which may be one step in the learning process.

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Visualizing Vocabulary Using Google Images

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Learning the vocabulary of a foreign language is a major task facing the language learner. In addition to the scale of the task, it must also be recognized that vocabulary often encodes cultural viewpoints and values and that it is often difficult for learners and teachers alike to tease out these aspects when seeking to define vocabulary in the classroom. In addition to using meta-language to explicate vocabulary, the increasingly digitized and connected world we live in affords us an opportunity to exploit the visual resources available on-line, namely, using image searches to visualize vocabulary. Visualization can help overcome issues such as circularity and obscurity in definitions and also reveal nuanced cultural perspectives that are embedded within words that are supposedly synonyms. This paper details the results of image searches for common words such as play, scold and drugs and their Japanese counterparts. The results reveal multifaceted differences in cultural perspectives of these words. In addition to helping with vocabulary acquisition, comparison of images can, it is suggested, develop critical thinking skills and exploit the increased visual literacy of 21st century digital natives

外国語学習者にとって、外国語の語彙を習得することは大きな課題である。課題の規模の大きさに加え、語彙は往々にして文化的視点や価値観を含んでおり、授業内で単語の定義を求める際にそれらの要素を引き出すことは学習者にとっても教師にとっても難しい場合が多いということも認識しなければならない。語彙について詳説するためにメタ言語を使用する他に、よりデジタル化しより繋がってきている我々の住む世界のおかげで、オンライン上で入手可能なビジュアル資源、即ち語彙を視覚的に説明するための画像検索機能を活用する機会が我々には与えられている。視覚化をすることにより定義の堂々巡りや曖昧さ等の問題を避けることが可能になり、また、同義語と推定される単語間における文化的視点のニュアンスも明らかにすることが可能となる。この論文では「遊ぶ」「叱る」「いじめる」等の一般的英単語と対応する日本語について行った画像検索の結果を詳細に記している。結果を見るとこれらの単語に対する文化的視点の多面的な差異が明らかとなった。画像比較をすることにより、21世紀のデジタルネイティブが語彙を習得するのに役立つだけでなく、彼らが批判的思考能力を開発し視覚リテラシーを向上させることに役立つと示唆している

"We are intensively visual creatures, and we live in a world that is largely oriented to sight." Kandel, 2015, p. 238.

Campbell-Larsen, J., Romney, C. (2017). Visualizing vocabulary using Google Images. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 37-45). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

We live in a visual world, and one that is getting more and more visual. It was estimated that in the year 2015 alone one trillion photographs were taken (Heyman, 2015). Our students are, with constant access to the media-rich Internet, just as comfortable deriving meaning from pictures as they are words (Lai, 2010) and this is not just because of the explosion of digital media. Our dominant sense as human beings is visual (Stokes & Biggs, 2014) and according to the VARK survey of learning styles, learning with multi-media is one of the most often self-reported learning style preferences (Fleming, 2016).

This begs the question: How can teachers put images to use in the language-learning classroom? In this paper, the authors argue for using the image search features of Google to help students understand cross-language and cross-cultural semantics and therefore acquire vocabulary.

Vocabulary Acquisition

One of the main tasks confronting a learner of a foreign language is the acquisition of an adequate amount of vocabulary of the target language. The total vocabulary of any given language is vast and even native speakers of a language do not know every word in their language. Clearly learners of a foreign language must be selective in what words they acquire. It would seem to be a commonsense approach to introduce learners to high-frequency words in the target language and for learners to then gradually move towards more specialist and lower frequency vocabulary items, or perhaps focus on language that is relevant to a particular field of specialization such as medical, engineering or legal vocabulary (Nation, 2001).

The acquisition of vocabulary seems to be a humdrum affair, mainly placing strains on the memory of the learner and not taxing the higher, analytical mental processes. Indeed, Pinker (1994) explains: "Unlike the mental grammar, the mental dictionary has had no cachet. It seems like nothing more than a humdrum list of words each transcribed into the head by dull-witted rote memorization" (p. 226). This naïve view of vocabulary acquisition supposes that complexity and difficulty are features of rare, abstract and technical vocabulary and that the high frequency vocabulary used in quotidian exchanges poses no intellectual challenge to the learner.

However, this view is mistaken. When dealing with vocabularies of different languages it has long been recognized that assuming a one-to-one correspondence between words of different languages is an understandable but ultimately incorrect standpoint. "A moderate Skill in different languages will easily satisfie (sic) one of the truth of this, it being so obvious to observe great store of words in one language which have not any that answer them in another" (Locke, 1690/2008, p. 275).

Despite this understanding of the non-correspondence of vocabulary at the interface of any two languages, the default setting in many second/foreign language learning environments is to deal with words as if they did indeed have a relationship of synonyms, or at least very near synonyms. Many learners will have compiled vocabulary lists where the foreign language word is written in one column and the corresponding (or supposed corresponding) word in the learner's L1 is placed in the adjacent column (Folse, 2004). This putative one-to-one correspondence is just one way in which words can relate across linguistic boundaries. The following section categorizes the range of possible relationships.

Categories of Relationship

The first and most obvious category is a simple one-to-one relationship. The word *snow* in English is a straight synonym for *Schnee* in German and 雪 *(yuki)* in Japanese. This may be termed as an 'x=y' relationship.

The second category is the case where a single word in one language is covered by a number of other words in another language. An example of this is the Japanese word 乗る *(noru)* which is used to refer to conveyance by transport. In English this word can be translated as *get on, get in, take, go by, ride* and so on. English conceptualizes the action differently in such cases as 'get on the train,' 'get in the car,' 'ride the bike' and the like, whereas Japanese would use the verb 乗る *(noru)* in all of these cases. In a counter example where Japanese makes distinctions that are not attended to by English speakers, the verbs for wearing clothing vary in Japanese depending on the item of clothing. 履く *(haku)* is used for shoes, socks, jeans, skirts, etc., 着る *(kiru)* is used for shirts, jackets, blouses, coats etc., and かぶる *(kaburu)* is used for hats, caps, helmets, and all kinds of headgear. In English, the catchall verb is wear. One simply wears a hat, a jacket, jeans, boots, and so on in English.

A further category of relationship is that of lexical gap. That is, a word in one language simply does not have any equivalent in the other language. This is most clear in referring to material culture that is specific to the language in question. The *sporran* of Scottish national dress has, unsurprisingly, no direct equivalent in Japanese. Similarly, the Japanese practice of removing shoes before entering a home finds expression in the word for a place to remove shoes, i.e. the 玄関 *(genkan)*. The English language does not have a specific word for this, with *hall*, *lobby* and *porch* not really expressing the meaning of 玄関 *(genkan)*. In the authors' experience, English speakers resident in Japan readily incorporate the Japanese word into their active English and Japanese vocabulary. While many assume that this category of lexical gap is common, it is in fact rare and infrequent (Folse, 2004).

Culture and Language

The vocabulary of any given language is bound up with the culture of the speakers of that language. As Sapir (1949) notes, "vocabulary is a very sensitive index of the culture of a people" (p. 162). This theme was taken up by Wierzbicka (1997) who states "...what applies to material culture and to social rituals and institutions applies also to people's values, ideals, attitudes and to their ways of thinking about the world and our life in it" (p. 2). Although vocabulary dealing with specific items of material culture is generally accessible to students of any language, some of the underlying attitudes that are implicit in seemingly innocuous and supposedly culturally neutral vocabulary may be more difficult for learners to identify. In other words, lexis from two different languages, which seem, on the surface to represent the same underlying conceptual matrix, may have deep dissimilarities. It is these connotations of words that can vary by culture (Folse, 2004), so that even a concrete noun like 'truck' would bring to mind different items for different people. An American speaker might imagine a large pick-up truck and a Japanese speaker might imagine a small kei-class truck. What is more, native speakers of a language may be unable to recognize the culturally specific viewpoints that are encoded in words of their own language. A rural speaker's positive connotations of a truck as a vehicle with high utility might clash with an urban resident's view of a truck as an impractical nuisance. Images can be used to demonstrate these types of differences.

Images in Language Learning

Using visuals to teach language is as old as language learning itself (Wright, 1976) although prior to the modern age it consisted mostly of realia and sketches drawn by the teacher (Corder, 1966). Although there are various ways that images can be used for language teaching one of the most common is to help students learn vocabulary (Bush, 2007).

Visual depictions of people, places, things, ideas, etc. are so commonly used in language teaching that many teachers and students take them for granted (Goldstein, 2008), but as Hack (2014) notes, "language teachers tend to employ images solely for their denotative content without considering what connotations they contain for themselves and for the students" (p. 53). A teacher choosing an image of a truck might be unaware of their own biases of trucks and choose an image that shows them in a positive light, like the hypothetical rural resident alluded to above, or in a negative light as the previously mentioned urban resident.

Words and Images

One of the traditional problems with definitions is that defining words by means of other words can lead to problems of obscurity or circularity. (See Goddard, 1998.) The development of a natural semantic meta-language by Wierzbicka (1996) has attempted to circumvent these problems, but still relies on words to describe other words. In addition to lexical accounts of meaning, images may also be a valuable resource for examining some of the aspects of meaning(s) that may inhere in a particular word. Specifically, images are often used to clarify descriptions and/or to portray ambiguous lexical items (Folse & Chien, 2003), and it has been proposed that pictures can be successful in helping students acquire vocabulary because of the dual coding theory that has shown that people have better retention of information when processed both visually and textually (Mayer, 2009)

However, despite the long history of illustrated dictionaries and picture dictionaries for language learners, images have generally not been utilized for more abstract investigations of meaning. As Sousanis (2015) explains:

> Traditionally, words have been privileged as the proper mode of explanation, as the tool of thought. Images have, on the other hand, long been sequestered to the realm of spectacle and aesthetics, sidelined in serious discussions as mere illustration to support the text—never as equal partner (p. 54)

Investigating the meanings of words through comparisons of multiple examples in image corpora such as Google Images, is, it is proposed here, a useful addition to the repertoire of cognitive tools that can be utilized in language learning, specifically for lexical items that have a one-to-many or a more nuanced meaning than a simple one-to-one relationship.

Google Images

Bush (2007) was a strong advocate for using digital images in language learning classrooms as a way to contextualize the language and to provide cultural information not readily available in textbooks and other learning materials. However, he felt that the practical issues of collecting images and the organizational issues of storing, indexing and retrieving digital images were too great to make the use of digital images practical. Google Images largely solves these issues. Where Bush (2007) advocated for teachers to make regular trips to countries where the target language is spoken, take photographs, and organize them into collections themselves, Google Images allows teachers to search, find and access images made by members of the target culture and language. It is a practical, simple and efficient way of accessing images. While not envisioned for language learning, Google Images can be thought of as a visual corpus of language.

Distinct Meanings Revealed by Images: Three Examples

When instructing students on vocabulary meanings many assume that all words fall into the 'x=y' relationship. However, many words that appear to have a straightforward relationship, often have a more nuanced meaning that is culturally bound and is not conveyed by a simple 'x=y' relationship. Google Images can serve as a good resource to double-check the dictionary equivalents and to see if the 'x=y' relationship is valid. What follows here are three examples of Japanese and English word pairs, with supporting images, that on first glance appear to be lexically equivalent, but are revealed not to be so by scrutiny of their supposedly equivalent images. These examples illustrate the kinds of nuances that may be better explicated by images rather than traditional vocabulary learning activities.

Play vs. 遊ぶ (asobu)

Anyone that has spent time speaking English with Japanese adults will probably have encountered their use of 'play.' For example, one might ask, "what did you do last weekend?" and the response may be, "I went to Osaka and played with my friends." This, of course, does not fall on the ear well as it sounds awkward and unnatural. Most likely, this is a 'translation' error. They are taking a perfectly reasonable sentence in Japanese, "友達と大阪に行って、遊びました" *(tomodachi to osaka ni itte, asobimashita)* and translating it to English. It is assumed that *play* is the equivalent English word of 遊ぶ *(asobu)*. Looking up 遊ぶ *(asobu)* in a bilingual dictionary, the top referent is almost always *play*. Few will look beyond the top definition, nor will they dig into the usage notes to discover that *play* is an appropriate translation of 遊ぶ *(asobu)* when speaking of children and certain games and sports, but not of general adult recreational activity.

However, by comparing the results of Google Image searches of both *play* and 遊ぶ *(asobu)*, the difference can be quickly and easily ascertained. A search of *play* yields images almost exclusively of children playing. 遊ぶ *(asobu)* on the other hand, yields images of both children playing, and adults

Figure 1. Play vs. 遊ぶ (asobu). Image on left: Four children are playing by Martin, 2015. In public domain. Image on right: クリスマス&忘年会 by kontenten, 2013. Available under Creative Commons (CC BY-ND 2.5).

engaging in leisure activities such as picnics, parties, and drinking alcohol. *Figure 1* shows two typical images that come up in a Google Images search for these words.

Additional searches of more appropriate expressions such as *hang out* or *enjoying with friends* can yield more fitting images of young adults socializing. *Figure 2* shows two typical images found in a Google Image search of these items.

Scold and 怒られる (okorareru)

One common translation of the Japanese word 怒る *(okoru)*, especially in its passive form, 怒られる *(okorareru)*, is scold. Japanese speakers of English may rely on this translation to produce sentences such as *"I was late for my part-time job and my boss scolded me."* However, *scold* is a relatively unusual word in spoken English. A search of the British National Corpus (Davies, 2004-) only revealed 57 instances and more than half were from prose fiction. Image searches for *scold* reveal pictures that primarily show an interaction between an adult and a child, often a parent or teacher remonstrating with a child. The search for 怒られる *(okorareru)* brings up images that show an adult-to-adult interaction, usually in a workplace situation. *Figure 3* shows two typical images that come up in a Google Images search for the two terms.

Critical thinking must be applied when scrutinizing paired images. For example, many of the *scold* images show the recipient of the scolding taking

Figure 2. Hang out and Enjoying with friends. Image on left: Friends/Students/Freshers Hangout in Restaurant by Adam S., 2013. Available under Creative Commons (CC BY 2.0). Image on right: Max and Dani enjoying time with friends by Wonderlane, 2011. Available under Creative Commons (CC BY 2.0).

Figure 3. Scold vs. 怒られる (okurareru). Image on left: Mother and Daughter Arguing by Lorelyn Medina, 2014. License purchased from shutterstock.com. Image on right: 上司に怒られる by DesignEXchange, 2007. License purchased from 満タン WEB.

a resistant stance towards the scolder, shouting back, putting their fingers in their ears, or other ways of showing a negative stance towards being scolded. By contrast, the 怒られる *(okorareru)* images frequently show the recipient as passive, nervous, and submissive. Encoded within these images may be culturally derived notions of who has the right to scold whom and what attitude the recipient of emotively expressed negative evaluation should adopt. *Figure 3* shows these differences.

Using an additional image search for expressions such as *yell at* or *tell off* reveal more appropriate adult-to-adult interactions and can help speakers to make more suitable utterances such as, "*I was late for my part-time job and my boss yelled at me,*" or "*I was late and my boss told me off.*" *Figure 4* shows example images found by searching these expressions.

Drugs, Medicine and 薬 (kusuri)

Another pair of words with the potential for mismatch are *drug(s)* and 薬 *(kusuri)*. If a speaker were to produce a sentence such as, "*I went to the doctor and he gave me some good drugs*" it would not sound too awkward as it could be implied that they were making a joke. However, a sentence like, "*I have to eat something because I need to take my drugs*" could cause miscommunication as it could be implied that they were taking an illegal substance. A more appropriate word would be *medicine*

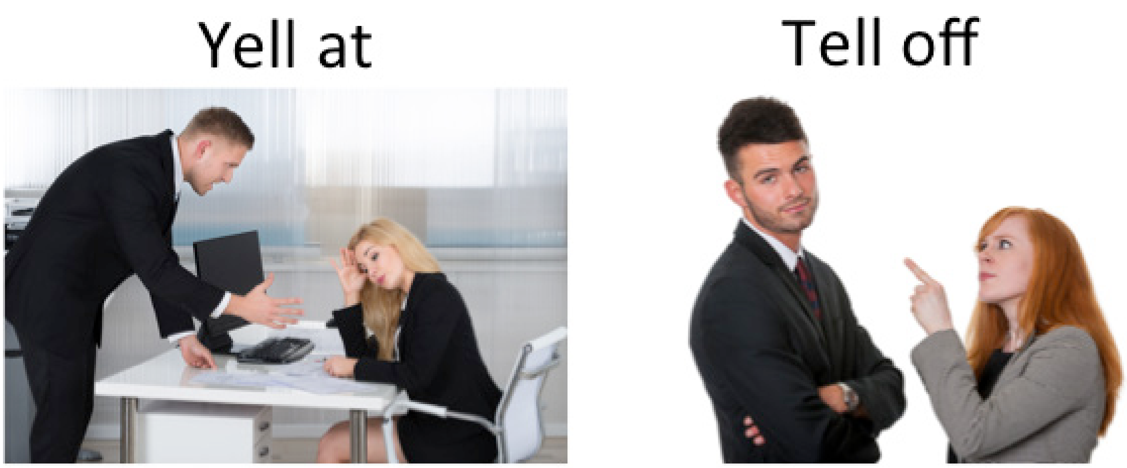

Figure 4. Yell at and tell off. Image on left: Boss shouting at female employee sitting at desk in office by Andrey Popov, 2016. License purchased from shutterstock.com. Image on right: Man told off by woman by Terence Mendoza, 2015. License purchased from shutterstock.com.

Figure 5. Drugs, medicine and 薬 (kusuri). Image on left: Drug paraphernalia by Cartagene, 2015. In public domain. Center image: Medicine display by Mark Buckawicki, 2013. In public domain. Image on right: かぜ薬 by kimubert, 2013. Available under Creative Commons (CC BY 2.0).

and a Google Image search of the terms, *drugs*, 薬 *(kusuri)*, and *medicine* could illustrate the different usages. *Figure 5* shows images found by searching these three terms on Google Images.

Conclusion

Images are a powerful tool that can be used in the language-learning classroom to help students understand the often subtle and nuanced meanings of lexical items and how the meaning of so-called equivalent words can vary from their L1 and the target L2. Using the image search features of Google Images are a way for teachers to access large numbers of images, including a large number of images made, tagged and posted to the internet by highly proficient users of the target L2. These images include cultural, contextual, and connotative information not readily available in the language-learning classroom and can create a deeper, more nuanced level of understanding and provides an opportunity for students to critically reflect on their own culture and how it relates to the culture of the target language.

The varying contexts of language teaching and learning preclude a detailed discussion of the exact ways that teachers can use paired image searches in their particular classroom contexts. This paper hopes to raise awareness of the value and importance of using images for language learning and cultural understanding and to inspire teachers to find new ways to use images with their students.

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Investigating Young Learners' L2 Pragmatic Competence in Telling Uncomfortable Truths

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L2 pragmatics knowledge is regarded as a key factor in the development of language learners' communicative competence. Despite abundant literature in interlanguage pragmatics worldwide, past studies have primarily addressed adults, leaving young learners underrepresented. As pragmatics, or knowledge of contextual language variation, is especially difficult to master in foreign language acquisition, the onset of L2 pragmatics instruction should be investigated. In response to this lack of research in younger learners' L2 pragmatics, this study investigated English pragmatic strategies for "telling uncomfortable truths" with three elementary-age learners. The results raise the question of the suitable age for incorporating pragmatics into language programs. Furthermore, while some pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence was observed, the learners failed to derive intended meanings from implicatures, suggesting an order of emergence in pragmatic development.

第2言語での語用論的知識は、学習者の外国語コミュニケーション能力の発達において重要な役割をもっている。しかし、中間言語語用論の研究が世界的に盛んに行われている今日、大半の研究が大人を対象としたものであり、年少学習者の語用論研究が極めて少ないのが現状である。外国語の語用論的能力の習得が特に困難である点を考慮すると、第2言語語用論の指導開始時期に関する研究が不可欠であると思われる。従って、本稿では3人の小学生学習者を対象に「言いにくい真実をどう伝えるか」をテーマに英語語用論的能力の調査を行い、語用論的内容を外国語教育に効果的に組み込むにはどの年齢が適しているのかを考察する。また、本研究では参加者が言語語用論的能力と社会語用論的能力を示したにもかかわらず、含意表現の意図を読み取ることはできなかった。これにより、語用論的能力の習得には何らかの順序が存在するとの推測が可能であると考えられる。

Recent recognition worldwide of the important role played by L2 pragmatic knowledge has led to increased research in interlanguage pragmatics (Kecskes, 2013; Taguchi, 2012). Yet past studies have predominantly dealt with adult learners, leaving young learners underrepresented (Lee, 2010). As pragmatics, or knowledge of contextual language variation, is especially difficult to master in foreign language acquisition (Cohen, 2008; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010), the onset of L2 pragmatics instruction should be investigated. Examining L2 pragmatic development in younger learners will help researchers and educators derive more effective ways to teach pragmatics to various age groups.

Chiba, A. (2017). Investigating young learners' L2 pragmatic competence in telling uncomfortable truths. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 46-54). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Among limited literature on young learner's pragmatic development, Rose (2000) investigated the pragmatic development of 7, 9, and 11 year-old learners in Hong Kong, which included discourse completion tasks (DCTs), oral production tasks, and verbal protocols with scenarios authentic to young learners' lives. Although some pragmalinguistic[1] development was evident, sociopragmatic[2] development was not observable. Savic's (2015) study of request strategies at varying developmental stages in young Norwegian EFL learners yielded similar results, where sensitivity to social power was demonstrated in linguistic production but sociopragmatic development was not clearly confirmed. Lee (2010) investigated developmental patterns of pragmatic comprehension in 7-12 year-old students in Hong Kong using multiple choice and verbal protocols and reporting that indirect speech acts were problematic for the younger participants, suggesting that matching literal meaning with contextual clues and intended meaning may emerge between early to middle childhood.

With regards to interventions, past studies adopted awareness-raising activities and explicit instructional approaches as effective methods for teaching L2 pragmatics. Awareness-raising activities on contextual language use drawn from Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990) showed success in enhancing understandings of L2 pragmatics (Rose, 1994; Eslami-Rasekh, 2005), as did the explicit approach with metapragmatic information in making the target pragmatic features more salient (Rose, 2000; Takimoto, 2008).

The Study

This cross-sectional study investigates young learner' existing knowledge of English pragmatics. The speech act of "telling uncomfortable truths" was selected because it is a face-threatening act relevant to the participants' age, where the speaker's positive face might be challenged when they are forced to reveal an inconvenient truth. The knowledge of such strategies will likely benefit the young participants.

Method

Two 90-minute lessons were conducted by the author, four days apart. The author examined instances of participants' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence through an awareness-raising approach, combined with explicit instruction. These pragmatics-focused lessons were carried out in English.

Participants

The three participants were Japanese girls living and studying in Hong Kong: 10-year-old Saki and Kanako (all names are pseudonyms), and 8-year-old Chika. Kanako and Chika are sisters. Upper primary-age children were selected due to their relative emotional stability and their linguistic ability to understand complex language structures (Bucciarelli, Colle, & Bara, 2002). While such children are still developing in many areas, including cognitive, emotional, physical, and linguistic domains, children older than eight are thought to be linguistically and cognitively mature enough to "use language to talk about language" (McKay, 2006, p. 6) and possess social awareness of how to act in various contexts (Cameron, 2001). Since pragmatic strategies involve complex processing, including analyzing speakers' intentions, listeners' interpretations, and contextual factors, these participants were selected on the grounds of being older than the supposed lower limit of eight.

All three participants attend Japanese primary school in Hong Kong, where one 40-minute English

Table 1
Information About the Participants

Name	Age	English Proficiency
Saki	(10 years old)	Near-native level (all four skills).
Kanako	(10 years old)	Speaking/listening (advanced). Writing (low intermediate). Grammatical errors often observed in speech.
Chika	(8 years old)	Speaking/listening (advanced). Writing (low intermediate). Grammatical errors prominent in speech.

lesson is offered every day. Table 1 shows their English proficiency.

As Saki received formal instruction in both Japanese and English in her previous school, she developed foundational skills in both. Kanako and Chika's lower proficiency in writing compared to speaking can be explained by their school's English curriculum, where oral communication is the focus and writing instruction is not emphasized. Although they speak English at home, they have few chances to use it in writing.

Due to the participants' age, parents' consent for video recording and publishing of findings was obtained prior to the lessons.

Target Structure

Traditional speech act theories do not account for sequential strategies for telling uncomfortable truths, or more generally, making confessions. Since uncomfortable truths are typically followed by apologies, combined sequential strategies have been suggested as part of a general confession pattern. This study adopts Trosborg's (1995) apology strategies for Steps 3-8 of the sequence:

1. Prepare the listener
2. Tell the truth
3. Apologize?
4. Explain how it happened?
5. Give reasons?
6. Make promise?
7. Show regret?
8. Offer to fix the damage?

A set of possible expressions were provided for Steps 1 and 7 as pragmalinguistic tools. In class discussions, the learners were asked whether Steps 3-6 were necessary in various scenarios and why the reasons were (or were not) required.

Data collection

Since visual narratives can be a rich L2 cultural source (Ishihara & Chiba, 2014) and image, text, and discussion can interact to shape pragmatic meanings (Chiba, 2012), the participants read picture books and watched a cartoon about the theme of confessing and apologizing. The learners then engaged in discussions about the context and reasons for the characters' behaviors. Testing instruments included five oral DCTs and six role-plays. Both sessions were video recorded for later analysis.

Findings

DCTs

Although the two older learners demonstrated appropriate responses in pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic terms, frequent instances of pragmatic failure were observed in Chika's responses. The example below shows the difference between Chika and Kanako's responses to the same prompt:

> Dialogue 1
> Scenario: You borrowed your friend's DVD but accidentally cracked it. The DVD was new and had your friend's favorite movie, which she received as a Christmas present.
> Chika: I'm super sorry. I'll bye [sic] you a nother [sic] DVD for you. I will bring it next week.
> Kanako: I'm so sorry. I didn't mean to crack it. (Give reason). I will pay for a new one. And can you still be my friend?

Although Chika expresses her apology with the intensifier "super" and offers to fix the damage, she shows no regret or concern or gives a reason for the incident. In contrast, Kanako's response shows that the act was unintentional, gives a reason, offers repair, and expresses concern for continued friendship. Chika's lack of pragmalinguistic competence also demonstrates a lack of sociopragmatic competence because interactants are normally expected to use various strategies when apologizing for a high-stakes mistakes, as in this case.

Role-plays

A similar result was obtained for role-plays. The example below compares Chika's with Saki's response. The teacher plays the mother's role:

Dialogue 2
Scenario: You wanted to try your mom's earrings on while she was out. You put them on and checked yourself in the bathroom mirror. Suddenly, one of the earrings came off and went down the drain. What will you tell your mom when she comes home?
Chika: Hi, I accidentally dropped your earrings down the drain. I'm sorry. [smile]
Teacher: You dropped my earrings?
Chika: I've always wanted to put on for years and years and finally I had the chance…
Teacher: While I was gone?
Chika: Yeah! Well, next time I won't do it.
Teacher: But it's gone. There is no next time.
Chika: I'll buy you another one. I'll buy you a cheap one.
Saki: Umm… Mom, I have some terrible news.
Teacher: Oh… ok.
Saki: While you were out, I saw your earrings and they were so beautiful I had to try them on. And I went to my mirror and then looked at myself and then suddenly one earring slipped off my ear and went down the drain. I'm really, really sorry about it [hands holding together and pleading look].
Teacher: Oh… Oh, where's the other one? You still have the other one?
Saki: Yeah, it's right here.
Teacher: Oh… okay. Well, how, how did… did it go down the drain?
Saki: Yeah, I tried to get it, but I couldn't get it.
Teacher: Oh, dear.
Saki: Sorry… [3 sec.]
Teacher: Okay, well. Thank you for telling me the truth. Let's call the plumber.

Compared to Saki's approach, with its preparatory line and profuse apology, Chika's response lacks linguistic strategies, such as a preparatory move and an expression of regret. Moreover, multiple sociopragmatic rules are violated in Chika's response as a smile is inappropriate when apologizing for damage one caused as is such a curt apology for the degree of the offense. By contrast, Saki's linguistic strategies and apologetic gestures demonstrate her sociopragmatic competence through equally appropriate approach and language. Likewise, Kanako's sociopragmatic competence was demonstrated through another prompt:

Dialogue 3
Scenario: Asking a friend to rearrange a playdate.
Teacher: Would you use strategies for preparing the listener?
Kanako: Yeah, but I wouldn't go too far.
Teacher: You wouldn't go too far. Why not?
Kanako: Cuz it's just a playdate [smile].

This highlights her understanding that different degrees of seriousness require different strategies. As rearranging a playdate is not equal to confessing an uncomfortable truth, a strategic sequence was unnecessary here.

Class Discussion

The discussion was beneficial as learners collaboratively engaged in shaping sociopragmatic meanings for various target expressions, especially when determining politeness levels in the Formality Judgment Tasks (see Appendix), where learners were asked to label formality levels for various expressions on a continuum:

Dialogue 4
Teacher: [Pointing to the formal end of the continuum on Chika's handout]
So, who would use this kind of expression?
Saki: Royals.
Teacher: Royals? [laugh] Would you use them? [6 sec.] Would you use the, um, expressions on the left hand side? The formal side?
Chika: Mmm, not much. Only like when you are meeting someone very special.
Teacher: Oh, ok. Who would that be?
Chika: I don't know.
Teacher: Then, who would use the expressions on your right side to.
Saki: My friend [taps Kanako]. "No prob"

[waving at Kanako]
Kanako: Friends, family, known guests.

The discussion also demonstrated learners' knowledge of cultural differences in language use between Japanese and English. The following is an excerpt from a discussion of formality levels in the language used with Japanese teachers:

Dialogue 5
Kanako: In my school, like when you're having fun with your [Japanese homeroom] teacher,
Saki Yeah, yeah...
Kanako: We, we just use *tango*.
Teacher: *tamego?* [equal status language]
Kanako: *tamego*.
[...]
Kanako: During class, I probably use the left side. [of the continuum – formal language]
Teacher: The *keigo*? [formal language with honorifics]
Kanako: Yup.
Teacher: How about to Mr. Daniel [English teacher from the UK]?
Kanako: [Pointing at casual end] This side [smile]
Teacher: This side? Always? In class, outside of class?
Kanako: Yeah.
Teacher: How's that?
Kanako: I don't know. Cuz he is an easy person to talk to.
Teacher: [To Saki] Do you agree?
Saki: [nods]

This example illustrates these learners' sociopragmatic knowledge about differences in language forms depending on context (during class versus breaks with the Japanese teacher) and in social distance between Japanese and English cultures.

During the class discussion on useful strategies, Kanako pointed out that it is preferable to prepare listeners directly by saying "I have some bad news" rather than using indirect warning of the forthcoming unfavorable news:

Dialogue 6
1 Teacher: [Reading from handout] "Umm, do you have a minute? I have to tell you something."
2 Saki: Or "I have something to tell you."
3 Teacher: Yup.
4 Kanako: Marry me!
All [laugh]
5 Chika: Will you marry me [giggling]?
6 Teacher: That's not, that's not necessarily a bad news, right? But that's true, you are preparing the listener...
7 Kanako: Yeah, but "I have to tell you something" is like "what is he going to tell me?" So, you need to say "I have some bad news," is probably the best way, because like...
8 Saki: Yeah. Maybe it's something good.
9 Teacher: Oh, so they might expect good news? So, to prepare them for the negative news...
10 Chika: I have some bad news. Would you marry me?
All [laugh]
11 Teacher: ... It's better to say it upfront?
12 Saki: Yeah.
13 Kanako: Yeah [nods]
14 Teacher: You think? Oh, okay. Interesting. Interesting.

Turn 4 by Kanako was unexpected by the instructor because it revealed clear sociopragmatic failure, violating the sequential rule behind telling uncomfortable truths. Although the instructor tries to rationalize it (Turn 6) by saying that one of the purposes for the lead-in is to grab the listener's attention, Kanako quickly takes over to explain her view in that the direct strategy should be used (Turn 7).

Discussion

Pragmalinguistic development was prominent for Saki and Kanako in all in-class testing instruments. Examining the structure of their responses showed that explicit instruction regarding target structures had direct effects on their linguistic choices. However, both learners had previous L2 sociopragmatic knowledge in addition to knowledge acquired during the lessons. Both also revealed knowledge of sociopragmatic differences between Japanese and English in formal language use, due perhaps to their bilingual and bicultural upbringing in cosmopolitan Hong Kong.

In contrast, although Chika participated enthusiastically in class discussion, her pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge were not observable during lessons. This discrepancy in outcome may be due to the age difference, especially given that Chika and Kanako were exposed to prior intercultural experiences, leaving the age gap as the main variant. Although seemingly trivial, a two-year difference can have a large impact on many facets of children's development, such as L1 and L2 linguistic competence, L1 and L2 pragmatic competence, life experience, analytical competence, attention span, interest in topics, etc. Discussions of sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic matters require experience and analysis of cultural differences in both L1 and L2 communities. However, young children may not be developmentally ready to participate in such tasks. For Chika, unsuccessful outcomes of pragmatics-focused activities may result from her developing linguistic and cultural knowledge, added with a lack of pragmatic experience due to her age. Although no study has systematically compared the rate of age-related development in factors contributing to pragmatic competence, these findings suggest that the most suitable age for implementing pragmatic elements into language programs may lay between 8 and10. Studies of age variables will help determine young language learners' readiness to absorb complicated linguistic phenomena such as pragmatic knowledge.

As for the different perspective for the preparation move in Dialogue 6, following reasons may explain Kanako's rationale:

1. Lack of cognitive maturity needed to understand negative implicatures;
2. Lack of sociopragmatic knowledge that indirect forms are preferable to direct forms in face-threatening speech acts;
3. Personal preference.

Although language learners often have difficulties comprehending implied meanings (Bouton, 1994; Zufferey, 2015), it is unclear which of the above reasons – or a combination of them – led Kanako to conclude that this preparatory move was not a suitable pre-confession warning. Given that Kanako demonstrated her sociopragmatic competence in formality levels and contextual language varieties in DCTs, role-plays, and the class discussion, her incorrect interpretation of the preparatory move suggests that there may be a sequence in the acquisition of sociopragmatic components. That is, knowledge of implicatures may emerge *after* learners have acquired politeness rules.

Conclusion and Implications

This study investigated L2 pragmatic competence of eight and ten-year-old children through various elicitation interventions. This small-scale study should not be generalized to a larger population of English learners, however, the findings indicate that L2 pragmatic failure in younger learners can be traced to developmental limitations as well as the lack of life experience, suggesting that the earliest stage for them to fully grasp the content may be the upper-primary years. In contrast, exposure to linguistic and cultural diversity from early age seems to suggest higher awareness to linguistic and cultural differences in pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic behaviors. Additionally, Kanako's misinterpretation of implicatures in Dialogue 6 serves as a reminder to language educators that, even though the importance of learning conversational implicatures is well established, it is rarely taught in ESL/EFL classrooms (Bouton, 1994). Investigations of the development of implicatures and other indirect speech acts in young learners' L1 will help determine suitable ways of presenting these in foreign language program, so that young learners may develop as functioning communicators. Furthermore, the study highlighted the lack of research in this area and calls for more empirical research in L2 pragmatics development in younger learners. Further investigation on the sequence of L2 pragmatic development across speech acts and ages will assist the advancement of instructional methods and materials for this population worldwide.

Acknowledgement

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Notes

1. Linguistic component of pragmatics.
2. Social and cultural component of pragmatics.

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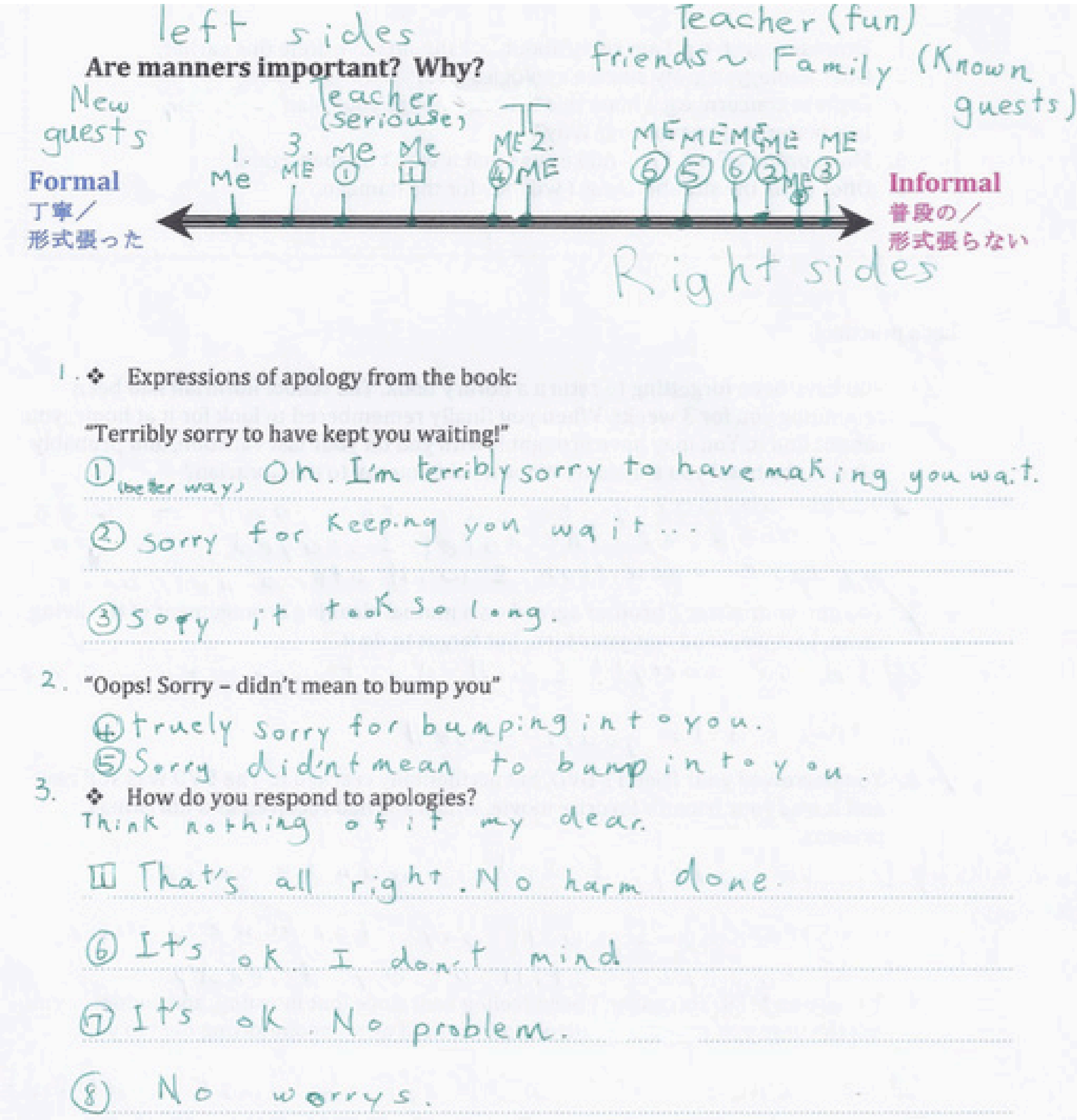
Appendix

Student handout for Formality Judgment Tasks in apologies.



1. ❖ Expressions of apology from the book:

"Terribly sorry to have kept you waiting!"

① (better way) Oh. I'm terribly sorry to have making you wait.

② sorry for keeping you wait...

③ Sorry it took so long.

2. "Oops! Sorry – didn't mean to bump you"

④ truely Sorry for bumping into you.

⑤ Sorry didn't mean to bump into you.

3. ❖ How do you respond to apologies?

Think nothing of it my dear.

Ⅱ That's all right. No harm done.

⑥ It's ok. I don't mind

⑦ It's ok. No problem.

⑧ No worrys.

Lights, Camera, English: Developing Language Through Multimedia Production

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This article focuses on the conception, implementation and evaluation of a volunteer multimedia production program titled *Lights, Camera English*. This program was designed to engage students in practical English communication with each other through the unique fusion of English study and acquisition of media production skills. Both Japanese university students and study abroad students worked together in creating a variety-style television program broadcast on campus. Joint projects were also done, creating promotional videos for other English programs and university events. Students took part in a variety of video production elements including acting, script writing, audio, videography and video editing. After one year, participants were interviewed on their impressions of the program. While there were some negative impressions related to workload and time constraints, most impressions were positive. Students answered that the program made them more comfortable with using English and also deepened their interest in learning media production skills.

この記事は、「Lights，Camera，English」というマルチメディア作品の創造、実施、評価に焦点を当てています。このプログラムは英語の勉強とメディア制作技術の習得の融合で実用的な英語コミュニケーションをできるようにするため作成しました。日本の大学生と留学生は一緒にキャンパスで様々なTV番組を作成しました。他の英語のプログラムや大学のPVも作成しました。生徒たちはビデオ編集のために演技、台本作成、ビデオ撮影、ビデオ編集など、様々なことに取り掛かりました。一年後、参加者にこのプログラムについてインタビューをさせてもらいました。作業量と時間不足と関係ある消極的な返答が少しあったけれど、ほとんど良い印象でした。生徒たちは、このプログラムで英語を使うことをもっと心地よくなり、メディア制作技術を学ぶことにもっと興味が沸いたと返答しました。

In many cases, a correlation between an increase in language acquisition and frequent use can be seen (Diessel, 2007). In addition, practical application of language skills acquired has often proved to be an effective way to promote maximum retention (Gilmore, 2007). Unfortunately for English enthusiasts in Japan, the country falls firmly into the category known as the "expanding circle", which is found in Kachru's (1990) Model of Concentric Circles. This is a group of countries that have very limited exposure to English. Building on Kachru's model, McKenzie (2008) revalidated Kachru's findings and noted that Japan in particular continues to be an anomaly in both English use and ability, despite its position as a superpower with numerous international ties. For Japanese students, it can often be difficult to find opportunities to use English in a practical setting outside the classroom. With these limitations in mind, the media production program

Clark, K. C. (2017). Lights, camera, English: Developing language through multimedia production. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 55-61). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Lights, Camera, English was created. This content-based extra-curricular program attempts to offset the limitations stated above by providing frequent opportunities to apply English to a practical activity with the tangible production goal of creating videos in English to present to the university community. Doing project-based learning in the program puts a strong emphasis on acquisition of language, content and skills simultaneously (Beckett & Slater 2005). The program aims to provide a more balanced exposure to the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. In addition, through unexpected obstacles in the projects, students are forced to improvise and make changes to their plans, encouraging creativity and additional input into tasks (DÃaz-Rico, 2004).

This article will explain the conception and implementation of the *Lights, Camera, English* program and explore how similar programs can be created as well as the key points to consider for a similar program to function efficiently. In addition, the author will evaluate the effectiveness of the program based on feedback from both participants and viewers of created content. Aspects of *Lights, Camera English* that have potential for improvement in future applications of the concept will also be outlined.

Conception

The *Lights, Camera, English* program was implemented at a private university in Japan. The program was open to all departments at the university and all grades. It was first conceived to address the need for additional extra-curricular English programs to compliment the English language courses already in place at the university. The program was designed to serve two functions. The primary function of the program was to involve students in the production of a television show through the use of English, developing their English language abilities in a practical setting while simultaneously acquiring media production skills. This ranged from ideas and requests being submitted by viewers of the show, to having regular cast members on the show and a program staff consisting of students involved with idea development, video/audio production, writing, and editing. While the program was in its infancy the program director was solely responsible for the creation of the first video. Students who were interested in contributing in some way after the first video was shown were encouraged through promotion materials distributed through the university's English department to join the program. This resulted in a gradual but steady increase in participants. Promotion for the program was also done through collaboration between *Lights, Camera, English* and other clubs/events, creating videos promoting these other organizations.

The secondary function of the program was to provide students interested in English with visual/auditory learning entertainment through the medium of a monthly video in a variety show format. These videos contained a variety of segments including, but not limited to:

- graded reading books presented in movie format
- interviews
- modern culture study
- subtitled music videos
- university English club activity promotions
- quiz game questions on material presented
- conversation related to material shown
- interaction between English students participating in activities using practical English

The initial goal for the program was for these videos to range from 20 to 30 minutes. They would be released either monthly or each semester based on the size of each project and student participation. Videos would be given to the university staff in standard DVD format to be played in a variety of locations on campus during the lunch period, specifically those with many English students. While English students were the target audience, Japanese subtitles were also added to videos to make the content more accessible to the general audience on campus. These locations would be decided at the discretion of those responsible for managing each area of the campus. Each new DVD would be released and played each lunch period until the next episode was released.

This program was designed to be open to any student attending university who was interested, regardless of English ability. The maximum number of participants was 15 students. This included not only Japanese students but those studying abroad at the university from other countries as well. The program was set up in this way to encourage authentic interaction between members during group work activities, which is ideal in a practical communication setting (Fushino, 2010). Having native English speakers and ESL learners from other countries in the program provided an opportunity for Japanese students to interact outside of the traditional Japanese English speaking community and experience a more authentic English interaction.

Implementation

Resource Availability and Selection

When planning the implementation of a media production program, there are several questions that need to be addressed. The initial point that must be considered is that although English language development is the goal, methodology is primarily content-based. As with any content-based English course, it is important for the instructor to not only have command of the English language, but to have at least a general understanding of the content itself as well (Kasper, 2000). In this case the content is media production. In the case of *Lights, Camera English* the content is more specifically videography and the use of video editing software. It is at this early stage of planning that the organizer must consider what kind of media production equipment and editing software is available, and what the organizer feels comfortable using. While someone with a background in media production may feel comfortable using professional grade equipment and editing software such as Adobe Premiere or Final Cut Pro to create large, elaborate videos, it is neither necessary nor even recommended in many cases. Unless the instructor plays a primary role in production and editing, the students will be the ones expected to learn how to film and edit. It is important to remember that the media production aspect of the program, while important, is not the main focus of program, merely the process being used to encourage English language development. Therefore, software and equipment that strikes a balance between being easily accessible to the students and being sufficient for creating the desired type of media is ideal.

Another key resource to consider is a workspace for the program. Ideally a room dedicated to the program should be used, as setting up and tearing down equipment can be extremely time consuming. Another major problem that can arise when sharing a workplace with other people is noise. When recording dialog, unwanted background conversation can often find its way into the audio tracks. Students may also feel embarrassed to record themselves in front of non-participants. Having control over the conditions of the room is ideal. If having a dedicated room is not an option, scheduling recording around when the room will be used by others is also a viable option. If the only option is to use the room at the same time as others, participants can still work on other aspects of production such as meeting, planning, script writing and editing.

Adapting to Student English Ability

The other important consideration is the type of students that will be joining the program. In the *Lights, Camera, English* program there was a wide range of English abilities. While some students struggled with even basic greetings, others were near fluent. In particular, there were many students that had strong reading and writing abilities but were poor speakers. One way of adjusting the difficulty of the program material is by choosing an appropriate theme for the video. For example, creating a subtitled video version of a book such as a graded reader requires little real-time speaking skills. A project like this can be done at the students' own pace, focusing more on reading and writing than oral communication. In contrast, doing a video involving interviews with English speakers outside the program requires a high level of oral communication skills and the ability to improvise and interact smoothly in real time. In mixed level courses, it can often be difficult to assign level appropriate tasks to a group of students. This can be dealt with by having several tasks at various difficulty levels for each student (Taguchi, 2007). The nature of a media production program lends itself perfectly to this type of group. There are a variety of activities involved in creating videos, each with its own unique tasks and level of difficulty. Within the *Lights, Camera, English* program, there were several different jobs available, each focusing on a particular aspect of creating a video. When entering the program, students were given a list of available jobs with a description of each job and what skills were required to complete tasks. Some students chose to take on jobs that highlighted their strong points while others chose jobs that utilized English skills they were weaker in in order to strengthen them. The following is an outline of the main jobs available to students in the *Lights, Camera, English* program, as well as some of the difficulties that members of each group expressed in a qualitative survey that was given to the fifteen participants:

Director: The most involved role in the program, this person is responsible for overseeing projects from start to finish and making decisions based on input from other members regarding the direction of projects (This is usually the role the instructor takes on. However, in a well-organized program this role could be given to or shared with a student that has both high English and media production ability, in addition to being able to make a large time commitment).

In the case of *Lights, Camera, English*, the author acted as the director. The most difficult aspect of this job was coordinating the efforts of all the members. Because of the large division of work between members it was challenging to ensure that each group completed their assigned tasks by the deadline decided upon. When a group did not have their portion of the project ready, it often prevented others from completing theirs because they needed the groups completed portion of the project to move forward. For example, if the writing group did not have the script completed before the scheduled recording day, the actors couldn't prepare ahead of time which delayed recording. When there was a delay, scheduling for later tasks in many cases had to be completely rescheduled. As each group depends on the others to complete their tasks, delays had a ripple effect that impacted all the other tasks. It is recommended that delays like this are anticipated, and a buffer of additional time is placed in the schedule to compensate for these setbacks.

Writing: Members are typically involved mostly in pre-production writing scripts. Targeted English skills are mostly reading and writing, although oral communication skills are also used interacting with the director and other writers. For some projects writers might interact with actors during script readings. Media production study as a writer is primarily learning how to write scripts and narratives. Very little video production and editing skills are required.

In feedback received from the writing group, the largest obstacle faced was revising scripts due to problems that occurred during shooting. For example, when an actor had trouble with lines due to difficulty the writing team would need to adjust the script to compensate. In other instances, if an actor was unavailable on the day of recording than lines had to be reassigned or changed. This was often a cause of delay during the scheduled recording times.

Production: These team members are responsible for recording using video cameras, microphones, and other equipment. The production team members also interact with the editors when providing footage. One of the least demanding jobs in terms of English ability, this job is initially learning how to use equipment. This can be done through English tutorial videos and reading.

Feedback from production group members pertained especially to using the equipment. In the case of *Lights, Camera, English,* equipment was borrowed from the AV center at the university. While in some cases equipment such as cameras and microphones could be taken out without a reservation, this was often not the case. When unexpected delays occurred and schedules needed to be changed, equipment was sometimes unavailable. This would set back production even further. This problem could of course be remedied by having dedicated equipment for the program. In instances when equipment availability is an issue, using commonly available technology such as smartphones for video production would resolve this problem.

Actors: As the people in front of the camera, usually a high level of English, specifically oral communication ability is required. Actors are involved in the reading of scripts and speaking in front of the camera in both scripted and unscripted situations. Sometimes actors will also work with editors doing voiceovers. Other English tasks for actors can include shadowing movie scenes, practicing lines, and learning acting techniques in English.

While there few negative comments from actors in the survey, one complaint was that they often didn't have time to practice their lines due to delays from the writing group. Again, this problem could be reduced by providing a buffer of additional time between tasks in case of delays.

Editors: Editors are responsible for post-production, editing the footage taken by the production team members. Similar to production, a high level of speaking ability is not required, although listening ability should be high enough to communicate effectively with other members during editing. Besides communication with other members, primary English study is input intensive, interfacing with editing software and learning editing techniques through listening to and reading tutorials.

Of all the groups in the program, editors had the most time-consuming tasks. Fortunately, most editing took place outside of scheduled program times. Editors did remark that sometimes ideas suggested by group members were made without realizing the time commitment involved by editors. This often resulted in editors having to put in an unanticipated amount of work into editing some of the projects. An example of this was the introduction created for the program, involving numerous quick cuts between video clips introducing the cast of the show. Although the sequence was only several seconds, it required days of editing to complete. The author highly recommends that a representative for the editors be present during idea conception to veto any ideas which may involve overly complicated editing requirements.

Subtitles: This is one of the last jobs that happens at the end of post-production. The people who do subtitles have a single goal: listen to what is said in the video, and effectively translate English to Japanese for the editor to add as subtitles. Japanese subtitles were added because the videos were created to be viewed by other students on campus and they were used so viewers could better understand the video content. The English content in this job is almost entirely listening and writing. This job can typically be done outside of the programs normal meeting hours, making it an ideal choice for students with busy schedules.

Difficulties voiced in this group were mostly regarding having difficulty hearing what was being said in some of the videos. While most spoken English in the videos was scripted, projects involving interviews had people answering questions. Sometime due to background noise or bad audio levels it was sometimes difficult to hear what was being said. The author recommends providing those in charge of subtitles with copies of all scripts and ensuring that extra care is taken during the audio recording of unscripted sections. One suggestion is having students use the audio recording feature on their phones during unscripted sections in addition to conventional recordings. Modern smart phones typically have noise filtering capabilities to some extent and can offer an alternative recording to use for cross referencing later.

While in *Lights, Camera, English* these jobs were all implemented in this manner, they can be easily modified to work in programs of varying scale and English ability. Based on student ability, certain aspects of the program such as meetings and the use of editing software may be done in the students' L1.

Scheduling and Workflow

One of the major constraints encountered in this extra-curricular program was time. Because the program is outside of the students' regular course load, scheduling issues can often arise with participants. This can be especially problematic when certain tasks cannot be done without a certain individual, such as the recording of a scene where a single participant's presence is required for the group to complete the task. To minimize this constraint, scheduling was done during regular meetings once a week. Participants were asked to bring their availability for the next week to these meetings and the required tasks for the immediate future were scheduled around conflicts. While having all members come to all program activities would have ensured an efficient timetable, it was impractical due to the quantity of tasks and division of work. For example, the participant in charge of editing did not need to be present for script writing. Script writers did not need to be present for recording and editing. It is by this division of work load that projects were done with a minimal time commitment from members.

In addition, time frames for projects varied greatly depending on the size of the project and the participants' availability. When participants could meet three or more times a week, small projects could be completed on a monthly basis. If students could meet only once or twice a week, a semester project was a more viable option.

Another crucial aspect to both scheduling and overall production was workflow. Having work transfer smoothly from one job group to the next was essential in using time efficiently. When program participants were creating videos, they followed a specific workflow (Figure 1).

In this way, the various groups knew not only their jobs but who to pass on completed tasks to. Using file sharing software such as Dropbox and Google Drive, students could pass on data to the other group members seamlessly. There was also a slight overlap of the areas in the workflow, indicating collaboration between members of each area when a problem or confusion is encountered. Once a composition was finished pre-production began for the next project.

Evaluation

After the completion of a full year of the *Lights, Camera, English* program, the fifteen participants in the program were interviewed individually regarding their experience. Feedback was also received from viewers of the shows who were not members of the program. Interviewees were asked for both their positive and negative impressions of the program.

Among the participants, there were several common answers. All the participants said that they enjoyed the program and felt that it helped them become more comfortable with using English. They also agreed that they liked learning English through media production as a group and had developed an interest in studying media production further. The most common negative comment was that the program was sometimes too time consuming due to an unanticipated workload as a result of choosing projects that were on too large a scale. Sometimes when brainstorming ideas for projects, plans that seemed reasonable at first proved to be overambitious in regard to both the required time and video editing skills. In these cases the amount of work required to successfully finish the project as planned was not realized until after production started, forcing the group to make unplanned changes in order to complete projects. This was usually due to a lack of understanding of the media production methods involved. In future projects, it is recommended that more time is spent by the teacher to ensure the students have a thorough understanding of what is required to accomplish certain types of projects. In addition, it is advisable to have the teacher work closely with students during idea conception to ensure that the projects are not too difficult.

Viewer impressions were mainly positive, citing the production value being high considering the

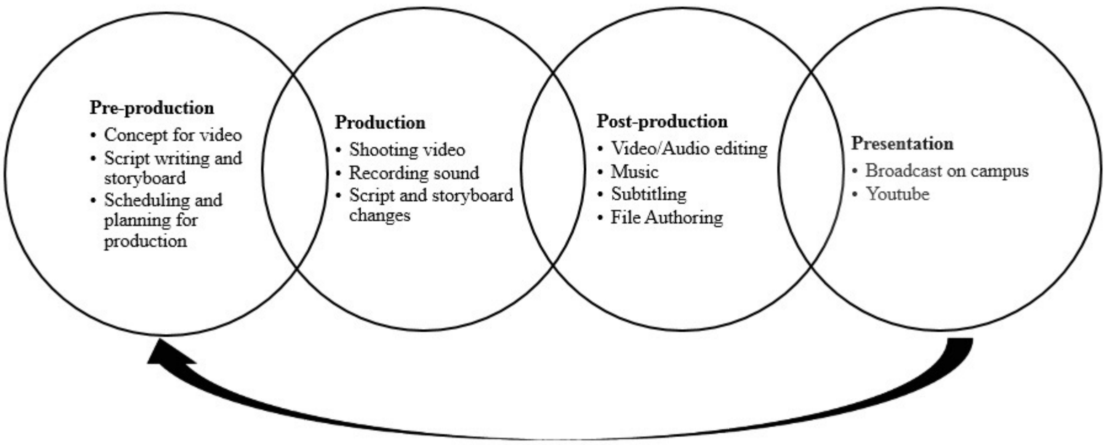

Figure 1. Workflow for media production in the *Lights, Camera, English* program.

program's resources. Viewers who did not speak English were grateful that videos were subtitled in Japanese. Negative impressions were mainly regarding sound, citing instances where it was difficult to hear dialogue due to background noise. This was mainly attributed to a shared space during some projects when conversation and ambient noise interfered with sound recording. Having a dedicated recording area or moving to different locations when possible could remedy the problem.

Based on the author's experience with the program as well as the impressions of participants, the *Lights, Camera, English* program seems worthwhile to continue and develop further. Future application could also extend the explored program concepts to regular university course work. Time in the classroom could be used to plan and evaluate projects in groups. More time-consuming aspects of video production such as recording and editing could be assigned as homework. Considering the flexibility of the program, it can be modified easily for implementation at other institutions. With the correct modifications, students with varying degrees of both English ability and media production skills can participate in a similar media production based English program.

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Fostering Equal Representation for Democracy in the Classroom

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What does it mean to create democracy in the classroom? How do we encourage collaboration and ensure equal representation to enable dynamic classroom interactions? We all struggle to find ways to nurture a variety of perspectives and establish and maintain a well-rounded environment for our students. This paper, divided into four sections, showcases a variety of teachers' successes and challenges in creating innovative activities to encourage a wider variety of voices and perspectives.

教室に、デモクラシーを生み出すことは何を意味するだろうか。教室内のやり取りを活発にするためには、どのように生徒間の協力を促しながら、平等な表現の機会を確保できるだろうか。私たちはみな様々な価値観を育て、生徒にとって均衡のとれた環境を作り、それを維持するための方法を見つけようともがいている。本論文は4者の意見で構成されている。教師が生徒の幅広い意見や視点を育む革新的な活動を作り出す際、経験した成功体験と失敗談を紹介する。

In this paper, the four main presenters, (Ashurova, Edwards, Hill, and Laurence) attempt to show what it means to create democracy in the classroom. Each speaker, coming from a different background, reveals how all teachers struggle to find ways to nurture a variety of perspectives and establish and maintain well-rounded environments for our students. Although each presenter focuses on a different aspect of democracy, a common thread that ties their presentations together is that democracy in the classroom entails a movement away from needs of instructors towards those of their students. This paper is divided into four sub-themes, presented in the same order as they were at the PanSIG conference. David Laurence begins by addressing the effects of the culture/capital gap, between teachers and students, Glen Hill presents a system of extensive reading that meets learners' needs, Umida Ashurova reveals the effectiveness of a less teacher-centred approach in teaching vocabulary, and Cynthia Edwards shows how using Japanese-style democratic methods in the classroom can result in more effective learning for students.

Cook, M., Laurence, D., Hill, G., Ashurova, U. & Edwards, C. (2017). Fostering equal representation for democracy in the classroom. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 62-70). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Part One: The Capital Gap

The population of 18-year-olds in Japan has fallen by roughly half over the past 25 years, meaning that the proportion of the age cohort attending university has doubled to more than 50% (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology, 2012; Statistics Bureau, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, 2014). Increased competition between universities for a still-shrinking pool of potential students leads to an increase in the influence of market forces and the commoditization of education. At the classroom level, as universities are forced to expand recruitment deeper into the pool of potential students to meet their quotas, more students are admitted who are less well-prepared for university academically. However, the effects on actual practice as a result of demographic change may be farther-reaching than a lack of students' academic preparedness.

This expansion of recruitment means, put simply, that students from a much wider range of academic and socioeconomic backgrounds are being afforded the chance to attend university in Japan today than ever before. This means that more students are attending university with less cultural capital (non-financial social assets—knowledge, skills, education, relationships, and so on—that promote social mobility). Differences in cultural capital can have a large effect on academic success, in particular, persistence and transitions between different stages of study (Wells, 2008; Yamamoto & Brinton, 2010). But more importantly for day-to-day teaching practice is the effect differences in cultural capital can have on equity in the classroom.

Gaps in cultural capital between students in the classroom is an important issue. Some students will be better equipped than others to succeed, and even in a single classroom the difference between "haves" and "have-nots" will mean that different students might have profoundly different experiences, based solely on their ability to take full advantage of the resources a university is able to offer. But more difficult to see is how educators experience and deal with these differences between our students. Most university educators will have come from quite different contexts than the students they teach—those of us who are not Japanese will be approaching higher education with preconceptions based on our own educational backgrounds, but we are also likely to come from different contexts in terms of access to education, and may not be aware of the changes described earlier that this brings to a higher education system. More importantly, most university instructors have a great deal of cultural capital—we have higher degrees, are likely to come from backgrounds that value education, and may well view the resources and soft skills that cultural capital gives us as completely unremarkable. All too often in higher education one hears educators framing issues with students that likely stem at least in part from cultural capital issues—effective time management, social norms surrounding interactions with teachers, attitudes towards education and the like—as moral failings, labeling students as "bad students," "lazy," or "rude," when many of these students are simply from backgrounds that have not equipped them with these basic skills.

Thus, as university-level educators in Japan today, we must be aware of, and sensitive to, the potential gap between our own social, economic, and academic backgrounds and those of an increasing number of our students. We must be aware that more and more of our students will not know how to be successful university students, simply as a result of their backgrounds. We must be aware of the possibility that we may favor students with more social capital, and be prepared to work to help less-privileged students overcome their capital deficit, in ways that may be at odds with traditional ideas about what a university professor is. Higher education has changed profoundly over the past twenty-five years, and we must be prepared for changes in our students, and in our self-image as university-level educators.

Part Two: Mandatory Reading for All

Students around the globe do not read much for enjoyment, and Japanese students are no exception. For example, in-class surveys administered at my national university clearly showed that prior to entering college, students tended to read predominantly comics in Japanese and virtually nothing in English.

In an effort to conform to standards at Hokkaido University, which now shares courses with my own institution, a recent curriculum change in 2014 raised the number of credits per course from one to two while simultaneously reducing the number of courses required. Thus, students must now take only three English courses, (composition, oral communication, or reading), and two of them are usually in the same skill in the first year.

Two credits required more homework in all three courses. We had limited time to redo syllabuses, and we thought that all students should be exposed to as many of the same English skills as possible despite the above restriction. So, we designed online listening, vocabulary, and reading for everyone. Moodle allows students to work at their own pace, so students had freedom to choose when to do the work. Results from early in this action research are outlined below with respect to extensive reading (ER).

ER was implemented via online Moodle quizzes that test general comprehension from graded readers (Robb, 2008, 2010). Based on previous years' reading results, all students now are designated with a starting reading level (RL) according to major (veterinary medicine vs. agriculture) and whether they had taken the entrance exam. *Suisen* students, that is, those who enter on recommendation status instead (Breaden, 2013, pp. 36-37) did not. Part of this is shown in Table 1. Although we expected all students to do ER, we were not as strict in guidelines with students who opted not to take the reading course.

In each semester, students were allowed to take one online Moodle quiz per 24 hours and set their own weekly pace. Teachers suggested two to three books per week to meet the maximum target. However, because some students are known to put off ER until the end of the semester, and because that is a time of stress and final exams, the final month's settings in Moodle permitted one quiz every 3 days. If students had read at a steady pace, there would be no need to cram heavier reading into that period. The *suisen* students began ER at a lower RL, with shorter books, thus they were disadvantaged from the start in achieving the final target goal. Therefore, the last month's settings were left unchanged for them, and they could continue with a book per day. These two aspects of Moodle settings display fairness to all students.

Since the inception of the 2014 curriculum, reading results have been tracked. The number of students who reach the targets has increased in all courses, as evidenced by records compiled from Moodle history. Also, in the first two semesters, reading skills students understandably showed a far greater percentage who achieved the minimum target than composition and communication course students, perhaps because reading course students

Table 1
Reading Breakdown

Course	Min word target % of grade	Max word target % of grade
English I: Communication & Composition	55,000 1%	100,000 10%
English I: Reading Skills	80,000 5%	125,000 25%
English II: Communication & Composition	55,000 1%	125,000 10%
English II: Reading Skills	80,000 5%	150,000 25%
English III: CALL English & Current English & Technical Writing	60,000 1%	150,000 10%

had greater intrinsic desire to read and had sustained silent reading (SSR) in every lesson (Pilgreen, 2000). The third semester has a different course series, with a choice of technical writing, CALL, or current topics. Although the same ER program was used, and despite their prior experience, students showed a far greater reluctance to read than in previous semesters. This problem in third semester may be due to different course grading than in the first year, which makes it easier for students to skip the special homework. We found they overwhelmingly avoided ER over the other two, perhaps because of the length of time needed.

Students enter university and change from a highly structured teacher-dominated lifestyle to one where they are allowed to make their own decisions. They need freedom in order to manage their busy schedules and to choose books that interest them. ER encourages that freedom, but curriculum designs still need customization to make ER work and to make students aware of the benefits.

Ongoing efforts to improve this curriculum include activities that all universities should consider. For example, we are looking into ways to improve orientation about Moodle prior to the first lesson. The university has a student peer support group, and teachers do their best to encourage students to take advantage of it when they show signs of weak reading ability. Also, student feedback surveys are administered every semester so that the ER program can be improved, and some of the data are shown to students so they understand certain ER policies. To be sure English teachers and science content teachers are equally aware of student needs, regular reports on reading progress are sent to the vice-president, and a faculty development (FD) presentation was conducted to explain various aspects of the English courses and student results in ER. Finally, English teachers in courses other than the Reading Skills course have experimented with SSR whenever possible, even if it lasts only 5-10 minutes.

Part Three: Beliefs about Vocabulary Learning

I believe that democracy in the classroom starts with teachers putting themselves into learners' shoes and reflecting on the experiences they once had as learners. Analyzing our stories of success and failure and then sharing those experiences with students can help us teachers create better classroom environment. These could then become the classes in which we, teachers are on the same path with our students and where the students feel comfortable to ask questions or to say that they have not fully grasped the meaning of certain vocabulary item or grammatical pattern.

We all were once students, and our teaching is often a reflection of how we were taught. As an apprentice of the strict socialist educational system over the period of ten years, my observations as an EFL learners were as follows: *one* teacher controlled forty students, *one* textbook was the source of information over a number of years, *one* order of grammatical structures and vocabulary items was decided by the government, and not much flexibility was allowed in any of the above. As someone who was taught that there is one and only answer to any question, I was eager to find the one and only and certainly the most appropriate answer to the following questions:

1. Why do speakers of English write more letters but pronounce fewer sounds (e.g. clothes, biscuits, acquaintances)?
2. Why do people in England and in the United States spell words differently (e.g. center vs. center, favor vs. favour)?
3. Why are words with the same suffix 'al' sometimes nouns and sometimes adjectives (e.g. 'cultural' and 'local' are adjectives, but 'principal' and 'editorial' are nouns)?
4. How come the word 'decade' means '10 years' in English whereas in Russian 'dekada' refers to '10 days' only?
5. Why is it wrong to ask the question 'How do you call it?' when the question 'How do you say it?' is perfectly fine?
6. Why is the greeting 'How do you do?' never used after the very first encounter and is replaced by 'How are you?' although most of the time our conversation partners want to know about the things we 'did' and not our current feelings and conditions?

Now, with the teaching experience of more than 15 years and after the constant search for correct answers or at least appropriate explanations, I can say that I have some answers to the questions above. Studying the history of English language and the influences it had from other languages in European region was useful; this gave me the answer to my first question on discrepancies in spelling. Further studies in the field of sociolinguistics and various academic articles on varieties of English and its spread around the world provided the answer to the second question. After several years of using the language with fluent and native speakers of English, I have learned to control and avoid fossilized mistakes (e.g. difference in meaning between English 'decade' and Russian 'dekada'). And, last but not the least, the field of corpus linguistics offered answers the questions five and six.

This search for right answers made me realize that there are many questions with multiple answers and there are different sources we can refer to. One of the things the learners may find useful in abundance of information is a step-by-step guidance from teachers, i.e. former learners, the people who have been there before and who have tried to answer those questions. With this idea in mind, I planned a semester-long course with vocabulary instructions where specific features of words were introduced step-by-step and different teaching resources were employed. The table in the Appendix presents a detailed summary of vocabulary features focused, materials used, in-class activities conducted, and homework assigned to my students, who were non-English majors taking a compulsory reading class at a private university in Japan. The resources included textbook, newspaper and online articles, short stories, and graded readers. The features covered were pronunciation, parts of speech, definition, collocations, and usage of the target vocabulary. The students worked in open and closed pairs, and in groups of three and four. Recycling of student-selected vocabulary was encouraged by assigned homework and group discussions in subsequent classes.

In every class I shared a story from my own language learning history and wrote on the board the questions I used to ask as a learner. Gradually the students started to share with peers their concerns related to vocabulary acquisition. Although it took the students three or four lessons before they could ask me the questions or share their stories, by the second half of the semester we had a classroom where the questions "Why do they say it that way?", "Why wouldn't they use this word instead?", and "How come this word is more frequent than that one?" could be heard frequently.

Part Four: Democracy at Work in the University Classroom Japanese Style

College freshmen, educated in the traditional Japanese system, are expected to adapt to unfamiliar group formations, norms, and methodology based in Western teaching tradition in English classes taught by native-speaker (NS) teachers. They are required to participate actively and speak frankly with multiple partners and the NS teacher. Students often fall silent when pressured into face-to-face arrangements with unfamiliar partners or when confronted by the teacher with spontaneous direct questions (Anderson, 1993a). This approach flies in the face of the shared learning experience of the Japanese students. However, by adapting classroom procedures and approaches based in students' earlier learning training, NS teachers can create a positive learning environment in which students can engage and thrive.

The dominant Western classroom interaction style, in contrast to the Japanese classroom model, places the teacher at the hub and relies on the dyad—two speakers acting at the same time—played out by a student with the teacher as the primary conversation partner (Mehan, 1979; Cazden, 1988). Since communication goes through the teacher, who is also the main source of information, students are connected to the teacher individually with limited interaction between peers. The Japanese classroom, with up to forty children, typically has them seated in clusters of six. Peer to peer interaction is the focus, setting the teacher outside the student circle in a supportive facilitator role (Anderson, 1997; Cook, 1999).

Having observed successful Japanese learning environments from nursery school through high school, I adapted an approach in which students, in large classes, have equal chances to speak and contribute. They work within a familiar social framework, called *han*, using formalized classroom interaction routines that they have known since elementary school (Lewis, 1989; Anderson 1997). For the duration of a 15-week term, self-selected groups work together completing tasks and assignments, serving as partners, mentoring and supporting each other. The members bond and develop a strong sense of responsibility for their group's success (Tobin, Wu & Davidson, 1989).

Initially, students learn classroom procedures and make six-member groups. Sitting together, they learn group and leader roles, then choose their first weekly leader who conducts a simple discussion. Instruction in presentation techniques and respectful audience behavior follows, and they experience the discussion/presentation cycle: The teacher initiates the discussion; students exchange opinions and summarize them; group leaders present outcomes; everyone turns their body towards the speaker to listen and react with supportive body language and applause; the teacher takes notes and makes corrections (Cook, 1999). Throughout the semester, this format is frequently used, for example, for short warm-up discussions using target language or to solicit ideas for pronunciation lessons, as well.

The group leader must write a report reviewing lesson content and learning activities, including comments about the level and the group's participation. At the next class, the leader reads the report. The group then peruses it and suggests edits to reach a consensus. In this way, the entire group is engaged and shares responsibility for the report, an important record of the lesson and vehicle for feedback.

Before adopting this approach in large freshman oral English classes, I found most students remained unengaged and reluctant to participate, often resorting to speaking in Japanese or sitting in embarrassed silence. Students account for their behavior by saying 'I'm shy' or 'We Japanese aren't good at English'. However, working in a style that exploits students' past learning training, the walls of silence have fallen. In the role of facilitator and referee, I have become a more effective teacher for them. Student feedback reports show they are comfortable going back to working in *han* and taking a central role. In this way, they have come to experience democracy in the classroom.

Conclusion

As the above sections have shown, democracy in the classroom can be borne out by teachers being aware of differences in cultural capital between themselves and their students, by adapting curriculums to address gaps among students and ensure that all receive equitable treatment, by starting their teaching processes from the same point of view as their students, and by organizing classroom interactions in ways that are familiar to students. What these authors, who represent diverse teaching situations, reveal is that democracy is attainable in our classrooms, as long as we are prepared to move away from our beliefs about language teaching and what we think our students need, to the realities of language teaching in our classrooms in Japan and the true needs of our students.

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Appendix

Interactive Vocabulary Activities for Reading Classes

Vocabulary feature	Reading material	In-class activities	Assigned homework
pronunciation	textbook	teacher briefly explains International Phonetic Alphabet students read an article in the textbook students write dictation on a target vocabulary in the text students guess the spelling of words written in IPA symbols	going through the words in Units 1-3 making comprehension questions checking IPA symbols with dictionary making a quiz with IPA symbols bringing 1 copy of quiz to class
part of speech	newspaper articles	teacher elicits suffixes for nouns, verbs, and adjectives teacher categorizes the words on the board students work in pairs on newspaper slips students highlight words and guess their parts of speech students share information in groups students confirm answers with teacher	choosing and reading an article from newspaper provided by teacher making discussion questions making a word-tree (words in the same family) for two/three key words bringing 2 copies of word-tree to class
definition	online articles	students brainstorm the words related to topic teacher elicits target vocabulary from the online article teacher briefly explains common features in defining words students in pairs read the text out loud students give definitions to the words in bold at the same time students confirm the definitions of target vocabulary in groups	visiting the website www.breakingnewsenglish.com choosing and reading an article making a mind-map on article making a definition quiz on the target vocabulary with the help of online dictionary bringing 3 copies of quiz to class
collocations	short stories	teacher gives a chart with 'have' teacher explains briefly about phrasal verbs and collocations students work in pairs and add more words to the chart students share information with another pair of students students compare their ideas with the full chart from teacher	reading the same story in a group writing a summary and highlighting collocations making a quiz on collocations in story bringing 4 copies of quiz to class
usage	graded readers	teacher gives a list of words from short story teacher writes synonyms and antonyms for some on the board students think of synonyms and antonyms for other words students share information in groups	reading the same book with a partner making a poster on the contents of book making word-webs for 5 key words bringing 2 copies of word-web to class

Helping Students to Develop Skills for Setting and Achieving Goals

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This paper explores the process of helping students to develop skills for setting and carrying out goals in their academic and non-academic life. It may be of interest to researchers and teachers working in the areas of developing learner autonomy and critical thinking. The paper offers several learning activities that students have used successfully to carry out goals such as sports success, overseas study, raising TOEIC scores, and other personal goals. The learning activities are divided into two distinct groups: setting goals and carrying out goals.

この論文は生徒が学術あるいは非学術時における人生の目標を定めたり達成したりする為のスキルを得る際のプロセスを探るものです。学習者が自主的かつ客観的な考えを持つ為の方法を探っている研究者や教育者にとっては興味深いもと思われます。この論文は生徒がスポーツにおける成功、留学、TOEICの得点を上げる、その他個人的な目的を達成できるよう幾つかの学習アクティビティーが。このアクティビティーはゴールの設定と達成の2つの異なった分野に分かれています。

Much has been written about the importance of learner-autonomy (e.g. Pemberton, Li, Or, & Pierson, 1996). There has also been growing awareness of the need for students to develop better critical thinking skills in both the ESL classroom and across the whole curriculum (Atkinson, 1997; "Critical thinking essential", 2016). More recently, influential educators are calling for greater personalization, creativity, and relevant skills to be integrated into education to engage and support a generation of young people who have grown up with computers and do not engage well with traditional curricula (e.g. Robinson & Aronica, 2015).

It is clear that personalized learning activities which promote learner autonomy and critical thinking are useful for language education in Japan, yet there has been little discussion of how this kind of activity can be integrated into classes. In this paper, we offer some learning activities and ideas. More specifically, we focus on learning activities for setting and achieving goals because we believe that this promotes autonomy, critical thinking, personalization, useful real-world skills, and creativity. In accord with Robinson's encouragement to bring creativity into education (Robinson & Aronica, 2015), we use many stories in our teaching, and so we will begin by sharing a story which offers a useful metaphor for our work.

Cullen, B., & Backwell, B. (2017). Helping students to develop skills for setting and achieving goals. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 71-80). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

A Metaphor

Once upon a time there was a rather frazzled hare that was always running round, constantly stressed yet really not getting much done at all. Eventually, a friend recommended a good therapist who happened to be a tortoise and who was highly-regarded for helping people to both relax *and* to be more productive.

The hare sat down with the tortoise (this was rather difficult to arrange because the hare was not good at sitting still and kept challenging the tortoise to a rematch of some race held long ago) and the tortoise was finally able to ask the important question, "What do you want?"

"What do you mean, 'what do I want?'", said the hare. "I just want to stop these problems and worries and slow down."

"I see, and when you have solved all your problems and worries, and you are able to slow down, what do you want?"

"I don't understand," said the hare. "I don't know what I want and even if I did, I am never able to get what I want."

"Ah." said the tortoise. "I think that may be the real problem. If you were able to learn how to identify what you want and then learn how to really achieve those goals, do you think that would be useful?"

"But can someone actually learn skills to set and achieve goals?" asked the hare.

And you are probably curious about how the story ends, and it's good to be curious because like our students, that probably means that you are interested in what comes next. We will come back to that story later. In the meantime, we would like to briefly discuss the importance of goals and goal-setting.

The Importance of Goals

The ability to set and achieve meaningful goals in our lives is one of the primary determinants of our happiness and success. Sir Ken Robinson, an internationally recognized leader in the field of education, creativity, innovation, and human potential has been viewed on TED talks by more than 40 million people. Robinson (2015) argues that there are four core purposes of education: personal, cultural, social and economic: "As I see it, the aims of education are to enable students to understand the world around them and the talents within them so that they can become fulfilled individuals and active, compassionate citizens"(p. xvii). Robinson believes that of these four important purposes of education the single most important is the personal. His education revolution "is based on a belief in the value of the individual, the right to self-determination, our potential to evolve and live a life fulfilled"(p.xvii). In other words the true purpose of education is to help each student become the person they want to become.

One powerful way to bring this kind of self-determination in the classroom is to teach our students real-world skills for setting and achieving goals, skills that can be used far beyond their current classes. As teachers, we can do something to help students achieve their own goals, either academic or non-academic, and help them lead a life moving towards potential and fulfillment. Below, we introduce some of the learning activities which we have developed and tested extensively with students over the last five years.

Our learning activities are divided into 2 types:

1. Identifying worthwhile, exciting goals and
2. Learning the skills, attitudes and knowledge to actually take sustainable action and achieve the goal.

The learning activities follow a task-based learning approach (Ellis, 2003; Willis & Willis, 2008). Students' goals are self-chosen and self-concordant, therefore the tasks are personally meaningful and intrinsically motivating.

Again following the thinking of Robinson (2015) and other proponents of learning across the curriculum, we take an integrated skills approach by including the four skills of language learning with speaking, listening, reading, and writing into all lessons.

A key point in our learning materials is that they follow the principle of dogme or being content-free (e.g. Thornbury, 2011). Dogme creates personalized learning because students supply the content themselves. In this case, students create the real material of the lessons by inserting their own goals into the structure of the learning activities, thereby generating self-motivation to attend class and be engaged. In this sense students have increased autonomy in their learning and are more likely to mobilize their resources.

It is when students mobilize their own internal and external resources that they really learn. All too often in the classroom, the Ministry of Education, administration, and teachers impose their ideas about what constitutes important topics onto the students and then "motivate" them with the threat of a test. In our approach, however, the situation is reversed. Whatever is important to the student is the most important thing. If a student wants to focus on soccer then soccer is the most important thing. If another student wants to focus on their TOEIC score then this is the most valued topic. From our experience, when teachers take this approach then the students see that the teachers value what is important to students, and in turn the students start to give the teachers what is important for teachers.

Furthermore, students don't just do the work for their teacher more sincerely. They also listen to other students and work collaboratively with other students at a deeper level because they understand the topic is genuinely important for their classmate. Intrinsic motivation is at the core of our work and success in the classroom. From a student perspective, the difference between wanting to study and being forced to study can be described by the metaphor: "Do you want to be chased by a tiger or do you want to chase a beautiful butterfly?"

Goals of Learning Materials

We used the following learning materials with university students at three different universities with first, second, and third year students. Using the TOEIC test as a measure of language proficiency, these students were spread over a wide range from as low as 350 to as high as 900. The smallest class size was 7 students and the largest was 32 students. The two main goals of our course were:

1. Improve students' English using a four-skills task-based approach, which is personalized and intrinsically motivating.
2. Help students to develop and use skills in setting and achieving goals.

Our lessons are based on the structure shown below. These are designed to cover approximately one semester of work in a university class.

In the next two sections, we will focus on the two important areas of goal setting and goal achievement. There are examples of these activities in the appendices which show how to scaffold and integrate them into lessons.

Setting Goals: Sample Activities

We teach a series of three lessons designed to help students to identify and set goals effectively. These activities are our own original materials with some influence from traditional coaching tools.

1. Dream

   Students learn to think about their dreams in useful ways that bring fantasies closer to reality. The key point is that it is important to have a dream and the key question is: How motivated are you to achieve your dream?
2. The Wheel of Life

   Students learn and practice a great tool called the Wheel of Life. They use this to consider all the important areas of their lives, how to keep them in balance, and how to identify goals in each area. An example is given below.
3. Make Clear Goals

   Students learn and practice the SPECIFY model, a tool for setting goals that are measurable and achievable. This builds on the earlier learning activities as they gradually learn and practice skills to become more clear and specific in their aspirations. An example of the SPECIFY process is given below.

The Wheel of Life

Too often, we are like the hare in the story of the tortoise and the hare, running from place to place, trying to solve problems. The Wheel of Life is a great tool for helping students to take an inventory of the current state of different areas of their life and then later to use this to identify goals in these areas. Figure 1 shows the eight areas representing the different areas of life: Career, Amour, Money, Personal Development, Health, Environment, Relationships, and Enjoyment.

To use the Wheel of Life, students simply work with a partner to identify the level of satisfaction in each area. Below is the basic exchange between students using The Wheel of Life. We wrote simple model sentences on the board and the students used them to carry their own conversations. The higher-level students were able to expand considerably on the basic language. We also modelled the process with a demonstration in front of the class.

A: How satisfied are you in the area of "Career"?
B: About 70%.
A: I see. 70%.

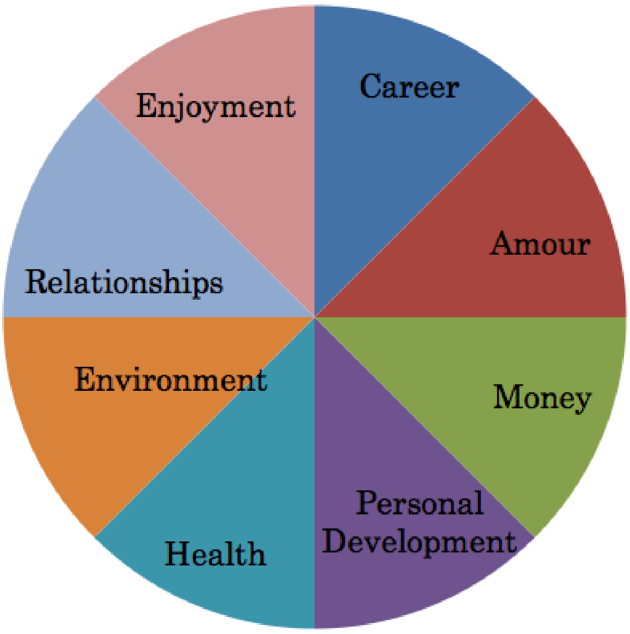

Figure 1. The Wheel of Life.

As can be seen, the language used is relatively simple and students record the answer by writing a simple percentage. For example, a student might rate the area of health at 80% and money at 50%.

In the second part of the activity, students are asked to identify two or more areas that they would like to change. For example, they might want to change their level of satisfaction in the area of money. Again we practiced simple supporting language before the activity.

Example:

A: Which two areas would you like to change?

B: Money and health.

A: I see. Money is at 50%. What would you like to change it to?

B. I'd like to change it to 90%

A. 90%. I see.

In the third step, students ask questions like: "what do you need to do to go from 50% to 80%?" This naturally leads to goals emerging from the Wheel of Life activity. There is a fuller transcript of a Wheel of Life activity in Appendix 1.

The SPECIFY Process

Many students start off with rather vague goals, and the purpose of this activity is to help them to set a more specific and achievable goal. For example, "I want to have more money" is vague whereas "I want to earn 20,000 yen more per month" is a much more specified and achievable goal. Other examples of student goals and the areas of Wheel of Life from which they emerged included:

- "Visiting the United States with friends" (*Enjoyment*)
- "To get a good job." (*Career*)
- "To be a person who can give everyone love." (*Amour*)
- "To be down to earth"(*Personal Development*)
- "To live a life with no regrets." (*Enjoyment*)

As can be seen, most of these goals are vaguely stated and can benefit from a process to make them more specific and achievable.

For this, we use the SPECIFY model (Bolstad, 2002). One of the advantages of SPECIFY is that it encourages people to think about additional aspects of their goals such as ecology (how it fits into their life), their resources for achieving the goal, and the first step that can be taken towards the goal. We find it to be an active model which students quickly learn and use in their own lives.

The key questions for the SPECIFY process are shown in Table 1 and a full transcript of a demonstration is available in Appendix 2.

Achieving Goals

In the section above, we introduced sample activities for helping students to *identify and set goals*. The next step is taking action so that they actually *achieve* these goals. Table 2 shows a list of learning activities to help students to develop these skills.

Below we give one example of how we transform these important concepts into classroom and learning activities.

One important tool we use with our students is the 90 Day Action Plan. This is an activity where students break down a big goal into a list of actions to be taken over the next 90 days. The 90 Day Action plan breaks down bigger goal *and* makes it more immediate and urgent. This urgency in turn boosts energy levels.

Here is a sample action plan for a student who wanted to increase her TOEIC score by 100 points.

1. Find and buy a suitable TOEIC textbook this week.
2. Study from it 3 hours a week.
3. Identify at least 2 TOEIC questions to ask her English teacher each week
4. Take a practice test after the first and second month.
5. Take the real test at the end of the 90 day period and increase her score by 100 points.

The important point about the action plan is setting clear achievable actions and then just like the wise tortoise in the old fable, move slowly and steadily towards achieving these actions. It also makes learning more meaningful and enhances motivation and autonomy. Each week, students are given time to review their actions, outcomes, and any changes to the plan.

As can be seen from the example of the 90 day action plan, we believe that students need support and new skills to achieve their goals. At the start of the course we often see students accelerate quickly towards their goal. This rate of progress at some point will level off, climb again level off, and climb again. At times students may not feel like they are making progress and therefore other skills, attitudes and knowledge developed in the course include habit analysis. Perhaps more importantly we identify good practices and habits which help us move towards our goal. Such practices included in our book are: practicing an attitude of gratitude, affirmations and visualizations, role model presentations, building a team to support you, and helping others achieve their goals. Finally, throughout the course we share stories with our students. These stories are chosen or designed to offer wisdom and support about working towards goals, and that reminds us of an unfinished story.

Concluding Story

Meanwhile, the tortoise and the hare were still sitting in the tortoise's therapy room where the hare had just said that he didn't know what he wanted or how to get it.

"Ah" said the tortoise. "I think that may be the real problem. If you were able to learn how to identify what you want and then learn how to really achieve those goals, do you think that would be useful to you?"

"But that's not something that can be taught, can it?", said the hare. "I mean, can someone actually learn skills to set and achieve goals?"

And the tortoise said,

"Yes, you can. You can indeed learn to set and achieve goals."

This is what we do with our students, and as the comments in Appendix 3 show, our students love it. Using the ideas presented here, we have found that students are intrinsically motivated to use English as they learn valuable life skills to set and achieve goals. Through a written test, we were able to check that students had memorized the basic steps of the processes and the reports that we assigned to higher level students showed that they were actively applying the tool in their lives. If more people learned how to set and achieve their goals in this way, we believe that it could lead to great positive change in the world, one little goal at a time.

Table 1
SPECIFY Activity Learning Worksheet

Steps	Question	Your Answer
Elicit Goal	• What is your goal?	
1. Sensory-specific	• What date would you like to achieve it? • Imagine achieving your goal. What do you see, hear, and feel?	
2. Positively stated	• Is the goal positively stated? If not, ask your partner to say it in a positive way.	
3. Ecological	• What will you gain when you achieve your goal? • What will you lose?e.g. money, free time.	
4. Choices increase	• Does this goal increase your choices? (a good goal increases our life choices)	
5. Initiated by self	• What do you need to do to achieve your goal?	
6. First step	• What is your first step? (something you can do today)	
7. Your resources	• What are your resources? (find at least 4 resources)	

Table 2
Achieving Goals: Sample Activities

Goal	Sample Activity
1. Take Action	• Students learn about action plans and begin to chunk their goals down into small, scheduled actions. They create a 90 day action plan which can be revisited, revised during the rest of the semester.
2. Learn From Mistakes	• Students think about their mistakes and identify what they have learned from them. This is an important resiliency strategy to develop as all people face setbacks and make mistakes in achieving their goals.
3. Habits 1: The Outer Game	• Students examine their own habits and consider which habits are helpful or unhelpful in achieving their goals. They are encouraged to identify and create new positive habits that support their goals.
4. Habits 2: The Inner Game	• Thinking patterns, beliefs, and the ability to use visualization and positive language are all important in achieving goals. Students practice useful techniques and also write a gratitude diary.
5. Role Models	• Students learn about the importance of role models and identify role models who are relevant to their goals.
6. Your Goal and Other People	• No-one achieves a goal completely alone. In this section, students learn about different personality types and consider the type of people who are helpful or a hindrance.

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Appendix 1

Wheel of Life Demonstration

A: I'd like to take you through an activity called the Wheel of Life. And this will help you to look at your whole life and see if each area is in balance.
So we have these eight areas: career, amour, money, personal development, health, environment, your relationships, and enjoyment. So if we start off in the area of Career. How satisfied are you in the area of Career?

B: You mean a percentage?

A: Yes, a percentage. A number from zero to 100 which represents your level of satisfaction.
Zero would be completely dissatisfied and 100 would be totally satisfied.

B: Well, my career is 55%.

A: 55%, great. And how about in the area of Amour. Amour is a French word that means love.

B: Amour. I'd say 60%.

A: 60%. I see. And next, how satisfied are you in the area of money?

B: I'd say... 75%.

A: 75%, and what about in the area of personal development.

B: I would say 80%.

A: 80%, right. And in the area of Health? What is your level of satisfaction now?

B: Health... let me see. So getting enough sleep, getting good food, nutrition, exercising enough, all that kind of thing. I'd say 80%.

A: 80%. Right. And in the area of environment... meaning your house, the places where you live and work. The town or city where you live.

B: I'd say that needs a bit of work. Maybe 40%.

A: 40%, great. And in your Relationships... your relationships with the people you work with, your friends, even your family.

B: I'd say that's pretty good. I'd say 80.

A: 80. And how about Enjoyment, your overall enjoyment of life.

B: I'd say 75.

A: 75%. OK. Thanks. We will come back to that in a minute.

A: OK, Ben, what I see is that you are 55% satisfied with career, 65% in the area of amour. 75% in money. 80% in Personal Development, 80% in Health. 40% in Environment, 80% in Relationships, and 75% in Enjoyment. Is that right?

B: That's right. Thank you.

Appendix 2

SPECIFY Demonstration

A: First of all, we need to hear your goal. What is your goal?

B: I want to go to Italy. I saw a program on TV last week and it looks so great.

A: OK. That's great. So the 'S' in SPECIFY stands for Sensory. And the first question is:
What date do you intend to have this goal by?

B: I will do it by the end of August next year.

A: Great. That's nice and clear. Now, let's continue with the second part of 'Sensory'.
Put yourself in the situation of having it. Step into your body at that time.
What do you see/hear/feel when you have it?

B: I see pizza in front of me on the table in Rome. I can smell the pizza. Now I can feel myself picking it up. And wow, it tastes so good. I can hear the people around me speaking Italian. And there are some American tourists speaking English. I feel excited and alive!

A: What will you say to yourself when you achieve your goal?

B: "Wow, I did it, I'm in Italy!"

A: The 'P' in SPECIFY stands for 'Positively Stated'.
Your goal is "I want to go to Italy." That is already positively-stated, so it is fine.
Sometimes people say things like "I don't want to stay at home for my vacation". That is negatively stated.
It could be positively stated as:
"I want to travel during my vacation."

B: I see, that makes sense.

A: Right, let's move onto the third step. 'E' stands for 'Ecological'. In other words, does it fit into your whole life well?

B: OK.

A: What will you gain?

B: I will meet interesting people and improve my English.

A: And what will you lose?

B: Well, I guess that I will need to spend money and I won't be able to go to my university club so much.

A: Right. Next step. 'C' stands for Choices Increase. I think this is quite important.
How does this goal increase your choices?

B: I am able to visit more countries and speak more easily. I think it will also give me confidence in everything.

A: Just three more steps to go. 'I' stands for 'Initiated by Self'. You've got to take actions yourself, not just wait for other people!
So what do you personally have to do to achieve this goal?

B: I need to save 150,000 yen or ask my parents to help me financially.

A: OK, now we are getting down to details, aren't we?
'F' stands for 'First Step.'
What is your first step?

B: Oh that's easy. I need to get on the Internet today and find plane ticket prices.

A: Finally, 'Y' stands for 'Your Resources'. Resources include things like time, money, friends, family, the Internet and so on.
What are your resources?

B: I have time. I have some money. And I can get information on the Internet. And I have my English classes.

Appendix 3

Student Feedback

This student feedback is from second year students at several Japanese universities who used these learning materials in the previous year. We have included this feedback to show how students became very engaged in the learning materials.

- "Thank you very much for teaching me the goal activities. I really think that this class will be the best English class in my life." Mamoru
- "Your lecture on goals is very important for my job hunting. Every day I felt happy after your classes." Erina
- "Our course finished 6 months ago but I still use the resilience strategies you taught us. They help me through the difficult days." Honoka
- "Your class was very interesting and unique that I've never had before. Not like normal class at university which is so boring. I loved your teaching style." Minako

Fluency Development Activities and Language Change

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Repeated narrative activities have been shown to lead to development in learners' spoken fluency, and could also impact other aspects of output. However, few studies have looked at the how the complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) features of language produced in these activities may vary across performances or change over time. This study investigated the differences in CAF measures made by 20 Japanese university students who completed a 3/2/1 speaking activity over an academic semester. Results indicated that while gains in most measures remained relatively stable, the accuracy measures fluctuated and appeared to be influenced by the tasks' topics.

繰り返された談話アクティビティーは、学習者の会話の流暢さの発達につながることが証明されており、また他のアウトプット面へも影響する可能性がある。しかし、これらのアクティビティーで、言語の複雑性、精度、流暢性(CAF)の特徴が生み出される方法に目を向けたいくつかの研究は、能力によって異なる、あるいは経時的に変化するかもしれない。この研究は、一学期を通して3/2/1スピーキングアクティビティーを行った、20名の日本の大学生によって作られたCAF方法による相違点を調査した。結果は、ほとんどの方法での進歩は比較的安定して残ったものの、精度測定は変動し、タスクのトピックに影響されることが現れた、ということを示した。

For language learners with few opportunities to use the target language they are studying, developing speaking fluency can be a formidable challenge. While recent developments in studying the complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) of learner output have resulted in more attention from researchers (Housen, Kuiken, & Vedder, 2012), there are still very few studies that have shown how teachers can develop learner fluency in classroom settings. The 4/3/2 speaking activity (Maurice, 1983), where learners repeat the same speech three times under increasing time pressure (beginning with a four-minute delivery and ending with a two-minute delivery), is one of the few classroom activities that has been shown to be associated with long-term development of speaking fluency (De Jong & Perfetti, 2011). However, while this study showed the activity to be an effective means of developing fluency, whether complexity and accuracy were affected by the fluency gains was not investigated.

This had led some researchers (Boers, 2014; Thai & Boers 2015) to question whether the 4/3/2 (and its shortened version the 3/2/1) speaking activity could be harmful for learners' interlanguage development, as learners may proceduralize incorrect forms of language through being encouraged to repeat the same information in their deliveries. Some support for this argument can be seen in Thai and Boers (2015), the results of which showed that learners did not make any improvements in their accuracy when participating in a 3/2/1 speaking activity. The study however, was cross-sectional in nature, therefore it cannot be determined if learners repeated the same types of errors in subsequent speaking tasks. This study, therefore seeks to address the following research questions to investigate how the CAF factors of learner output may change across subsequent versions of a 3/2/1 speaking task:

1. To what degree do gains made in the CAF of

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spoken language vary across different 3/2/1 tasks over time?
2. To what degree do learners repeat the same kinds of grammatical errors in different 3/2/1 speaking tasks over time?

Methods

The participants in this study were 20 first-year university students who were taking a compulsory English discussion skills class at a private university in Tokyo. These classes were limited to a maximum number of 9 students per class. Data from Lessons 3, 8, and 12 were used for the study, as by Lesson 3, students had become accustomed to the 3/2/1 tasks, and Lessons 8 and 12 approximately marked the middle and end of the semester respectively. The topics of the lessons were "Should Japanese Students Study Abroad?" (Lesson 3), "Which Is More Important: Traditional or Popular Culture?" (Lesson 8), and "Gender Stereotypes" (Lesson 12). The 14-week course had a set format for each lesson, beginning with controlled and semi-controlled practice of functional language phrases, leading to interactive discussion activities, and concluding with a 3/2/1 speaking task. Students were instructed to relate the contents of their longest interactive discussion (16 minutes) in the 3/2/1 speaking task. The class was split into two groups for this discussion, and to keep the 3/2/1 task meaning focused, students spoke to members of the discussion group in which they did not participate. During the 3/2/1 speaking task, the participants speech was recorded on an IC recorder, and the recordings were then transcribed by the researcher, who also coded the transcripts for the complexity, accuracy, and fluency measures.

While there are a multitude of CAF measures available to researchers, in order to compare the results with those of previous studies, it was decided to use the fluency measures of mean length of run (the average number of syllables produced between pauses greater than 0.25 seconds) and the average pause length, following De Jong and Perfetti (2011). Additionally, a comparison of changes in the mean length of run and average pause is more informative than a sole measure of fluency, such as speech rate which was used in Thai and Boers (2015). This is because increases in the speed of speech may also entail longer pauses, or vice-versa. To measure complexity, the number of clauses per AS-unit was used, as this measure was created to account for many of the unique features of spoken language (Foster et al., 2000). Finally, two measures for accuracy were chosen: the ratio of error-free clauses to total clauses, following Thai and Boers (2015), and the number of words per error, following Tonkyn (2012), which found it to be a good indicator of accuracy changes in spoken performances of second language learners in a short-term study.

For the fluency measures, the length and placement of pauses was determined using PRAAT software following the procedures outlined in De Jong and Perfetti (2011), and syllable counts were obtained from an online syllable counter (http://syllablecount.com). For the complexity and accuracy measures, reformulations and repetitions were deleted from the transcripts following the procedures in Foster, Tonkyn, and Wigglesworth (2000). Finally, AS-units (a measure of the degree of subordination used in a text) were determined following the guidelines in Foster et al., (2000).

Results

Research question one investigated the degree to which learners gains made in the CAF of spoken language vary across different 3/2/1 tasks over time. The results from repeated-measures ANOVA analyses indicated that learners' performance on these tasks were quite similar to the findings made in Thai and Boers (2015), as while significant gains in fluency were made across all three deliveries in all three lessons, there were no significant improvements in either complexity or accuracy (Table 1), although in most cases, change was in a positive, albeit insignificant direction. Across the three lessons however, the gains remained relatively stable, as there were no significant differences between any of the CAF gains made in the individual lessons (Table 2).

The second research question investigated the degree to which learners repeated the same kinds of grammatical errors in different 3/2/1 speaking tasks over time. Although the results in Table 2 indicated

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and p Values of the CAF Speaking Measures During the 3/2/1 Activity in Lessons 3, 8, and 12

	Lesson 3 Deliveries			
	3 minutes	**2 minutes**	**1 minute**	
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	p
Mean length of run (syllables)	3.69 (0.87)	4.01 (0.84)	5.01 (1.18)	< .01
Average pause (seconds)	1.34 (0.36)	1.14 (0.25)	0.94 (0.23)	< .01
Clauses per AS-unit	2.00 (0.44)	2.21 (0.97)	2.15 (0.57)	.33
Error-free clause ratio	0.51 (.09)	0.54 (0.21)	0.53 (0.16)	.80
Number of words per error	8.52 (3.48)	9.94 (5.46)	11.25 (9.78)	.12
	Lesson 8 Deliveries			
	3 minutes	**2 minutes**	**1 minute**	
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	p
Mean length of run (syllables)	4.58 (0.92)	4.60 (0.93)	5.36 (1.17)	< .01
Average pause (seconds)	1.25 (0.33)	1.03 (0.25)	0.82 (0.17)	< .01
Clauses per AS-unit	1.59 (0.34)	1.70 (0.55)	1.85 (0.76)	.15
Error-free clause ratio	0.53 (0.11)	0.55 (0.14)	0.53 (0.20)	.83
Number of words per error	9.65 (3.86)	10.23 (4.62)	13.29 (10.47)	.16
	Lesson 12 Deliveries			
	3 minutes	**2 minutes**	**1 minute**	
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	p
Mean length of run (syllables)	3.33 (0.64)	3.73 (0.83)	4.38 (0.99)	< .01
Average pause (seconds)	1.23 (0.26)	1.04 (0.19)	0.86 (0.18)	< .01
Clauses per AS-unit	1.81 (0.56)	1.91 (0.54)	1.96 (0.71)	.36
Error-free clause ratio	0.44 (0.14)	0.47 (0.17)	0.51 (0.22)	.14
Number of words per error	7.73 (4.01)	7.68 (3.35)	9.36 (4.03)	.07

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and p Values of Gains in CAF Speaking Measures from the Third to First Delivery of the 3/2/1 Activity in Lessons 3, 8, and 12

	Lesson 3	**Lesson 8**	**Lesson 12**	
	M (SD)	**M (SD)**	**M (SD)**	**p**
Mean length of run (syllables)	1.31 (0.67)	1.08 (0.84)	1.0 (0.58)	.34
Average pause (seconds)	-0.40 (0.24)	-0.42 (0.28)	-0.37 (0.16)	.65
Clauses per AS-unit	0.15 (0.43)	0.27 (0.65)	0.15 (0.58)	.65
Error-free clause ratio	0.17 (.15)	-0.01 (0.22)	0.64 (0.16)	.47
Number of words per error	2.73 (7.54)	3.63 (10.73)	1.64 (2.97)	.74

that there were no significant differences in the accuracy measures, a closer analysis of the types of errors revealed some distinct patterns in the types of errors made (Table 3). As the data for these error types broke the assumption of normality, non-Parametric Friedman's ANOVA were conducted for each of the error types, and Wilcoxon tests were conducted for *post-hoc* tests with Bonferroni corrections made for levels of significance (Field, 2009).

The number of noun phrase errors did not significantly differ across the three lessons, $\chi^2(2)$ = 5.2, p = .74. The number of verb phrase errors did significantly differ across the three lessons, $\chi^2(2)$ = 32.5, p > .01. Wilcoxon tests were used to follow up this finding with a Bonferroni correction of 0.167 applied. Results indicated that the amount of verb phrase errors were significantly lower in Lesson 3 than Lesson 8 (T = 1.5, p < .01, r = -0.49), and Lesson 12 (T = 2, p < .01, r = -0.48). The number of syntactical errors also significantly differed across the three lessons, $\chi^2(2)$ = 27.1, p > .01. Wilcoxon tests were used to follow up this finding with a Bonferroni correction of 0.167 applied. Results indicated that the amount of syntactical errors were significantly lower in Lesson 8 than Lesson 3 (T = 0, p < .01, r = -0.51), and Lesson 12 (T = 12, p < .01, r = -0.45). Finally, the number of lexical errors also significantly differed across the three lessons, $\chi^2(2)$ = 24.3, p > .01. Wilcoxon tests were used to follow up this finding with a Bonferroni correction of 0.167 applied. Results indicated that the amount of lexical errors were significantly lower in Lesson 12 than Lesson 3 (T = 11, p < .01, r = -0.45), and Lesson 8 (T = 2, p < .01, r = -0.50).

Discussion

The results of the first research question indicated that in terms of gains in CAF measures across the lessons, learners' performance remained relatively stable. While this result may be unimpressive in that no significant developments were observed, there are two important points to take consideration of. Firstly, the topics of the tasks became more complex as the semester progressed. In Lesson 3, the topic was highly personalized, as students were able to relate their own interests in studying abroad. The topics in Lesson 8 and 12 could be argued to be more complex in that learners had to discuss social issues that involved a variety of different factors. This increase in topic complexity could account for the lower gains in the fluency measures for Lessons 8 and 12, as learners may have had to devote more attention to generating content for their speeches. Secondly, the fluency gains in each lesson indicated that proceduralization may be taking place (Towell, Hawkins, & Bazergui, 1996), in that there were significant increases in the mean length of run and significant decreases in the average length of pause. Therefore, although there were no significant differences in the fluency gains made over time, there is some evidence to suggest that learners may have been able to automatize some aspects of their language production abilities. Several studies have shown experimental groups transfer their fluency gains to other tasks (Ahmadian, 2011; De Jong & Perfetti, 2011, however, a second measure of speaking would be necessary to determine whether the learners in this study were able to do so. This will be focused on in a follow-up study.

Results of the second research question indicated that there were significant differences in the kinds of errors made in each lesson. These findings suggest that the kinds of errors made by learners may depend on the topic around which questions are based on. The only category of errors which showed no significant differences were noun phrase errors, which is perhaps unsurprising given the difficulties that Japanese learners of English face in mastering article and plural usage rules (Butler, 2002). An example of how a topic may influence accuracy levels in output can be seen in the final topic "Gender Stereotypes," which resulted in the highest amount of syntactical errors. During their speeches many students made errors with comparisons, "men have pressure than women," and prepositions "pressure to men." While these errors may be disconcerting, they do not lend support to the claim that learners may be proceduralizing incorrect language forms during the 3/2/1 speaking task (Thai & Boers, 2015), as the errors that occurred at the beginning of the semester differed greatly from those produced in later lessons. This suggests that levels of accuracy in these activities result from an interaction of the individual's current knowledge of the language system and the lexical and grammatical forms required to complete the task. It does not appear that learners were simply automatizing the language forms they used in a linear fashion.

The results of this study have contributed to the research on task repetition by showing that while learner gains appear to be relatively stable across time, the type of errors made by learners fluctuated and appeared to be influenced by the topics of their speeches. However, several limitations need to be pointed out. Firstly, the study was conducted in a specific context with a relatively small group of learners, and whether these findings can be generalized to other groups of learners remains to be seen. Secondly, the study was carried out over a relatively short period of time, and furthermore, the learners involved had very limited opportunities to use English during this time (as most reported they did not speak in English outside of the discussion class), which could have impacted the learners' abilities to make clear developments in their speaking abilities. To learn more about how task repetition can influence learners' interlanguage, it is desirable for more longitudinal studies to be conducted in order to learn more about how this variable can affect speech development.

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L1 in the Classroom: Does It Have a Role?

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A long-running controversy has surrounded the topic of what role L1 can take in the EFL classroom and the extent to which it should be avoided or used. What part, if any, can L1 play in helping learners to acquire English in a foreign language situation? This paper focused on a review of research on the topic, and examined the implications of that research for the classroom. The preponderance of present thinking is that an appropriate use of L1 can prove beneficial in helping students to improve their understanding of the TL. This paper will argue that the practice of excluding the use of L1 is unsupported by research and explore ways to use L1 in the EFL classroom.

EFLクラスルームにおけるL1の使用が如何なる役割を成し得るか、如何にL1を使用すべきか避けるべきかという議論は、長期に渡り続けられている。L1に役割があるとしたら、外国語シチュエーションで英語習得する学習者の支援において、如何なる役割を果たすか？　本レポートは、このトピックのリサーチの再考察に焦点を置き、そのリサーチのクラスルームに対する影響を分析した。現在の考えで優勢なのは、L1の適切な使用は学生のTL理解を向上させる支援として有益だというものである。本レポートは、L1使用の除外がリサーチで支持されていないことを主張し、EFLクラスルームにおけるL1の使用方法を探求する。

One enduring area of debate in the field of foreign language teaching is what role a learner's native language (L1) can play in the classroom. Whether or not the exclusion of students' L1 can lead to effective language learning deserves careful consideration in light of the existing literature on the matter. Indeed, much research suggests that the occasional use of students' L1 may create a more effective and welcoming classroom while knowledge of the student's native language can be an asset for students and teachers alike. Although the question of L1 in SLA has received enough attention to not be considered a particularly new or unusual issue, the issue still raises controversy and causes friction.

Freeborn, P., & Gondree, E. (2017). L1 in the classroom: Does it have a role? In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 87-92). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

The Argument for Exclusion of L1

Several theoretical objections have been raised to the use of students' L1 in foreign language teaching. Many of these theories developed in the context of an inclination to distance language-teaching from the Grammar-Translation method which relied too heavily on L1 and failed to teach language for communication (G. Cook, 2001). Consequently, many teaching methodologies from the twentieth century regard L1 as counterproductive. One of the most influential teaching theories is the Comprehensible Input theory, in which language acquisition is driven by exposure to understandable TL while L1 is irrelevant (Krashen, 1982). Other prominent teaching methodologies such as the Direct Method (Harbord, 1992) and the Communicative Approach Method (Pennycook, 1994) saw L1 as a source of interference or error-generation. The use of L1 has therefore been discouraged in many modern paradigms of language teaching.

Many arguments favoring the TL-only position rely on studies which support the idea of a rich use of TL during language instruction and show direct, positive correlations between the amount of input and learner achievement (Larsen-Freeman, 1985; Lightbown, 1991). The use of L1 seemingly deprives students of opportunities to experience as much of the TL as possible (Ellis, 1984). Some EFL teaching contexts mean that students have limited opportunities to practice outside of class so finite class time should maximize their exposure (Burden, 2000). In such situations, the teacher may be the main, or the only, source of TL so it is reasonable to wish to use as much TL as possible (Turnbull, 2001). Although these arguments caution that TL should be used to the greatest possible extent in class, they do not argue for outright L1-exclusion.

For certain stakeholders in a school, a policy of L1-only teaching may seem intuitively attractive (Thornbury, 2006) so that an English-only environment may be a marketing point or an expectation among students and parents (Yphantides, 2009). Additionally, policies favoring English-only teaching may be a fixture of national curricula. For instance, Japan's most recent MEXT EFL curriculum states English should be the language of English instruction (Tahara, 2012). Despite these arguments, evidence supporting the efficacy of L1-exclusion in SLA is limited.

The Argument Against Exclusion of L1 in the EFL Classroom

Rules excluding a student's L1 may raise difficult issues of power, authority and cultural insensitivity in the classroom (Auerbach, 1993). Some researchers suggest that policies to exclude L1 mainly serve the interests of native-speaking English teachers (Raschka, Sercombe, & Chi-ling, 2009) and global publishers of educational materials (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1999). Because of these concerns, L1-exclusion practices deserve careful consideration. In contrast, perhaps the greatest point in favor of L1 in the classroom is that teachers and students both perceive value in teachers who have knowledge of the languages of their students (Burden, 2000; Norman, 2008; Schweers, 1999; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003) and having a knowledge of students' L1 can help teachers understand the appropriate ways to use it (Lardiere, 2012). The argument against L1-avoidance rests upon four practical points: reducing students' affective filters, reinforcing student understanding, enhancing classroom management and alleviating difficulties inherent in forbidding students' L1.

First, the use of learners' L1 may lower students' affective filters by reducing anxiety, stress and embarrassment which can result from being unable to communicate before one's peers (Brown, 2000; Meyer, 2008; Nation, 2003). Some scholars suggest that a judicious and occasional use of L1 in teaching can help to build rapport, improve cooperation and convey teacher respect for students' identities (Brown, 2000; Hopkins, 1998, von Dietz & von Dietz, 2007). An ability to communicate in students' L1 can also demonstrate empathy, evince a teacher's willingness to learn new languages, create levity and boost class morale (Barker, 2003; Ford, 2009; Schweers, 1999).

Second, the impact of L1 on SLA is readily evident, such as the extent to which students use their native grammar to construct the grammar of a new language, in addition to using it as their basis of understanding equivalencies in new grammatical structures (Lardiere, 2012). L1 provides the basis for "noticing," in which learners analyze comparisons between their current knowledge and the target language (Ferrer, 2005; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). L1 also appears in language-learning through code-switching, "a natural and purposeful phenomenon which facilitates both communication and learning" (Eldridge, 1996, p 310). Finally, L1 may be the most helpful means to explain TL idioms (Rodriguez & Winnberg, 2013) and foreign cultural contexts (von Dietze & von Dietze, 2007) which can add depth to learning.

Third, L1 serves a pragmatic function by aiding classroom management. It can be used to provide students with feedback on their performance in class and address students' requests for clarification (Shimizu, 2006). L1 can assist in discussing classroom goals (Ellis, 1984) and explaining teaching methodologies (Holthouse, 2006; Meyer, 2008). L1 can also be used to help to guide in-class tasks, handle discipline and provide instructions for testing and assessment (V. Cook, 2001). Due to its role in classroom management, L1 can help teachers increase the amount of time devoted to English because students can more quickly understand assignments, instructions and methods.

Finally, a classroom policy forbidding the use of students' L1 can create a number of problems in both implementation and unanticipated outcomes. The difficulties and conflicts created by enforcement of L1-exclusion is a recurring theme in the experiences of individuals who have attempted to do so (Atkinson, 1987; Butzkamm, 2008; Ford, 2009; Hall & Cook, 2013; Harmer, 2001; Hawkins, 2015; Holthouse, 2006; Raschka et al., 2009; Shimizu, 2006; Yphantides, 2009). A number of researchers have remarked that despite all attempts to ban L1, it will still be present in bilingual dictionaries (Kelleher, 2013), note-taking (Koren, 1997) and as a fixed feature in students' cognition (V. Cook, 1999). The reality is that L1 will persist in the classroom regardless of what rules are in place to discourage it and that a more comfortable and humane language classroom will view L1 as a resource which can be managed productively. To disallow L1 is to deny students a tool for learning.

Principled Inclusion of L1

A case can be made that a carefully selective use of L1 in the classroom is an appropriate supplement to teaching. Naturally, the use of L1 in SLA should be limited and relevant to the teaching situation but the question of when and how requires further research and opinions on the matter differ. For instance, an early proponent of using native language for SLA, Atkinson (1987) suggested that L1 be relatively constrained and used in accuracy-oriented tasks, such as showing misleading differences in meaning between two languages. In contrast, Butzkamm (2003) argues that L1 can be appropriate in a broader range of situations. Carson and Kashihara (2012) recommend that students participate in creating guidelines for L1 so they can feel that their preferences will be respected. Additionally, use of students' L1 should ideally be purposeful and aligned with the learning objectives of the class while not being overused (Ellis, 1984; Nation, 2003).

How much and when to use L1 appropriately may depend upon a variety of factors. A key consideration is the makeup of students in the class. In situations where teachers are working with a class containing students from different L1 backgrounds, L1 use by the teacher would be highly impractical and socially problematic. In EFL contexts where the teacher is working with students who share the same L1, these issues are less of a concern. It is certainly more appropriate to use L1 with younger, lower-level learners because they will be using their native language as the basis to understand a new language (Harmer, 2001) but more advanced learners also seem more capable of transferring pragmatic strategies from L1 (Maeshiba et al., 1996 as cited in Bardovi-Harlig, 2012). Rigbom & Jarvis (2009 as cited in Lardiere, 2012) recommend a strategy of teaching grammar to lower-level learners by focusing on the similarities between L1 and L2 to aid understanding. Carson and Kashihara (2012) argue there is an inverse relationship between student language proficiency and a desire for L1 support with student desire for L1 declining as student ability and confidence increases. This inverse relationship is complicated by the fact that higher-level students may also demand L1 support when using more challenging materials.

Implications for the Classroom

There are many English-teaching activities which can harness students' L1 (Deller & Rinvolucri, 2002). Teachers may employ L1 to use class time more efficiently by quickly defining unfamiliar, low-frequency vocabulary that might require lengthy L2 explanation (Ur, 2011). For instance, through the technique of sandwiching, L1 can be used to confirm student understanding of terms with a low disruption to class flow (Butzkamm, 2008). Sandwiching involves introducing a new word in the TL, glossing it briefly in the students' L1, and then repeating it again in the TL. When the teacher must explain challenging linguistic concepts, new vocabulary, errors or difficult grammar, using students' L1 may also be a time-efficient means of conveying the content (Burden, 2000; V. Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2013).

Students may utilize L1 to more effectively engage in L2 classroom learning. One example is the use of bilingual dictionaries to look up new vocabulary. L1 can be used in activities such as peer discussions, cloze texts, and narration jigsaws (VanderHeijden, 2010). Students' L1 also appears in collaborative and group-work activities, such as situations where students work together to solve a translation problem or brainstorm ideas (Atkinson, 1987; Scott & de la Fuente, 2008). Students may be allowed to use L1 when discussing the meaning of an intensive reading passage and confirm their understanding in pair or small-group discussions. This allows the students to more readily identify differences between the linguistic features of the TL and their L1. Teachers can confirm student understanding in the TL, by asking a student to explain to the class (in the TL) or by doing so themselves. Students also benefit from using L1 while collaborating to prepare group presentations and group projects. Conversely, the use of L1 should be discouraged in activities intended to develop fluency (such as reading graded readers or conversation based speaking activities). In this case, the use of L1, even with the intention of confirming meaning or understanding, detracts from fluency-building. It is also advisable to discourage students from using L1 in situations where they are already capable of saying what they wish to say in the TL.

Conclusion

In conclusion, although a rich use of English should obviously command the major focus of attention in an effective English language classroom, policies trying to accomplish this by forcing exclusion of L1 are not feasible to implement, possibly detrimental and unsupported by research. In contrast, there are multiple reasons to believe there is a positive role for a careful use of learners' L1 in SLA. Although there are many ways a teacher can focus on teaching a TL without resorting to using students' native language, an occasional and reasonable inclusion of L1 can help to boost student understanding, reinforce language acquisition and improve class management. A working knowledge of students' L1 can therefore be seen as an asset in the classroom, a tool to augment teaching effectiveness and a resource to enhance learning outcomes.

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Momentum Towards Foreign Language and Intercultural Development

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How can university foreign language programs integrate language learning and intercultural development? This paper will introduce the Ideal Intercultural Self framework, an innovative framework developed by the authors that allows learners to create, reflect and re-evaluate their own foreign and intercultural development goals. The framework places an emphasis on the process of developing and achieving goals, and it explicitly recognizes that the limited period of study should be used as a way to gain momentum towards intercultural development. To test the framework, a mixed-methods pilot study was carried out at a Japanese university that asked participants to visualize, draw and write their future goals at the beginning of the period of study, then re-evaluate their own goals at the end of the period of study. The framework, the results and implications of the study will be presented in this paper.

大学の外国語教育プログラムではどのように異文化理解を育成することができるだろうか。本稿では、学習者が外国語と異文化間で達成させたい目標を自ら作り、振り返り、そして評価するような理想的な異文化間での自己育成について紹介する。この構想は、学びの成長過程や達成したい目標に焦点をあて、学習者が限られた期間で異文化理解について学ぶ意欲を向上できるかについて調査する。本研究は、データを質的と量的な側面から分析したパイロットスタディである。日本の大学生にテーマに沿って思い描いた事、将来の目標などを学期の最初と最後に書いてもらい自己評価をした資料を分析している。本稿では、主に研究で活用したフレームワーク、研究結果や関連事項を述べている。

The Ideal Intercultural Self framework (IIS framework) is a motivational classroom approach developed by the authors to essentially allow learners to create their own foreign language (FL) and intercultural development goals, and promote an individual and life-long attitude to development. To test if the IIS framework can allow learners to develop certain aspects of intercultural communicative competence (ICC), the authors carried out a one-semester pilot study. The intention of this research is to contribute an innovate approach of integrating FL and intercultural development for Japanese FL education

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The Key Theories Influencing the IIS Framework

Crucial to the development of the IIS framework has been the perspective that learners are multifaceted and dynamic individuals with personal FL and intercultural development goals. Three main areas have encouraged this view; ICC and the intercultural speaker; a complex sense of self; and the L2 Motivational Self System. The notion of ICC, a set of cognitive, affective and behavioral skills that support effective and appropriate intercultural interaction (Bennet, 2015), informs the IIS framework on what factors need to be developed for intercultural interactions. In addition, the concept of intercultural speaker (i.e. Byram, 1997) further advises the IIS framework on the mindset needed for successful intercultural interactions. The intercultural speaker has "…a willingness to relativize one's own values, beliefs and behaviors, not to assume that they are the only possible and naturally correct one, and to be able to see how they might look from the perspective of an outsider who has a different set of values, beliefs and behaviors" (Byram, Nichols, & Stevens, 2001. p.5). Also, Byram (1997) maintains that one becomes an intercultural speaker from meaningful classroom instruction, life experiences, or knowledge gained outside of the classroom. Furthermore, the IIS framework is influenced by certain ICC theories that approach learners as individuals, acknowledge the significance of affective factors and place an emphasis on a life-long process of development where no peak can be reached (i.e., Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2006, 2011; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013).

The IIS framework also considers learners as multifaceted and dynamic individuals. This derives from their own set of self-perceptions that are dependent on context, co-constructed from interactions and influenced from their own unique life experiences (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). Moreover, an individual's affective and behavioral factors are seen as the driving factors that allow learning and development (Williams, Mercer, & Ryan, 2015). Motivation is one of these vital factors and it plays a large role in building up and maintaining the momentum towards reaching goals. Therefore, the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009), a concept recognized for L2 learners to create and maintain goals, is further evolved to included the (inter)cultural dimension and inform a motivational classroom approach for the IIS framework.

The Ideal Intercultural Self Framework

The IIS framework informs a two-semester syllabus that integrates FL and intercultural development. The main purpose of the framework is for learners to create momentum and reach their own goals *after* the period of study. The name "Ideal Intercultural Self" comes from combining the concepts of intercultural speaker (Byram, 1997) and the Ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2009). In addition, the authors define IIS as an individual's future vision of personal goals and hopes related to becoming an intercultural speaker. As ICC development is viewed as a life-long endeavor, the Ideal Intercultural Self is a state that is continually reviewed and re-evaluated. This places a focus on understanding and valuing the process of becoming, over achieving the final product. Dörnyei's (2009) concepts of Ought-to L2 Self and Ideal L2 Self are also used in the IIS framework, but Dörnyei's notion of L2 Learning Experience is extended to consider the individual's previous experiences (inside and outside of the classroom) and the local, national and global socio-cultural factors that have influenced their individuality. The structure of the IIS framework (Table 1) is based on Dörnyei and Hadfield's (2013) six-component motivational programme.

The classroom approaches, methods and outcomes of the IIS framework have been influenced by a constructivist approach to teaching and humanistic psychology. These approaches view learners as individuals who make their own reality and therefore require learning to be personalized (i.e. Williams et al., 2015). In addition, Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of ICC (hereafter known as PM) is used to separate internal and external outcomes and it provides a comprehensive method towards the choice of syllabus content of each semester. The first semester focuses on the individual aspects of the PM (i.e. required attitudes, openness and curiosity) and learners creating and re-evaluating their IIS. The second semester centers on the interaction components of the PM (i.e. ethnorelative view, empathy and effective communication). Learners gradually learn the responsibilities and obligations towards obtaining their IIS and develop a roadmap to achieve it. Also, revisiting earlier steps is encouraged as this allows further reflection and re-evaluation.

Methods

In this ongoing pilot study, a case study design was carried out at a Japanese university where one of the authors of this paper works at. An elective English content-based class (sixteen 90-minute sessions)

Table 1
The Ideal Intercultural Self Framework

Key strategy		Classroom approach & methods	Internal outcomes	External outcomes
1. Create the vision 2. Revisit the vision	Semester 1	Learners visualize their IIS, then gradually reflect and revisit their own IIS during the semester. The syllabus raises awareness and knowledge on the individual aspects of ICC (Deardorff, 2006).	Learners develop an understanding of individuality. They also acquire and evolve the right attitudes to develop their own IIS.	Learners understand that the development, or lack of, internal outcomes have a fundamental effect on their external outcomes.
3. Verify the vision 4. Keep the vision alive 5. Self - evaluate the vision	Semester 2	Learners become aware of the challenges and responsibilities of attaining their IIS. The syllabus focuses on fostering sustainability, flexibility, adaptability and an understanding of the interaction aspects of ICC (Deardorff, 2006).	Learners create a roadmap for achieving their IIS after the course has finished. They are able to evaluate self in relation to others.	Learners have a better understanding of how to communicate effectively within intercultural situations.

was chosen, as all of the students were planning to study abroad in the following school year. The group consisted of seven participants (four female and three male) who were second grade economics undergraduates. Furthermore, their most recent TOEIC scores ranged between 635 and 450 (average 542). Data was collected at the start and end of the first semester and the hope was that the intervention would show participants to develop a certain level of ICC.

Syllabus

The textbook "*Identity*" (Shaules, Tsujioka & Iida, 2004) was used as a basis for the syllabus. Topics included identity, values, culture shock and culture in language. Also, extra content was created to develop awareness of motivation, individuality, the interdependent relationship of classroom and independent learning. A variety of learner-centered pedagogy (i.e. discussions, multimedia, experiential activities) was used to satisfy a wider range of learning preferences. In addition, course evaluation involved class participation, homework and a weekly self-reflective journal.

Data Collection Instruments

Deardorff (2011) suggests a mixed-methods approach to understand the complex and dynamic nature of intercultural development. The data collection was inspired by visual and narrative methods (i.e., Dörnyei & Hadfield, 2013; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014) and quantitized for further analysis. Dörnyei (2007) maintains that data transformation, or quantitizing data, allows certain salient qualitative themes to be numerically represented. Participants were asked to visualize, write and draw their first Ideal Intercultural Self in the second class of the semester (before receiving instruction), then revise and re-evaluate their IIS in the fifteenth class. All participants used an ipad mini and the Notability application to do this. Notability is an application that allows users to freely draw, write or insert media (photos and internet images). At the time of the study it was free to download from the Japanese iTunes application store. All participants emailed their first and second IIS as a pdf to the main instructor. In both instances, the technique of visualization (Dörnyei & Hadfield, 2013) was used for participants to imagine their own future IIS.

The hypothesis was that the second pdfs would show a certain ICC development, therefore demonstrating an initial build-up of momentum. In addition, to understand their second IIS pdfs better and to support their claims, all participants were asked to write about their development and elaborate on their words and images. The participants were explicitly told that these research tasks would not contribute towards course evaluation. For quantitative analysis of the pdfs, a five-point rubric scale (see appendix) was designed by using the individual traits of the PM.

Results

All participants produced first and second IIS pdfs and were checked independently by each researcher (see Table 2 and 3). Researcher 1 was the instructor and Researcher 2 had no prior contact. If no evidence of a particular category was found, the lowest score (1) was awarded. Also, the average scores of the first and second pdfs were calculated to prove the reliability of this study. A Pearson's correlation test was carried out using SPSS. The inter-rater correlation (r = 0.91, p = .000) showed a similar evaluation from both researchers, this suggested reliability and that Researcher 1's familiarity with the participants did not cause bias. Also, a one-tailed paired sample t-test was conducted to evaluate if the post-test mean (M = 2.80, SD = .86) was higher than the pre-test mean (M = 2.21, SD = .75). This also indicated a positive result, t = 5.39, $d.f$ = 7, p < .01. These results suggest that the intervention allowed most participants to develop the individual traits associated with the Process Model.

Analyzing the Participants Data

The participants expressed their IIS pdfs with a variety of personal photos, images, drawings and writing. The low scores in Table 2 and 3 indicate pdfs with future visions and goals that were too superficially explained, or participants with a lack of ICC. This was more

Table 2

Researcher 1's Evaluation

	Required Attitiudes						Knowledge and Comprehension				Desired internal and external outcomes					
	Respect		Openness		Curiosity and Discovery		Cultural self-awareness		Knowledge of cultural worldview frameworks		Empathy		Flexibility		Average	
	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last
Participant A	4	5	4	4	4	5	3	3	1	2	2	4	3	4	3.0	4.0
Participant C	2	3	3	3	3	4	1	4	1	2	1	2	1	2	1.7	2.7
Participant K	1	2	1	3	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1.0	2.0
Participant M	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	1.4	1.4
Participant S	2	4	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2.3	2.6
Participant T	2	3	3	5	2	4	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	1.9	3.0
Participant Y	5	5	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	2	4	4	4	4	3.6	3.7

Table 3

Researcher 2's Evaluation

	Required Attitiudes						Knowledge and Comprehension				Desired internal and external outcomes					
	Respect		Openness		Curiosity and Discovery		Cultural self-awareness		Knowledge of cultural worldview frameworks		Empathy		Flexibility		Average	
	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last
Participant A	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	4	1	3	3	4	3	4	3.1	4.0
Participant C	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	2	2	3	2	2	2.1	2.6
Participant K	3	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	2	2.1	2.1
Participant M	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1.1	1.7
Participant S	2	4	3	3	3	3	2	3	1	2	2	2	2	2	2.1	2.6
Participant T	2	3	3	5	3	5	3	4	1	2	2	2	2	2	2.3	3.1
Participant Y	5	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	3	3	3	3	4	3.1	3.7

indicative of the first pdf results, as most of the second pdfs demonstrated a deeper explanation of future visions and indicated a relative development of ICC. Also, the participants' writings verified a development of the individual traits of the PM (i.e. curiosity and open-mindedness). However, the second pdfs showed a lack of awareness about how participants relate to cultural worldview frameworks (i.e. history, others values and beliefs). Due to constraints of space, the participants' writings cannot be shown and the results section will focus on participant A's pdfs. Participant A showed the most improvement and produced a rich amount of data.

For Participant A's first pdf (Figure 1), both researchers awarded the same score for all categories, except Empathy. Both researchers agreed that the

Figure 1. Participant A's First IIS Pdf.

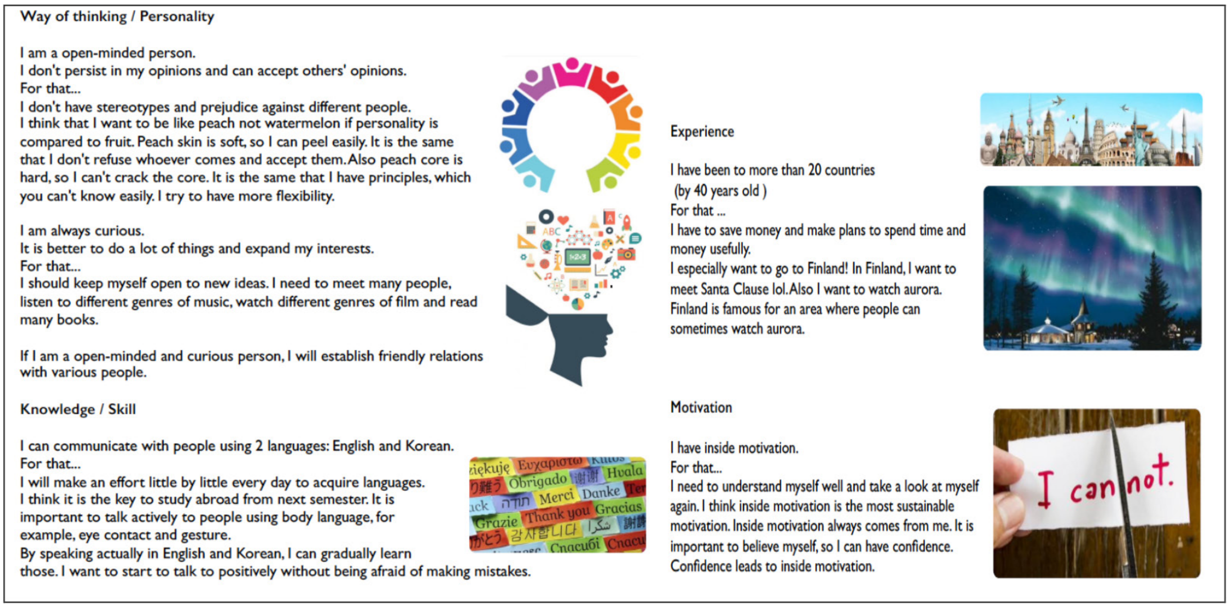

Figure 2. Participant A's Second IIS Pdf.

degree of critical writing and self-reflective style demonstrated a certain amount of ICC associated to the individual traits of the PM (i.e. openness, respect and curiosity). However, the researchers also concurred that the participant showed a lack of deep understanding on how to achieve their own goals. Moreover, the scores awarded by both researchers for Participant A's second pdf (Figure 2) revealed a relative development of ICC and a more complex understanding of how to achieve their IIS. The words and images demonstrate a greater development of (cultural) self-awareness, respect, curiosity and discovery. Also, re-evaluation of their IIS has caused Participant A to have new attitudes towards foreign languages and value the need to develop their own "inside motivation". Lastly, their end of semester writings supported this as more evidence was given regarding how the course had positively developed their attitudes towards learning English and intercultural communication.

Conclusion

The analysis of the results suggest that the intervention allowed most participants to develop a relative amount of ICC, indicating that the IIS framework has allowed them to build up their momentum towards future development. As the structure of the IIS framework was influenced by the individual components of Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of ICC, participants developed an awareness and importance of these components i.e. attitudes related to respect, curiosity and open-mindedness. In addition, using the pdfs to visually represent goals to become the Ideal Intercultural Self was useful to most participants. Most participants stated that the pdfs helped to document development and re-evaluate goals. The authors also remarked that the pdfs allowed a better understanding of individuality and individual goals. Therefore, the theory, structure and classroom approach of IIS framework seemed to work in this pilot study. However, the authors realize that the results of this pilot study are limited at this stage, due to the small sample size and the on-going nature of this study. Nevertheless, the framework and study have demonstrated an innovative way to comprehend and appreciate the many variables influencing FL and intercultural development. Moreover, the results from this study will allow the IIS framework to be further developed and hopefully, this will promote more innovate and effective classroom approaches for FL and intercultural development.

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Appendix

Required Attitudes	1	2	3	4	5
Respect (valuing cultures, cultural diversity)	No evidence of cultural diversity and little awareness of own culture.	Shows little awareness of cultural diversity and little awareness of own culture.	Shows a surface level understanding of cultural diversity and own culture.	Shows an explicit understanding and, respect or appreciation of cultural diversity and own culture (i.e. gives reasons for respecting cultural diversity).	Shows a deep understanding, appreciation or respect of cultural diversity and own culture (i.e. gives *critical* reasons for respecting cultural diversity).
Openness (to intercultural learning, does not have judgement)	Has an ethnocentric view of intercultural learning (i.e. close-minded, judgemental of other).	Uses stereotypes and/or generalisations of other or other culture to produce a simplistic understanding of intercultural matters.	Shows a potential to become more open-minded towards other. Positive towards intercultural learning.	Open-minded towards other. Also open-minded towards intercultural learning but does not fully understand the values and benefits to self.	Suspends judgement of any stereotypes or generalisations of others who are culturally different.Critical evidence of an ethno relative attitude.
Curiosity and discovery (is willing to learn new things, ok with uncertainty)	Demonstrates a resistive attitude to learning or discovering new things about self or other, related to cultural values, beliefs and customs.	Demonstrates a tentative willingness to learn or discover new things (about self or other). They give a surface level understanding of the values or benefits to self.	Demonstrates a positive willingness to learn or discover new things (about self or other). However, they do not fully understand the values or benefits to self.	Willing to learn and *mostly* understands the benefits and values of learning from other cultural values, beliefs, customs or culturally different situations.	Willing to learn and understands the benefits and values of learning from other cultural values, beliefs, customs or culturally different situations.
Knowledge &Comprehension	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Cultural self-awareness	Does not recognise the influence of culture to their self.	Shows a surface level awareness of own culture, BUT gives no evidence about how it may influence self.	Shows a deeper awareness of various kinds of own culture (i.e. visible and invisible) AND how it may influence self.	Understands how visible and invisible culture influence different aspects of self (i.e. communication styles, ways of thinking, gender roles etc).	Understands how visible and invisible culture influence different aspects of self AND able to see new perspectives and opinions of their own visible and invisible culture.
Knowledge of cultural worldview frameworks	Shows no evidence about how other cultural worldview frameworks relate to and/or influence their self (i.e. world events, world politics, world economics, world history, etc).	Shows a surface awareness of how other cultural worldview frameworks relate to and/or influence their self (i.e. world events, world politics, world economics, world history, etc).	Shows a partial understanding of how other cultural worldview frameworks relate to and/or influence their self (i.e. world events, world politics, world economics, world history, etc).	Shows a better understanding of how other cultural worldview frameworks relate to and/or influence their self (i.e. world events, world politics, world economics, world history, etc).	Shows a complex understanding of how other cultural worldview frameworks relate to and/or influence their self (i.e. world events, world politics, world economics, world history, etc).
Desired internal & external outcomes	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Empathy (internal)	Resistant to understand the world through the eyes (and ways of thinking) of the other.	Willing or potential to see the world through the eyes of other, but shows a simplistic understanding of the other's way of thinking.	Able to understand the world through the eyes (and way of thinking) of the other. Shows evidence that they use own thought processes and worldview to reach conclusions.	Able to understand the world through the eyes (and way of thinking) of the other and their own eyes. Able to use own thought processes and feel what the other thinks too.	Able to understand the world through the eyes (and way of thinking) of the other and their own eyes. Able to use own thought processes and feel what the other thinks too.
Flexibility (internal)	Not willing to adjust or accept other ways	They show evidence or potential to think (cognitive), feel or behave (affective) another way than their cultural norm.	They can think, feel or behave in another way than their cultural norm, but do not fully understand/show their reasons why.	They understand the need to think, feel, or behave in different ways than the cultural norm.	They deeply understand the benefits and values associated with thinking, feeling or behaving in other ways than the cultural norm.

Total Immersion: VR Headsets in Language Learning

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Virtual Reality is about to change the world. Researchers predict that ownership of virtual reality devices will reach 38 million by the end of 2020. This technology will undoubtedly transform our lives, but how might it be positively incorporated into the language classroom? In this paper readers will be introduced to the recently developed Google Cardboard VR headset and how it can be used to develop language learning tasks and materials. The pedagogical benefits and limitations of the technology will also be discussed.

バーチャルリアリティ（VR）は世界を変えようとしています。研究者たちは2020年までに3800万ものVRの装置を人々が所有すると予想しています。この技術は私たちの生活を確実に変えることでしょう。しかし、どのようにして語学のクラスで効果的に利用すれば良いでしょうか。この調査では近年開発されたグーグルカードボードVRヘッドセットを紹介し、どのように語学タスクや教材に発展させることができるかを説明しています。この技術の教育的利益や技術的限界についても述べています。

This paper is relevant to the theme of the 2016 PanSIG conference, "Innovations in Education", for two reasons. Firstly, the Google Cardboard (Google, 2016) virtual reality (VR) headset (henceforth referred to as "Cardboard") discussed in this paper is in the authors' opinion an educational innovation worthy of attention and investigation by EFL practitioners. Secondly, innovation of language learning tasks and materials using the Cardboard was the initial idea behind the proof of concept VR-info-gap-lesson demonstrated in the workshop presented at PanSIG 2016 entitled "Total Immersion: VR Headsets in Language Learning" upon which the paper is based.

The term VR loosely means any kind of computer-generated virtual environment and the hardware used to display it to a user and allow them to manipulate and navigate the environment. This technology, valued for its ability to give a first-person perspective suitable for experiential and constructivist learning, has been used to train fighter pilots (Gigante, 1993), doctors (Seymour et al., 2002), and English language learners (Jung, 2002). At this point, it is important to distinguish between immersive and non-immersive VR (Chen, 2009). Immersive VR uses hardware such a headset that covers a user's eyes to fill their entire field of vision with a virtual environment and create a stereoscopic 3D effect. Other hardware may include gloves that allow the user to interact with the virtual environment by picking up objects. In contrast, non-immersive VR could be something as simple as a desktop PC; the monitor displays the 3D environment and the mouse and keyboard allow the user to interact with it. Both of these types of VR have been used in English language training, with non-immersive VR such as the 3D multiuser virtual environment (MUVE) Second Life being the more common (Peterson, 2012). Immersive VR, such as the use of the cave automatic virtual environment (CAVE) to allow learners to shop and interact with other shoppers in a virtual Wal-Mart has up until this point not been widely adopted by educational

Hastings, C., & Brunotte, J. (2017). Total immersion: VR headsets in language learning. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 101-110). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

institutions (Jung, 2002), because as Schwienhorst (2002) states, "high-end technology remained too expensive, too cumbersome, or too unreliable" (p. 222). Now, Cardboard may be set to change that by offering an immersive VR experience that is portable, affordable and accessible. In fact, the Cardboard is already being used in K12 institutions for general educational purposes (Yap, 2016). In addition, we are aware of anecdotal use of Cardboard in private language schools in Japan.

In this paper the authors aim to introduce Cardboard to EFL teachers by describing: recent CALL developments, advantages of using Cardboard, applications in a lesson, considerations for material development, and overall benefits and limitations of the technology.

Recent Developments

Recent innovations in the hardware and software components of virtual reality have made using this technology in the average classroom now possible. Leading this effort toward low-cost VR hardware is Google, whose recent creation of Cardboard has allowed for the most accessible virtual reality experience to date. Cardboard is priced at ten dollars in the US (around one-thousand yen when sold in Japan), and as the name implies, is created from actual cardboard, along with two lenses and an input mechanism. Cardboard is used in conjunction with smartphones, allowing mobile devices to supply the software required. The smartphone screen divides into two side-by-side images, resolving into one when viewed through the Cardboard lenses, which allows for three-dimensional pictures and video to be possible as well (Pierce, 2016). Interacting with software is done through the use of a push button (which taps the phone's screen) or a magnetic slider on the side of the headset.

If an instructor wishes to use virtual reality in the classroom, both the hardware and software components need to be readily available. With the low cost of Cardboard, supplying a class with headsets is now feasible in many situations, but because of the need for smartphones to run the software for each unit, students will be required to provide the bulk of these devices. But how ubiquitous is smartphone ownership in Japan? According to the Hakuhodo DY Group (2014), over 88% of respondents in Japan aged 15 to 19 reported carrying a smartphone. It could be argued that this is a high enough threshold for the use of VR technology in many Japanese classrooms.

But which of all the applications available for Cardboard and other headsets is most immediately useful for the language classroom? Although applications have to be chosen carefully to fit the criteria for a particular lesson, Google Street View is free-to-use software that lends itself well to the tasks we will describe in this paper. Street View is a component of Google's global mapping effort, and features street-level views of cities around the world. VR support has been added since the introduction of Cardboard for many smartphone systems, and by using the input component of the headset, students can move through the panoramic pictures as if physically moving through a space (Lopez, 2015). Many indoor locations such as museums and other spaces are now also available through Street View, which also lend themselves to various activities in the language classroom.

Advantages of this Technology

Researchers who have studied the intersection of task-based language teaching and computer-assisted language learning principles have argued that the "advent of technology is pushing researchers to broaden their conceptualization of tasks" (Lai & Li, 2011, p. 9). The question should therefore be addressed as to what aspects of virtual reality can provide real benefits to language pedagogy, and specifically what advantages Cardboard and Street View may hold.

Access to Real Locations

Although current language textbooks may use information from real locations for navigation tasks, many of these are in the form of two-dimensional maps. One advantage of Street View is that students experience these locations from the perspective of a person occupying that actual space, adding an important element of realism. This is beneficial from a pragmatics standpoint in that navigating through that space is simulating movement (and corresponding language use) in an authentic setting. Since one goal of many instructional techniques (e.g. CLT, TBLT) is modeling real-world language use, the first-person perspective this technology provides is helpful for creating a realistic experience for the student (Hood, Elwood, & Falout, 2009).

The Immersive Nature of VR

The benefits derived from students becoming immersed in a VR experience are richer than just simply the novel nature of this technology. The excitement may help motivate students to engage in a task, and additionally, the fact that visual input is coming solely from the VR device means fewer distractions exist that cause students to get off task. Whether this focus encourages increased levels of interaction and output is an area in need of further exploration.

Preparation for Study Abroad

Another advantage exists when working with students preparing to study abroad. One use for Cardboard can be preparing these students for the locations they are about to experience, virtually placing them in the spaces in which they will soon physically reside. Using Street View to walk around a study-abroad campus can help them prepare not only psychologically, but practically as well. Using this technology to find important buildings, or even to practice navigating the area around a homestay family's residence has pragmatic benefits, and could possibly reduce levels of anxiety these students experience. One student stated to the authors following these types of preparation activities that, "Being able to actually [virtually] walk around there helped me feel less nervous."

Developing Materials for Cardboard

The idea behind the workshop came from an experiment in imagining how Cardboard might be used in a face-to-face communicative language task. This was challenging, as VR user interaction is commonly non-verbal human-computer or human-human interaction at a distance. Inspiration came from the VR game "Keep Talking and Nobody Explodes" (n.d.). In this game, one player wearing a VR headset tries to defuse a bomb while communicating with another player not wearing a VR headset who is reading from a bomb defusal manual in the same room. Readers may recognize the description of the game as a gamified information-gap task.

It soon became clear that Cardboard and Street View would be appropriate tools to innovate an information-gap task, such as the kind used to practice language associated with directions. That is to say, instead of using two maps with small differences to create the information gap, one learner would use Cardboard and try to find their way to a destination while being guided by another learner using a 2D map. The information gap created by the headset and 2D map allows for meaningful oral production and practice of language relating to giving directions. There is also a significant "wow" factor experienced by the user of the headset, which ideally would lead to greater task engagement and production of target language. However, considerations such as giving learner pre-tasks and scaffolding language were included in an attempt to move beyond the "wow" factor and meaningfully integrate the technology into a pedagogically informed lesson (Murray & Barnes, 2009).

Appropriate Task Type

When designing tasks for VR, it is important to consider the differing experiences of students using a headset and those who are not. If paired in this way (one headset user, one or multiple students using other materials), the input students receive can be markedly different. Until this point, information gap tasks have relied on differences in visual and other types of materials to allow students to "engage in functional, meaning-focused second language (L2) use and gain access to input for learning" (Pica, Kang, & Sauro, 2006, p. 302). With the introduction of a VR headset into this task type, a physical barrier is now placed between what each student sees, further separating the types of input each student can access. We can now go beyond simply asking students to "restore portions of incomplete maps and charts" (Pica, et al., 2006, p. 302). The first-person perspective information available within Street View and the information accessible to a student viewing a 2D map can be differentiated in such a way that each participant has to interact with the other to complete a navigation task. There is an added benefit that the headset user cannot glimpse over to materials used by the partner due to the visual separation provided by the VR experience, helping to further widen the "gap" necessary for this type of task.

Tasks Within the Lesson

To develop and extend the proof of concept information-gap task, it was decided that it was necessary to situate the task within the context of a lesson (see Appendix). This would allow the language necessary (describing buildings for initial orientation, giving directions and clarifying directions) for the final communicative information-gap task using Cardboard to be introduced to learners through other pre-tasks that build on each other. It also serves the dual purpose of familiarizing learners with the real-world locations (e.g. the streets of London) they would experience seeing with Cardboard and the appearance of the 2D Google maps used to guide the headset user. The lesson was designed for a 90-minute university class with 1st and 2nd-year English language majors in mind (specifically false beginners).

The lesson was entitled 'Lost in the City' and aimed to introduce and practice several functions of language related to giving and following directions on the telephone (the headset would simulate this). These functions were chosen as they would be necessary to complete the final information-gap task using the Cardboard and are common language functions, which are often taught in English language learning textbooks. The lesson was comprised of four tasks, including the final communicative information-gap task that made use of Cardboard. The three tasks that lead up to the final task repeatedly required learners to use the language necessary for the final task, as well as introduced the three discrete functions. To complete the tasks, learners were required to use a variety of receptive and productive skills in order to maximize retention of the target language.

Considerations for Material Development

When designing materials for virtual navigation tasks, the authors ran into several obstacles. For example, when designing maps students use to guide VR headset-using partners through a space, it is helpful to narrow down the area to a small sub-section within a city. The reason a large map may be unsuitable is that the amount of detail necessary to guide a partner using Street View is rather extensive – street names, landmarks, and other information must be incorporated into the 2D map. Too large an area, or too small a level of detail will leave the student providing direction unable to properly guide their VR-using partner, or confuse the student as to where his or her partner currently is within the map. Further complicating this issue is the fact that due to low-fidelity images found within Street View, many street names and other signage are illegible for those viewing the VR image.

Discussion

There are various possible applications for Cardboard in the language classroom: as an engaging way to introduce content to prime learners for discussion activities, as a tool to use in language learning tasks, and as a way to reduce anxiety pre-departure to studying abroad. Moreover, all those applications can be achieved with just Street View. As more software is developed for Cardboard, the diversity of English learning applications will increase. Some researchers (Maftoon & Taie, 2016) even predict that in the future, whole language learning curriculums will be VR-based.

The exciting, immersive, and affective qualities of the medium are what make it so suitable for education. Our learners' responses to the technology so far have been overwhelmingly positive. Here are some selected comments from the authors' ongoing research:

"When I looked at the city, I suddenly felt I was there. It was good to experience the atmosphere."

"It was fun!"

"Walking around virtually made me feel less nervous [about studying abroad]."

However, the technology is not without its drawbacks and limitations, which teachers must also be aware of in order to best apply Cardboard to the classroom.

Further Considerations

Several students we have worked with reported feelings of queasiness or motion sickness when using Cardboard, so a negative physical reaction by some may be expected. In a survey we administered following a series of these VR headset activities over several weeks, one student said, "When I put on Cardboard I got a little dizzy and even felt a bit sick, so using it for a long time might be difficult."

The fragility of these low-cost headsets should also be mentioned. Perhaps as a result of the materials used in production, the lifespan of a single headset is not long. Cardboard is easily broken, and having to purchase new headsets regularly may become a financial burden.

Another consideration in terms of monetary issues is the necessity of students providing smartphones for use in these headsets (a Bring Your Own Device policy). Although we state findings that around 88% of Japanese students carry these devices, that also implies over one in ten students does not. How to accommodate these students is an important factor in this type of lesson planning.

A final consideration is sudden changes in functionality within an application. A recent update to Google Street View on Apple devices has inadvertently made it impossible to move within the maps using some headsets. Errors in software or updates may make activities suddenly impossible to implement, so care should be taken to retest hardware and software compatibility often.

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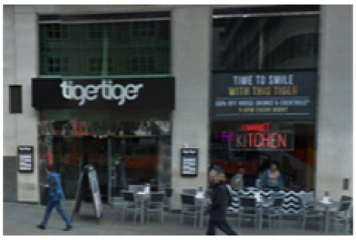
Appendix

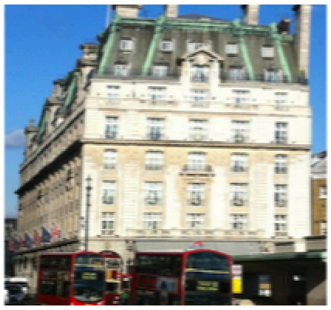
Lost in the City

Goals – Giving, following and clarifying directions on the telephone.

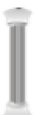
Where are you now?

Look at the pictures and read the sentences below. Where is each person standing? Write the sentence number next to the corresponding picture.

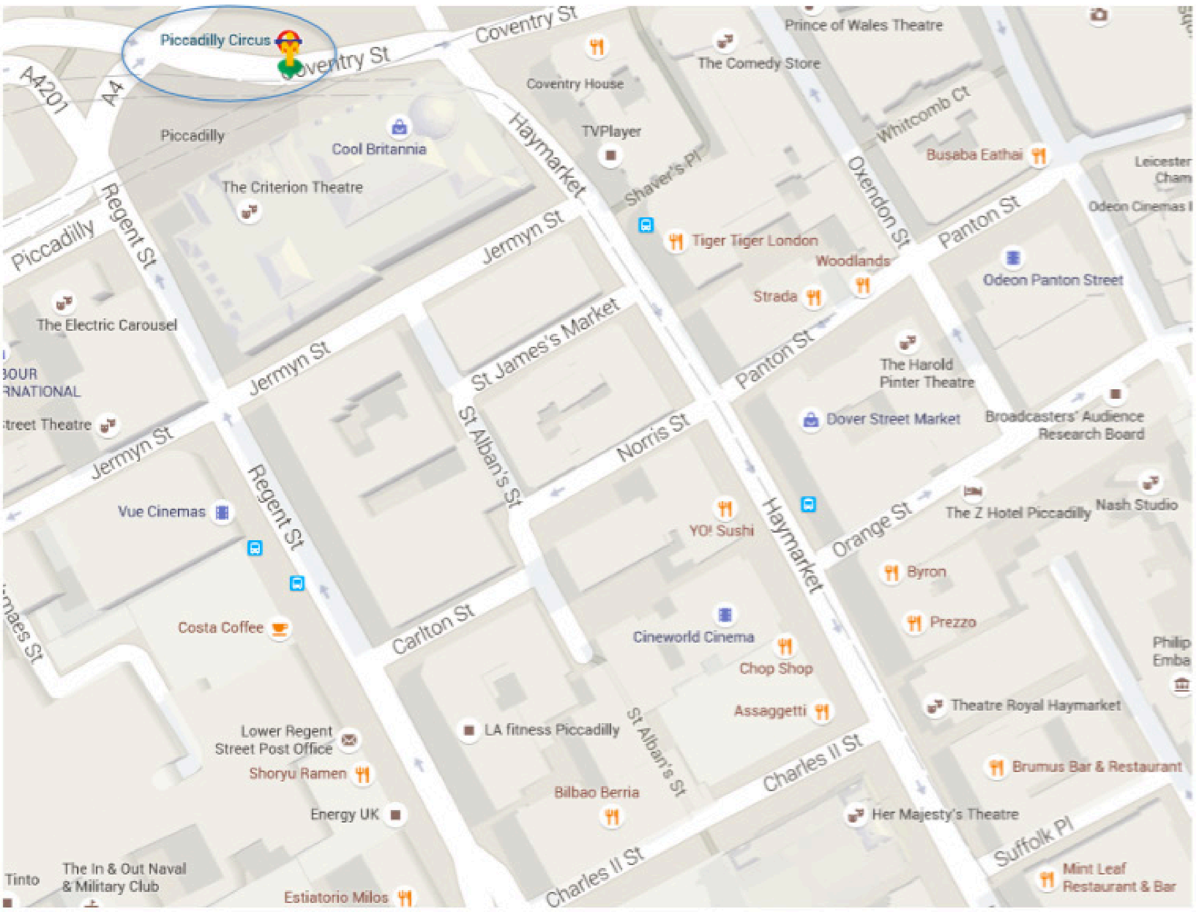




1. I think I'm standing outside of a department store. The front of the store is painted light green and there is also a big clock on the side of the building.
2. I'm outside a sandy-coloured stone building, maybe a museum or a gallery? It has large columns* and a dome*.
3. I'm standing near a tall square stone building. It might be a hotel. It's got lots of windows and floors.
4. I think I'm outside a restaurant. It has a big red sign and the front of the building is covered in red tiles.
5. I guess I'm standing in front of a theatre. It has really big white columns and the lettering on the building is in gold.
6. Where am I? Hmm…I think I'm outside a bar…maybe a restaurant? It looks modern and has a patio with chairs outside on the street.

 **= *Column**  **= *Dome**

Look at the map below and read the directions. Starting at Piccadilly Circus subway station, where do the people end up?

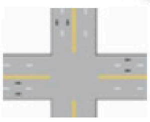


With your back to the station, you want to **go left down** Coventry Street, and then **turn right down** Haymarket. **Keep going straight**, you'll **go over a four-way-intersection***, ____________ should be **on your right, opposite** a bus stop.

Leave the station and turn right, walk down Coventry Street and take the first left. Follow this road straight onto Regent Street. Keep going straight down Regent Street. You should pass a Costa Coffee if you are going in the right direction. ____________ should be on your left, opposite Shoryu Ramen.

With your back to the station, you want to go left down Coventry Street, and then turn right down Haymarket. You should pass Tiger Tiger on your left if you are going the right way. At the first four-way-intersection you come to, turn left down Panton Street. Go straight, ____________ should be on your left just past Strada.

Leave the station and turn right, walk down Coventry Street and take the first left. Follow this road straight onto Regent Street. Go straight down Regent Street. When you come to a four-way-intersection go straight, ____________ should be on your right next to a bus stop.

 = ***Four-way-intersection**

I think I'm lost…

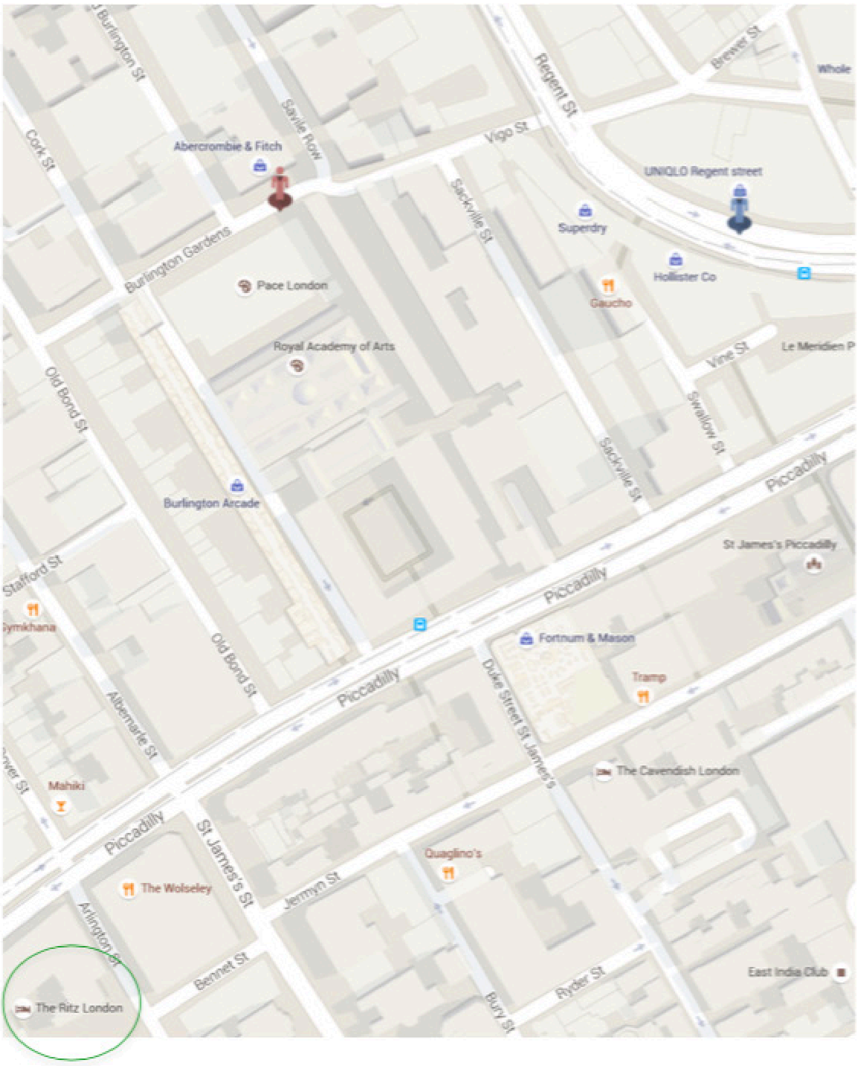
Look at the map below and read the completed example dialogue. Now complete the other dialogue and help guide the lost person to The Ritz.

A: **I think I'm lost. I haven't seen** Fortum & Mason **on my left like you said.** Now I'm outside an Abercrombie & Fitch store.

B: **OK, don't worry! What can you see around you? Do you know what street you are on?**

A: **I think I'm on** Burlington Gardens and **I can see** an art gallery **across the street.**

B: **Ah, I know where you are.** With your back to Abercrombie & Fitch go right down Burlington Gardens, and then take your first left down Old Bond Street. Go to the end of Old Bond Street and take a right onto Piccadilly. Go straight down Piccadilly; you should see a restaurant called The Wolseley on your left. Turn left immediately after The Wolseley and go straight. The Ritz should be on your right.



A: I think I'm lost. I haven't seen Fortum & Mason on my left like you said. Now I'm outside a UNIQLO store.

B: OK, don't worry. What can you see around you? Do you know what street you are on?

A: I think I'm on ……………………………………………………………………

B: ……………………………………………………………………………

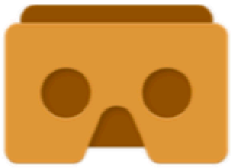
……………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………

Let's Get Immersive!



Now using the map and a Google Cardboard headset, take turns guiding each other to the destinations circled in blue

Student A uses the headset and starts outside Piccadilly Circus subway station. Student B uses the map and guides student A to one of the destinations circled in blue. Use the pictures of landmarks on the map to help guide and orientate.

But before you start, look back at the previous three pages and write down any useful language in the boxes below.

<u>Orientating and Describing</u>

- I'm in front of a…
- I can see…
-
-
-
-

<u>Guiding</u>

- Go straight…
- You should pass a…if you're going in the right direction.
-
-
-
-

<u>Correcting and Clarifying</u>

- I haven't seen…on my…like you said. I think I'm lost.
- Where are you now?
-
-
-
-

Vocabulary Learning Using Music and Digital Devices: Classroom Research at an International School

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Music class has historically been viewed as a less important subject studied in school (Paynter 2002). However, this perspective has to be revised as the recent emphasis of cross curricular teaching with all subjects increases. Concepts that are common to multiple subject areas could be taught numerous times during each separate subject period (Wiggins & Wiggins, 1997). This paper is based on a classroom cross-sectional observational study that describes the innovative combination of Music and Information and Communications Technology (ICT) for vocabulary learning and deeper comprehension. Students demonstrated better understanding of vocabulary comprehension through their musical compositions. With the inclusion of digital devices, the teaching and learning are enhanced for both students and teachers.

音楽の授業はしばしば重要性の低い科目として学校で扱われている (Paynter 2002)。しかし、近年の複数の科目の中に共通する概念を識別することの重要性が強調される中、このような概念は改めなければならない。複数科目に共通する概念は各科目で繰り返し教えることができる(Wiggins & Wiggins, 1997)。本稿は、音楽とデジタル機器を利用した革新的な語彙学習を目的とした教室での断面観察研究に基づいています。生徒たちは音楽のサウンドスケープを通してより深い語彙認知を示しました。デジタル機器を使用することにより、教授することと学習することが生徒と教師の両方にとって強化された。

Music class has historically been viewed as a less important subject studied in school (Paynter, 2002). Paynter (2002), reports: "Time was when we were content to accept music as a relaxation from the rigours of seemingly more demanding subjects. Paynter (2002) further states this reason to study music is not acceptable in today's curriculum. Curriculum approaches are moving away from acquiring knowledge as an education towards an application of knowledge with critical thinking skills while collaborating with others. This paper is not justifying Music in the curriculum but as evidence for its use in a multifaceted approach towards teaching and learning and the openness to use different technologies to facilitate vocabulary learning in students.

The positive effects of cross-curricular teaching and learning are entering education curriculums. Students need to use different methods of thinking to be successful in their endeavours and for substantial learning to occur. (Kerry, 2010). Kerry (2010) remarks that integrated learning styles of each student can be met and the need to make connections in learning can also be made. Teachers and "stakeholders" in Northern Ireland, reported positive effects towards's revised curriculum changes towards cross-curricular teaching (Greenwood, 2013),

Information and Communications Technology (ICT) is a term that refers to all equipment, (computers, mobile phones, tablets etc.) applications

Ho, P. S. (2017). Vocabulary learning using music and digital devices: Classroom research at an international school. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 111-116). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

and services that involve communication. ICT in music education is growing and changing music teaching in classrooms. When ICT is incorporated in student learning, students engagement and motivation increases (Savage, 2007). Andrew Mercer (2008) writes that ICT is well represented in many music education institutions around the world from the U.K., Canada, U.S., and Scotland (Mercer, 2008). Case studies implementing ICT in the Music classroom from pre-school to high school have been published, demonstrating their research findings as positive and well received by students. (Crawford, 2009; Panagiotakou & Pange, 2010; Savage, 2012; Southcott & Crawford, 2011).

Comparatively to Music, ICT has already been used extensively in teaching second language learners. For them, learning vocabulary and being able to use them properly are one of the basic blocks of English sentences (Chen & Chung, 2008). Also, students are expecting ICT to be a part of the learning and have shown positive attitudes towards using them (Ali, Mukundan, Baki, & Ayub, 2012).

A study by Yeh and Wang (2003), investigated the effects of using multimedia devices and addressing different learning styles of students. Their data revealed that most participants benefited from using them and was generally effective in learning new vocabulary (Yeh & Wang, 2003).

In general, there is increased use of ICT in Music education and teaching for multi-language learners. For international schools this has been a growing reality for many teachers. Teachers are strongly encouraged to incorporate ICT into their lessons to be more effective teachers.

The questions that were asked in this research study were, would Music be effective for elementary students in enhancing vocabulary learning. If so, then would there be any difference in demonstrating their learning between using real instruments or digital instruments. The influence that emerges from these answers would change the perception of Music as a subject and also increase the practice of cross-curricular teaching for students.

Participants

Three different classes were used for the purpose of this classroom research. Each class was a Year five class from three different school years. Each class had on average 17 students and was a mix of students of varying English abilities, including some ESL students. For this study, the groups are named 2014, 2015, 2016 respectively.

The Music Specialist teacher for this school and the Year 5 classroom teacher were the educators involved for cross-curricular teaching with the researcher being the Music Specialist teacher.

Activity Description

Outer space was the common topic between the Music and Topic subjects. Recognizing this cross-curricular opportunity, the Music specialist teacher and the Year 5 class teacher worked together to enrich the learning of outer space. In their Year five classrooms, students were learning about planets, Greek mythology, stars, the solar system, astrology etc. The vocabulary in this Topic was generally science based words such as: axis, rotation, observation, investigation, galaxy, white dwarf, etc.

The Music activity was called *Planetary Moods* and is based on Gustav Holst's orchestral suite, *The Planets*. In *The Planets,* each movement was named after a planet and corresponding astrological character. In the activity, students are given a fictional planet with particular characteristics and they are to compose a soundscape that would portray their planet. A soundscape is a combination of sounds that creates the sensation of experiencing a particular environment. These planet characteristics are the vocabulary that is being studied and measured in this paper. The musical objectives were to compose a soundscape and explore the timbre of different instruments. This activity was 20-25 minutes once a week over seven weeks. At the end of the unit, the students perform their compositions for their classmates, teacher and parents.

Materials

The first two groups used real instruments to compose their soundscapes while the last group were given iPads. Most of the instruments used were rhythm sticks, tambourines, hand drums, sand blocks, wrist bells, claves and shakers. Other instruments included xylophones, glockenspiels and hand-bells. The software application *Garageband* was used to compose their soundscapes on the iPads.

Method

Each class was given the same method of instructions and introduction to the activity as follows. In every lesson, students listened to one movement from *The Planets* and then discussed the music as it related to the name of the planet. The names of the planet were also discussed, reinforcing class learning of Greek mythology and astrology. Only in the first lesson when the activity was introduced, students were randomly grouped together and would work in these groups for the entire unit. Then, six fictional planets were assigned randomly to each group.

The planets characteristics are:

1. Calm and peaceful
2. Stormy and wild
3. Hot and fiery
4. Cold and icy
5. Desolate and bleak
6. Eerie and spooky

Performing and working in a group is a key skill for their musical development and also was an approach for each member to understand their planet's characteristics collectively. Students collaborated in their groups to identify sounds to fit their planet characteristics. Students were given flexibility to learn any new vocabulary. They may consult the specialist teacher and/or find images from the Internet. Then, students choose instruments and if necessary, receive assistance from the teacher. Next, students composed and practiced their soundscapes for a performance.

Students using iPads had to learn how to use *Garageband* and how to set up a "Jam Session". A "Jam Session" is a function of *Garageband*, which allows the students to connect with several iPads and record their sounds onto one iPad. . The specialist teacher was also available to assist students using the iPads. From here, they composed and created a soundscape digitally on the iPad. The finished composition was played back for a performance and follow up discussions with the group and individual was made for individual assessment.

Criteria for Vocabulary Understanding

Students were required to understand the words associated with their planet and use good understanding of musical elements. The application of this knowledge through a good soundscape would adequately demonstrate vocabulary understanding and music understanding.

This assessment was a combination of a rubric and formative assessments of the group work (see Table 1). There are three categories of assessment were *emerging, developing* and *mastering*.

Results and Analysis

The researcher analyzed each soundscape in each year group (see Table 2). All of the soundscapes, demonstrated at least a developing level of understanding of the vocabulary words. However, in comparing real instruments and iPad made soundscapes, most of the students using iPads composed a better understanding of the planet characteristics through their final composition. 4 out of six groups using iPads, clearly composed a mastered level soundscape. For the students using real instruments, 5 out of 11 groups performed a developing level soundscape.

There were interesting observations that are important for this study. Firstly, most of the vocabulary to describe the fictional planets would have been learnt for a Year 5 student as compared to the vocabulary learnt in the Topic subject. Therefore, groups with previously learnt vocabulary, real instruments or iPad groups, began their compositions during the first lesson. For the other groups, explanation of these meanings were required. The teacher provided pictures and other examples of music to help convey the meaning of their vocabulary. Essentially, these groups had less time to compose their soundscapes. The effectiveness of Music to teach vocabulary would be better studied if all planet characteristics were

Table 1
Rubrics of Assessment Grades

	Emerging	Developing	Mastering
Vocabulary Criteria	• Composition portrays some basic relation to the vocabulary meaning	• Composition is related mostly to the vocabulary meaning	• Composition is related mostly to the vocabulary meaning and also contains nuances of the vocabulary meaning
Music Criteria	• Few sounds are used • Tempo is erratic • Loud or soft sounds used only • Rhythms are simple and played imprecisely • Overall composition performed with little structure, confidence and purpose	• A variety of sounds used • Tempo is steady throughout composition • Soft, loud sounds used appropriately • Rhythmic patterns are used and maintained with control • Overall composition is performed with structure and purpose	• A variety of sounds used • Tempo changes occur appropriately and with control • Soft, loud, crescendos and decrescendos used • Complex rhythm used and played with control • Overall composition is performed with confidence and purpose

Table 2
Grades Assessed to the Soundscapes

Year Group	Calm and peaceful	Stormy and wild	Hot and fiery	Cold and icy	Desolate and bleak	Eerie and spooky
2014	No group	mastered	mastered	developing	developing	developing
2015	mastered	mastered	developing	mastered	mastered	developing
2016	developing	mastered	mastered	developing	mastered	mastered

similar in their difficulty level for a Year 5 student and all groups had the same assistance given by the teacher or other resources.

Secondly, students using real instruments, spent most of the activity time exploring different sounds of an instrument and then deciding what sounds to use. Although this is a meaningful part of composition, there would not be enough time to complete the activity. The teacher would assist these students in their decision process through guided questions. The sounds that could be chosen from the Garageband application were less numerous and easier to choose. This also affected the research, as the teacher would endeavor to have the same amount of time given to all groups in composing their soundscape.

Thirdly, students using real instruments had to contend with physical skills needed to play the instruments and generate the sound they wanted in their compositions. Additional time was needed for a group to play cohesively and with the musical elements that they wanted in their compositions. Therefore, students may not have been skilled enough yet to play the instruments as composed to fully demonstrate their understanding of their planet's characteristics.

Students using iPads did not have similar struggles as the real instrument groups. The software itself automatically performed tempo and timbre musical elements. Students only needed to choose an instrument and then rhythmically input these sounds into their compositions. They could devote more attention towards the content of the composition and consequently received immediate feedback in their composition. This was very important for students as they could build momentum in their understanding and make changes to create a good soundscape. The largest obstacles for these students were technical difficulties, network connectivity and generally needed time to explore the capabilities of *Garageband*.

The two groups in 2016 at the developing stage, had an understanding of their planet characteristics but had difficulties working with iPads. These groups were not as proficient using an iPad or *Garageband* and were delayed in their compositions. There were network difficulties where their iPads and could not connect together in the "Jam Sessions". Often the groups would not be able to place their sounds exactly where they wanted in their composition nor compile different parts together in the software. These groups were delayed and prevented them from creating the composition they fully envisioned. For future studies, experience with using iPads and *Garageband* is needed to improve student efficacy and ensuring the classroom has sufficient Internet and networking capabilities to connect iPads would generate more success in the compositions.

Conclusion

The first research question of whether Music is effective in enhancing vocabulary learning, is a positive one. Students have demonstrated that using a musical medium to apply their understanding of new vocabulary is possible. For the second research comparative question, students benefited more from utilizing digital devices than real instruments in this activity.

There were distinct differences between the sounds composed by real instruments and digital devices. With the digital compositions, the quality of sounds chosen and combined were much higher than the real instrument compositions. Musically, the digital compositions were always in tune and synchronicity. Real instrument compositions were dependent on the playing skills of the students and used classroom instruments. Therefore, students with iPads produced rich sounding, better quality compositions to portray their planet and were able to apply their understanding of the words they were given. Students with real instruments, may have had the same level of understanding, but could not apply it as well. In addition, the use of digital devices meant that their work was recorded, saved and ready to be manipulated immediately for the next practice, or lesson. Students with real instruments did not have that same benefit.

The implications for this activity are various nuances of vocabulary could be better taught through music and imagery. Students are engaged throughout the learning process and are creating a context to apply new vocabulary that includes an emotional response.

Suggestions for Non-Musical Educators

Non-musical educators are encouraged to use this activity in their classrooms to teach vocabulary to their students. This is a practical and realistic experience for students that will provide a good platform to learn new vocabulary. This space theme is an example, as educators are encouraged to adapt the activity to their classroom. Composing a soundscape individually is possible with a digital device as well as assessing individual learning. Learners can focus on the meaning and application of a work because their digital device would automatically do some Musical skills. It is also encouraged that educators are familiar themselves with the particular software and hardware issues of the classroom. Also, educators will need to plan out how much time can be taken for this activity. Finally, their compositions need to be performed to give closure to their work and share the learning.

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Avoidance of Evaluative Responses in EFL Classroom

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EFL teachers' explicit positive assessment (EPA) of EFL students may inhibit learning (Waring, 2008). According to Waring, EPAs signal or infer the closure of a turn-taking sequence, and so it is crucial to investigate whether task-specific use of EPA promotes or inhibits learning. This study examines the ways in which an EFL teacher provides learning opportunities to learners without EPA. Through a detailed analysis of classroom interactions in a Japanese junior high school EFL classroom, the study demonstrates how a teacher succeeds in co-constructing learning opportunities with students by utilizing television to display questions and answers and thus positioning herself as a navigator for her students.

EFL教師の明示的な肯定評価(EPA)は学習を妨げる可能性がある(Waring, 2008)。Waringによれば EPAは順番交代の連鎖の終了の合図や示唆となるため、タスク固有のEPA使用が学習を促進するのか妨げるのかを調べることは重要である。本研究はEFL教師がEPAを用いずに学習機会を学習者に提供する方法を検討する。日本の中学校でのEFL教室における教室相互行為を詳細に分析することで、本研究は教師がテレビを質問や回答の提示に使用することにより学習者と学習機会を共同構築し、自らを学生たちのナビゲーターとして位置付けている方法を提示する。

In Japanese public junior high school, teachers must use the appointed grammar-centered textbooks following the guidelines of Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports and Science Technology (MEXT). Additionally, they must make term tests according to those textbooks. As a result, the syllabi of English lessons in junior high school are grammar centered. This leads to difficulty for teachers to cultivate competence of students for interaction in English with a grammar-centered syllabus, textbooks, and exams because constant assessment needs to be done in this sort of learning environment.

In language classrooms, it is said that one-third of all teachers' moves is "rating," which means when they are "replying" to students, teachers are not truly replying—they are evaluating. According to van Lier (1996), "the student's response is hemmed in, squeezed between a demand to display knowledge and a judgment on its competence"(p.151). There are cases where even positive assessments suppress opportunities for voicing (Waring, 2008). As a result, assessment may lead to a passive attitude of learners that teachers always possess correct answers, and all learners should do is to wait for the answers to be displayed. In that case, is there any way that EFL teachers can co-construct learning opportunities with learners without assessing their answers?

There are a number of L2 classroom discourse studies (Bushnell, 2008; He,2004; Hellermann, 2007, 2008; Ingram & Elliott, 2014; Käänta, 2015; Markee, 2015; Mori, 2002, 2004; Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2013; Wong & Waring, 2009). Among them are studies on assessments of the third position of turn-taking in teaching, including Seedhouse and Supakorn (2015); Kasper (2013), who interviewed oral proficiency test takers; and Waring's (2008) turn-taking sequence. These studies are in either the target language environment between English native

Izutani, R. (2017). Avoidance of evaluative responses in EFL classroom. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 117-125). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

speaking (NS) teachers and non-native (NNS) learners or in the EFL environment between NS teachers and NNS university-level learners. However, there are not many studies on EFL classroom interactions between an NNS teacher and NNS students in elementary or junior high school. For example, Ishino (2016) describes a Japanese teacher's practical knowledge in English lessons at a public Japanese junior high school. In Japan and other EFL countries, English education starts at a much younger age between elementary or junior high school, Therefore, this study examined the following research questions:

1. How do Japanese teachers co-construct learning opportunities without assessing students' answers or initiating repairs in EFL classrooms with Japanese junior high students?
2. How do they position themselves as facilitators or navigators rather than assessors?

In this research "co-construct" refers to joint verbal actions between a teacher and students of creating conversational sequence. "Assessing students' answers" refers to evaluative responses to students' answer in conversational sequences in the classroom, not to grade students with tests or exams. Additionally, the term "facilitator" is defined as a role to explicitly display relevant knowledge and help students understand correct answers while "navigator" as the one to implicitly guide them through complicated English grammar knowledge.

Methods

Research design

For the research design framework, the following points were taken into consideration: study purpose, perspective, data source, sampling, participants, relation, relevant position, prior knowledge, analytic method, and ethics. The overall purpose of the study is to develop an understanding of interactional competence in second language classrooms. The perspective is that of constructionists. The data source is naturally occurring conversations in an EFL classroom, and data sampling type is ideal-typical, which will be explained in the following section of data. Participants are an EFL teacher and her students engaging in question-answer activities. The relation between the teacher and the researcher is that of ex-colleagues with the same national background. A relevant position is that this class is frequently observed by professional teachers. The researcher has prior knowledge of the language lessons for junior high school students from thirteen years' experience as an EFL tutor for elementary, junior high, and high school students and four years' education at graduate school specializing in teacher education in Japan. For analytic methods, I use conversation analysis (CA) (the CA transcription convention is shown in the Appendix). As for ethics, an informed consent agreement was signed and exchanged between the researcher and the teacher.

Data

The data are a video recording of an English lesson of some Japanese junior high school class conducted in both English and Japanese. For the purpose of the study, lessons rich in interaction between teachers and students were necessary. This particular teacher was chosen as the researcher based on her microteaching, which produces much interaction. She has 13 years' experience in English teaching at a Japanese junior high school and agreed to cooperate with the research. The class consisted of 28 Japanese students in the second grade with a Japanese homeroom teacher. In Japan, one homeroom teacher, who is in charge of only one class and responsible for his/her students, is appointed to each class. Homeroom teachers have short meetings at the beginning and end of the day and even meet parents to gain some knowledge about the home environments of their students.

The duration of the video data is 52 minutes. It was recorded with two cameras in November 2015. One camera was set at the back of the classroom to record the movement of the teacher, and the other camera was set in the back right corner of the classroom on top of the tall closet to obtain a bird's eye view of the movement of students.

The verbal behaviors of the teacher and students were transcribed in detail by the researcher according to CA conventions (Appendix). Further, non-verbal behaviors were transcribed if they were relevant to the analysis.

Lesson Context

The class starts with routine greetings. The teacher subsequently walks around the classroom to check students' homework, which is a translation of one section from their textbook (Figure 1) and the answers to comprehension questions. While checking, a monitor in the front left corner of the room reads the correct Japanese translation so that students can compare their answers with the correct ones. Students repeat the original English sentences of this section from the monitor after the teacher. Following these practices, the teacher lets students read the same sentences in pairs before starting the question and answer activity (Figure 2).

Teaching flow is as follows: 1) During the first question and answer activity, it is clarified that when a question is asked with "is," the answer to the question should be answered with "is." 2) During the second question and answer activity, it is clarified that when a question is asked with the "how many + noun+ verb" pattern, the answer to the question should be answered with the "number + noun + verb" pattern. This study focuses on interactions between the teacher and students during the second question and answer activity.


A New Language Service to Begin

Midori City will start a foreign language service next April. Foreign language volunteers will help foreign people when they have language troubles at City Hall, hospitals, and schools.

About 3,000 foreign people live in Midori City. Many of them don't understand Japanese. They cannot get necessary information for their everyday lives.

The service will start with English, Chinese, and Korean. The city is now looking for volunteers.

Figure 1. A selection from the textbook.

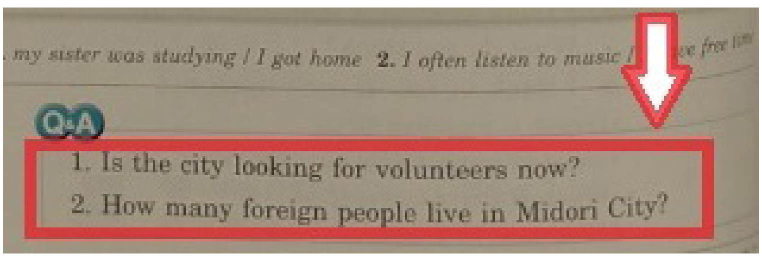

Figure 2. Questions for the question and answer activity.

Results

Co-construction of Learning Opportunities

By withholding the display of the correct answer, the teacher waits and invites other answers. This implies that the answers are not one hundred percent correct (Figure 3).

In line 638, a student (SA), with a hesitation mark "*e::to*" (=well), reads his answer to the question "How many people live in Midori City?" He starts with "it's," which is grammatically incorrect and includes number "*suri::sauzando*" (=three thousand). The teacher (T) does not assess his answer; however, she merely displays acknowledgement by repeating his answer (line 639) and nodding (line 640). Immediately, she shifts her gaze to SB and calls his name "*Hashida* (pseudonym) *ku:n*" (line 640). SB understands this call as allocation of his turn and answers using "it's" and the number "three thousand" (line 641). T does not assess his answer either but only acknowledges the situation by repeating and offers the next turn to the next student (SC) by calling his name "*So* (pseudonym)-*kun*" explicitly with "*do:zo*"(=please) (line 642). After SC answers without "it's" and with the number "three thousand "(line 643), T accepts his answer with "oka:y" and explicitly asks for other answers by "*hokano kotae no hito imasuka*" (=Are there anyone with different answers?) (line 644).

The teacher divides students' answers into two categories (Figure 4); thus, the teacher and students co-construct opportunity learning for the difference between grammatically correct answers and somewhat meaningful and convenient answers.

In line 645, another student (SD) volunteers to offer her answer with "*hei*" (=yes). T quickly accepts this offer with "*hai*" (=yes), "*ja*" (=then) and allocates the next turn to SD with "*do:zo*"(=please) (line 646). SD reads her answer on the subject "about three thousand foreign people," the verb "live," and propositional clause "in Midori city" (line 647). In line 648, T repeats SD's answer with the emphasis on the subject and "*ah*" at the beginning. However, as in Figure 3, T does not assess her answer. An unidentified student affiliates SD's answer (line 649), and another unidentified student suggests the pronoun "there" in place of "in Midori City" (line 650). In line 651, T divides students' answers produced so far into two categories: "*it's de kotaeteiru hito*" (=those who answer with it's) and "*Yasaka-san ba:jon*" (=Miss Yasaka's version).

```
638    SA : e::to (.6)it's about suri::sauzando(.) foreign peo↑ple
639    T  :> [it's about three thousand foreign ↑people:::<
640          [(((nodding))((looking at Hashida))Hashida ku:n.
641    SB : ° it's about three about three thousand foreign people° =
642    T  : =>it's about three thousand foreign people:(So kun) do:zo<
643    SC : ° about three thousand peo°
644    T  : oka:y hokano kotae no hito imasuka
```

Figure 3. Teacher withholds the correct answer.

```
645    SD:  hei  ( [  )
646    T  :        >[hai ja:< do:zo
647    SD:  about three thousand foreign people live in Midori city
648    T  : ah  about three thousand foreign people live in Midori city
649    S? : issho issho  [desu
650    S? :              [(there de ii to omou)
651    T  : it's de kotaeteiru hito to: ima Yasawa-san ba:jon >hokano
```

Figure 4. Teacher divides answers into two categories.

Positioning as Facilitators or Navigators

By using the monitor as a tool to display the correct answer (Figure 5), the teacher differentiates the formal assessment from her own and therefore avoids positioning herself as an assessor.

In line 654, T dramatically demonstrates the correct answer on the monitor with 1.2 seconds of silence and the interjection "*ja ja:n*" (=Ta-dah). Without interval, SD sees the screen and shouts "*yossha:i*" (=Got it) (line 655), which shows that her answer corresponds with the answer on the monitor. In line 656 and 657, the monitor sounds the correct answer and the unidentified student shouts quietly "*ye::i*" (=Yeah) (line 658).

Moreover, by co-constructing a scale of occasioned correctness[1] (Figure 6 and Figure 7) and

```
654            ° ↑un° >okay< so the answer i:s (1.2)jaja::n=
655       SD : =yossha  [i
656       TV :          [about three thousand foreign people live in Midori
657            city
658       S? : ° ye::i°
```

Figure 5. Teacher uses the monitor to display the correct answer.

```
666       T  : ne: <kazu wa nanndesuka tte kikareteru wake dewa nakutte:>
667            (.7)
668       T   <nannin no gaikokujinn ga>live in Midori city  desuka:tte
669            kikareteru
670       Ss : ((buzzing))
671       T  : live in Midori city
672       S? : (kangaete mi )
673       S? : (    )
674       S? : (three thousand dakede mo:)
675       T  : sou  <ichiban kotae naakanno wa:>(     ) ichiban kotaena
676           akanno wa
677            [>kore yannna zettai kore nakattara akan yannna<
```

Figure 6. Teacher creates the scale of correctness 1.

```
679       T  :  dakedo  ne  e::ichiban  ano pa:fekuto na nagasa de
680             kotaeruno wa:  nannin no hito ga live in desuka tte
681             iuteru node  <live in Midori city>
682       S? : ° honma↑ni°
683       T  :  moshiku wa live there demo iiyone
684       S?    [(     )
685       T     [live there  [soko ni sunnderu ttekoto desu yo ne
686       S? :                [(   )
687       T  : hai  e::choto kotaekata muzukashikatta kamo shi:re:ma↑se::n
688            ja: finish here
```

Figure 7. Teacher creates the scale of correctness 2.

letting students follow the route of learning, the teacher positions herself as a navigator rather than a facilitator. The term "facilitator" indicates a positive attitude of helping students produce correct answers by explicitly showing relevant knowledge, while the term 'navigator' indicates the disposition of giving learners opportunities to produce their own answers by navigating their way through complicated (for Japanese) English grammar forests.

In line 666, T slowly explains that the question does not ask "*kazu wa nandesuka*" (=what is the number), following a silence of 0.7 seconds (line 667); however, T does ask "*nannin no gaikokujinn ga*" (=how many foreign people) "live in Midori City" (line 668). Three unidentified students seem to respond to her utterance with "*kangaete mi*" (=think about it) (line 672), "three thousand *dakedo mo:*" (=although it is three thousand) (line 674). From line 675 to 677, T confirms the most necessary parts of the answer with students by repeating "*ichiban*" (= the most) (line 675) "*kotae naakanno*"(=necessary to answer) (line 675, 676) twice and pointing to the answer on the display with "*kore*"(=this) and saying "*zettai*" (=absolutely).

In 679, T uses "*ichiban*" (=the most) again and "*pa:fekuto na*" (=perfect) "*nagasa*" (=length) to explain the correct grammatical structure of the answer. T switches codes from Japanese to English and from English to Japanese to demonstrate the original question "*nannin no hito ga*" (=how many people), "live in" and "*desuka*" (=indicating question form) (line 680). T demonstrates the correct answer, nonetheless, and never says anything to reject either category of answers in line 651. Therefore, it seems that the scale of correctness is created here with which students can evaluate their answers.

Moreover, she affiliates herself with the second category of students' answers (Figure 8).

In line 660, T says quickly, "it's *de kotaetaku naruyone*" (=I would like to answer with it's), and in line 664, T repeat its with a change at the end "*narunnda kedo::*" (=would like to do it but). With them, T both displays affiliation with the second category and implies negation of it at the same time.

Discussion

For the present study, two research questions were posed. Regarding the first one (How do Japanese teachers co-construct learning opportunities without assessing answers or initiating repairs in EFL classrooms with Japanese junior high students?), in the previous section of the study results, I showed that the teacher skillfully avoids assessing students' answers, invites various answers, divides them into two categories, and makes the scale of correctness.

Regarding the second query (How do they position themselves as facilitators or navigators rather than assessors?), the teacher displays affiliation with the students' grammatically incorrect answers, which she puts in the second category. Displaying affiliation with the second category means disaffiliation with the monitor, which sounds like the formal, rigid, grammatically correct answer. The monitor sound is made using a CD, a supplementary material of the textbook appointed by MEXT. Therefore, the pedagogical focus of this particular lesson is on teaching the "number + noun + verb" pattern to the question "how many + noun+ verb" pattern. However, by showing affiliation to the second category, which seemingly does not match the pedagogical goal, the

```
660    T  : >it's de kotaetaku naruyone  daijo:↑bu<hahaha↵
661    S? : honmaya↵
662    T  : >are you ↑£okay£<↵
663    S? : it is tte kikarete is it tte kikarete nai desu↵
664    T  : sou ne  it's de kotaetaku narunnda kedo::↵
665    Ss : ((buzzing))↵
```

Figure 8. Teacher affiliates with second category.

teacher admits that the responses of students using "it's" is "natural" and understandable. Therefore, the scale of correctness created here turns absolute "correctness" into "occasioned correctness" inherent to a grammar-centered language classroom.

Conclusion

In this study, the focus was on how the teacher succeeds in co-constructing learning opportunities and positing herself as a facilitator or navigator rather than an assessor. I mentioned at the beginning of this paper, assessment may lead to a passive attitude among learners that teachers always possess correct answers. The results indicated that a teacher overcomes this controversial situation by inviting several answers, dividing them into different categories, displaying affiliation to both categories, and allowing some latitude concerning the correctness. The findings of this study suggest that continuing analysis on EFL classroom interactions would help EFL teachers foster positive attitudes of their students and allow them to better understand the importance of a role of teachers as navigators.

Notes

1. I owe this point to my discussion with Yusuke Okada.

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Appendix

Transcript Notations

[	Overlapping utterances
(2.0)	Timed silence within or between adjacent utterances
( )	An uncertain hearing of what the speaker said
(( ))	Scenic description and accounts
(.)	A short, untimed pause
=	Latching that indicates no interval between adjacent utterances
.	Falling intonation (e.g., sentence final)
° °	Quieter than surrounding talk
£ £	Utterance fringed with laugh
:	Prolonged stretch
__	Stressed syllable
↑ ↓	Marked change in pitch: Upward or downward
< >	Utterance is delivered at a slower pace than surrounding talk
> <	Utterance is delivered at a quicker pace than surrounding talk
/	Phenomenon occurred simultaneously
Italicized	Utterance in Japanese

Lexical Coverage of the TOEIC

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This study investigated vocabulary coverage of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) to determine how much vocabulary is needed to understand 90%, 95%, and 98% of the words used in the TOEIC Listening and Reading test. Using the Range program (Nation & Heatley, 2002) with Nation's (2012) British National Corpus and Corpus of Contemporary American English word family lists, 328,186 running words from 34 TOEIC practice tests created by the Educational Testing Service, the developer of the TOEIC, and published in Japan or South Korea between 2005 and 2014 were analyzed. The results showed that the first 2,000 word families plus proper nouns (PNs), marginal words (MWs), transparent compounds (TCs), and abbreviations (ABs) provided 91.52% coverage, the first 3,000 word families plus PNs, MWs, TCs, and ABs provided 96.79% coverage, and the first 4,000 word families plus PNs, MWs, TCs, and ABs provided 98.24% coverage.

本研究では、Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC)のリスニング・リーディングテストにおいて使用されている90%、95%、98%の単語を理解するために必要な語彙量を探るため、TOEICの語彙カバー率を調べた。Nation (2012)のBritish National Corpus とCorpus of Contemporary American Englishのワードファミリーリストと共にRangeプログラム(Nation & Heatley, 2002)を使い、日本と韓国で2005年から2014年の間に出版されたTOEICの開発元のであるEducational Testing Serviceが作った34のTOEIC練習テスト中の328,186語の分析を行った。研究結果は、初めの2,000語（ワードファミリー換算）と固有名詞（PNs）、重要でない語（MWs）、明らかな複合語（TCs）、そして略語（ABs）では、91.52%のカバー率、初めの3,000語（ワードファミリー換算）とPNs、MWs、TCs、ABsでは、96.79%のカバー率、初めの4,000語（ワードファミリー換算）とPNs、MWs、TCs、ABsでは、98.24%のカバー率になることを示した。

According to the Institute for International Business Communication (2016), the administrator of all Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) programs in Japan, 2,556,000 people took the TOEIC Listening and Reading test in the country in 2015. Since the TOEIC attracts such a large number of test-takers in Japan, investigating the vocabulary demands of the test is worthwhile with a view to helping leaners who are preparing for the TOEIC to set vocabulary learning goals.

Kanzaki, M. (2017). Lexical coverage of the TOEIC. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 126-133). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Some studies that investigated how much vocabulary is needed for comprehension of a language have suggested that 95% or 98% coverage is required (i.e., learners need to know 95% or 98% of the words in a text to understand it). For example, Laufer (1989) suggested that 95% coverage is needed for reasonable reading comprehension of an academic text; Hirsh and Nation (1992) suggested that 98% coverage is necessary for reading novels for pleasure; Hu and Nation (2000) suggested that 98% coverage is needed to understand a fiction text. The figures of 95% and 98% have been widely accepted as the benchmarks for lexical coverage required for comprehension, above which reasonable or adequate comprehension can be achieved, and some studies that examined necessary vocabulary size for understanding a certain text used one or both of them (e.g., Chujo, 2004; Nation, 2006; Chujo & Oghigian, 2009; Webb & Rodgers, 2009a, 2009b; Kaneko, 2013).

In terms of setting vocabulary goals for those preparing for the TOEIC, adding another benchmark that is lower than the widely accepted 95% coverage would be helpful since leaners have different levels of English ability and different target TOEIC scores; aiming for 95% coverage might be too ambitious for some learners and a lower coverage may be sufficient, depending on the target score. Therefore, this study includes 90% coverage as a benchmark in addition to 95% and 98%. The figure of 90% was used because some studies reported that a moderate level of comprehension was achieved with 90% coverage. For example, Hu and Nation (2000) reported that the average score for the multiple choice questions was 9.5 out of 14 with 90% coverage, whereas the average scores were 12.24 and 10.18 with 100% and 95% coverage, respectively; Bonk (2000) reported that among participants with a lexical coverage of 90% or higher, 87% of them showed "good comprehension" during a listening task (p. 27); Schmitt, Jiang, and Grabe (2011) suggested that "learners can still achieve substantial comprehension" (p. 35) with 90% coverage on a reading task; van Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) reported that there was no significant difference in scores on a listening comprehension test between the 90% and 95% coverage groups.

In addition, the lexical coverage necessary for choosing the correct answers on the TOEIC is lower than that needed to comprehend a piece of writing or audio recording adequately. One reason for this is that the TOEIC includes questions that do not test listening or reading comprehension. For example, some grammar questions can be answered without knowing the meaning of the sentence.

Another reason is that some comprehension questions can be answered correctly without having to understand everything that is heard or read. For example, if test-takers are able to catch some key words in a conversation, they can guess where the conversation takes place or who the speakers are. Similarly, some reading comprehension questions can be answered with a detail mentioned in a single line in a passage.

Assuming that a lower coverage may be sufficient to choose the right answers on the TOEIC compared to that necessary for full comprehension of a text, this study was conducted to determine the vocabulary size needed to understand 90%, 95%, and 98% of the words used in the TOEIC. The inclusion of the 90% benchmark makes this study unique since, to the author's knowledge, no vocabulary study of the TOEIC has investigated this threshold.

Method

A mini corpus of 328,186 running words was created using 34 TOEIC practice tests generated by the Educational Testing Service (ETS), the developer of the TOEIC, and published in practice test books in Japan or South Korea between 2006 and 2014 (see Appendix for the publication titles). The TOEIC corpus was analyzed using the Range software program (Nation & Heatley, 2002) for vocabulary analysis with Nation's (2012) British National Corpus (BNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) word family lists.

Materials

In order to build a mini corpus, several people were hired to type the listening transcripts and written texts of 34 TOEIC practice tests. They were paid 10,000 yen to type one practice test into a Microsoft Word document, and the present author proofread each test and corrected errors.

The decision was made to use only the ETS-generated practice tests on the grounds that they are close to the actual TOEIC and that some non-ETS practice tests are dissimilar to the actual TOEIC in terms of content, vocabulary, length, and the wording of questions, even though they follow the same format.

These elements in the practice tests were excluded from the corpus: directions for each part; instructional lines, such as "Look at the picture marked number one in your test book" and "Go on to the next page;" question numbers; letters for answer choices; and introductory lines for conversations, monologues, and reading passages, such as "Questions 41 through 43 refers to the following conversation" and "Questions 176–180 refer to the following letter."

Once all the digital versions of the 34 practice tests were compiled in a single Microsoft Word document, some modifications were made so that the text would be compatible with the Range program. First, the hyphens in all hyphenated words, except *e-mail*, were removed by using the "find and replace" function of Microsoft Word. For example, *self-service* and *semi-annual* were changed to *self service* and *semi annual*. This was necessary because the word family lists used with the Range program do not include hyphenated words and hyphenated words are classified as *Not in the lists* in Range output. Also, *e-mail* was changed to *email* in all cases because the word is not hyphenated in the word family lists.

A.M. and P.M. are often used in the TOEIC; however, the Range program treats a period as the end of the preceding word and therefore counts *A.M.* as *A* and *M*, and *P.M.* as *P* and *M*. To avoid this, *A.M.* was replaced with *AM*, and *P.M.* with *PM*. The problem here is that *AM* is the same as the first person singular present form of the verb *be* and so the 228 *AM*s were counted as *am*, as in *I am*, because Range is not case sensitive. The 347 *PM*s were counted as *PM* under the list of abbreviations.

Analysis

The Range program was used to analyze the TOEIC corpus. This software program compares "a text against vocabulary lists to see what words in the text are and are not in the lists, and to see what percentage of the items in the text are covered by the lists" (Nation, 2005, p. 2). Analysis results are shown in a table that indicates how much coverage of a text each word family list provides. In this study, the BNC/COCA word family lists were used in conjunction with the Range program. There are 29 word family lists in total. Twenty-five of these contain word families based on frequency and rage data; the first two lists "were made using a specially designed 10 million token corpus" (Nation, 2012, p. 1) with a high proportion of spoken English, and the remaining 23 lists "were made by using COCA/BNC rankings" (Nation, 2012, p. 2). The first list contains the most frequent 1,000 word families and the second list contains the next most frequent 1,000 word families, and so forth. The word families in the lists were created in accordance with the criteria for level 6 set by Bauer and Nation (1993), which includes all the affixes and inflections from levels 2 through 6.

The four additional lists are of proper nouns, marginal words (e.g., *ah*, *oh*, and letters of the alphabet), transparent compounds, and abbreviations, respectively. The TOEIC uses many proper nouns, such as the names of people, products, places, companies, and streets, and 2,459 proper nouns that were not originally in the list of proper nouns were added to the list so that the Range program could count them as proper nouns. Learners do not need to know the meanings of proper nouns; recognizing them as proper nouns is sufficient. Therefore, the proper nouns were treated as known words in the calculation of lexical coverage in this study.

Apart from letters of the alphabet, marginal words appearing in the TOEIC corpus are *ah* (twice), *hm/hmm/hmmm* (13 times), *oh* (102 times), *uh* (3 times), *um* (twice), and *wow* (once). They were used in ways that do not hinder comprehension and were therefore treated as known words.

Nation and Webb (2011) set the following criteria for transparent compounds:

1. Each of the parts had to be able to occur singly....
2. It had to be possible to make a sensible definition of the word using the two or more parts of the compound word....
3. Ideally, the definition should be made using no other content words, but in quite a few cases, one other content word and occasionally two other content words were allowed.... (p. 138)

Nation and Webb (2011) suggested that transparent compounds "should be assumed to be known by learners who already know the high frequency words since they are made up of known parts and the meaning of the parts is closely related to the meaning of the whole" (p. 138). Thus, transparent compounds were treated as known words in this study.

Some abbreviations have meanings. However, the TOEIC uses abbreviations in such ways that do not hinder comprehension. The five most frequent abbreviations in the TOEIC corpus are *PM* (351), *www* (116), *org* (43) as part of a website address or email address, *UK* (35), and *CA* (33) as part of a postal address in California (frequency counts shown in parentheses). Even if a learner does not know the meanings of these abbreviations, it will not interfere with comprehension. Therefore, abbreviations were treated as known words.

Results

Table 1 shows the percentage of word families at each 1,000-word level that appeared in the TOEIC corpus, the number of word families at each 1,000-word level that appeared in the TOEIC corpus, and the cumulative coverage, with and without PNs, MWs, TCs, and ABs. The most frequent 1,000 words accounted for 75.67% of the total tokens in the corpus, and when the percentages for PNs, MWs, TCs, and ABs were added, the coverage reached 80.31%. The word families in the second 1,000-word list accounted for 11.21% of the total tokens in the corpus, which made the coverage of the most frequent 2,000 words surpass the 90% benchmark with 91.52% coverage. The word families in the third 1,000-word list accounted for 5.27% of the total tokens in the corpus, which made the coverage of the most frequent 3,000 words surpass the 95% benchmark with 96.79 coverage. The word families in the fourth 1,000-word list accounted for 1.45% of the total tokens in the corpus, which made the coverage of the most frequent 4,000 words surpass the 98% benchmark with 98.24% coverage. For the fifth and subsequent 1,000-word lists, coverage at each level dropped to below 1%.

Discussion

The results show that the most frequent 2,000 word families plus PNs, MWs, TCs, and ABs provided 91.52% coverage of the TOEIC corpus, the most frequent 3,000 word families plus PNs, MWs, TCs, and ABs provided 96.79% coverage, and the most frequent 4,000 word families plus PNs, MWs, TCs, and ABs provided 98.24% coverage. The 2,000, 3,000, and 4,000 word families could be good vocabulary learning goals for different levels of learners. For example, learning the most frequent 2,000, 3,000, and 4,000 words could be good learning goals for intermediate learners aiming for a score of 700 on the TOEIC, upper-intermediate learners aiming for 800, and advanced learners aiming for 900, respectively.

It should be noted that among the 1,000 word families at each level, not all of them appeared in the TOEIC corpus; 55 word families in the first 1,000 list (e.g., *church*, *gun*, *kill*, *mad*, and *penny*), 186 in the second (e.g., *army*, *cheat*, *divorce*, *evil*, and *wicked*), 210 in the third (e.g., *abuse*, *addict*, *alien*, *bible*, and *communist*), and 488 in the fourth (e.g., *assassin*, *bastard*, *ego*, *exile*, and *fraud*) did not appear. This means that 939 out of 4,000 word families were not in the TOEIC corpus, which implies that learning a little more than 3,000 words is sufficient to achieve 98% coverage. Also, among the 3,000 word families, some of them must appear more frequently than others. Thus, analyzing the frequencies in the TOEIC corpus in detail and creating a frequency-based word list will help learners efficiently learn vocabulary needed for the TOEIC.

Lastly, the results indicate that, as far as vocabulary is concerned, the TOEIC is a learner-friendly exam with a large proportion of high frequency words. By solving questions in a TOEIC practice test, learners repeatedly encounter high frequency words and are therefore likely to learn them. Preparing for the TOEIC may therefore help learners acquire high frequency words, which is an essential part of learning English.

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Table 1
Percentage amd Number of Word Families Appearing at Each 1,000-Word Level

Word list	Percentage (%)	Word families	Cumulative coverage (%)	Cumulative coverage + PNs, MWs, TCs, and Abs (%)
1,000	75.67	945	75.67	80.31
2,000	11.21	814	86.88	91.52
3,000	5.27	790	92.15	96.79
4,000	1.45	512	93.60	98.24
5,000	0.65	360	94.25	98.89
6,000	0.40	282	94.65	99.29
7,000	0.17	162	94.82	99.46
8,000	0.24	141	95.06	99.70
9,000	0.05	91	95.11	99.75
10,000	0.03	53	95.14	99.78
11,000	0.02	44	95.16	99.80
12,000	0.02	28	95.18	99.82
13,000	0.02	26	95.20	99.84
14,000	0.01	26	95.21	99.85
15,000	0.01	22	95.22	99.86
16,000	0.01	15	95.23	99.87
17,000	0.01	9	95.24	99.88
18,000	0.00	10	95.24	99.88
19,000	0.00	4	95.24	99.88
20,000	0.01	11	95.25	99.89
21,000	0.01	9	95.26	99.90
22,000	0.00	8	95.26	99.90
23,000	0.00	3	95.26	99.90
24,000	0.00	2	95.26	99.90
25,000	0.00	3	95.26	99.90
PNs	3.58	4303		
MWs	0.15	23		
TCs	0.65	352		
ABs	0.26	84		
Not in the lists	0.08	NA		

Notes. PNs = proper nouns; MWs = marginal words; TCs = transparent compounds; ABs = abbreviations.

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Appendix

ETS-generated TOEIC practice test books used for making the TOEIC corpus

Title [English translation]	Number of tests	Year of publication	Publisher	Country
TOEIC Tesuto Shin Koshiki Mondaishu [TOEIC Test: New Official Practice Tests]	2	2005	IIBC	Japan
TOEIC Tesuto Shin Koshiki Mondaishu Vol. 2 [TOEIC Test: New Official Practice Tests Vol. 2]	2	2007	IIBC	Japan
TOEIC Tesuto Shin Koshiki Mondaishu Vol. 3 [TOEIC Test: New Official Practice Tests Vol. 3]	2	2008	IIBC	Japan
TOEIC Tesuto Shin Koshiki Mondaishu Vol. 4 [TOEIC Test: New Official Practice Tests Vol. 4]	2	2009	IIBC	Japan
TOEIC Tesuto Shin Koshiki Mondaishu Vol. 5 [TOEIC Test: New Official Practice Tests Vol. 5]	2	2012	IIBC	Japan
ETS TOEIC Test Gongsik Munjejib Vol. 5 [ETS TOEIC Test: Official Practice Test Vol. 5]	2	2013	YBM	South Korea
ETS TOEIC Test LC Gongsik Siljeonseo 1000 [ETS TOEIC Test: LC Official Test Simulation Practice Book 1000]	10*	2013	YBM	South Korea
ETS TOEIC Test RC Gongsik Siljeonseo 1000 [ETS TOEIC Test RC Official Test Simulation Practice Book 1000]	10**	2013	YBM	South Korea
ETS TOEIC Jeonggisihom Gichulmunjejib LC+RC 1200 [ETS TOEIC: Questions Used in Actual Tests LC+RC 1200]	6	2014	YBM	South Korea
ETS TOEIC Test Gongsik Siljeonseo LC+RC 1000 [ETS TOEIC Test: Official Test Simulation Practice Book LC+RC 1000]	5	2014	YBM	South Korea
TOEIC Tesuto Shin Koshiki Mondaishu Vol. 6 [TOEIC Test: New Official Practice Tests Vol. 6]	2***	2014	IIBC	Japan

Notes. IIBC = Institute for International Business Communication.

*Listening tests only.

**Reading tests only.

***One of the two tests is the same as a test in ETS TOEIC Test Gongsik Siljeonseo LC+RC 1000, and thus the test was used only once for the corpus.

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Reading Strategy Instruction to EFL University Students: Its Influence on Frequency of Strategy Use and Proficiency

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Orchestrating strategy use is considered one of the most important factors for success in foreign language learning. This paper describes an empirical study exploring the effect of explicit reading strategy instruction to 49 mixed-proficiency EFL university students. Results of the study show three measured differences in the effect between higher (HP) and lower (LP) proficiency students: (1) as a result of reading strategy instruction, HP students employed reading strategies more frequently than LP students, and showed greater improvement in their English proficiency; (2) long term instruction seemed to improve their English proficiency; and (3) compared to LP students, HP students tended to appreciate top-down processing on texts in order to understand content.

ストラテジーの体系的な利用は、外国語学習の成功にとって最も重要な要素の一つである。この論文では、49名の習熟度の異なるEFL 大学生に対する明示的なリーディングストラテジーの指導の効果を検証した研究について述べる。本研究の結果は次の三つの主要な習熟度レベルによる差異を示している。(1) リーディングストラテジー指導の結果、より熟達した学習者は初心者よりも頻繁に様々なストラテジーを使い、英語力も伸びた。(2) 長期のリーディングストラテジー指導は英語力を上達させたようだ。(3) 熟達度の高い学習者は、初心者よりもtop-down式の読解法の価値を認める傾向にあった。

The use of language learning strategies is one of the main individual differences that make second and foreign language learning easier, faster and more successful. Early research on second language learning strategies focused on the investigation of characteristics of "good language learners" (e.g., Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). These results motivated teachers to instruct their students in the use of learning strategies. A number of studies investigating the efficacy of strategy instruction on a variety of skills provided positive evidence in the 1980s and 90s (Dadour & Robbins, 1996; O'Malley, 1987). However, studies attempting to demonstrate the relationship between learning strategies and proficiencies have shown mixed results. Kern (1989) taught cognitive strategies for reading comprehension to university students studying French in the U.S. He found that the instruction had positive effects on the learners' reading comprehension capability. O'Malley (1987) examined the effects of training on the metacognitive strategies for three different tasks in academic English: vocabulary learning, listening to a lecture, and making a brief oral presentation to other students in an ESL context. The results of his study showed positive effects on listening and speaking efficacy, but not vocabulary acquisition.

With support from other areas such as self-regulatory learning in educational psychology (e.g., Tseng & Schmitt, 2008; Zimmerman, 2002),

Kawakami, M. (2017). Reading strategy instruction to EFL university students: Its influence on frequency of strategy use and proficiency. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 134-144). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

more empirical evidence on the efficacy of strategy instruction has been found over the last 15 years. Ikeda and Takeuchi (2003) taught strategies for English reading comprehension to different proficiency students in a Japanese university. They found that explicit intensive strategy instruction helped increase the students' strategy use and they retained it for five months. They also found that the effectiveness of the strategy instruction differs in the frequency of use, and the degree of improvement between lower and higher proficiency students. Higher level students gained more benefits from the instruction than the lower students did.

The effects of strategy instruction appear to differ depending on a number of variables such as student proficiency, learning style, beliefs about learning, their culture, motivation, and the learning context.

In order to reinforce individual differences, recent SLA research and pedagogy agree on the importance of facilitating self-regulation for continuous learning. In his self-regulatory theory, Dörnyei proposes a process of learning in which learners set their learning goal, generate and carry out subtasks, and review their study (2012). It is necessary to teach less proficient students learning strategies to help them gain control over their learning and become self-regulated learners.

The current study aimed to explore the effects of strategy instruction on different proficiency English learners at a university in Japan. Data regarding their evaluation and application of the strategies was also collected.

The research questions addressed were:

1. Does strategy instruction have any influence on their English proficiency? Are there any differences in the effectiveness between English proficiency levels?
2. Are any differences observed in the efficacy of the instruction depending on the length of instruction?
3. Does English proficiency level have an influence on the evaluation and use of strategies taught? How did the students perceive the strategy instruction?

Methods

Participants

The participants were 69 university students in three intact classes from science and engineering departments. They were first year students enrolled in a compulsory English course that took place once a week for 15 weeks a semester. These three classes were assigned as a treatment higher proficiency group (TH group), a treatment lower proficiency group (TL group), and a comparison group (COM). The participants in the TL group were of lower English proficiency than those who were in the TH and the COM groups. The reading sections from TOEIC Bridge practice tests (Educational Testing Service, 2007, 2008) were employed to determine their English proficiency three times: at the beginning of the spring semester, at the end of the spring semester and at the end of the fall semester. Both the TH and COM groups were considered CEFR A1- level students and the students in the TL group were at CEFR A2- level based on the TOEIC Bridge practice test scores. A breakdown of participants' details is shown in Table 1.

Measure

The data collection instruments used in this study were a reading section from a TOEIC Bridge test to assess participants' grammar and reading proficiency, and a

Table 1

Breakdown of Participants at the Beginning of the Spring Semester

				TOEIC Bridge reading score	
Group	Male	Female	Total	M	SD
TH	30	0	30	33.4	4.5
TL	16	2	18	22.2	3.7
COM	18	3	21	31.5	3.8

5-point Likert-scale questionnaire regarding reading comprehension strategies taught in class. The reading section in a TOEIC Bridge test was composed of two parts: thirty grammar questions and twenty reading questions. The questionnaire was distributed at the end of each semester. Participants rated each strategy from 1 (not used at all) to 5 (always use), based on how often they used each strategy. An interview was also conducted in order to identify their attitudes towards strategy instruction and their actual strategy usage at the end of each semester.

Procedure

The students in the TH and TL groups were taught a strategy for reading comprehension in each class for two semesters in 2015. The COM group had the same explicit strategy instruction as the TH group in only the fall semester in 2015 to see difference of efficacy in the length of strategy training. The TH and COM groups used the same textbook for reading and a supplementary textbook for vocabulary usage to cope with the TOEIC Bridge test. The TL group used a reading textbook and a fundamental grammar textbook. For the spring semester, seven reading strategies were taught based on the textbook and some prior research on strategy training (Ikeda &Takeuchi, 2006) as shown in Table 2. A different strategy was taught in week 3, as the two treatment groups used a different textbook and instruction should be based on the textbook. Eight kinds of strategies were taught to both TH and COM groups and seven strategies were taught to the TL group in the fall semester. As shown in Tables 3 and 4, the different kinds of strategies were chosen to teach to the lower proficiency students in the fall semester. This is because results of the interview after the treatment in the spring semester showed that the lower proficiency students preferred and used strategies to understand texts at the sentence level.

Explicit strategy instruction was integrated into reading activities based on the framework presented in Chamot (2004). First, the teacher presented a strategy for reading comprehension (presentation). After being instructed as to the purpose and the procedure of the strategies explicitly (explanation), the students in both treatment groups read the textbook using the strategies (practice). They were then asked to evaluate their own strategy use (self-evaluation). Finally, they read a different text using the strategy taught in the previous lessons in order to review it (expansion).

Data Analysis

The reading score gains for TOEIC Bridge test were analyzed using a t-test to examine the effect of strategy instruction on proficiency between TH and

Table 2
Strategies Taught to the TL and TH Groups in the Spring Semester

Week	Reading Strategy
1	Using the title and subtitle to get the gist of a text
2	Identifying and skimming the topic sentence in each paragraph to understand the outline of the passage
3	Using visual aides to help better understanding of a text (TH group)
	Identifying pronouns to understand the cohesion in a text (TL group)
4	Scanning a text by using keywords in the title and the attached questions to understand the detail of a passage
5	Classifying information by using chart to understand the connection among ideas and information
6	Identifying reasons by paying attention to discourse markers (e.g. because of, owing to, etc.)
7	Summarizing each paragraph after reading
8	Review of strategies introduced from the first to seventh week

Table 3
Strategies Taught to the TH and COM Groups in the Fall Semester

Week	Reading Strategy
1	Identifying supporting ideas with examples to understand the writer's ideas
2	Using definitions to find meaning (e.g., dashes, parentheses, commas, and quotation marks)
3	Annotating text to focus on the most important information
4	Understanding pronoun reference to understand the cohesion in a text
5	Understanding exact vs. approximate numbers
6	Paraphrasing sentences to write a summary and understand comprehension questions
7	Creating an outline summary to organize information in a text
8	Reviewing strategies introduced from the first to seventh week

Table 4
Strategies Taught to the TL Group in the Fall Semester

Week	Reading Strategy
1	Parsing sentences into phrasal groups to grasp the main components of each sentence
2	Understanding prefixes
3	Guessing unfamiliar words from the context
4	Understanding suffixes
5	Identifying the main idea
6	Using keywords to answer comprehension questions of the text
7	Reviewing strategies introduced from the first to seventh week

TL groups. Additionally, one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc analysis using the Bonferroni correction test was employed to analyze an effect of strategy instruction within-group factor on their English proficiency as the number of the participants was relatively small but scores were normally distributed. In addition to the analysis of English proficiency scores, descriptive analysis of the data from the questionnaire was referenced and the follow-up interviews were transcribed.

Results and Discussion

A summary of the descriptive statistics for the TOEIC scores is shown in Figure 1 and Table 5.

The first research question concerns the influence of strategy instruction on the students' English proficiency. A t-test was employed to examine between-group effects. The results show that the TOEIC score gains of TH and TL groups were not significantly different in either posttest 1 or posttest 2, although both groups increased their scores on the reading questions from the pretest to posttest 1 and posttest 2. A small effect size was found in the score gains in posttest 2 (t = .83, p = .41, d = .25). Examining these results, the short-term reading strategy instruction taught in the spring semester was of little benefit to the treatment groups, regardless of their proficiency level.

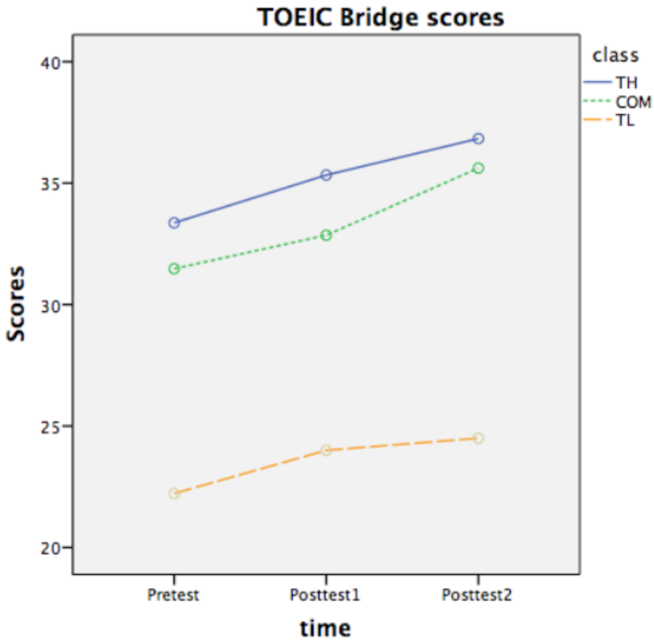

Figure 1. TOEIC Bridge score changes in three tests.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of TOEIC Bridge Test

			Pretest (α=.89)	Posttest 1 (α=.89)	Posttest 2 (α=.89)	Gain1	Gain2
Group	**n**		**M (SD)**	**M (SD)**	**M (SD)**	**M (SD)**	**M (SD)**
		Total	33.4 (4.5)	35.3 (4.3)	36.8 (4.2)	2.0 (4.3)	3.5 (4.7)
TH	30	Grammar	19.3 (2.7)	20.9 (2.3)	20.6 (3.0)	1.6 (2.5)	1.4 (3.0)
		Reading	14.1(3.2)	14.4 (3.3)	16.2 (2.2)	0.4 (3.1)	2.1 (2.9)
		Total	22.2 (3.7)	24.0 (6.0)	24.5 (3.7)	1.8 (6.5)	2.3 (3.5)
TL	18	Grammar	12.3 (3.5)	13.4 (4.4)	13.2 (3.2)	1.1 (4.4)	0.9 (4.2)
		Reading	9.9 (2.1)	10.6 (2.8)	11.3 (1.9)	0.7 (3.8)	1.4 (2.7)
		Total	31.5 (3.8)	32.9 (4.9)	35.6 (3.5)	1.4 (4.3)	4.1 (4.8)
COM	21	Grammar	18.1 (2.5)	19 (2.9)	20.2 (2.9)	0.9 (2.3)	2.1 (3.4)
		Reading	13.4 (2.4)	13.9 (3.3)	15.4 (2.2)	0.5 (3.4)	2.0 (3.0)

Note. Possible scores are from 0 to 30 for the grammar test and from 0 to 20 for the reading test

The second research question is concerned with the difference in the length of strategy instruction on the students' English proficiency improvement. All groups increased their reading scores from the pretest to the posttest 2. One-way ANOVA was employed to identify the differences within groups. There was a significant main effect of three tests (TH: F (2,58) = 8.11, p = .01, partial η^2 = .22; TL: F (1.47, 24.92) = 1.66, p =.021, partial η^2 = .09; COM: F(2,40) = 9.46, p = .00, partial η^2= .32), therefore, a post-hoc multiple analysis with the Bonferroni correction test was also applied. The results of post-hoc analysis show that the TH group significantly increased their scores from the pretest to posttest 2 (p<01) while the TL group increased their scores by a smaller amount for the same period of time than TH group ($p < .05$). In order to identify within-group effect on the reading questions and the grammar questions in the reading section, the same set of statistical procedure was employed. The TH group significantly increased their scores on both the grammar and the reading questions with a large effect size (Grammar: $F\,(2,58) = 5.18$, $p = .009$, partial $\eta^2 = .15$; Reading: $F\,(2,58) = 8.12$, $p = .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .22$). The significant score gains on reading questions were found from the posttest 1to the posttest 2 ($p = .01$) while ones on the grammar questions were found between the pretest and the posttest 1 ($p = .005$). Furthermore, regarding the COM group, although they increased their scores on reading questions, the one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc multiple analysis with the Bonferroni correction test confirmed that a statistically significant difference in the score gains was not found on the reading questions but found on the grammar questions in the fall semester. In summary then, long term reading strategy instruction seemed to help the higher proficient students, while it seems to take more time for the lower proficient student to benefit from the instruction. Moreover, the improvement of grammatical competence might have facilitated reading comprehension.

The difference in the frequency of strategy use was analyzed between two conditions: after the treatment in the spring semester and after the treatment in the fall semester to investigate the efficacy of explicit strategy instruction on the use of strategies. Figures in Appendix 1 illustrate the changes in the frequency of strategy use. In most of the figures, the TH group increased their frequency of strategy use from posttest 1 to posttest 2, yet usage decreased in the COM group. The COM group only increased the frequency use of the strategy taught in week 7, which is "summarizing each paragraph". This is because they were encouraged to summarize their textbook as homework. Furthermore, an interview after the fall semester implies that students in COM group tend not to have paid attention to some strategies they learned at high school such as skimming topic sentence for a gist of the text and scanning a text by using keywords because they were not encouraged to use in class. These results indicate that explicit strategy instruction seemed to help sustain the frequency of students' strategy use. With regard to the strategies taught in week 5 and 6, the frequency of use in both the TH and COM groups decreased whereas the TL group remained steady or increased. The TL students thus seem to prefer to use visuals, graphics and signal words to understand texts.

In order to answer the third research question on the efficacy of instruction to different proficiency students on the evaluation and use of strategies, two variables were analyzed by a non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test between the TH group and the TL group because the number of students were relatively small and imbalanced for a parametric test. Firstly, the difference in the frequency of each strategy usage taught in the spring semester was analyzed. There was a significant difference in the strategy taught in week 2, "identifying the topic sentence to understand the outline of the text." The results of the interviews provided a number of reasons for this difference between the higher and lower proficiency students. The lower proficiency students tended to have learned English by memorizing the translation of a whole sentence in high school and tried to understand a text from its first line, without paying attention to the main idea of the text. They seemed to stick with familiar learning conventions they had constructed early on, rather than applying the new strategies. Moreover, the lower proficiency students who achieved a large gain in TOEIC Bridge test score used the scanning strategy taught in week 4, whereas those who attained only a slight increase (or decrease) tried to read the text from the first line. The difference in the students' perception on strategy instruction was also analyzed by a non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test. Significant differences were found in the evaluation of strategies taught in week 2, 4, 5, and 6 of the spring semester. As seen in Table 6, the higher proficiency students appreciated the usefulness of top-down processing a text (such as scanning and skimming) more than the lower proficiency students did.

Table 7 displays the students reported frequency use of the strategies after instruction in the spring semester. With regard to frequency of strategy use,

Table 6
Difference in Evaluation of Strategies Taught Between Higher and Lower Proficiency Groups

	TH			**TL**					
Week	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	z	U	p
1	32	4.6	0.5	25	4.4	0.7	-0.8	356	ns
2	32	4.6	0.6	25	3.8	0.9	-3.2	220	p<.001
3	32	3.9	1.0	25	4.0	1.0	-0.9	349	ns
4	32	4.3	0.6	25	3.8	0.8	-2.6	253	p<.01
5	32	4.3	0.7	25	3.8	1.0	-2.3	269	p<.01
6	32	4.6	0.6	25	3.9	0.7	-3.4	208	p<.001
7	32	4.4	0.7	25	4.2	0.9	-0.9	348	ns

Table 7
Difference in Frequency Use of Strategies Between Higher and Lower Proficiency Groups

	TH			**TL**					
Week	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	z	U	p
1	32	3.8	1.1	24	3.8	1.1	-0.4	360	ns
2	32	3.7	1.0	24	3.0	1.2	-2.4	244.5	p<.05
3	32	3.1	1.1	24	3.4	1.2	-1.0	324.5	ns
4	32	3.3	1.0	24	3.5	1.1	-0.8	339	ns
5	32	3.4	0.9	24	3.2	1.1	-0.7	347	ns
6	32	3.8	0.9	24	3.4	1.1	-1.0	327.5	ns
7	32	3.4	1.0	24	3.5	1.1	-0.5	358	ns

both groups tended to use the strategies less than they evaluated themselves, as seen in Figure 2.

There was a large gap between students' evaluation and frequency use of strategy. In order to analyze the gap within groups, Wilcoxon signed-rank test was carried out. A significant difference was found in both groups as shown in Table 8.

Comments written in the questionnaire in response to the strategy instruction implied that most of the students in the TH and TL group appreciated the usefulness of the strategies taught in class. There were many positive comments regarding strategy training. "It was fun and interesting to learn the reading strategies" accounted for 38% of the total comments. "The reading strategies helped me understand the text easier" made up 16%, and 13% responded "I benefited from the strategy instruction because I've never learned reading strategies". Students in the TL group also gave positive responses to strategy instruction. Furthermore, many students in the TL group appreciated the importance of the strategy taught in week 1, using the title and subtitle to get the gist of a text. In summary, students in both treatment groups appreciated the usefulness of the reading strategies.

With regard to frequency of strategy use, the higher proficiency students tried to identify the main idea of a text more frequently than the lower

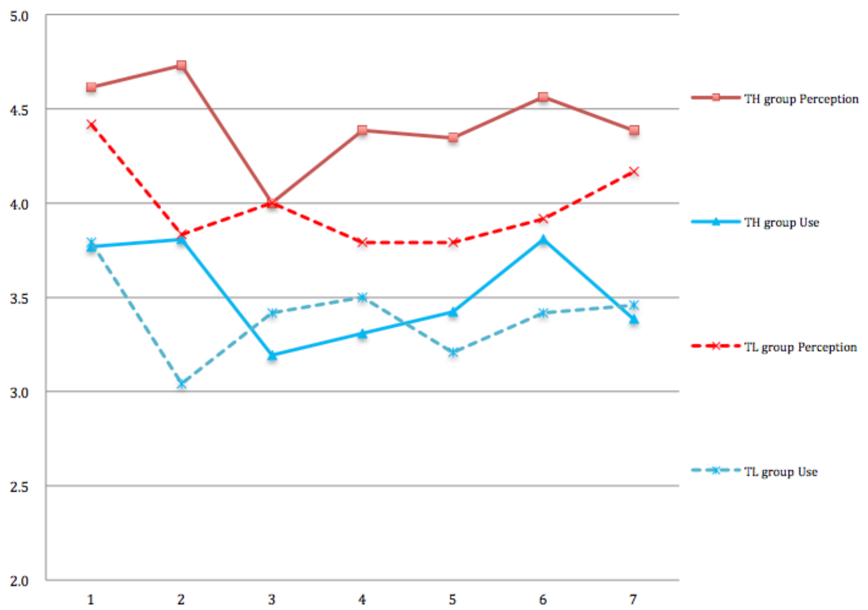

Figure 2. Treatment groups' evaluation and use of strategy.

Table 8

Results of Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test: Gaps Between Evaluation and Usage of Strategies

		Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7	Week 8
	Z	-3.57	-4.2	-2.96	-4.03	-3.81	-3.3	-4.13	-2.84
TH(n=32)	P	0**	0**	.003**	0**	0**	.001**	0**	.005**
	r	.66	.78	.55	.75	.71	.61	.77	.58
	Z	-2.693c	-3.34	-2.94	-1.54	-2.68	-2.19	-3.31	
TL(n=25)	P	.007**	.001**	.003**	.124	.007**	.028*	.001**	
	r	.53	.67	.59	.31	.54	.44	.66	

Note. *$p<.05$, **$p<.01$.

proficiency students. Furthermore, the students in both treatment groups did not use any strategies as frequently as they evaluated themselves as doing. Supplementary interviews after two semesters of the treatment discovered that the TH students tended to have had explicit instruction in reading strategies for university entrance exams, such as scanning for details to answer comprehension questions. However, they often had little awareness of when to use them in other contexts and an unclear understanding of other strategies that they learned for the first time. Additionally, some students in the COM group mentioned that they consciously used the taught strategies because the teacher encouraged them to do so in their own reading opportunities. O'Malley (1987) noted that "the transfer of strategies to new tasks may be extremely sensitive, requiring continuous prompts and structured directions until the strategies become autonomous" (p.143). It seems that the students need to have more opportunities to practice using the strategies they learned in class until they can select them appropriately and have confidence using them with new texts.

Conclusion and Teaching Implications

The current study aimed to explore the effects of integrating explicit strategy instruction on the improvement of reading proficiency in English. The findings from the current study suggest that reading strategy instruction leads to improvement in both lower and higher proficiency students but higher proficiency students benefit more. Furthermore, explicit reading strategy instruction retained the frequency of strategy use for six months, and short-term strategy training would be of benefit to higher proficiency students if they employ the strategies taught. Both lower and higher proficiency students appreciate the usefulness of the strategies but the latter positively evaluate a greater variety of strategies than the former. Higher proficiency students also seem to use top-down processing strategies more frequently.

There were a few limitations with the present study. Firstly, the number of participants in the groups was rather small. Hence, larger sample sizes should be collected in a longitudinal study to verify the results. Secondly, learning style, which is one of the prominent variables affecting a student's strategy use, was not considered. As Ellis (2008) states, the choice of strategies would differ depending on learning style, motivation, and socio-cultural factors. Learning style should have been investigated when considering the use of learning strategies. Lastly, the participant's reading proficiency was measured by the TOEIC Bridge test, which mostly required the test takers to use scanning and skimming strategies. Other instruments should be developed to assess all the reading skills taught in class (such as summarizing and identifying the main idea of the text).

Keeping these limitations in mind, the results of the current study provide us with some pedagogical implications. One suggestion is that the kinds of strategies taught in class should be considered to match the learner's proficiency level. Lower proficiency students need to learn bottom-up processing skills for reading, such as analyzing parts of speech and also top-down strategies that require less cognitive load such as using the title and subtitle to get the gist. Another implication is that strategy instruction should include opportunities for the learners to reflect on the strategies they used in each task. This process would help learners consider the choice and use of appropriate strategies for a given task, resulting in them becoming more self-regulated learners.

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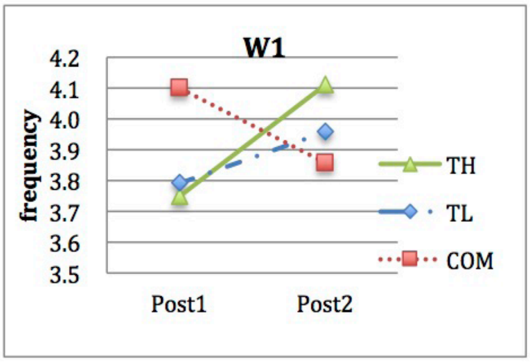
Appendix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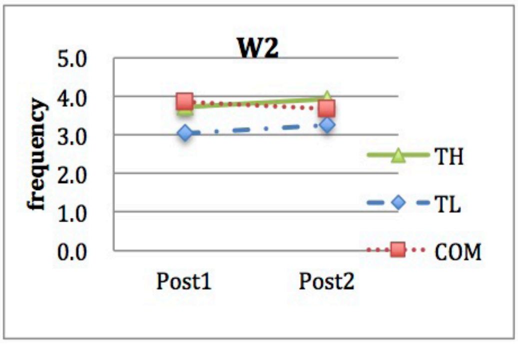
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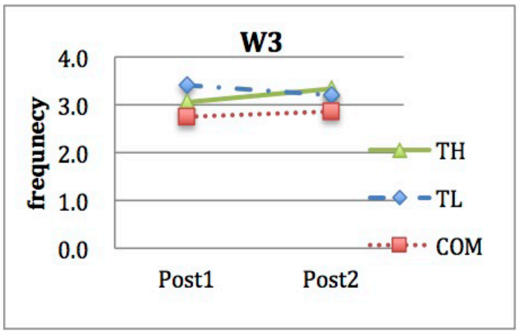
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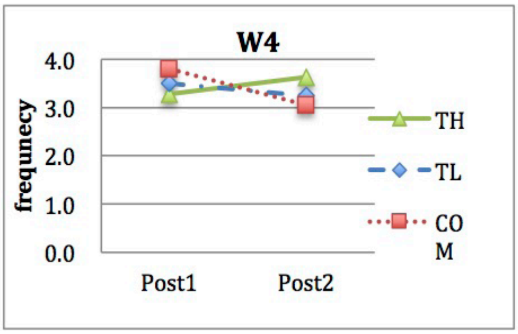
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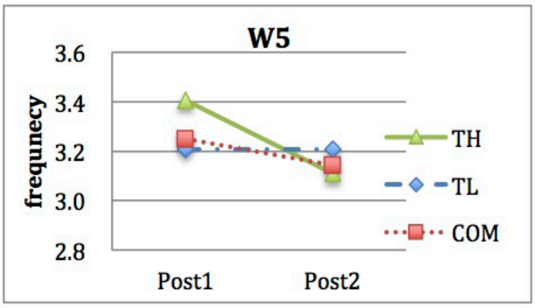
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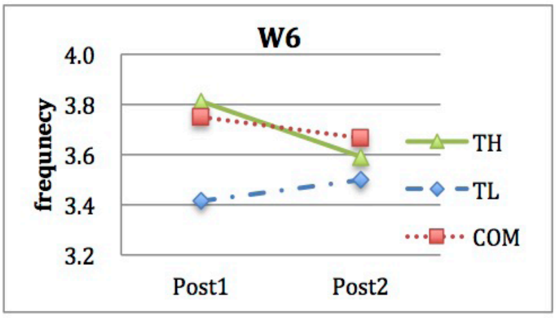
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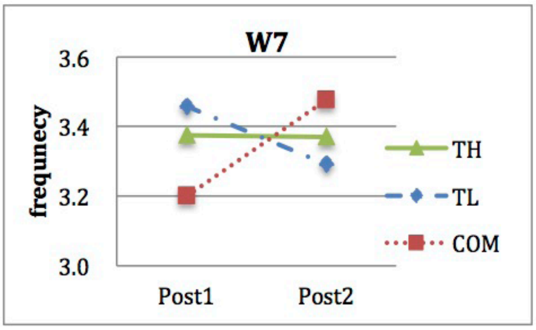
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Can Speaking Drills Promote Ideal L2-Speaking Self Images?

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A 10-month-long intervention study was conducted to examine the effects of speaking activities in class on the development of the Ideal L2-speaking Self images. A total of 110 first-year senior high school students read aloud, practiced the repeating of, and recited the texts whose meanings were familiar to them during regular English class hours. Positive changes were observed during the experiment in Standard Scores of the participants in national standardized English proficiency tests and their oral performances. The questionnaire with twelve six-point Likert items adopted from Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009) was administered as pre- and post- tests. A paired T-test was run, and the change in ratings over time was compared. The results were contrary to the teachers' expectations. The rating of all three factors, i.e., Ideal L2 Self, Ought to Self, and Attitudes to Learning English, dropped after the experiment. Possible reasons for this unexpected results are discussed.

授業中の英語を話す活動が、L2を話す理想の自己の形成に及ぼす効果を確かめるため、10ヶ月の介入実験が行われた。高校1年生110名が、授業中に内容が分かった英文の音読やリピーティング、暗唱を行った。期間中、模試偏差値や英語による発表に向上が見られた。Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009)から採用した6点のリッカート法12項目の質問紙を、事前と事後に実施し、対応のあるT検定を用い評定の変化を調べた。結果は教師の予想に反するもので、L2を話す理想の自己、義務自己、英語学習に対する態度の3要因ともに後退した。この想定外の結果について、複数の理由が検討された。

In Dörnyei's motivational self-system model, motivation is redefined as the desire to achieve one's ideal language self by reducing the perceived discrepancy between one's actual and ideal selves (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). Dörnyei and his associates added another concept of "ought-to L2 self." The "ought self" originally represents the attributes people believe that they ought to possess such as sense of duty, obligations, and responsibilities (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002). The distinction between the "ideal self" and the "ought self", according to Csizér and Dörnyei (2005), stems from the two dimensions of instrumentality. They claim that instrumental motives with a promotion focus (e.g., to learn English for the sake of professional advancement) are related to the "ideal self", whereas instrumental motives with a prevention focus (e.g., study in order not to fail the test) are part of the "ought self".

Although Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) mainly refer to the self-system of English learners in Hungary, it could be argued that the importance of having clear image of a possible self or ideal L2 self is applicable to other learners in EFL contexts. For instance, Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide and Shimizu (2004) claim whether or not they can visualize "English-using selves" clearly is a key to success among Japanese

Kawashima, T. (2017). Can speaking drills promote ideal L2-speaking self images? In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 145-150). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

university English learners. These arguments provide practical implications for language teaching. In other words, there is a growing expectation that teachers help students develop their ideal L2 selves in as clear, concrete, and achievable a way as possible on a regular basis. As a potential pedagogical approach, the effects of speaking-focused activities on developing Ideal L2-speaking Self images were examined in this study.

Classes integrating four language skills are encouraged at senior high schools by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). Although MEXT introduced oral communication course to senior high schools in 1993 (Nishino, 2008), teachers were unwilling to change their conventional teaching (Yoshida, 2003). This is because teachers feel they are primarily responsible for preparing their students for grammar- or reading-oriented entrance examinations (Sakui, 2004). The introduction of a listening component in the preliminary university entrance exam, Center Test, in 2006 made a small difference. Teachers started sparing certain amount of time for listening practice in class as preparation for entrance exams. However, very limited time has been spent on speaking and writing activities. In such a language learning context, it can be hypothesized that the lack of experiences of speaking English has made it difficult for students to visualize English speaking selves and that ample opportunities to speak English in class will help them attain clearer Ideal L2-speaking Self images. This research was designed to verify this hypothesis.

Methods

Three teachers in charge of six classes of students discussed the syllabus of the course and decided to give speaking-focused activities. The course was offered to 240 1st-year students at a public senior high school as part of the regular English lessons of *English Communication I*. Speaking-focused activities were held throughout the 1-year-long course. The activities consisted of reading aloud or repeating of the texts of the authorized textbook, monthly recitation of the text by individual students in class, monthly semi-structured interview by an assistant language teacher, and group performance named "Speak Out!" once every 4 months. By holding these activities, teachers aimed to tell students that memorization could create the base for oral production, and that they would have only to recycle the English they memorized when they speak English.

Reading Aloud and Repeating

To assist student reading comprehension of the textbook and to shorten the time to check student comprehension, a Japanese translation of the textbook with blanks was provided as a worksheet before the class. By using the worksheet, they were able to spend more time on reading aloud and repeating to internalize the English they had understood. Teachers spent 15-20 minutes on these speaking activities in the 50-minute-long class.

Recitation and Free Talk

As the second speaking-focused activity, students recited part of the textbook in class. The texts were 100 words long, and students made a recitation on a regular basis about once a month. In a weekly team-taught lesson, 10 students made a recitation. After a Japanese teacher gave comments on a student oral presentation, the student went out of the classroom to have a talk with the assistant language teacher in the corridor. The teacher asked questions about the textbook and had a free conversation.

"Speak Out!"

In order to give students more chances to use the English they had memorized, a special event called "Speak Out!" was held at the end of each school term. Students were divided into groups of five and they chose one lesson from the textbook lessons. Then, each group prepared the script of a talk show. One student became a moderator and the remaining four students played the roles of the guests invited to the talk show. The guests should be someone or some creature appearing in the lesson. Students were told to recycle as much English in the textbook as possible in preparing their scripts.

Positive Changes during the Intervention

There were two changes in the course of study: the improvement of academic score in national standardized proficiency tests, and the improvement of student recitation. All the students sat for the Shinken Test, which was a standardized proficiency test for high school students going to universities. It was administered nationwide three times a year by a private educational corporation and gathers 300,000 to 400,000 test takers for each test administration. The results of the test were used to judge the relative ability of the students among prospective rivals all over Japan. The test results provide test scores and Standard Scores (SS). The Standard Score, called "hensachi" in Japanese, shows how apart the ability of the test taker is from the average of the whole test takers. The average SS of the participants in this research (N=118) was 60.3 in their first English test in July 2014 and the standard deviation was 7.7. In their third test given in January 2015, the average SS rose to 62.2 and the SD was 7.4. The paired t-test indicated that the 1.9 difference between the two test administrations was significant [$t(111)=3.56$, $p< .001$]. Moreover, the reduced SD in the third test clearly showed that students at all proficiency levels improved their SS in six months.

The other positive change noticeable to the teachers was the improvement of recitation. The improvement of student performance in fluency and confidence, though impressionistic, was observed. The number of unnecessary pauses or rephrasing decreased and their performance became more fluent. Moreover, the teachers found that students became more confident in speaking English and that the increasing number of students seemed to be enjoying speaking English.

Data Collection and Analysis

The questionnaire was adopted from Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009). In their study, the test items were administered to 1586 Japanese as well as 1328 Chinese and 2029 Iranians. For this study, a total of 12 items were selected in order to elicit three factors, namely, six items for Ideal L2-speaking Self, four items for Ought-to L2 Self and two items for Attitudes to Learning English. All items except for one (Factor 1, Item 4) were chosen from the items administered to Japanese participants in the Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009) study so that it would make comparisons possible. However, two items for Attitudes to Learning English were omitted because they were judged to have limited relevance to this study. Students answered the degrees of their agreement/disagreement with respective statements on a six-point Liker scale. The pretest was administered in the regular class period in April 2014 before they started speaking-focused activities, and the post-test data was collected 10 months later in February 2015. By the second administration, students had given recitation six or seven times and experienced two "Speak Out!" The 240 students were evenly divided into six classes based on the results of entrance examinations. For a technical reason, data was collected from half of 240 students in three classes. Furthermore, the data of eight students was excluded because they failed to attend both data collection sessions, making the final number of the data available for the analysis 112. To analyze whether there was a significant change in three factors, a paired t-test was run on the data of each test item.

Results

The means of 12 test items in the pretest and post-test are tabulated in Tables 1, 2, and 3. In order to avoid Type I error, the Bonferroni adjustment was made for the number of comparisons. For instance, in the case of Factor 1 which was elicited by six items, the adjusted alpa level of .0083 was adopted for the 5% significance level ($.05 / 6 = .0083$) and .0017 for the 1% significance level ($.01 / 6 = .0017$) to test each of six comparisons for significance. The far right column of each table has the means of the rating when the identical test items were administered to Japanese university students by Taguchi et al. (2009).

Factor 1: Ideal L2-speaking Self

The mean of the rating of five test items dropped in the post-test. However, the only significant difference was found in the negative change of Item 3 "I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English" [$t(111)=3.51$, $p< .0017$]. Compared with the rating by Japanese university students, the present sample of high school students agreed slightly more strongly

Table 1
Ideal L2-speaking Self

	Test Item	pre	post	sig	cf.
1	I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English.	3.16	2.95	*	2.90
2	I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.	3.75	3.45	*	3.70
3	I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.	3.80	3.43	**	3.76
4	I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.	3.03	2.76	*	-
5	Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.	3.00	2.91		3.33
6	The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.	3.68	3.73		4.55

Note. ** = $p < .01$

Table 2
Ought to L2 Self

	Test Item	pre	post	sig	cf.
1	I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.	2.93	2.72		2.51
2	I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.	2.53	2.32		2.22
3	Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.	2.52	2.35		2.59
4	My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.	3.80	3.90		2.50

Table 3
Attitudes to Learning English

	Test Item	pre	post	sig	cf.
1	I find learning English really interesting.	4.56	4.29	*	4.32
2	I always look forward to English classes.	3.91	3.40	**	3.65

Note. ** = $p < .01$

with the statement that they can imagine themselves living abroad and having a discussion in English. On the other hand, the group of high school students did not imagine themselves using English as clearly as their university counterparts did, and high school students disagreed more strongly with the statement that the things they wanted to do in the future would require them to use English.

Factor 2: Ought to L2 Self

The rating of the factor "Ought to L2 Self" went down. Participants rated all test items but one more negatively in the post-test. They disagreed to a greater extent with the statements that they had to study English due to the external expectations of their close friends and parents. However, the rating of Item 4 went up from 3.80 to 3.90. The analysis determined no statistically significant difference. In comparison with the rating by university students, the Ought to L2 Self factor was rated slightly more highly by high school students (Test Items 1, 2, and 4). Especially Item 4 showed a wide gap in the rating between university and high school students.

Factor 3: Attitudes to Learning English

Attitudes of high school students became significantly more negative to learning English after the experiment. Participants disagreed more strongly to the statement "I always look forward to English classes" in the post-test and the difference reached the significance level of 1% [t(111)= 4.57, p< .005]. Likewise, significantly stronger disagreement was expressed to the item "I find learning English really interesting" after the experimental lessons [t(111)=2.55, p< .025]. The original attitudes of high school students measured in the pre-test were slightly more positive to learning English than the attitudes of university students.

Discussion

The results show that students who had attended speaking focused lessons for ten months visualized their future selves less clearly as an English speaker. Several reasons could be possible as to why Ideal L2-speaking Self images did not grow among them. One reason might be the timing of data collection. Initial excitement at the start of a new high school life might have helped students to overestimate themselves in the pretest. This is supported by the fact that the rating of some test items in the pretest was much higher than the rating by university students. The Japanese sample in the Taguchi et al. study consisted of 319 English majors and 1180 non-English majors. The sample had a higher ratio of English majors than the actual percentage in society. Considering Ryan's (2009) research findings that indicated a significant difference for Ideal L2 Self between Japanese non-English major university students and English majors, it could be speculated that the rating of Ideal L2-speaking Self was higher than the average rating by general university students. However, the rating of some items in the pretest was even higher than in the Taguchi et al. study. Therefore, if the intervention had started later in the academic year and the first data collection had been delayed, the rating might have been lower.

Another reason may be concerned with students' high sense of aspiration. Although the improvement of English ability was proved by the test results and they became able to speak English more fluently, students might not be fully content with their own progress. The central theme of Dörnyei's conception within an L2 motivational self system is the equation of integrative motivation with the ideal L2 self (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). However, participants in this study might not have recognized L2-speaking Self explicitly. The survey shows two characteristics of the students. Compared with their counterparts in universities, they were much strongly influenced by their parental belief that studying English is necessary to be educated (Factor 2: Ought to L2 Self, Item 4). At the same time, they did not perceive as clear a need to use English in achieving their goals as university students did (Factor 1: Ideal L2-speaking Self, Item 6). These findings suggest that participants were not fully aware of the need to use English and that they studied English simply because their parents told them to. Dörnyei (2009) argues that "the Ideal L2 Self is an effective motivator only if: the learner *has* a desired future self-image; which is *elaborate* and *vivid*; which is perceived as *plausible* and is in harmony – or at least does not clash – with the expectations of the learner's family..." (p. 18, emphasis original). In light of these conditions necessary to activate the Ideal L2 Self, it could be argued that L2-speaking Self did not become an elaborate and vivid future self-image for participants in this study.

Reasons related to pedagogy might be possible too. Despite the teachers' emphasis that reading aloud, repeating, and recitation had much in common with impromptu speech, students might have differentiated the former with the latter. Therefore, when asked if they could speak English, they underestimated their speaking abilities. Still another reason might be that students did not enjoy the speaking-focused activities so much as teachers thought students did. Although their English speaking abilities improved, they might not have been satisfied with the way teachers conducted the class. A positive relationship between anxiety and English proficiency level is reported for Japanese university students by Brown, Robson and Rosenkjar (1996). They found that students in the high proficiency group were the most anxious. As shown by the SS, participants in this study had high

English proficiency levels. This might suggest that they had higher levels of anxiety as well. Asked if they liked it or not, many students might have answered that they did not like recitation. Speaking in front of the class might have been a stressor strong enough to negate the sense of satisfaction toward their own achievements. One more possible reason might be that the change in Ideal L2-speaking Self images might not be linear. Instead, the change might be curvilinear. It may become more difficult to attain Ideal L2-speaking Self images in the course of development. Then with some continued efforts, it might become easy again to gain Ideal L2-speaking Self images. My review of the literature reveals that few longitudinal studies of Ideal L2-speaking Self have been documented.

Although this research could not verify the hypothesis that ample speaking experiences would help leaners to attain Ideal L2-speaking Self images, the results of this study suggest the need for more longitudinal studies of Ideal L2-speaking Self with frequent data collection.

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Back-to-the-Future Essays Come Alive

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This is an exploratory qualitative study investigating how writing a "back-to-the-future" essay and revising it helped an L2 learner to envision a clear and elaborate ideal self-image and actively exert agency on behaviors she believes to match the image she has of her ideal self. In this paper, I focus on a former university music major who continues cultivating visions for her future through composing essays, pretending she is her future self, and writing as if looking back on her past. The analyses demonstrated that "back-to-the-future" essays can be a motivating tool and a powerful self-guide. In her first essay, she envisioned her future ideal self, while in the second she mapped out pathways to her ideal. It is important for teachers to urge learners to continue revisiting and revising their essays to keep their vision alive and transform it into action.

この研究は「未来から見た自分史」を書き改訂する過程が、第二言語学習者の長期的動機づけにどのような効果を生むかを調査するものであり、音楽専攻の大学課程修了者1名を対象としたケーススタディーである。このタイプのエッセイは学習者の未来へのビジョンを明確に具体的に表現したものとなるため、第二言語習得過程でセルフガイドとしてより効果的であると考えられる。一作目は自分が成長したいと切望するイメージを描き、二作目はその姿を実現するためのより具体的なプランを練り上げている。「未来から見た自分史」は学習者自身が折に触れて振り返り改訂していくことが重要であり、教師はその過程をサポートすべきである。

For the past several decades, L2 motivation research has experienced more than a few theoretical phases such as the social psychological period and the cognitive-situated period. Currently, a vision-based approach is gaining popularity in conjunction with the theoretical development of the L2 motivational self-system (Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). Visions, or mental simulations, have dual functions—cognitive and motivational (Paivio, 1986). In mentally simulating their future, people create a goal, make plans to achieve the goal, and try out various strategies in the process of trying to achieve the goal. This is the cognitive function. At the same time, people are energized through envisioning their possible future selves of having attained the goal. This is the motivational function. These two cognitive and motivational processes are likely independent but complementary.

Possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986) have been defined as "the future-oriented aspects of self-concept," (Oyserman & James, 2009, p. 373) and work as future self-guides, which reflect present challenges and possible changes for the better. As such, envisioning future possible selves can have important implications for current decision making that will affect future goal pursuit and influence future outcomes. When people clearly depict and imagine elaborately detailed desired future self images, they feel the images to be closer and identify with them to a greater degree, thus increasing motivation to pursue the benefits and self-improvement goals (Perunovic & Wilson, 2009).

Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) suggest that teachers can motivate their students by having them produce narratives in which L2 learners develop

Kimura, H. (2017). Back-to-the-Future essays come alive. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 151-156). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

their visions as competent L2 users. That is, learners imagine they are now successful L2 users and write an autobiographical story in relation to how they have progressed. This retrospective narrative or future history, referred to as a "back-to-the-future" essay in this study, is more powerful in spurring the desire for action as well as impelling learners toward that action than a forward-looking essay expressing abstract future goals (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014).

In an empirical study, Whitty (2002) demonstrated that back-to-the-future essays were effective in helping L2 learners develop their successful learner identities. However, generating a vision with a successful self-image does not automatically translate into actions that actually lead to stretching a learner's skills. Approaching a desired long-term goal requires a commitment or a prolonged process of engagement (Libby & Eibach, 2009). Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) compiled a list of nine conditions for such images to enhance actual practices: (a) the learner has a strong desire to become the imaged self; (b) a gap exists between the present self and the desired self (Higgins, 1987); (c) the future self is not within easy reach; (d) the future self is conceived as plausible; (e) the image is rich in specific details; (f) the image acts as a roadmap toward the goal, accompanied by procedural strategies; (g) the future self is in harmony with other aspects of his/her self-concept; (h) the image is activated regularly; and (i) the ideal self image is counterbalanced by a feared self-image. Under these conditions, in theory, visions described in back-to-the-future essays have the potential to motivate learning behaviors.

Furthermore, both the visions that learners create and the strategies they use to implement them may be modified or transformed. However elaborately formulated the initial visions, it is likely that revisions, manipulations, or changes will inevitably occur at least in some cases, or at least to some extent. Also, an ideal L2 self does not stand alone. As condition (g) states, this self should be compatible, and even interactive, with other aspects of the learner's self-concept. Different life goals and motives operate in parallel in a dynamic but coherent system of self-concept (Mischel & Morf, 2003) and the L2 self can be stretched or bent into different shapes. These multi-dimensional, malleable, and dynamic characteristics of learners' self-concepts, including their idea L2 selves have yet to be explored in SLA, to the best of my knowledge. Furthermore, no study has investigated whether the above-mentioned conditions are appropriate prerequisites for enhancing learner vision.

In this single case study, I examine how an L2 learner established and nurtured her possible selves in two essays that were written a year apart. In exploring this overall research question, I set up the following specific research questions, which are in line with the conditions.

RQ1 from Condition (a) (envisioning desired future selves): To what extent has the learner maintained or modified the desired future image?

RQ2 from Conditions (b), (c), and (d) (plausible goals and fantasy): How has she managed the balance between plausible goals and fantasy?

RQ3 from Conditions (e) & (f) (breaking down a career path into more manageable tasks): How have the strategies she employs been developed, changed, or abandoned?

RQ4 from Condition (g) (compatibility with other possible selves): How compatible is her desired self-image with other aspects of her self-concept?

RQ5 from Condition (h) (regular activation of desired future selves): How has she been negotiating with her future visions?

RQ6 from Condition (i) (ought-to self or feared self): How does her future ideal self relate to her ought-to self or feared self?

Methods

Participant

The single participant of this study is a university graduate called Ryo (pseudonym), who majored in music and participated in a government-funded, short study abroad program in 2013 (Hayashi, Kimura, Kumagai, Morris, & Tashima, 2014). She was 22 years old when she wrote the first essay and 23 when she produced the second.

Procedure

In July 2015, I asked Ryo to compose a back-to-the-future essay in which she pretends she is her future self 10 years later, writing the essay as if she were looking back on her past. I defined the essay as a life history looking backwards from the future (*miraikara-mita-jiubun-shi*, in Japanese). She composed her essay in her free time and submitted it in September 2015. In May 2016, I asked Ryo if she would like to revise her back-to-the-future essay and she agreed. For this request, she produced a visual representation of her plan for the next 10 years, which she called a mind map, as well as a follow-up essay in June 2016. I call this visual representation and essay her second essay.

I also conducted informal interviews three times in her native language, Japanese. The first of these was before she composed her first essay (July 2015), the second was before she composed the second essay (May 2016), and the third was after she finished her mind-map and follow-up essay (July 2016). Each interview was about 30 minutes long. The interviews were collected as secondary data to supplement the essay data.

Analysis

The data along with the visual representation were coded for different themes and different future selves (Dörnyei, 2009). Some of the themes and future selves were embedded in episodes, or small stories (Bamberg, 2006). In Bamberg's idea, small stories are situated in longer narratives such as life history or biography and writers' different identities are being negotiated in constructing small stories.

Results

The First Essay

Ryo composed a 2,698 character-long "back-to-the-future" essay in Japanese. The essay was divided into six sections: (a) introduction, (b) study abroad, (c) music performance, (d) teaching music, (e) business and international activities, and (f) conclusion. Each section was about 400 characters long. Ryo took the third person perspective in picturing herself (Libby, Shaeffer, Eibach, & Slemmer, 2007), thus, she pretended that a 32-year-old Ryo was writing a letter to a 22-year-old Ryo, just like she was writing a letter to a longtime good friend, or a younger sister. For example, she started her essay with "Hello!" and finished with "Write to you again later!" The images of her future selves, including her musician selves and L2 selves, were depicted in the narrative from a somewhat outsider perspective, with a few small stories as if they had actually happened in her life and inspired her to move forward. In her letter-style essay, she constructed a coherent success story and in so doing, encouraged her past self, writing that she had made the right decision back then. For the purpose of achieving the goals in her field, her L2 selves studying abroad and performing in foreign languages worked together with her successful musician selves, such as a singer self, a contestant self in auditions, a music teacher self, and an entrepreneur self, among others with reference to specific names of contests, musicians, concert halls, and the name of her fictional music school. In writing, she used technical terms such as a special role given to opera soprano singers—soubrette—and a shortened name of a concert hall, Sei-bun, for Seinen Bunka Hall. These terms effectively demonstrated that she was writing to a "buddy."

The Second Essay

For her second essay, Ryo drew a colorful roadmap with relevant procedural steps toward her future goals, accompanied by a short follow-up essay of 543 characters long. On the roadmap, there were stepping stones toward her ideal selves, that is, detailed plans to achieve her goals. In the second essay Ryo activated and explored most of her future selves. However, she did not refer to her entrepreneur self. This revised essay turned out to be a forward-looking essay rather than a backward-future history. Although her L2 self was described less explicitly in this revised essay, it was implied that she would need relatively high L2 skills in taking lessons in English and studying abroad in order to achieve her ideal musician self.

Discussion

Envisioning Desired Future Selves (RQ 1)

Ryo clearly describes her desired future selves in the first and second essays. As a classical singer, she is performing in recitals and concerts. She is interested in early music, specifically the Renaissance and Baroque periods. She wrote that the decision she made 10 years ago was the right one—that is, she would pursue a career in music instead of taking the first available job. Some of her plans were concrete. For example, she referred to specific pieces she sang in her concerts—requiems by Mozart and Faure. She named her music school, Ensemble ♪, and made a list of what her students could learn in the school.

She said in the second interview that when writing this essay, she visualized herself performing and imagined hearing the orchestra playing behind her in a concert hall. "It (the image) came naturally," she recounted. In her image, she wore a dress she actually owned and saw familiar faces in the audience.

Plausible Goals and Fantasy (RQ 2)

Conditions (b), (c), and (d) require that the learner negotiate a delicate balance between a sheer fantasy that cannot possibly translate into goal-pursuing behaviors and an overly realistic goal that will not boost aspirations. Neither end possesses significant motivational capacity or mobilizes potential for writers to move in a desired future direction. In the first essay, Ryo imagined herself as a highly successful musician. Although this image was likely closer to fantasy or daydreaming and her aspirations are over-optimistic and out of touch with reality, it helped in her visionary journey toward mapping out a pathway to success as she defined it. In the second essay, her ideal self undertook a reality check and became more grounded in realistic expectations: she did not write about herself as an invited singer at a concert held in a renowned concert hall, for example. However, instead of becoming disillusioned and abandoning her goal, in her second essay, she clearly described her musician self, as well as her high L2 skills. That is, Ryo was taking lessons in an English-medium academia and singing in several European languages. It appears that the imaginary successful musician self in her first essay provided a significant potential impact on the action plans described in her second essay.

Breaking Down a Career Path into More Manageable Tasks (RQ 3)

Ryo's second essay constituted a timeline or a set of action plans with step-by-step, short-term goals along the way and charted the progress towards her long-term goal. She operationalized her life goals as a musician and a successful language user. Her stepping stones were concrete with names of lessons, seminars, sessions, teachers, and other performers. In particular, her action plans for 2016–2017 (her immediate future) were color-coded and tangible. The 2016 plans were made into a monthly schedule and seemed to be specific tasks that required completion in order to reach the goal or the prerequisites needed for entry into more special music and language training.

This specificity posed a clear contrast with her first essay, in which notions about the ways to achieve her life goal were fuzzy. The differences between the two essays demonstrated how Ryo had negotiated the above-mentioned balance between a daydream and her reality. She planned her route toward her ideal self and sketched out an outline or a blueprint to make it happen in her second essay.

Compatibility with Other Possible Selves (RQ 4)

Neither of Ryo's ideal musician selves nor her L2 selves stand alone. In her imagination, she is singing and taking lessons in her native and foreign languages, depending upon the songs she practices, the country she studies in, and the teacher who gives her lessons. She said in the third interview that when taking lessons, she would like to understand what her teacher says to her "directly," not through interpreters. Her ideal musician self is likely to be a competent multilingual self. The third interview happened to be conducted a month before she planned to take singing lessons from an English-speaking teacher in Yamanashi. I asked if she anticipated any problems in communicating with the teacher in English. She replied that she was not worried but excited by the opportunity.

Regular Activation of Desired Future Selves (RQ 5)

The roadmap Ryo produced as her second essay became her action plan, with stepping stones on the pathway toward her desired self. She put the roadmap on the wall in front of her desk and continued to revise it with a repertoire of appropriate plans, scripts, and strategies. She said in the third interview, "The ideas (for the action plans) were already in my mind, and some were already ongoing, but putting them on paper made me think clearly about what I need to do in the next few years." It appears as though she experienced her future goal in her first essay (the end state) and the journey toward the goal in the second essay (the process).

Ought-to Self or Feared Self (RQ 6)

Ryo did not write about her ought-to self or feared self, but alluded to the undesired state, and she made it clear that she did not want to end up being perceived as lacking ability, unqualified, or indecisive. She wrote her first essay a few months after she failed a graduate school entrance examination. She wrote, "Back then, I was disappointed (at the results) and sunk into low spirits, but since then I've been supported by many people and I came all the way (to become a successful musician). Her feared self that must be avoided was the past self, mourning her failure and never returning to a challenging and competitive life as a musician.

Conclusion

In this case study, I demonstrated that writing "back-to-the-future" essays helped the participant to construct and cultivate her vision as a professional musician and as an L2 user. The results of this study supported the nine conditions for the motivating capacity of future self-guides. As her essays and interviews demonstrated, Ryo refused to let her vision fade. Instead, she expanded it into a plausible life goal accompanied by specific short-term sub-goals: "[T]he energy released by the vision needs to be channeled into constructive behavior" (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 99). It is likely that because Ryo communicated with her goal, successfully personalized it, and maintained an active vision, her second essay evolved into an elaborate action plan (Libby & Eibach, 2009). Although one case study does not translate to a golden route of successful "back-to-the-future" essay writing—and there are many different ways to use these types of backward essays to motivate learners—I recommend that teachers not only have their students construct their visions, but revisit and revise them as Ryo did and continues to do.

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Improving Spoken Anecdotes Through Error Correction and Task Repetition

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This presentation details the researcher's experimentation with a procedure designed to encourage improvements in university students' spoken production. After recording students' spoken anecdotes, the teacher provided a list of errors and elicited corrections individually. The students then listened to their own recording with the errors and corrections in front of them. It was hypothesized that the procedure would enable students to 'notice' their own errors and that this would lead to them not being repeated. Students' spoken production before and after the procedure was analysed for improvements or changes, and questionnaires were provided to students for feedback about the procedure.

この発表は研究者による大学生のスピーキング能力の向上を促進するために作られた手順を用いた実験について述べている。学生の会話を録音した後、教員は間違いと、その修正が書かれた紙を個々に与える。その後、学生はその紙を目の前に置きながら自分たちの録音を聞く。実験前後の学生のスピーキング活動は、学生に自分のミスに気付かせることを可能とするもの、そして、間違いを繰り返さないようにさせることができると仮定された。

The biggest challenge for many of my university English language students is in spoken fluency. While speaking and listening classes provide some remedy to this situation, practice opportunities are very limited due to large class sizes and the small percentage of foreigners in Japan with whom to practise speaking English. This situation led me to search for methods to help students to improve the quality of their spoken production, in terms of accuracy and fluency. This project took place over a ten-day period, focusing on two students recording their own two-minute spoken anecdotes. It aimed to answer the question "Can improvements in spoken anecdotes be encouraged through student self-assessment and task repetition?"

Marshall, P. A. (2017). Improving spoken anecdotes through error correction and task repetition. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 157-164). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Relevant Research

A great deal of research has been carried out into students 'noticing' their spoken errors. However, very little has been written about providing written corrective feedback on students' spoken production. The reason for this is presumably that students are usually taught in classes and therefore, teachers can rarely focus such a large amount of attention on individual students. Schmidt and Frota (1986) detail two kinds of 'noticing' that are necessary for acquisition:

1. Learners must attend to linguistic features of the input that they are exposed to, without which input cannot become 'intake'.
2. Learners must 'notice the gap'. That is to say, make comparisons between their current state of their developing linguistic system, as realized in their output, and the target language system, available as input.

Thornbury (1997) suggests that language teachers encourage noticing, by focusing their learners' attention on the distance to be covered between their current level of inter-language and their target language. He goes on to explain that corrective feedback can be a second type of 'noticing'.

Turning to the correction of students' speaking, Swain's (1985) output hypothesis claims that in order to improve their spoken accuracy, learners must be pushed to modify their problematic utterances. Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six different ways that teachers react to students' errors: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. The study found that recasts were the most commonly used, but that they were the least effective. Elicitation was found to be the most effective form of spoken corrective feedback in terms of leading to successful uptake.

Exact repetition of a task was the focus of a study (Bygate, 1996) which analysed two performances by one subject who was shown a video extract and then asked to retell the story. The task was repeated without warning three days later. Bygate found that this form of repetition led to some improvement in fluency and accuracy, and a marked improvement in repertoire – for example, a 75 per cent increase in subordinate clauses. He argued that these findings supported the hypothesis that during the initial task the learner was concerned primarily with heuristic planning of content, and was under pressure of time when seeking the linguistic resources to communicate it. On the second attempt, the content of the task being more familiar, she was more concerned with giving attention to the linguistic formulation.

There are some possible differences that could result from task repetition. For example:

> we might expect performance to be more fluent in terms of pausing and speed of words per minute. This is because all things being equal we would expect that doing the task a second time would involve less planning work. Also it is likely to have a different form: because the task has already been formulated previously, we can expect fewer false starts and self corrections (Bygate, 1996, p. 138).

As a result of my background reading into the literature, and due to practical reasons, I concluded that it might be effective to provide my students with written corrective feedback on their spoken production and then elicit corrections. The use of written error correction is beneficial in the sense that it leaves students with a record of errors and corrections, whereas spoken error correction does not do this.

Participants

The two students who participated in this study were both female Japanese nationals and full-time students of International Culture at Shizuoka University of Art and Culture (SUAC). They were both twenty years old and were very motivated to improve their spoken production due to their intention to study abroad in the near future. Both students had a reasonable level of fluency but there was certainly potential to improve this further. They also both had what I considered to be ingrained errors in certain aspects of their pronunciation. Their lexical and grammatical accuracy was also of a reasonable level but with room for improvement. The errors produced by these students in all aspects of their spoken production are minor in the sense that they almost never impede communication; the essential meaning that they try to convey almost always gets across to the listener but with varying levels of 'exactness'.

Aims & Method

This procedure was designed to improve *fluency* by allowing students to repeatedly listen to themselves speaking. It was thought that familiarity with the task would allow students to increase in confidence and to therefore become more able to speak comfortably and comprehensively.

It was hoped that *pronunciation* could be improved by directly providing students with some form of error correction. The teacher/researcher would then also have to model and drill the correct forms. Students would then be asked to listen to the recording of themselves speaking while looking at these errors. In addition to being provided with error correction, learners' pronunciation might be indirectly improved by hearing themselves speak.

It was believed that grammatical and lexical *accuracy* might also be improved through the process of the teacher/researcher directly providing error correction and eliciting corrections, and then students re-listening to their own spoken production while reading through a written record of errors and corrections.

The combined result of improvements in *fluency*, *pronunciation*, and grammatical and lexical *accuracy* should lead to an increase in the quality of the language produced.

This study took place during five one-to-one lessons over a period of ten days. The two students and I embarked upon an intensive preparation schedule to improve their spoken production. During each of the five sessions, students were given a topic and one minute to prepare to speak for two minutes. The topics and format of this task were borrowed from part 2 of the IELTS speaking exam. The students were asked to record themselves speaking, using their mobile phones. While the students spoke, the teacher/researcher listened and noted down any errors in pronunciation, lexis and grammar. After each recorded performance, they were provided with a list of errors to which the researcher elicited corrections (Appendix 1). Students then listened to the recording at home with the errors and corrections in front of them.

It was hoped that this procedure would enable students to 'notice' their own errors from one practice session to the next, and to a greater extent from the beginning to the end of the five sessions, and that this may lead to them not being repeated. It was also hoped that the task repetition involved would benefit students in terms of fluency. Topics were not repeated. In order to allow analysis of any changes in students' spoken output, I recorded the first and final spoken anecdotes produced by each student out of the series of five, on a separate phone. In addition, I created a questionnaire (Appendix 2) for students to complete at the end of the study, which encouraged them to reflect on the process, and whether or not it had led to improvements in their spoken production.

Results

Analysis of Students' First and Final Spoken Performances

I input examples of language produced by the students during the first and final spoken performances, into a Thematic Chart. An example of which is provided below. (Table 1). Due to limitations of space, the full analysis of students' spoken performances cannot be displayed here in a thematic chart. Thematic charts are an effective way to compare sets of data. In this case, it allowed changes, patterns, similarities and differences to be identified between language produced during the first and final performances, and between the two students.

Student A produced 165 words in two minutes during the first performance and 150 words during the final one. However, the researcher noted that her rate of speech seemed quicker during the final performance and also that there was more interconnection between sentences. That is, coherence and cohesion of the spoken text as a whole, increased. Although there was some interconnection between sentences during the first performance it was unnatural and disjointed (examples of unnatural interconnection between sentences are *underlined and italicized*, and examples of more natural interconnection between sentences are underlined in Table 1). She self-corrected several times in both performances. Possible reasons for this include increased confidence, increased ability due to practice, and increased self-awareness.

Regarding retention of corrected errors, student A repeated some of the same errors in the final performance despite being provided with error correction for these after the first performance. The clearest example of this was with the use of the present simple instead of past simple when talking about the past. Non-improvement in errors which were pointed out also occurred with omitting articles, but the rules surrounding articles are notoriously complex and can take a lifetime to master.

Furthermore, there were many instances where student A was corrected on her pronunciation after the first performance and yet continued to make the same error in the final performance. Pronunciation errors can become ingrained and are also considered

Table 1

Distinctive Features of the Organizational Structure of Three Participating Universities

Name	Fluency	Vocabulary	Grammar	Pronunciation	Natural Language Strategy
**** 165 words in 2 mins	Quite low thinking time. Fairly quick and fluent. Occasional self-correction.	Excited / exciting (self-corrected) Study myself. I would like to introduce my music teacher. I met him for second grade. He is really good voice. Table manner. For all people.	I'm a student of university. Someday I'm want to be English teacher. *Some class I don't want to take it but I have to take for graduation so I should take it.* That is the only thing I hate to be a student. Almost all I am free. I prefer to spend time with my friend than be alone. When I was junior high school student. Have (had) A lot of class of him. He played the saxophone really well. Students loved this teacher and I loved this teacher too. (no referencing) Go (went) University of music.	For (ow) Of (ow) So (o-e-w) Childfood Langage (no gwage) Talk (towk) Taught (towt) People (pee-pow) Job (jowb)	...and I also study... Someday, I want to... , so I think,... Hang out with my friend. ...so I can learn English and Portuguese from customers. ...so it's not enough for me. Not only English, but another kind of language. Yeah. Last week I met him...
150 words in 2 mins	Pace of speaking is quicker. More inter-connected sentences. Self-correction of grammar	All people. Writer (artist)	It is located east of Shizuoka. My parents should go Shizuoka for work. When I was junior high school student. (no article) But there are no place to hang out with my friends, so I have to go. (were, places, had) ...so that part I hate my hometown. I have studied English for 14 years. When I entered the elementary school when I was 6 years old, sometimes teachers from other countries taught me English.	Parents (pawents) Walk/work sound similar. Ago (agew)	I wanted to hang out with my friends a lot. Yes, I think they should charge entrance fee because...

by many researchers to be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to rectify. Unfortunately, there were no obvious instances where the student produced the correct version of a piece of lexis or grammar which she had been previously corrected on. However, there were many errors which appeared during the first performance but were not repeated during the final performance.

Student B showed a great deal of improvement in fluency and understanding. She produced 117 words in two minutes in the first performance, and 173 words in the final performance. Also, having paused for long periods before answering, and requesting repetition of the question during the first performance, she answered quickly and did not pause or ask for repetition during the final performance.

Student B produced a variety of errors in the first performance, for which corrections were elicited. Some examples of these are incorrect referencing "Parks... its... its", countable / uncountable nouns "So many delicious food there", and incorrectly formed past tense "We can learned". Unfortunately, in the final performance, similar errors were produced. One example is that referencing was non-existent rather than wrong, meaning that student B repeated the same nouns instead of replacing them with pronouns such as 'it' or 'them'.

In a similar way to student A, student B also failed to correct errors in pronunciation which were pointed out. It is possible that this is because they have become fossilized and are produced automatically while the students' minds are focused on the content of what they are saying. Perhaps a pronunciation-specific programme would be necessary to correct such errors. To briefly explain this, the processing of information involves a shift from controlled to automatic processing. This is called 'automatisation', and occurs when certain information is accessed repeatedly. A good analogy of automatisation is playing the guitar and singing. When someone first learns the guitar, it takes a great deal of concentration to form each chord with the fingers. An experienced singer/guitarist can focus mostly on singing and form the chords almost subconsciously. However, according to Mitchell and Myles (2004): "Automatized sequences are stored as units in the LTM...however, once acquired, such automatized skills are very difficult to delete or modify" (p. 101)

Final Questionnaires

Both students were very positive about the procedure in the feedback they provided on their questionnaires. Both students A and B said that the technique was helpful because it made them aware of errors and allowed them to fix them. Student A said that the technique helped her with fluency, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, whereas student B specified grammar and pronunciation. Student A mentioned that being able to discuss the errors with the teacher was helpful. Student B suggested that more language input would have helped. Both students said that listening to themselves repeatedly is beneficial.

Conclusion

Overall, it appears that this procedure was constructive and beneficial for all involved. Very real improvements were made throughout the process in some areas, although to what extent these were due to the error correction and listening technique which was utilized, is impossible to determine. However, this study involved only two participants and covered only five sessions, and therefore generalizability is very limited.

Of course, the act of focusing on a task and repeating it several times should, in itself, encourage improvements in the quality of task performance. In order to really determine to what extent error correction played a role in the improvements that were observed, a further experiment which includes a control group would have to be conducted.

Reflection on Findings

I will continue to use a similar procedure with students in the future where realistically possible, because I feel that they will benefit from the feedback loop which incorporates practice, error correction and applying that error correction to a subsequent performance of the task. Of course, this will depend greatly on time and logistical factors because the procedure is not very economical in terms of utilizing a teacher efficiently as a resource. I believe that providing written error correction for spoken errors proved to be somewhat effective in this instance. The process of eliciting corrections, and then allowing students to take these away and notice the errors while listening to recordings of themselves was, in my opinion, one of the main strengths of this procedure. In terms of improvements to the method, I will attempt to take on board student B's suggestion to provide more language input, but in practical terms this might be time-consuming.

This procedure or an adapted version could be utilized to encourage improvements in a variety of spoken production tasks; I plan to experiment with providing written error correction for spoken errors for pronunciation, grammar, and lexical choice separately in future research. It would also be interesting and valuable to experiment with the correction of treatable versus non-treatable errors in the procedure followed during the current study.

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Appendix 1

Teacher / Examiner's Corrections

Student speaking	Correction
I'm a student of university.	I'm a university student.
Almost all I am free.	I'm usually free.
Students loved this teacher and I loved this teacher too.	...and I loved him too.
Have to talk a lot of people.	talk to
Language ~~skill~~ is best ability.	is the most useful skill.
Is really important in the future	Will be...
Get job another country.	Get a job in another country.
Japan has really stable economy	a really
They works for country.	They work for the country.
Teacher in Japan works hard compared to other country teacher.	Teachers work / teachers in other countries.
More high salary.	Higher salary
Salary should be separated by status.	salary should depend on status.
childfood	childhood
langage (no gu)	guage

Appendix 2

Student Self-Assessment Form

Extended Speaking (90 seconds)

Assess yourself while listening to yourself:

1. How long did you speak for?
2. Was your speaking fast, normal, or slow?
3. Did you describe details (for example sounds / colours / feelings)?
4. Did you use sequencing words for each part of your story (First, After that, Next, Finally)?
5. Score your own speaking 1 – 4 (1= strong, 2 = not too bad, 3 = not too good, 4 = weak)

Fluency: 1 / 2 / 3 / 4

Grammar (level and accuracy): 1 / 2 / 3 / 4

Vocabulary (level and accuracy): 1 / 2 / 3 / 4

Pronunciation: 1 / 2 / 3 / 4

6. Can you think of more to say about this topic?

7. How can you improve your performance on this task the next time you do it?

Exploring Language Learning Advisors' Practical Knowledge: A Taxonomic Perspective

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The credibility of any professional should be based on degree of knowledge and experience. Credentials in many cases however, are determined solely by academic degrees, publications and/or memberships to professional organizations. For professionals involved with Language Learning Advising (LLA) however, there is a significant need to acquire background and up-to-date specialized knowledge on various aspects of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) as well as counselling practices. The "standard of knowledge" which represents current practices in LLA (knowledge domains, skills, values) has not been fully examined or detailed in current LLA literature. This research thus aims to identify and compile current standards of knowledge, which reflects LLA-in-action.

専門家の信頼性は、その知識と経験の量に基づくべきです。しかし、時には専門家の資格情報が学位、出版物、専門機関のメンバーシップだけに基づいています。ランゲージ ラーニングアドバイザーは、SLAとカウンセリングとしての知識を必要としています。　知識の標準はまだ知られていません。研究の目標は、ランゲージ ラーニングアドバイザーの知識を識別することです。

For decades, considerable attention has been placed on understanding practitioner knowledge within academic, research and business circles as practitioners rely on their repertoire of knowledge to engage effectively in various professional situations. This wealth of knowledge is typically accessed automatically and practitioners usually do not reflect on how or why specific aspects of knowledge were utilised. However, if asked, the practitioner, in most cases, is able to provide a rationale or reconstruct a reason for the decision and the type of knowledge that was required for the particular situation. Various studies have been conducted across many fields in order to ascertain the underlying knowledge that is required to operate effectively within specific working environments. Examples can be found in traditional disciplines such as nursing (Cash, 1995); lifelong learning (Jarvis, 1992; Rollett, 2001); cognitive therapy (Bennett-Levy, 2006); teaching (Calderhead, 1988, 1996; Lave, 1988; Schön, 1983; Zanting, Verloop & Vermunt, 2003); and more recently, but less frequent, in the newer field of Language Learning Advising (LLA) (Gremmo, 2009; McCarthy, 2016; Thornton, 2011).

Knowledge has been a challenging term to define and has taken on various forms depending on the nature of the profession. Terms to define the different types of knowledge are for example theoretical, technical, tacit, deliberate, reflective, practical, procedural, personal, explicit or implicit (Alavi & Leidner, 2001). This paper focuses on the basic day-to-day knowledge used by advisors to help them effectively handle not only familiar situations, but also unique and sometimes unexpected events. Henceforth, it is referred to as "practical knowledge." Having a taxonomic perspective of this practical

McCarthy, T. (2017). Exploring language learning advisors' practical knowledge: A taxonomic perspective. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 165-173). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

knowledge makes it possible for it to be categorized, stored, distributed, analysed and applied to various situations by both novice and expert advisors. In essence, such a taxonomy would create a situation where novice practitioners would have a kind of 'ready-to-use' databank of essential knowledge.

This paper thus tries to make explicit a taxonomy of knowledge gathered over eight years from within three very different tertiary institutions. Through the researchers own practical experience, interviews with practicing advisors in these tertiary institutions and recorded data of advising sessions, learning advisors' practical knowledge were accessed. The aim of this paper was to capture relevant information and make it available to practicing advisors in an accessible format to be shared. The emphasis was on identifying advisors' knowledge-in-action (Schön, 1983, 1987) rather than theoretical knowledge gained from reading research books and articles. The distinguishing characteristic of advisors' practical knowledge was that the knowledge was situated in practice.

Research Overview

This study was situated across three separate universities with unique Communities of Practice (CoPs) and organizational cultures, thereby making it possible to do a comparative analysis of practical knowledge employed during advising sessions. The three university were:

1. a private liberal arts university
2. a private science and technology university
3. a national university

Table 1 is a breakdown of the organizational characteristics of the three universities.

Data were gathered from the Self-Access Learning Centers (SALCs) operating at each institution. The researcher was directly involved with advising in the first two institutions over a period of six years. Data were gathered through a combination of self-reflective reports, interviews and knowledge data recorded on an excel spreadsheet from the team of advisors. The excel spreadsheets at the private institutions included what was discussed during the session (language skill and problem faced) and the advice given to solve the problem including resources. Monthly reports from the national university identified the type of advice that was being sought in the SALC. As this centre had been running for only two years and had not yet fully set up a database for recording student information, the researcher relied on interviews with the staff to clarify data presented in the monthly reports.

In-depth interviews were conducted with seven practicing advisors at the liberal arts university and four practicing advisors in the national university. Advisors were asked specifically about the type of

Table 1
Distinctive Features of the Organizational Structure of Three Participating Universities

	Private liberal arts university	Private science and technology university	National university
population	2,000-3,000 students various language departments: English, Chinese, Spanish, Korean	2,000-3,000 students various science and technology departments: Engineering, IT, Intellectual Property	12,000 students wide range of departments: Humanities, Medical Sciences, IT, Engineering
SALC	Opened 2002. Full-time learning advisors, administrative and student staff.	Opened 2014. Full-time learning advisor/teachers, administrative and student staff.	Opened 2012. Part-time student advisors and administrative staff.
CoP	Advisors had previous experience as EFL/ESL teachers; Professional development program	Advisors had previous experience as EFL/ESL teachers. No official professional development training program	Student staff were doctoral candidates at the university and worked as part-time advisors. No official training program

Table 2

Practical Knowledge Structures: The Taxonomy in Detail

Practical knowledge	Private Liberal Arts University	Science and Technology University	National University
Language Learning	**Speaking**: fluency, pronunciation; **Listening**: comprehension, strategies, speed **Reading**: speed, strategies, comprehension; **Writing**: grammar, structure, expressions; **Vocabulary**: idioms, collocations, word families; **Grammar**: specific grammar in context	**Speaking**: fluency, pronunciation; presentation **Listening**: comprehension **Reading**: technical articles **Writing**: abstracts **Vocabulary**: technical words **Grammar**: specific grammar in context	**Speaking**: fluency; presentation, speeches **Listening**: comprehension of long listening, speed **Writing**: essays **Reading**: comprehension **Vocabulary**: colloquial language, everyday expressions, idioms
Test-taking	TOEFL, IELTS, TOEIC, EIKEN, FCE.	TOEIC, TOEFL	TOEFL, TOEIC.
Study abroad (and future career)	Application letters, entry requirements to various countries, career advice, resumes, interview, challenge of living abroad	Pre-departure survival English: speaking and listening	Real-word advice from staff who had a history of overseas education
Class-related	Homework and assignments: speaking journal, proofreading essays, research	Homework and assignments: graded reader reports	Homework and assignments: essays and presentations
Casual Chat	Students redirected to yellow sofa	Consultation room duties	Main part of advisor duties
SDL	8-week SDL Module, students own self-study plans	SDL worksheets, specific learning advice	Independent grammar and reading-based CALL program connected to main curriculum
Affective issues	Confidence and motivation; personal issues (family problems, failing, worries about the future, disagreements with teacher)	Personal issues (lonely students, no friends)	X
Resources	How to find, how to use for specific learning goals	How to select graded readers and test-taking materials	X
CALL	How to use the SALC equipment and computer software	How to use the SALC equipment	X
Research	Teacher and student research: proofread, evaluate	Teacher and student scientific research: Proofread papers and abstracts, presentation practice	X
Organizational structure and services	SALC service's rules, regulations, staff in charge, operational hours; student staff employment; PR tour groups; SDL program		SALC staff; hours of operation; schedule

advice students typically asked for in a particular situational context and the type of advice given. In this way, common knowledge types could be listed and categorised. In the private science and technology university, the researcher used self-reflective reports and excel spreadsheet data from advising sessions of the three advisors.

Drawing on the different CoPs, a taxonomy was first created for each institution and then combined to give an overall picture of advisors' practical knowledge (Table 2). The exploration into advisor knowledge is thus based on a study of practicing advisors whose fundamental role is to provide language learning advice to students on a wide variety of topics

Language Learning Advising and Practical Knowledge

Research literature has presented LLA as situated somewhere between classroom teaching and holistic counselling (see Mynard & Carson, 2012). It is not a profession which easily lends itself to direct observation of practice. Indeed, the practice is one in which the advisor and learner typically engage in a one-to-one dialogue in a private setting. Effective advising entails having the relevant knowledge to guide the learner through the necessary steps to being a self-directed learner. As such, the nature of LLA requires that the advisor have sufficient knowledge about various aspects of the EFL classroom such as second language learning theories, learning strategies, language acquisition, cultural norms and institutional expectations.

Several suggestions have been provided within the research literature as essentials for practicing advisors. Gremmo (2009), for example, speaks about the necessity of multidisciplinary expertise of linguistics, psychology and language didactics. In detail, she breaks knowledge down into three components: knowledge about the nature of language, knowledge about the language learning process and knowledge of the specific self-directed language learning scheme within the professional organization. Two specific areas of expertise also considered to be of importance to LLA are first-hand experience in teaching and learning a second language and an understanding of language learning strategies (Mozzon-McPherson, 2001; Riley, 1997). There is a growing number of studies which are contributing to our overall understanding of the knowledge dynamics of LLA (Kato & Mynard, 2015; McCarthy, 2016; Mynard & Carson, 2012); however, having a taxonomy of shared practical knowledge would further show the specific knowledge strands that would be beneficial for advisors to access.

Taxonomic Perspective of Advisors' Practical Knowledge

The three universities were located in different prefectures across Japan. Student needs, goals and learning objectives for the most part were also completely different. The common factor between these institutions was the SALC, which employed staff in the form of learning advisors to assist students with their language learning. Practitioner knowledge varied within these institutions, however there were some overlapping types of practical knowledge. The following discussion illustrates the specific knowledge dynamics at each university.

Private Liberal Arts University

The wider goal of many students at this liberal arts university was to work in a global industry setting such as tourism, international trading or a Japanese organization with international branches, which required use of a foreign language. Study abroad programs were a popular option and many students needed to gain high scores in specific international examinations to qualify for these programs. Detailed information was collected from students in a user-friendly excel sheet format in a shared folder that was accessible to all advisors. Advisors were thus able to see notes from their colleagues of main topics discussed with learners, the specific problem area and the advice given. This form of knowledge sharing system served two purposes: reviewing what was already known or gaining new knowledge. Figure 1 is the breakdown of advisors' practical knowledge over 6 years (2006-2012).

The four major categories were class-related

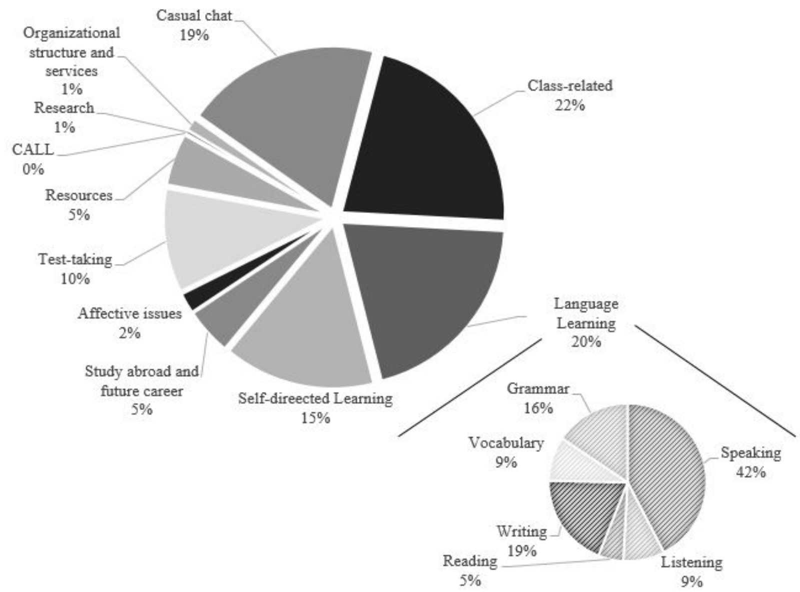

Figure 1. Practical knowledge at a liberal arts university.

matters (22%), language learning (20%), casual chat (19%) and self-directed learning (15%). Class-related matters generally included questions about homework or class assignments such as getting feedback on essays or helping with students' speaking journal. Within language learning, how to improve speaking was the area in which students sought advice most frequently at 42%. This indicates the importance of oral communication for liberal arts students. With regard to casual chat, advisors gave assistance, but explained that there were two services already in place for speaking practice. As LLA is focused on the self-discovery aspect of learning, daily conversation practice was not considered to be part of the advisor's responsibilities. It was thus important that the advisor had knowledge of the institutional rules and regulations in order to redirect students to the appropriate support area. SDL strategy awareness was also a major part of advising as the institution had implemented a SDL program which was connected to the main language curriculum.

Private Science and Technology University

The wider goal of students at this university was to work in the engineering industry which required specific technical use of a foreign language. Data were gathered mainly from the shared online excel spreadsheet of advising sessions and the researcher's professional development self-reflective notes. Figure 2 is the breakdown of advisor knowledge types over 2 years (2012-2014).

Casual chat (at 37%) again played a central role in the advisors' daily responsibilities as students sought more opportunities for speaking practice. The other major categories in which advisors assisted learners were test-taking (28%), SDL (17%) and language learning (14%). Advising engineering students on how to improve their TOEIC score was a major part of the job as gaining a high score was a requirement for many companies post-graduation. This meant that the advisor had to be familiar with all aspects of the test as well as test-taking strategies. SDL advice was mostly connected to students who came to the SALC to complete the *Independent Learning Worksheets*. These students were typically performing weakly in language classes and came for advice on which SDL worksheets they should do to gain extra points. Within the language learning category, speaking and reading were equally important for students as students needed assistance with how to read lengthy scientific articles and do effective presentations at domestic and international conferences.

National University

Students at the national university had varied goals as there was a wide cross section of disciplines. All students were non-English majors and required

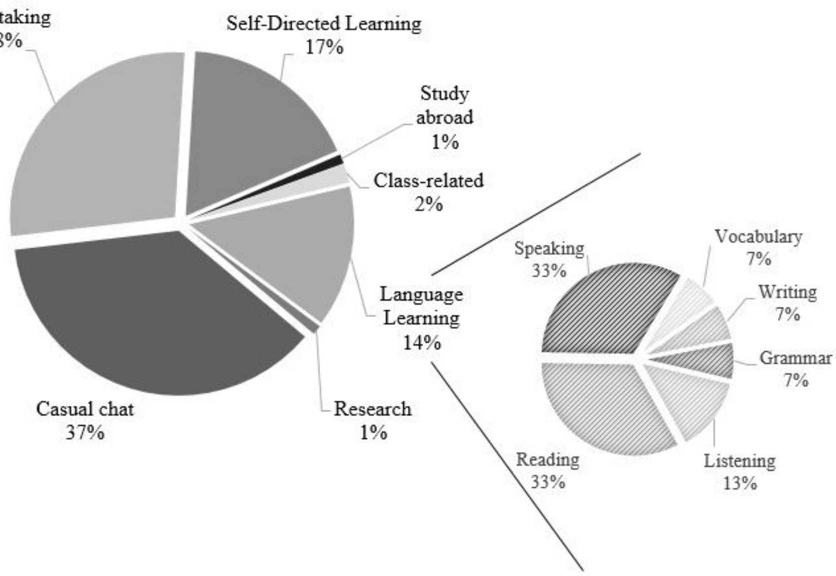

Figure 2. Practical knowledge at a science and technology university.

English for very different purposes, thus the curriculum was largely focused on English for General Academic Purposes. Figure 3 is the breakdown of the practical knowledge advisors required over the brief period that the SALC had been open (2012-2014).

This SALC had not yet designed a comprehensive system of recording information, so data were compiled from monthly reports and interviews. According to the usage statistics report, similar to the other universities, casual chat (76%) was the most popular reason to visit the SALC. During informal interviews with the advisors, it was explained that daily conversation practice was the main attraction bringing students to the SALC. However, advisors also commented that students sought advice on test-taking (12%), language learning (8%) and to a lesser extent, study-abroad (4%). With regard to test-taking, students wanted advice mainly about the TOEFL test as many planned to do a study-abroad program, but advisors also had to be prepared to give advice on the TOEIC test for students who had not got the required score for their job-hunting. For language skills, advisors reported that students mostly asked for advice on essay writing, the major part of the first-year language curriculum.

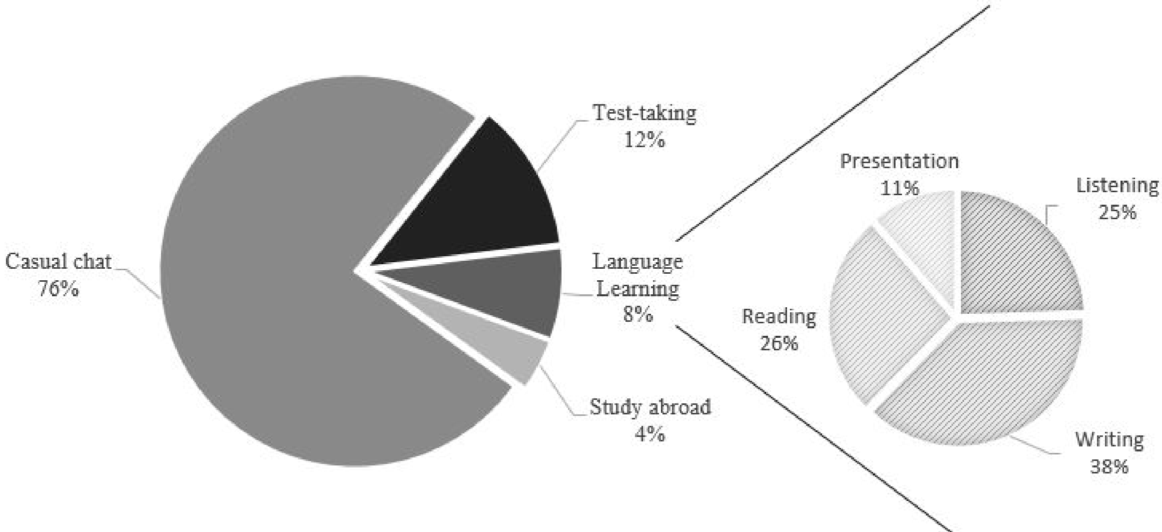

Figure 3. Practical knowledge at a national university.

Common Knowledge Structures of Advisors-in-Practice

Clear distinctions were thus seen between the universities based on the special characteristics and nature of the organizational structure, but commonalities in practical knowledge were also prevalent. Figure 4 illustrates the common practical knowledge identified in the three universities. There were two basic areas of commonality among the three universities, language learning and test-taking skills, with SDL playing an important role in the two universities which had a similar organizational structure. Class-related matters also played an important role among the three universities.

Although commonalities were evident between the three institutions, within these common knowledge structures existed a myriad of knowledge strands; for instance, language learning skills were comprised of various parts such as specific learning techniques; recognition of language structure, appropriate resources for self-study; and how to self-evaluate progress. For test-taking, advisors not only needed to be up to date with current testing policies, but also thoroughly understand the test, test-taking tips, techniques to improve specific sections and question types, time-management strategies and how to control anxiety. Self-Directed Learning played a major role in two of the three universities because of the built-in SDL system and employment of trained advisors. Although there was some advising on SDL practices at the national university, it was not as pronounced due to the employment of untrained graduate and doctoral students as the main support staff. Class-related advising was the final area of commonality between the three universities which showed that advisors also needed to be familiar enough with the institution-wide curriculum in order to direct students to the best services.

Figure 4 is thus indicative of the absolute basic knowledge which a novice advisor should possess when first starting out in his/her language advisor role. Table 2 is a more thorough indicator of the depth of knowledge an advisor needs to possess in order give relevant, meaningful advice to learners in various situational contexts. In essence, the advisor needs to always be cognisant of and draw upon various knowledge strands at any moment of the session in order to effectively guide the learner through the reflective dialogic process. This means continuously keeping up-to-date with current ideas in SLA research as it relates to language learning strategies, being aware of any changes in external examinations, and researching appropriate learning materials for specific learning problems. With regard to SDL, it is essential that advisors continue to share philosophies about best SDL practices and develop a system within the SALC to help learners understand how to create and evaluate a unique learning plan that meets specific needs,

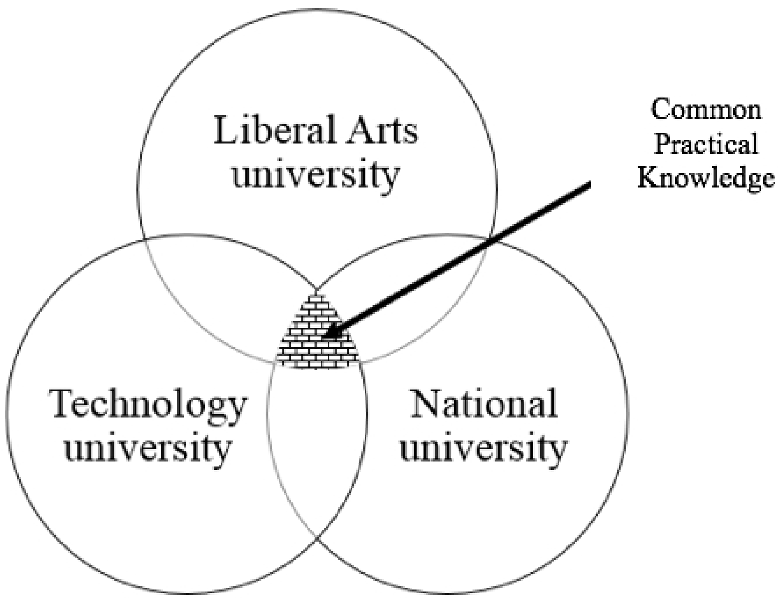

Figure 4. Basic practical knowledge of Language Learning Advisors.

goals, learning habits and time available for self-study. Having an understanding of institutional goals, the wider curriculum, SALC services as well as technical knowledge of SALC and classroom equipment are other forms of practical knowledge that the advisor would frequently require. Added to this taxonomy is the knowledge of how to assist learners who are facing motivational issues and have low self-esteem and an awareness of counselling skills to be more mindful in actions and approach.

Conclusion

Because advising is so strongly situated in the lived experience of the learner and advisor, gathering knowledge data advisors use in varied contexts is important to identify the relevant practical knowledge that reflects each context more accurately. Although the three participating institutions had unique organizational cultures, there were commonalities reflecting the minimal practical knowledge that would benefit all practicing advisors. Implementing an institutional system of a shared knowledge base would further strengthen the CoP. Knowledge about a profession and knowledge gained through professional practice are quite different as it is the knowledge that is processed through professional activities that usually dictates choices and actions during the decision-making process. Knowledge serves its best purpose when it is gathered, stored and made available to all, but especially to incoming practitioners. By frequently updating and recording knowledge frameworks as new knowledge is gained, a culture of knowledge management would be developed. This would ensure that knowledge would continually be passed on to all members of the immediate and wider CoP. In this way, each individual would benefit from the shared knowledge collected over years, and the institution would avoid a loss of knowledge which typically occurs with staff turnover. To conclude then, in terms of LLA, by creating a strong culture of knowledge management, not only would benefits be seen in individual institutions, but collaborative partnerships outside of the culture of practice would be encouraged which would inevitably help to grow and expand the profession.

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Effectiveness of Peer Review by Non-Native English Users

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This exploratory study examines the effectiveness of non-native users of English in providing peer feedback on graduate-level research papers. Six non-native English-speaking graduate students first completed an initial task of critiquing a sample introduction from a research paper. They then reviewed and provided feedback on drafts of the Masters theses of their peers. Half of the participants reviewed theses in the same academic discipline as their own, while the other half were provided theses from a different field. Reviewers also conducted individual conferences with writers to provide supplementary commentary and critiques. In addition, all participants took part in an exit interview with the researcher to report on their experience with the project. The researcher found that non-native users can indeed provide effective feedback on graduate-level research papers in a peer review system, provided such a system takes several factors into consideration.

本研究は、大学院レベルの研究論文についてピア・フィードバックを非英語母語話者が行なう有効性を検証した探索的研究である。6名の非英語母語話者の大学院生は、研究論文の導入部のサンプルを批評するタスクを最初に行なった。その後、お互いの修士論文の草稿を読み、フィードバックを行なった。受講者の半数は自分と同じ専門分野の論文を担当し、残りの半数は異なる分野の論文を担当した。また、批評や解説を補足するために論文執筆者と査読者は個別に話す場を持った。加えて、すべての参加者が本研究者の行なう出口インタビューに参加し、本プロジェクトでの経験を報告した。本研究では、非母語話者はピアレビューシステム上で大学院レベルの研究論文に効果的なフィードバックを実際に提供できることを明らかにし、このようなシステムに考慮すべき点がいくつかあることを示した。

At the graduate school in which this study took place, the vast majority of students come from ESL or EFL countries. The culmination of these students' graduate studies is writing their Master's thesis in English (their L2), a very challenging project for many students given its scope and their linguistic backgrounds. Despite their receiving guidance from respective supervisors and English language faculty, many students feel that there should be more channels they can pursue when they require further assistance with their writing.

One potential tool for providing learners with additional support in thesis writing is peer review. In peer review, students take on the responsibilities normally assumed by a trained teacher, tutor, or editor and provide feedback on a colleague's composition (Hansen & Liu, 2005). A summary of the benefits of peer review for both reviewers and writers appears in Table 1.

Despite these benefits, peer review has drawn strong counter arguments. Research has shown that instructors often question the effectiveness of peer review due to concerns about learners' cognitive and linguistic capabilities in their L2 (Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel & Hughey, 1981; Teo, 2006). Student reviewers tend to focus on sentence-level problems rather than on content and organization (Leki, 1990). Learners also express doubts about the quality of peer feedback (Brindley & Scoffield, 1998; Orsmond, Merry & Reiling, 1996). Finally, some researchers (Carson &

Mondejar, M. (2017). Effectiveness of peer review by Non-Native English users. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 174-182). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Table 1
Benefits of Peer Review (Liu & Hansen, as cited in Kustati & Yuhardi, 2014, p. 84)

Benefits for reviewers	Benefits for Writers
1. Gain insights for their own work from reading the assignment of others;	1. Refine their ideas as a result of the feedback they receive;
2. See other approaches to an assignment or other perspectives to an issue;	2. Focus on writing as a process that emphasizes editing and revisions;
3. Become familiar with important aspects of the assignment as they use the rubric or criteria to perform their review;	3. Develops a better sense of audience;
4. Improve their ability to read a paper critically	4. Improve their work before it is submitted for grading;
5. Strengthen their communication skills, especially in respect to critiquing and providing feedback;	5. Motivate them to produce higher-quality work, since they know their peers will be critiquing it.

Nelson, 1996; Rollinson, 2005) have indicated that peer review carries a cultural bias and can disadvantage students from collectivist cultures.

Thus, in this exploratory study the researcher examines the effectiveness of non-native English users in reviewing research papers written by fellow graduate students; this is to determine whether a peer review system utilizing non-native reviewers could be implemented at tertiary institutions and graduate-level programs.

Methodology

Six participants were selected from a pool of applicants to review the research papers of their peers in this study. Participants were selected based on their language proficiency and their program of graduate study. Three of the reviewers originated from an ESL country, the Philippines, and had strong language skills; the other three came from EFL countries (Indonesia, Mongolia, and Sri Lanka), and were much less confident in their English proficiency. Three of the reviewers were studying international development (ID), two were members of the public management program (PM), and one was in the international relations program (IR) at the graduate school where the study took place.

Each reviewer was initially given a sample thesis introduction to review with no guidelines on how to complete the task. This was to compare reviewers' individual approaches, and their capabilities in addressing content, organization, language, and stylistic issues on a common task. Feedback provided by participants were categorized and coded for comparative purposes. The initial introduction can be found in Appendix A.

Next, reviewers were given the first draft of an ID Master's thesis written by one of their peers. Each thesis was reviewed by a participant with the same academic background as the writer (ID) and one from a different field (PM or IR). Like the initial task, reviewers were provided with very few guidelines to follow; this was done to examine how previous educational experience and other factors affected the review approach of participants. However, participants were required to provide written feedback to the writers, and then conference individually with them to give additional commentary. Reviewers were given one month (May 2015) to complete both of these tasks, to allow the writers sufficient time to review the feedback and make changes to their theses before the final submission date.

After collecting reviewers' written feedback, individual conference recordings, and timesheets, the researcher conducted exit interviews with all participants in June 2015. During the exit interviews, participants were asked to reflect on their performance as reviewers, provide rationale for the approaches they took while reviewing, and make suggestions to the researcher on how improvements in the thesis review process at the university could be improved. Conferences and interviews were transcribed and analyzed.

Table 2 summarizes the backgrounds and roles of participants, the allocation of theses, and time reviewers spent on the project tasks. Note that while participants provided the researcher with written permission to publish their personal data, the researcher elected to protect their identities by using pseudonyms for their names in this study.

Results

In this section, the approaches each participant took in reviewing the initial introduction task and their allotted thesis, as well as the effectiveness of their approaches, are summarized (based on feedback quantity and quality, and interviews).

Magedara

For the initial introduction task, Magedara provided direct corrections and a summary of general suggestions. In his corrections, he addressed 20% of the language (total of lexis and grammar errors), 10% of the redundancy, and 33% of the organization issues in the introduction. He noted that the introduction contained the three "moves" of a create-a-research space introduction (Swales, 1990), and summarized organization and redundancy issues in his suggestions. When queried about his approach to this task, he reported that he lacked confidence in his language skills, and therefore focused more on organization. He was more comfortable commenting on organization because he had received prior academic writing training at our university.

Magedara took a different approach when reviewing Shein's thesis. This time, he provided only a summary of general comments, where he focused almost exclusively on strengths and weaknesses of the research content (i.e., the research question, data, and model). He did this at Shein's request, but also cited his lack of confidence in his language skills as another reason for concentrating more on content. Interestingly, despite studying in the same program as Shein, Magedara stated that he was not familiar with her research model. Therefore, he felt obligated to devote a significant amount of extra time doing background research on her methodology to provide more effective feedback.

Table 2
Participant Backgrounds, Roles, and Time Spent on Tasks

Participant	Nationality	Role	Thesis reviewed	Same program	Time spent reviewing (hr)
Magedara	Sri Lanka	Reviewer	Shein	Yes	12.0
Alaiza	Philippines	Reviewer	Shein	No	4.0
Kemala	Indonesia	Reviewer	Rahmad	No	4.0
Marisel	Philippines	Reviewer	Rahmad	Yes	15.0
Minghan	Mongolia	Reviewer	Ye	Yes	5.0
Crisanto	Philippines	Reviewer	Ye	No	21.5
Shein	Myanmar	Writer			
Rahmad	Indonesia	Writer			
Ye	Myanmar	Writer			

Table 3

Results of Initial Introduction Task

Participant	Magedara	Kemala	Marisel	Minghan	Total Errors*
Lexis	0.00 (0)	0.29 (5)	0.76 (13)	0.41 (7)	1.00 (17)
Grammar	0.26 (17)	0.45 (30)	0.88 (58)	0.55 (36)	1.00 (66)
Redundancy	0.10 (1)	0.20 (2)	0.80 (80)	0.10 (1)	1.00 (10)
Organization	0.33 (3)	0.00 (0)	0.11 (1)	0.11 (1)	1.00 (9)
Citation	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.40 (2)	0.00 (0)	1.00 (5)
Style	0.00 (0)	0.50 (2)	0.50 (2)	0.00 (0)	1.00 (4)
Mechanics	0.00 (0)	0.00 (0)	0.67 (2)	0.00 (0)	1.00 (3)
Total Corrected**	0.18 (0)	0.34 (39)	0.75 (86)	0.39 (45)	1.00 (114)

Notes. Figures in table represent percent of errors corrected, followed by total number of errors corrected in parentheses.
** = Total number of errors of each type*
*** = Total number of errors corrected by each reviewer*

Alaiza

Alaiza did very little error correction in the first task; instead, she highlighted high-frequency errors related to transitions, grammar, and punctuation in her feedback. As someone with an English teaching background, she stated she preferred this approach to promote language improvement and retain the "voice of the author" in the composition. "Overhauls" would lead to a paper that "is not written by him [or her] anymore."

As for the thesis, Alaiza provided both direct corrections and a summary of general comments to the writer, Shein. Her corrections mostly applied to surface forms, but she addressed some flow, paragraphing, and redundancy issues as well. According to Alaiza, she was comfortable commenting on academic writing conventions due to past educational experiences as a learner and a teacher; she also picked up some techniques inductively through researching for her own thesis. Alaiza also remarked that, because she and Shein studied in separate programs and had different academic backgrounds, she suggested that Shein write "in layman's terms" to make her research accessible to a wider audience.

Kemala

Kemala provided direct corrections and commentary on high-frequency errors in the initial introduction task. She addressed 41% of the language, 20% of the redundancy, and 50% of the stylistic issues in the introduction (See Table 3). She also noted it lacked proper support (i.e., citations) in places, but did not mark those places in her feedback.

For the thesis review, Kemala provided some direct corrections pertaining to language and stylistics, but also gave Rahmad explanation for common errors. Based on her own studies, she also noticed some content and organizational issues in the thesis; she requested more explanations for findings of past literature and other unfamiliar concepts, and suggested moving some functional text to different parts of the thesis (e.g., the research limitations from the introduction to the conclusion). Because she studied in a different program than Rahmad, most of Kemala's feedback focused on language and stylistics; however, some of the feedback was rejected because it clashed with the advice of the writer's thesis supervisor and his own experience with academic writing.

Marisel

Marisel provided extensive corrections on the initial introduction task. She addressed 85% of the language, 80% of the redundancy, 11% of the organization, 40% of the citation, and 50% of the stylistic issues in the introduction (see Table 3). Marisel reported that she had received robust training in English and academic writing conventions while in high school and college; therefore, her exceptional performance is to be expected.

In the thesis review, Marisel also provided extensive direct corrections on lexis, grammar, mechanics, and flow-related errors. She also provided comments when citations, explanations, definitions (of technical terms), rationale, or other critical text was missing, or when clarification was necessary. The thesis writer, Rahmad, noted that Marisel provided better language feedback than Kemala due to her stronger language background, and also helped him greatly with technical issues, stylistics, and formatting. However, despite studying in the same program as Rahmad, Marisel did not check his research model, commenting that "since [his supervisor] already checked his model, I don't need to."

Minghan

Minghan provided only direct corrections on the first task. She addressed 50% of the language, 10% of the redundancy, and 11% of the coherence errors in the task (see Table 3). Unlike other reviewers, Minghan mentioned that she did not notice any major issues with the organization of the introduction.

In her review of Ye's thesis, Minghan addressed minor errors pertaining to inflections, paragraphing, redundancies, and stylistics. She particularly focused on writing style, and summarized many of these issues in a general commentary. However, much of her feedback was rejected by the writer because her stylistic suggestions clashed with those provided by Ye's supervisor. In addition, Ye mentioned that she received Minghan's feedback too late for her to make significant adjustments to her thesis.

Another issue that arose was Minghan's lack of feedback on the content of the thesis, despite sharing the same academic field as Ye. Minghan cited her unfamiliarity with the research background and methodology, and her belief that this was the responsibility of the supervisor, as her reasons for doing this.

Crisanto

Of all of the reviewers, Crisanto made the most changes to the initial task, going so far as to rewrite most of the introduction. He justified this by stating that rewriting the paper in a certain way would convey the writer's ideas in a clearer manner, and therefore result in a better grade. He also said that the writer could learn from his rewrites because "when you are beginning to write something, you tend to adopt the style of other writers first. Then, you tend to develop your own style."

Crisanto spent a significant amount of time reviewing and providing comprehensive feedback on Ye's thesis, addressing content, organization, language, and stylistic issues surgically, and giving general suggestions for common errors. Again, because he and the reviewer studied in different programs, his feedback was geared towards his strengths (i.e., language and organization). But peer pressure (i.e., knowing Ye personally) drove him to conduct his own research on the thesis topic and comment on some content-based issues, like where additional explanation, analysis, and support (i.e., citations) were needed.

Discussion

Based on the results of this study, it seems that non-native users of English can indeed provide effective feedback on graduate-level research papers in a peer review system, even in a relatively unstructured one, as was the case here. However, implementing such a peer review system should take several things into consideration:

Provide Prior Training in Academic Writing Conventions

Because the ESL reviewers had received extensive writing training in their high school and university education, they were able to provide effective feedback on more sophisticated rhetorical constructs like support for ideas, flow, and organization. Interestingly, two of the reviewers with EFL backgrounds

(Magedara and Kemala) were at times just as effective in noticing these constructs. Thus, it seems that even limited training in academic writing conventions can significantly improve reviewers' ability to address issues related to content and organization. This is in line with previous studies (Berg, 1999; Carson & Nelson, 1996; Leki, 1990; Lockhart & Ng, 1995).

Select Multiple Reviewers for Each Research Paper

Selecting reviewers with high language proficiency is necessary, since they seem to be the most capable in terms of noticing and correcting language errors (Block, 1992). However, it also seems important to writers that thesis reviewers are able to critique the content of their writing. Both Shein and Ye asserted that feedback on their methodology and results were priorities, even though two of the reviewers (Marisel and Minghan) felt that reviewing research content was the obligation of the writer's supervisors, not their own.

Selecting a reviewer from the same academic background as the writer was also no guarantee that he or she could provide effective content-based feedback. Even though Magedara and Minghan studied in the same program (ID) as Shein and Ye respectively, they could not provide adequate commentary on content without conducting their own research on the background and methodology of the respective studies. Thus, it seems that learners who are selected for peer review should be drawn from students who share the same specific research interests as the writers.

Despite this, there seem to be advantages in pairing reviewers and writers from different academic backgrounds. As was the case with Alaiza, this may help the writer explain unfamiliar concepts more clearly and make their writing more accessible to a wider audience.

Taking all of this into account, an ideal solution seems to be allocating multiple reviewers to a particular paper; one who can comment on language and organization, one on research content, and one from a different academic background.

Avoid Feedback on Stylistics

In this study, feedback on writing stylistics (e.g., verb tense preference, citation/reference formatting) was often rejected. Because stylistics vary across and even within academic fields, it might be best if reviewers refrain from providing feedback on this aspect of writing.

Utilize Relationship Dynamics between Reviewers and Writers

Peer pressure seemed to have a strong effect on the quantity and quality of feedback provided by reviewers. Crisanto, Magedara, and Marisel, all of whom spent a significant amount of time reviewing their respective theses (see Table 2), reported that personally knowing the reviewer drove them to conduct their own research and familiarize themselves with the thesis methodologies in order to provide better feedback to the writers. Thus, there seem to be distinct advantages in asking learners to review the compositions of people with whom they have a closer relationship, instead of more distant or anonymous colleagues.

Promote Frequent Communication between Reviewers and Writers

From the results of the study, it seems evident that reviewers should communicate with writers before they begin reviewing their research papers to determine and better meet the needs of each writer. The more successful reviewers seemed to be more proactive in contacting their writers ahead of time and tailoring their feedback to fit their writer's priorities.

Avoid Scheduling Conflicts between Reviewers and Writers

Conflicting schedules between reviewers and writers was a persistent issue in this study. According to two of the writers (Shein and Ye), they were able to better utilize comments from reviewers who submitted their feedback early (i.e., before thesis defense and submission deadlines). Reviewers who provided later feedback to their writers reported that one of the main reasons for the delay was that they also had to complete their own theses simultaneously with this project. On the other hand, reviewers who provided early feedback reported that they had already completed their theses by the time this project commenced; thus, they could devote more time and effort to the thesis review. Selecting reviewers whose schedules are relatively free and can commit themselves to providing feedback to writers in a timely manner appears to be a paramount concern.

Even though several useful lessons regarding implementing peer review among non-native English users, particularly at the tertiary and graduate levels, can be gleaned from this exploratory study, this research is not without limitations. Utilizing a more structured research model, with more peer review guidelines for participants to follow, as well as a larger number of participants in the study, could provide more robust results. Incorporating reviewers from and/or research papers written for less-related fields, such as business administration or e-business, could also lead to participants following different or innovative approaches in providing feedback to peers. However, such concerns are beyond the scope of the current paper.

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Appendix A
Initial Introduction Task for Reviewers

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1. **Introduction**

Education is one of the most important roles of the intellectual, professional, human resource development, and sustainable development for everyone and every country. Especially, efficiency and quality education are more needed in developing countries. Indonesia is the biggest country among the developing countries of the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN), and the most populous Muslim-majority country of the world. Indonesia has officially six religious declared by Ministry of Religious Affairs of Indonesia. There are Muslim, Protestant, Catholic, Hindu, Buddhism, and Confucianism. 88.22 percent are Muslim, 5.87 percent are Protestant, 3.05 percent are Catholic, 1.81 percent is Hindu, 0.84 percent is Buddhism, and 0.21 percent is other religious of Indonesians according to 2000 census of UNSD Demographic Statistics. However, education attainments of Muslim are lower than the effect of Protestant, Catholic, and Hindu. This is an important topic for this research because Indonesia government is working the Education for All (EFA) National Plan of Action for education sector according to UNESCO report (2000-2015).

Education is related to economic development of the nation. To get the multi-sectors improvement of the nation, it needs to promote its human resource development. Moreover, human resource development is the most important pillar of fundamental structure of every country. So, most of developing countries are strongly driving to increase their human resource development. Blackburn, S. (1999) found that every citizen shall have the fundamental right to obtain educational attainment according to the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia (1945). However, Indonesia has still dropped out of schooling of children. Hashim and Langgulung (2008) found that Islamic religious schools have many weak facts because of curriculum, budget, poor management and lack of aid.

The effect of religious on educational attainment is the main question that gets one of the most attentions among researchers and policy makers. Though Indonesia has 88.22 percent of Muslim, their educational attainment was not having high level. Previous studies have stated that According to Jones (1976), most of Christians had higher level of educational attainment and they had political and administrative power in Indonesia. In addition result was also found by Little. Angela W. and Green Andy (2009) that development education is altered to sustainable development in the globalization trend and that make economic development and human resource development of the countries.

Most studies on educational attainment have employed the years of schooling as education data. However, some studies have used the level of education attainment. In addition, though the effect of religious on educational attainment has been studied widely in developed countries, there has been a limited research focus on Indonesia, the developing country.

The studies of this research only use from longitudinal data of Indonesia Family Life Survey (IFLS) which has more than 5000 samples. The results from this paper will provide the knowledge of the religious background on Indonesia educational attainment; in addition, Indonesia education reform and policy makers may find the advantages and disadvantages if they reform education policies. That will get not only the improvement of education circumstance but also human resource development of Indonesia.

1.2 Research Objectives

The main objectives of this research paper are to analyze the effects of Buddhism, Catholic, Hindu, Islam, and Protestant on educational attainment in Indonesia and to compare among the effect of Islam and the effect of other four religious: Buddhism, Catholic, Hindu, and Protestant. The studying of this research paper is important for Indonesia government and people because this study is related to human resource development of the nation.

1.3 Paper Organization

The rest of the chapters of this paper are organized as follows: Chapter 2 describes the background of Indonesia education system. Chapter 3 provides the previous related literature review and empirical studies. Chapter 4 shows the data and the econometric model specification including variables that are used in this paper. Chapter 5 explains the results and discussion of empirical. Chapter 6 is the last chapter concludes the study and offers its finding and recommendation.

Effects of Short-Term Study Abroad on L2 Motivation

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This exploratory study examined how four-week study abroad (SA) programs influence students' motivation to learn English. It monitored 34 participants using surveys and interviews before and after a four-week SA program. Quantitative analysis revealed that participants' motivation was enhanced in several areas, including their desire to learn English, ideal L2 self, and willingness to communicate. On the other hand, qualitative analysis showed incompatible results in some aspects. The study also found that the students' L2 anxiety shifted to a beneficial form of stress, focused on improving communication ability rather than on assessment results and potential criticism. Upon returning from SA, students could only envision repeating similar experiences again in the future. As such, the authors discuss the need to strategically improve students' willingness to communicate and suggest increasing students exposure to more varied situations while abroad.

本探索的研究では、4週間の海外研修が英語学習の動機づけにどのように影響するか検証した。34人を対象に質問紙調査とインタビュー調査を実施し研修前後の変化を捉えた。量的検証の結果、学習動機づけは学習意欲、理想L2自己、コミュニケーション意欲といった側面において向上が見られた一方、質的検証では、いくつかの点について量的検証とはいくぶん異なる結果を示した。また、L2不安については、テスト結果や否定的評価に対する不安からコミュニケーションに関する不安へと質的な変化が見られた。海外研修帰国後の学生は、研修先で滞在したことだけを将来も繰り返せるとしか想像できなかった。そのため、筆者らは計画的に学生のコミュニケーション意欲を高め、学生の海外滞在中に積極的に幅広い場面を経験させることを提案する。

Universities in Japan have tended to react positively to government attempts to enhance student mobility, as evidenced by the large increase in the number of Japanese students studying abroad (SA) based on a Memorandum of Understanding between higher education institutions (JASSO, 2011, 2016). Many universities promote these short programs as a means for students to enhance their resumes before job hunting. Hence, the cultivation of positive attitudes as global citizens, including better cultural understanding, increased global perspective, confidence, and enhanced self-awareness, is arguably more important than actual language improvement for these programs. This current study aims to add insights into the psychological benefits that four week SA can offer students, especially towards second language (L2) learning motivation.

Though SA has demonstrated a positive impact on various L2 skills (Kinginger, 2008), the actual outcome often does not meet initial expectation held by students and teachers (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey 2004; Segalowitz, et al. 2004). Also, longer periods of studying abroad are generally more effective for language development than shorter ones (Dwyer, 2004). One assumption derived from previous studies is that the immediate linguistic benefits attained from one-month SA programs are usually not great. However, the psychological aspect of language learning may be positively influenced.

Moritani, H., & Manning, C. (2017). Effects of short-term study abroad on L2 motivation. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 183-193). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Over the last decade, there has been a lot of discussion about motivation theory. At present, motivation theory centers on the perception of self (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Dörnyei (2005) proposed the L2 Motivatonal Self System and explained that L2 motivation occurs as a desire to reduce discrepancies between one's current self and his or her future self. The central concepts of this system are ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and learning experience. Ideal L2 self is the idealized mental representation of oneself as a L2 speaker, and ought-to L2 self is a representation of self that meets others' expectation and obligation by others such as parents, teachers, and friends. In his framework, these selves work as "future self guides"(Dörnyei, 2014, p.8). The other strong influence on motivation is the learning experience. Since SA is an extraordinary opportunity for most students to gain new learning experiences, changes are likely to occur in their future self-representations and motivation, such as learning intention and attitudes toward English classes.

This study also explores the changes in other related affective factors discussed in the literature of motivational theory. Instrumentality is one of them and is the motivation to study English for pragmatic benefits. Instrumentality promotion refers to the motivation for positive pragmatic benefit such as getting a good job and instrumentality prevention refers to the motivation to avoid negative outcomes such as failing exams. The former is connected to ideal L2 self and the latter is connected to ought-to L2 self (Taguchi, Magid & Papi, 2009). Other affective factors such as L2 confidence, L2 anxiety and attitudes toward English speaking community have been investigated in relation to the validity of the L2 motivational self system (Papi, 2010; Papi & Teimouri, 2012; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi, Magid & Papi, 2009). Therefore, this study also assesses the changes in these psychological constructs. One last psychological construct that this study tries to explore is Willingness to Communicate (WTC) (MacIntyre, et. al., 1998). In order to attain a certain level of English communicative ability, increasing WTC in a second language is a minimum condition and is "a suitable goal of L2 learning" (MacIntyre, et. al., 1998, p.558). Research demonstrates that it positively correlates with L2 motivation and negatively correlates with L2 anxiety (Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre, et. al., 2002). Aubrey (2011) suggests that reducing L2 anxiety is one of the five conditions to enhance WTC. He (2011) states that teachers are in a position to adjust classroom conditions harness students' dormant WTC to optimize students' interactions. Aubrey (2011) also proposed to make sure students are ready to interact with each other, to have students find materials and activities that are relevant and engaging, to have students to understand why they are studying the way they are, to foster student interest in foreign people, places, and things, and to actively reduce student anxiety.

Using the psychological constructs discussed above as motivational variables, this current study explores how four-week SA programs influence students' motivation to learn English.

Methods

The study was conducted using a mixed methods approach with 34 Japanese university students participating in four-week SA programs. The participants were all Japanese and non-English majors. The participation in the SA program was of the students' volition and none of them had been abroad before. Self-assessed language proficiency conducted before SA revealed that 17 of them rated A1 and the other 17 students rated A2 on the CEFR-J scale (Tono (ed.), 2013). Fifteen students participated in a program held in Hawaii in February and March, 2015, and nineteen different students participated in a program in California held in August and September, 2015. In both programs, students participated as a single group. All participants had English classes in the morning and extracurricular activities in the afternoon during the week. They also did homestays with English-speaking families for the entire month abroad.

A total of 34 participants were included in the quantitative study. A set of questionnaires was administered twice in order to monitor for any motivational changes before and after the SA. The questionnaire employed a 6-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3= somewhat disagree, 4=somewhat agree, 5=agree, 6=strongly agree). Japanese was used for the instruction and questionnaire items. The survey adopted validated questionnaire items from previously studies (Papi & Teimouri, 2012; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi, Magid & Papi, 2009, Yashima, 2009). The motivational variables measured included 37 items in the following ten categories,

(1) Learning intention (hereinafter, LI: 3 items)
(2) Attitudes toward English classes (hereinafter, AE: 3 items)
(3) Ideal L2 self (hereinafter, IS: 3 items)
(4) Ought-to L2 self (hereinafter, OS: 3 items)
(5) Instrumentality promotion (hereinafter, PRO: 3 items)
(6) Instrumentality prevention (hereinafter, PRE: 3 items)
(7) L2 confidence (hereinafter, CON: 4 items)
(8) L2 anxiety (hereinafter, ANX: 4 items)
(9) Attitude toward English speaking community (hereinafter, EC: 3 items)
(10) Willingness to Communicate (hereinafter, WTC: 8 items).

A wide range of the motivational variables was measured with only three or four items. This is because the primary purpose of this exploratory study is to identify motivational variables that should be deeply investigated in a follow-up study. The value of Cronbach's alpha was not calculated because each category had too few items.

The survey was conducted in transit while departing to and returning from SA. In order to identify which motivational variables would change after the SA program, the data obtained were subject to a paired *t*-test, using SPSS version 19. Although it is regarded as multiple *t*-testing, the significance level was set at 0.05 because this study focuses on the changes in each motivational variable respectively. The value of Cohen's *d* was calculated to see the effect size when there was a statistically significant difference. The definition of effect sizes used was small: $0.2 \leq d < 0.5$, medium: $0.5 \leq d < 0.8$, and large: $0.8 \leq d$.

The qualitative study included eight participants, three female and five male, from the group that went to California. Structured interviews were conducted individually before and after SA. The purpose of this interview was to investigate their learning experiences in the past and during the sojourn, their ideal L2 self images, and causes of L2 anxiety. The pre-program interviews were administered one month before departure and the post-program interviews were one month after returning from SA. The interviews lasted approximately 30 minutes each and were conducted in Japanese by one of the authors, who is a native speaker of Japanese. Audio recordings of the interviews were made and later transcribed for the analysis. Qualitative Content Analysis technique (Mayring, 2014) was used to summarize the interview data and the summary was translated into English by the Japanese author. This analytical technique reduces lengthy interview responses to their core contents and groups them accordingly.

Results and Discussion

Descriptive statistics were obtained from both pre- and post-SA questionnaires. The paired *t*-test revealed that seven out of ten motivational variables measured in the study showed a significant difference (Table 1).

Statistically significant differences were found for LI, AE, IS, CON, ANX, EC, and WTC while the differences for OS, PRO, and PRE were not statistically significant. The participants in this study became more positive toward English learning after SA, as evidenced by increases in LI and AE (LI: pre=4.07, post=4.52; AE: pre=4.16, post=4.57). Improved score on IS indicates SA experience gave them an enhanced self-image as an English speaker (IS: pre=3.61, post=4.38). They gained confidence to master English (CON: pre=4.04, post=4.66). Although all of these improvements showed medium effect sizes (LI: d=0.57, AE: d=0.53, IS: d=0.63, CON: d=0.65), the post survey scores themselves were not very high. In other words, these variables were positively influenced by SA, but the influence might not have been strong enough. Their anxiety level decreased (ANX: pre=4.76, post=4.10, d=0.64), but they still felt relatively high anxiety after SA. Although they had previously held positive impressions of people in English-speaking communities, their impressions became even more positive (EC: pre= 4.99, post= 5.44, d=0.62). Their WTC improved from 3.49 to

3.97 with small effect size (*d*=0.49) and the post score was still below 4.0, which means the participants were still hesitant to use English after SA. The scores on OS were just below the mid-point of the scale (3.5) and showed no change. Two kinds of instrumentality were higher than the mid-point but there were no-significant changes before and after the SA program.

The qualitative study was undertaken to explain the quantitative results more in depth. One-on-one interviews with eight students before and after SA were carried out. These interviews focused on the learning experience, mental self representation as an English speaker, and anxiety about English. The following limited samples are used to illustrate how the interviews were examined.

First, the participants expressed complicated feelings toward English learning (Appendix 1). Seven out of eight participants had their first contact with English at an early stage in life and they expressed enjoyment at using English:

> "I went to English conversation class when I was an elementary school student and I liked it." (Participant A, B, and D)

> "I had English activities at elementary school and liked it." (Participant C and G)

Two participants expressed positive attitudes toward English, whereas five of them commented that they started to hate studying English at some point during their formal education, mostly due to a strong emphasis on assessment as suggested in the summary of comments:

> "I came to hate English because I was forced to study for exams in junior high school." (Participant A and B)

Presumably they had difficulty studying English at junior and senior high school, but they also seemed to have positive memories connected to English as a language:

> "I liked English but hated English classes in junior high school." (Participant G)

Table 1

Descritive Statistics and Paired t-test Results on Pre- and Post- survey

	Pre-survey		Post-survey						
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**diffs**	**t**	**df**	**p**	**Effect size (d)**
LI	4.07	0.82	4.52	0.73	0.441	-3.313	33	.002*	0.57
AE	4.16	0.84	4.57	0.70	0.412	-3.253	33	.003*	0.53
IS	3.61	1.12	4.38	1.13	0.774	-5.343	33	.000*	0.63
OS	3.33	1.10	3.21	1.28	-0.119	0.681	33	.501	0.10
PRO	4.48	0.80	4.78	0.81	0.303	-1.836	33	.075	0.38
PRE	3.96	1.48	3.84	1.29	-0.117	0.856	33	.398	0.09
CON	4.04	0.95	4.66	0.99	0.625	-4.216	33	.000*	0.65
ANX	4.76	0.82	4.10	1.20	-0.662	3.406	33	.002*	0.64
EC	4.99	0.73	5.44	0.71	0.449	-4.037	33	.000*	0.62
WTC	3.49	0.97	3.97	1.01	0.481	-2.822	33	.008*	0.49

*Notes: N=34, *p <.01*

They would not have participated in a SA program that required English if they do not like English at all. Perhaps these participants held complicated feeling both with positive and negative emotion on English before the SA program. As a result of this complex feeling, their pre scores on both LI and AE were not very high, 4.07 and 4.16, respectively. After the SA program, they expressed enjoyment at being able to use English:

> "I liked using English and learning something else with it." (Participant A, B, and C)

Two participants mentioned that they liked the small class sizes where they had to use English:

> "I liked the small size class." (Participant F and H)

One of the participants further explained,

> "I want to use English in regular classes in Japan, but no one around me is willing to speak English. So, I compromise in Japan. But, in America, all my classmates tried to use it." (Participant B)

This comment shows that some students actually want to use English in classrooms in Japan, but they feel negative peer pressure there, which makes them reluctant to use it. However, this was not the case while studying abroad. It is likely that scores on LI, AE and even CON improved because of this new positive learning experience.

The second point that the interviews tried to reveal was the changes in their mental self image as an English user. In a quantitative study, their score on ideal L2 self improved from 3.61 to 4.38 with a medium effect size (d=0.63). The change occurred but the score itself was not very high. The summary of the interview comments showed the changes (Appendix 2). Only one participant out of eight commented that the participant can imagine oneself speaking English, but the situation was that the participant once encountered:

> "I have imagined speaking with ALTs, but I can't do it." (Participant H)

Four participants expressed their past or current hope and desire even though the question was if they can imagine themselves speaking English:

> "I wanted to communicate with foreigners in English before." (Participant C)

> "I want to become capable of having a daily conversation." (Participant B)

Since the fact that these participants expressed their mental image with hope and desire and in fact did not have specific examples of situations, it can be presumed that their mental image was not strong. In other examples, three of them did not have English speaking self images at all:

> "I never imagined myself to become someone being able to speak English." (Participant A, D, and E)

Even these participants successfully created their English speaking self image after the SA program:

> "I want to become able to speak English." (Participant A)

However, as mentioned earlier, it was expressed with hope, it is highly probable that their images were not very activated. Another participant imagined speaking English at a university and workplace without concrete examples. One of the participants seemed to represent their reality:

> "I can imagine what I have experienced in a sojourn." (Participant G)

Even though all the participants successfully either created their English speaking self image or strengthened their images, their image lacked concreteness and specific examples. There is a high possibility that their ideal L2 self images were not vivid nor elaborate enough to work as a "future self guides" (Dörnyei, 2014, p.8) even though the score on ideal L2 self improved after the SA program. This could result from one of the disadvantages of studying abroad as one group. It is hard to imagine that they speak English to each other on a daily basis after they get back to their home university. It is simply awkward for them and they can only imagine themselves in a sojourn speaking English at homestays and local stores. Another potential factor that prevented the participants from becoming more capable of imagining English speaking self is the fact that professionals that require English are still limited in Japan even though English ability might help to get a better job as a qualification. If this is the case, it is reasonable that PRO score did not increase significantly after the SA program. In this respect, it is critical not only to immerse students in the target language environment but also to give students opportunities to relates their future and experiences of using English in a sojourn so that they can create plausible L2 future self, which Dörnyei and Ryan (2015, p.92) list as one of the conditions for self-image to work as a strong motivator.

As indicated in the quantitative analysis of this study, the participants' anxiety level decreased even though the anxiety level is still high. Changes in the kind of L2 anxiety were also observed in the interview data (Appendix 3). Prior to SA, some students expressed general classroom related anxiety or anxiety regarding linguistic knowledge and skills:

"I have fear of being pointed by a teacher. I had a fear of failure." (Participant C and D)

"I am anxious about grammar, pronunciation, and listening." (Participant A)

Presumably, the anxiety of these kinds was caused by a strong emphasis on the accuracy in classroom praxis they experienced in their formal education. On the other hand, five out of eight participants expressed communication related anxiety in the post-program interviews:

> "I am anxious about not being able to convey what I want to communicate." (Participant B, C, E, and G)

Perhaps students still feel linguistic and skill-related anxiety, but they now believe that successful communication is more important than avoiding errors. In other words, they now believe they should feel linguistic anxiety for the sake of improving communication, but not for potential negative evaluations by others or themselves.

Based on the findings of this study, strategies to improve WTC should be considered and implemented to make such short-term SA programs more beneficial for students. The participants in this study became capable of imagining an English speaking self, but their images were not very clear. One of the participants commented that they could imagine what they had already experienced. This type of comment implies that they need more experiences in situations that require English so that they can elaborate their English speaking self. In order to do so, the programs should provide more opportunities. At the same time, students could also become more willing to interact with people using English. It was good to observe the improvement of WTC in this study, but the score was still not high (pre=3.49, post=3.97). Moreover, WTC should be increased before they actually go studying abroad to experience more because four weeks does not seems to be long enough to greatly enhance WTC, as shown above. The authors of this paper recommend that certain strategies be implemented to improve students' WTC before SA in regular classes, such as building trust between students, allowing for personal choice when selecting topics and individual goal setting are among the techniques that can be used. Before putting students on task, it is important to take time and explain the main objectives of the course and how the activities will help them achieve that objective. Perhaps further stimulating their curiosity about the culture and people in a sojourn would enhance their WTC. In addition, making efforts to enhance all students' WTC in Japanese classrooms could reduce the negative peer pressure mentioned by one of the participants in this study. These recommendations are consistent with previous findings by Aubrey (2011). The results of the current study show that the need to implement these suggestions is still present.

Conclusion

This study was undertaken to explore the psychological benefits that four-week SA programs can offer students in terms of L2 learning. The mixed method approach used provided the authors with the opportunity to understand the SA benefits more deeply. The results from the quantitative analysis indicated the improvement of motivational variables measured, whereas the findings from the qualitative analysis prevented them from overestimating the quantitative results and led to a more accurate understating of the SA benefits. Since this study was an exploratory study, a wide range of psychological variables was investigated, using only three or four question items. Now that potential benefits of SA have been identified, materials and procedures to enable more accurate and more in-depth analysis can be employed in the future studies.

Even with the limitations mentioned above, the findings of this study imply that the participants' motivation to learn English was enhanced after the four-week SA programs. This was probably facilitated by the enhancement of attitudes toward English classes. Ideal L2 self improved, though it is still limited. L2 anxiety shifted to a beneficial form of stress, focused on improving communication ability rather than on assessment results and potential criticism. It is hoped that the findings of this study will encourage SA organizers to make better efforts to improve WTC in order to enhance these short programs.

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Appendix 1

Interview responses about English learning experiences

	Pre-program interview	Post-program interview
Participant A	I went to English conversation class when I was an elementary school student and I liked it. I came to hate English because I was forced to study for exams in junior high school.	I liked using English and learning something else with it.
Participant B	I went to English conversation class when I was an elementary school student and I liked it. I came to hate English because I was forced to study for exams in junior high school.	I liked using English and learning something else with it.
Participant C	I had English activities at elementary school and liked it. I came to hate English because I study to answer questions in junior high school.	I liked using English and learning something else with it.
Participant D	I went to English conversation class when I was an elementary school student and liked it. I liked English because of the teacher influence in junior high school.	I liked group work and liked to say my opinion.
Participant E	I liked English because I enjoyed games in English classes in junior high school. I had no special feelings toward English because it was just answering questions in high school.	I had a lot of speaking opportunities and I liked it.
Participant F	I went to English cram school when I was an elementary school student. I always liked English, especially speaking.	I liked the small size class.
Participant G	I had English activities at elementary school and liked it. I liked English but hated English classes in junior high school. I study English to answer questions.	I liked to think about America in English. The contents were very practical.
Participant H	I went to English cram school when I was an elementary school student. I studies English for exams.	I liked the small size class.

Appendix 2

Interview responses about ideal L2 self

	Pre-program interview	Post-program interview
Participant A	I never imagined myself to become someone being able to speak English.	I want to become able to speak English.
Participant B	I wanted to use English at work before. I want to become capable of having a daily conversation.	I want to talk to foreigners proactively when they come to Japan.
Participant C	I wanted to communicate with foreigners in English before. I wanted to use English at work.	I want to talk to foreigners not only in Japanese but also English when they need help.
Participant D	I never imagined myself to become someone being able to speak English.	I can imagine myself speaking English at a university and workplace.
Participant E	I never imagined myself to become someone being able to speak English.	I can imagine myself having a daily conversation and talking with store clerks. I will not use English on a daily basis in the future, so there is no future image.
Participant F	I wanted to work overseas vaguely before I became a high school student.	I want to get a job that requires English.
Participant G	I can't imagine myself to become someone being able to speak English, but I want to become capable of having a daily conversation while studying abroad.	I can imagine what I have experienced in a sojourn.
Participant H	I have imagined speaking with ALTs, but I can't do it.	I want to become able to speak English with foreigners.

Appendix 3

Interview responses about L2 anxiety

	Pre-program interview	Post-program interview
Participant A	I am anxious about grammar, pronunciation, and listening.	I am anxious about not being able to continue conversation.
Participant B	I hate studying.	I am anxious about not being able to convey what I want to communicate.
Participant C	I have fear of being pointed by a teacher. I had fear of failure.	I am anxious about not being able to convey what I want to communicate.
Participant D	I have fear of being pointed by a teacher. I had fear of failure.	I am anxious about listening.
Participant E	I am anxious about not understanding English passages, especially listening.	I am anxious about not being able to convey what I want to communicate.
Participant F	I am anxious about being tested on grammar.	I am anxious when I do not know how to respond.
Participant G	I am anxious about listening.	I am anxious about not being able to convey what I want to communicate.
Participant H	I can't speak and write.	I am anxious not being able to speak due to lack of grammar and vocabulary.

Creating English for Tourism Purposes Programs Using a CLIL Framework

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In Asia, the impact of tourism on GDP has been remarkable for the past decade, and the industry may contribute up to 9.2% of worldwide employment by 2020. This being the case, effective English communication has become a necessary skill for tourism employment. In order to facilitate the needs of tourism employees, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) programs could be instituted to increase metalinguistic awareness and communicative competence in content-based situations, where information must be understood and communicated. This paper focuses on using a CLIL framework to develop effective English programs for tourism programs in Asia.

アジアにおいて、観光産業のGDPへの影響はここ10年ほどで着目されるようになっており、2020年までにこの産業が世界全体の雇用の9.2%を占めることになると予測されている。そのような状況のため、効果的な英語コミュニケーションは、観光産業での雇用のための必須なスキルとなると言える。観光産業従事者のニーズに対応し、情報の理解と伝達が要求されるコンテンツベースの状況におけるメタ言語認識と伝達能力の向上のため、Content and Language Integrated Learning（CLIL）プログラムが導入された。本稿では、アジアの観光プログラムに向けた効果的な英語プログラムを開発するために、CLILフレームワークの利用に焦点を当てる。

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is using language to learn, and learning to use language along with content. It is competence-based education for employability, mobility, and growth for practical purposes. This makes it perfect for English in tourism worldwide. To this end, effective English for tourism programs should be administered following a CLIL paradigm. CLIL can be thought of as an approach, but it is also a theoretical concept and a paradigm, which can be transformed into an effective framework for learning and teaching English for tourism. For many years, content teachers were content teachers and language teachers were language teachers. However, in Europe especially, CLIL originated from a need to combine both content and language together to make teaching more effective for employment purposes, and has proven to be quite effective in that realm. The demand for English language learning and speaking has grown exponentially, and therefore, most countries will be learning English for communication purposes in many facets in the upcoming decades, especially for, during, and within tourism.

Morrow, J. S. (2017). Creating English for tourism purposes programs using a CLIL framework. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 194-199). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

CLIL Background

CLIL is largely an approach to teach new content material *through* a foreign or second language, which helps students learn both content *and* language. Both content and language are of course intertwined; perhaps it is not enough to teach language for the sake of language itself, as language has many practical uses in employment in such fields as healthcare, economics, politics, trade, and tourism. In fact, globalization, economic development, and environmental sustainability have all become buzzwords of the 21st century and have given rise to the need to communicate both locally and globally through intercultural activities. Globalization requires governments and agencies to communicate across country borders, and developing economies must be able to access important market and trade information. All countries must share information regarding environmental protection. The demands of politics, education, and society, therefore, have allowed CLIL to become a popular approach to modern language education.

Coyle, Hood, and Marsh (2010) give two main reasons for the recent uptake of CLIL. *Reactive* reasons are those in which human policy takes a leading role in determining aims of education and implementation of language. A language may be adopted as a medium of communication at the secondary and tertiary levels and then also become a unifying language of business and politics. *Proactive* reasons are those that purposefully enhance not only language learning, but also strengthen bilingualism. This being the case, CLIL has sociological roots. In fact, CLIL can focus on intercultural ideas by allowing people to share information on a widespread basis not available in one-language settings. This, in turn, opens the door for developing further understanding of global connections, technological advances, and human lives. In the 1950's Europe discussed the need for multilingualism for advancing the economy, and in the 1970's the European Education Council argued the need for teaching beyond the traditional classroom methods. This paved the way in the 1980's for the teaching of foreign languages to more school age children in more than one language. The spread of foreign language teaching prompted the CLIL approach to be taken more seriously. CLIL then grew throughout the European community. From the late 1980's, another way CLIL became an educational initiative stemmed from the need to educate young people about environmental protection through CLIL learning modules, which focused on environmental studies in English (Coyle et al., 2010).

In the 1990's, CLIL became even more prioritized and the European Council recommended to schools that CLIL should be standardized throughout the entire European community. By the mid1990's, CLIL was sought after by parents wanting their children to have some kind of socio-economic advantage (Coyle et al., 2010). Global dependence has meant that communication and the ability to use a lingua franca have become almost a prerequisite for individual promotion, upward mobility, and success (British Council, 2016). CLIL could therefore be especially useful in the EFL classrooms that require teaching of a particular type of content such as science, math, or history. Effective learning has been seen in the many diverse classrooms of late; however, students need to be academically connected to their language use. Students must develop academic knowledge and skills with access to the target language, within which particular knowledge is contained and evaluated (Crandall, 1994). CLIL allows teachers to enhance integrated language skills without focus on structured grading.

CLIL, CBLT, and ESP

Two other methods that share some basic theories with CLIL are: 1) Content-Based Language Teaching (CBLT), and 2) English for Specific Purposes (ESP) training. The CBLT approach focuses on teaching one or two academic subjects in the target or second language, and is taught largely in immersion settings. CBLT as immersion, or the approach to use *only* the target language in teaching has been utilized in many countries for decades. A plethora of immersion models are based on the Canadian immersion system that began as an experiment in Quebec where French is the L1 of 80% of citizens. English speaking Canadian parents were proponents of the movement to ensure that their children had the French language skills necessary to live and work in Quebec (Lightbown, 2014). Hong Kong has been using English to teach one more two mainstream courses in schools even after it was returned to China in 1997. Malaysia had the educational objective to teach math and science in English to secondary students since 2003; however, problems occurred when it was difficult to find teachers with adequate proficiency to teach two subjects, and the decision was made in 2009 to return the subjects to the teaching of Malay. This decision was probably based on the low effectiveness with which the CBLT setting trained students for examinations (Gooch, 2009). Regardless of the problems faced with CBLT in the past, there have also been many successes, such as CBLT for minority students, which is different for majority students in that learning a new language is not optional. In this case, CBLT helps students participate fully in socioeconomic circles that are important within any community.

CLIL, on the other hand, is a composite of both language and subject learning (Lightbown, 2014); the difference is that most learners of CLIL have already learned their content in their L1. CLIL can more readily assist teachers in teaching global communication because learners especially in developing regions need to achieve the best results in the shortest amount of time possible. Although the language functions differ from country to country, the goal of learning a language quickly is of utmost importance. CLIL advanced because the balance between the social environment and the language used in that environment has allowed CLIL to become an approach that focuses on both language and content at the same time.

English for Specific Purposes, or ESP, focuses on teaching the language of professional communication one needs to know in order to carry out a particular job or a particular task; word lists and vocabulary may highlight the ESP-based classroom. There are two main offshoots of English purposes that fall under the ESP umbrella; these are English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). Within these fall such purpose English as English for Medical Purposes, English for Business Purposes, and English for Legal Purposes (Dudley-Evans & St. Johns, 1998). The methodology of ESP may not differ much from general English, and while ESP must take into account some content in order to teach appropriately, the underlying goal of ESP is not always content; the ESP teacher can facilitate learning through textbooks. In some cases, content does not enter into ESP teaching at all (Tarnopolsky, 2013); however, if a teacher is also a materials provider, he or she adapts or creates appropriate material when nothing suitable is available. This requires the teacher to become more of a consultant who has deeper knowledge (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). *Integrated ESP* teaching *does* focus on both the content and language of a particular professional situation, and as such, the language learning and learning the content of a future profession are linked and contribute to one another. While CBLT and integrated ESP (including EAP, EOP, EMP, EBP, and ELP) focus specifically on language for professional development through vocabulary and task-based teaching, there is only one approach perhaps that fully links situational content with one or two languages also in *context*, and that approach is CLIL.

Tourism has an obvious need for face-to-face communicative content training in functional situations dictated by needs. The tourism expansion has created new job opportunities for employees; however, tourism employees must be able to communicate effectively in every face-to-face situation. Face-to-face employees with ample communication skills can drastically influence the perceptions of guests because it is this communication that the guest will remember. To assist employees with better communication for their livelihoods, English language teachers and English program developers should create more effective CLIL programs for enhanced employment in and better income tourism. There is a need for better English among tourism employees in developing countries for both more stable employment and increased incomes.

Elements of an Effective CLIL Tourism Program

It goes without saying that some tourism employees could be deficient in communicating in English due to low English proficiency. Thus, CLIL programs can help employees learn tourist destinations, travel procedures, and guiding techniques in English through using the language triptych: language *of* learning, *for* learning, and *through* learning (Coyle, 2010). The triptych can be utilized well by teaching through role-play activities. This is because using everyday examples can highlight the language and conditional nuances involved in dramatic, real-life communication, which often accompany tourism. Tourism employees can be taught to communicate in such situations by presenting not only simple spoken language, but language of learning, for learning, and through learning.

In any situation language is functional, dictated by needs of that particular situation. Addressing language needs of a particular situation, therefore, can be practiced in task-based lessons in a CLIL environment, which can also be accomplished in tourism role-play situations. This also allows teachers and students to fully focus on content involved in learning such tasks as hotel check in, explanation of amenities, and guest payment. Learning is lexical, not grammatical, so learning should be based on tasks, rather than on rote memorization.

These kinds of task-based lessons can be adopted in a CLIL lessons if planned properly. In order to begin preparing for any CLIL lesson, there are certain considerations one must take into account, outlined by Coyle et al. (2010): the 4C's of lesson planning. The four C's are:

1) *Content*. This area asks what the purpose of the topic is, and how to proceed with tackling the content that is to be learned.
2) *Communication*. This facet is concerned with what language will be communicated through the lesson.
3) *Cognition*. Cognition focuses on the type of thinking skills that will be initiated.
4) *Culture.* The culture component assists in developing intercultural understanding. All of these can be combined together within the preparation for the lesson in this CLIL framework.

Much of CLIL is centered on Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956) in which there are different domains that assist in the learning process: 1) creating, 2) evaluating, 3) analyzing, 4) applying, 5) understanding, and 6) remembering. Bloom's taxonomy has been transferred to CLIL classrooms of late. The taxonomy premises that learning is best done not as rote memorization, and using the above domains in content rich instruction can promote higher forms of critical thinking. Learning of any content must involve the language associated with the content; in this case teachers can use tourism content to teach tourism communication, and during tourism communication training using English, other aspects of communication can be taught as well: *pleasantries*, or the communication of greeting, and taking care of guests' needs in an open and professional manner; *prediction*, or the skill of understanding what the guest may require on first glance; and *purpose* or the communication that will assist the traveler in obtaining what he or she needs.

Dramatic activities work well in teaching tourism English using CLIL because CLIL teaches both content and language for use in situational problem solving, discussion, and negotiation of meaning. English for tourism using a CLIL format could utilize real-life dramatic activities such as role-play. Role-play, in fact, is used quite extensively in tourism English training. Hillyard (2015) has discussed some useful process conventions in drama. Those include: improvisation (unscripted, unrehearsed scenes), teacher in role (the teacher taking on a character role within a drama), tableau (where the students assemble into pictures expressing a certain situation), thought tracking (whether the teacher freezes the scene, taps the students on the shoulder and asks them to speak the characters' feelings), narration (the teacher tells the story and the students listen with closed eyes or pantomime the actions), mapping, writing in role (in character students write about a thoughtful scene in the drama), meetings (the teacher and students meet together discussing information), trials (where one or more people in character are interrogated or act as jurors),and hot seating (where a students or group questions or gathers information from others).

An Example of a CLIL Tourism English Activity

At this juncture, the author will describe an effective model for tour guides using an extensive reading and explanation activity under the CLIL framework. In this extensive reading model, the class is separated into two main groups, the tour guides and the tourists. The tour guides are given a reading passage about a well-known tourist destination with which they have contact and should have knowledge and experience. Each reading contains a number. They are to read the explanation and remember certain specific points. These points will be used later to explain the destination to tourists. The tourists randomly choose a number and then are provided with sample questions to ask the tour guide regarding the destination. The tourists approach the corresponding tour guides and ask questions relating to their destination, such as historical significance, origin, and unique features. The tour guides are taught to study and practice using a two-fold approach based on some of the points detailed above from Bloom's taxonomy: *evaluating* the reading they are undertaking, *analyzing* the important parts that could be relayed to tourists, and *applying* what they have read to the situation. In turn while practicing, tour guides are taught to: *evaluate* the tourist situation, including needs of the tourist; *analyze* what the tourist may want to know and what kind of communicators they are; and *apply* what they know about the destination while relaying pertinent information. Administration of this kind of lesson also includes emphasis on the four C's of effective CLIL lessons: *content,* as can be found in the extensive readings by the tour guides; *communication* in which the guides and the tourist practice effective questioning and explanation, *cognition*, which focuses on evaluating and analyzing the knowledge of the guides and the needs of the tourists, and *culture*, where the culture of the destination is provided taking the cultural aspects of the tourists and guides into account.

Conclusion

Effective use of English is essential for tour guides and those working in and around the tourist industry. To this end, effective training using a CLIL framework for language learning could help tourism employees communicate more fully and confidently, combining both essential content and language to go with the content. Using the four C's of lesson planning within the language triptych, combined with the effective communicative competency activities, effective lessons under a CLIL framework can be created with real-life implications.

Effective CLIL Tourism programs should include:

- Key integrated vocabulary and phrasal knowledge relating to tourism and to particular destinations;
- Role-play activities focusing on using the language to learn new facets of communication;
- Extensive reading in the target language to prepare for explanation of tourist destinations;
- Teaching of prediction activities for front desk employees and concierges to be able to discern particular guests' likes, desires, and needs.

The four language skills can also be practiced in a CLIL for tourism English program:

Listening practice for comprehending guests' questions, comments; extensive *reading* practice can be incorporated to learn and explain tourist destinations, along with background information; and *speaking* practice can be included to relay info to guests where the focus of the lesson is on fluency, not accuracy. *Writing* practice is also incorporated to recycle grammar when speaking to travelers and is essential for all tourism employees.

CLIL training can help learners integrate content with language during meaningful practice, such as that found in face-to-face communication. CLIL style English training can help young labor force members have a chance to enter the work force and have better employment leading to higher incomes, a higher standard of living, and a brighter future.

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To Skype or not to Skype? Revisited: Chi-squared Analysis Confirms Positive Influence of Skype Exchanges

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This paper reports the survey results of a group of students (n = 29) at an elementary school in Japan who engaged in 3 computer mediated communication exchanges with native speakers of English elementary school students in Australia. The participants had statistically significant increases in their desire to engage in foreign language activities ($p < .01$); international posture ($p < .01$), motivation ($p < .01$), and desire to visit foreign countries ($p < .05$). In addition, the effect size measures and statistical power numbers are very encouraging. Furthermore, these parametric results are further supported by a non-parametric chi-squared test of independence of the 6 variables before and after the Skype® interventions. The chi-square results support the effect size and power results. The results and implications are discussed.

オーストラリアの英語小学生のネイティブスピーカーとコンピュータ媒介通信交換に従事日本では小学校の生徒のグループの調査結果が提示されています。参加者は外国語活動に従事することを自分の欲望の統計的に有意な増加があった(p < 0.01), 国際姿勢(p < 0.01)、動機た(p < 0.01), および外国を訪問する欲求た(p < 0.05) また、これらの項目のグラス「Δ効果の大きさ対策は以下のとおりです。これらの結果は非常に有望であり、調査項目に学生からのフィードバックに関連して説明されています。さらに、これらのパラメトリック結果は、Skype(登録商標)介入前後の6変数の独立性のノンパラメトリックカイ2乗検定によってさらに支持される。カイ2乗結果は、エフェクトサイズとパワー結果をサポートします。 結果と含意について議論する。

The results of an examination of the effects of multimodal computer mediated communication (MCMC) use in a Japanese elementary school EFL class are reported in this paper. One class (n = 29) used the Skype® online video software to communicate with a group of elementary school students in Australia on three separate occasions. This paper builds on previously reported research (Ockert, in press, 2016, 2015a, 2015b; Ockert & Tagami, 2014) by providing the effect sizes, which are calculated in comparison with a control group, the statistical power, and a chi-squared ($\chi 2$) analysis of student responses to questions on the 6 affective variables. This group of students really enjoyed the language exchange experience using Skype®, which resulted in an increase of affective variables, including foreign language activities (FLAs), confidence, motivation, willingness to communicate (WTC), and international posture (IP). These six were chosen to compare their relationship before and after the exchanges since they are of interest to the researcher and colleagues.

Ockert, D. (2017). To Skype or not to Skype? Revisited: Chi-squared analysis confirms positive influence of Skype exchanges. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 200-207). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

MCMC EFL Studies

In the JEFL learning situation, studies involving computer-mediated communication (CMC) in FL learning have shown the benefits to students of Japanese and English (Saito & Ishizuka, 2003). Furthermore, Freiermuth and Jarrell's (2006) research on WTC and online chat has shown that a computer–mediated environment provided a more comfortable environment compared with a classroom learning setting. This resulted in the improvement of student WTC. In a study to promote student EFL motivation, confidence, and satisfaction, Wu, Marek and Yen (2012) used Internet-based MCMC. In their study, EFL students in Taiwan interacted 'live' with a native speaker of English (NSE) in America and student motivation, satisfaction, confidence, and performance improved as a result.

MCMC Studies and Skype

In the JEFL learning situation, the use of Skype® enabled students at schools in various regions around the world to communicate (e.g. Takiguchi, 2002). The results show that real-time, in-class communication with students in foreign countries using a video conferencing system (e.g. Skype®) improved student interest, concern, and desire. Additionally, studies with elementary students have shown that correlations between Skype®-based FLAs, motivation, IP, confidence, WTC, and interest in foreign cultures / desire to travel overseas are high (see Ockert & Tagami, 2014).

Foreign Language Activities

Research conducted in EFL environments has shown that a combination of a learner's personality (trait motivation) and situation specific (state) motivation contributes to EFL motivation (Julkenen, 2001). In other words, task motivation depends on the general motivation of the learner combined with how they perceive the task. In Japan, Nose (2006) reported that 'games' was the most interesting activity amongst his students, who gave three reasons why: 1) an increase of interest as a result of talking with an NSE; 2) listening to a foreign language; and 3) an increase of awareness towards communication, i.e. the necessity of English to communicate with foreigners.

Affective Variables in EFL

L2 Learner Motivation

Researchers have reported on increased motivation as a result of CMC in several studies (e.g. Wu, Marek & Yen, 2012). There are various reasons, including the result of exposure to stimulating and authentic learning contexts, of collaborative work in a less-threatening environment (Friermouth & Jarrell, 2006), and of learners' perceived feeling of having control over their own learning (Warschauer, 1996). This aspect of CMC motivation will be explored in more detail below and are the basis for the exchange activities used in this study. A recent study by Oga-Baldwin et al. has shown that the instruction in elementary schools supports foreign language learning motivation (Oga-Baldwin, Nakata, Parker, & Ryan, 2017). The use of Skype® in the classroom is a supplementary intervention that bolsters the foreign language curriculum / instruction in elementary schools.

International Posture

Within the Japanese EFL (JEFL) context, Yashima (2000) found that English seems to represent something broader than people from the US or Britain in the minds of young Japanese learners. She refers to a generalized international outlook or IP defined as an "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and…a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures" (p. 57). Therefore, this identity with 'foreignness' possesses an international outlook and the attendant attitudes to different cultures and foreigners that are non-Japanese (Yashima et al., 2004). Her work forms the basis for examining the relationships among IP, L2 learning motivation, and L2 communication confidence in an L2 before and after the Skype® exchanges in the present study.

L2 Self-confidence

MacIntyre and his associates (Donovan & MacIntyre, 2005) identified a concept, which they have labeled 'perceived communicative competence'. In JEFL studies, Yashima (2002) found a positive, causal relationship between motivation (which was comprised of two indicator variables, desire and intensity) and communication confidence (comprised of two indicator variables - communication anxiety, aka nervousness, and perceived communication competence) in the L2, which led to WTC. In addition, Yashima et al. (2004) found that self-confidence in communication in an L2 to be essential to be willing to communicate in that L2.

Willingness to Communicate

In the JEFL literature, Yashima and her associates (Yashima et al., 2004; Yashima et al., 2009) have conducted research on WTC in the JEFL context in relation to several affective variables, including, language learning orientations and motivations (Yashima, 2000), student WTC (Yashima, 2002) and the influence of attitudes and affect on WTC and second language communication (Yashima et al., 2004). They concluded, "Self-confidence in communication in an L2 is crucial for a person to be willing to communicate in that L2" (p. 141). Online chat has been shown to support student motivation in a small-scale study by Reinders and Wattana (n = 9; 2011). Similarly, the Skype® intervention used in this study also shows an improvement in WTC.

Desire to Travel Overseas

Clément and his associates (see Clément & Krudenier, 1985) reported on the desire to travel overseas and the desire to make friends with members of an L2 target community. Students' desire to spend time abroad is related to instrumental motives (e.g. future employment) and socio-cultural motives such as a desire to make friends (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994). Kramsch and Andersen (1999) commented that computers and the Internet seem to realize the dream of every language teacher – to bring the language and culture as close and as authentically as possible to students in the classroom.

The Study

Hypotheses

The use of the Skype® video software to communicate with students in Australia will increase the affective variables of the experimental group toward English language learning. The affective variables examined in this study are: desire to engage in foreign language activities, IP, motivation, communicative confidence, WTC, and desire to visit foreign countries.

Method

Participants

All of the students who participated in the study were in the 5th grade of a Japanese elementary school and were 10-11 years old. The classes were evenly divided for gender. There were two classes (N = 58) with the experimental group (n = 29) utilizing Skype® three times for 30 minutes each, and one control group (n = 29).

Materials

The survey was in paper form and in Japanese. The questionnaire items use a six-point Likert-type scale from1 (*Completely Disagree*) to 6 (*Completely Agree*). The data was put to a correlation analysis and principal component analysis (PCA) using statistical software (SPSS 18) and these results were reported in Ockert (2015a). The significance level was set to .05 for all of the items.

Procedures

The survey was administered in class to students in April and again after the final Skype® exchange. The exchanges lasted about 30 minutes each. The students introduced themselves, sang songs, and answered questions in the target language.

Results and Discussion

Quantitative Results

The six items' descriptive statistics and correlations for the first iteration of the survey are provided in Table 1 for reference (Ockert, 2015a). As can be seen, all of the correlations with FLAs are statistically significant. This evidence demonstrates that the use of FLAs can have an influence on the other 5 affective variables investigated.

The Control Groups' M and SD Before and

Table 1

The Control Groups' M and SD Before and After the Intervention (n = 29)

	FL Activities	International Posture	Motivation	Comm. Confidence	WTC	Desire to travel
Before	4.00 (1.62)	3.74 (1.61)	3.52 (1.72)	2.67 (1.62)	3.22 (1.60)	4.74 (1.83
After	4.00 (1.69)	4.04 (1.32)	4.48 (1.42)	3.30 (1.51)	3.63 (1.74)	4.74 (1.91)
Difference	0.00	0.30	0.96*	0.63	0.41	0.00
Effect Size	na	na	0.68	na	na	na
Power	na	na	.58	na	na	na

Note. *$p < .01$

After the Intervention (n = 29)The results of the differences for the groups' *M* and *SD* before and after the intervention are presented in Table 2 for reference (Ockert, 2016). First, the statistically significant increase of .96 ($p < .01$) in the *FLA* results is similar to that found by previous researchers in the JEFL learning context (e.g. Tagami, 2010). In addition, the notably large increase in *IP* after the intervention is possibly the most outstanding result. The increase of 1.17 points on a six point scale, and statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level, this clearly indicates a meaningful increase that an effect size measure can verify. The statistically significant increase ($p < .01$) for *Motivation* of .93 also deserves further scrutiny. However, one of the goals of this experiment was to improve the students' interest in EFL, and this result confirms that interest increased as a result of the intervention.

What do these increases mean regarding the efficacy of the study? Cohen (1992) offers suggestions for effect size measures: 0.2 indicates a small effect; 0.5, a medium effect, and 0.8 indicates a large effect size (p. 159). Since this intervention used a pre-post experimental design, the effect sizes were calculated accordingly. As shown in Table 2, the Glass' *delta* effect size measures are: *FLAs* = 0.83; *International Posture* = 1.06; *Motivation* = 0.80; and *Desire to travel overseas* = 0.54. Based on the above-mentioned method for interpreting their value(s), these effect sizes are very desirable and support the efficacy of the study, demonstrating that the results are not by random chance and are, in fact, meaningful. Furthermore, the statistical power results tell us the probability that the experiment would yield similar results if repeated (Soper, 2016). Therefore, the *FLA* results indicate a 77% probability; *IP* 95%; *Motivation* 74%, and the *Desire to travel overseas* results indicate

Table 2

The Experimental Groups' M and SD Before and After the Intervention (n = 29)

	FL Activities	International Posture	Motivation	Comm. Confidence	WTC	Desire to travel
Before	3.14 (1.70)	3.31 (1.84)	3.17 (1.70)	3.45 (1.40)	3.34 (1.86)	4.45 (1.77)
After	4.10 (1.16)	4.48 (1.10)	4.10 (1.16)	3.41 (1.38)	3.90 (1.24)	5.07 (1.14)
Difference	0.96**	1.17**	0.93**	-0.04	0.56	0.62*
Effect Size	0.83	1.06	0.80	na	na	0.54
Power	.77	.95	.74	na	na	.65

Note. **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$

a 65% probability of similar results in a subsequent experiment.

How are we to judge the effectiveness of the Skype® exchanges? First, the statistically significant increase of .96 (p < .01) in the *FLA* results is similar to that found by previous researchers in the JEFL learning context. This supports the theoretical basis for the use of Skype® as an intervention to improve student interest in English-language based FLAs. In addition, the notably large increase in *IP* after the intervention is possibly the most outstanding result. The increase of 1.17 points on a six point scale, and statistically significant at the p < .01 level, this clearly indicates a meaningful increase that requires further research to verify.

If it can be shown that a similar intervention can provide positive results, the research results presented herein will be supported. The statistically significant increase (p < .01) for *Motivation* of .93 is very good news. One of the goals of this experiment was to improve the students' interest in EFL, and this result confirms that the students' interest increased as a result of the intervention. The students reported an increase in their reported *Desire to travel overseas* (0.62) which is statistically significant at p < .05. Perhaps more interventions over a longer period of time would alleviate this issue. Future studies could be conducted to help answer this question.

As a result of a professional critique by Ferriera (2017), the author chose to use a χ^2 test of independence on the data from the instrument results before and after the Skype® interventions. For the χ2, the lower score indicates similarity of response between the items for the pre-Skype data, as can be seen in Table 3..

It should be noted that the control group showed only a statistically significant change for motivation in the pre-post survey results. Therefore, the results presented here help confirm that the Skype® had a positive influence on the experimental students' affect. Also, the students who participated in the Skype® exchanges responded to the survey items in a more distinct manner after the exchanges when compared with the pre-intervention results.

Furthermore, the high χ2 values in Table 4 tell us that at the very least, the students responded to each item in a more 'specific' manner after the interventions, and the low p values confirm this. Also, none of the participants chose option 1 for *Strongly Disagree* for *IP* and *Desire to travel abroad* – a clear indication that their affect was positively influenced by the Skype® exchanges. While these results are very encouraging, the author would like to note that they are those of an intervention and the author does not advocate the use of Skype® in lieu of native English speakers (NESs) in the classroom.

Conclusions

How can educators engage learners in the learning process by utilizing Skype® or other systems as a means to capture interest and foster learning or at the very least increase student interest in EFL learning?. There are several reasons why learners may lose interest in learning another language: time pressure; the fact that their friends do not use the language; boredom; they see no future use for it; and other interests, to name a few. However, the use of recent technological advances

Table 3

Experimental Group Chi-square test Results Before the Skype Exchanges

	FLAs	**IP**	**Mot**	**CC**	**WTC**	**D to travel**
χ2	1.828[a]	3.241[b]	1.828[a]	12.586[a]	3.069[a]	11.172[b]
df	5	4[c]	5	5	5	4[d]
p level	p = .872	p = .518	p = .872	p = .028	p = .689	p = .025

Notes: a. The expected frequency of 6 cells (100.0%) is 5 or less. The minimum value of the required cell frequency is 4.8.
b. The expected frequency of 0 cells (0.0%) is 5 or less. The minimum value of the required cell frequency is 5.8.
c. The df is 4 since no participants responded to option 3 on the scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).
d. The df is 4 since no participants responded to option 2 on the scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

Table 4
Experimental Group Chi-square test Results After the Skype Exchanges

	FLAs	IP	Mot	CC	WTC	D to travel
$\chi2$	17.552[a]	10.483[b]	17.552[a]	11.345[a]	10.931[a]	19.793[b]
df	5	4[c]	5	5	5	4[d]
p level	$p = .004$	$p = .033$	$p = .004$	$p = .045$	$p = .053$	$p = .001$

Notes: a. The expected frequency of 6 cells (100.0%) is 5 or less. The minimum value of the required cell frequency is 4.8.
b. The expected frequency of 0 cells (0.0%) is 5 or less. The minimum value of the required cell frequency is 5.8.
c. The df is 4 since no participants responded to option 1 on the scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).
d. The df is 4 since no participants responded to option 1 on the scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

such as the Internet provides an interesting alternative to traditional educational approaches.

The use of an in-class Skype® exchange with NESs of a target language provides several positive outcomes for the students involved. As this study shows, the Japanese students report an increase in five of the six affective variables surveyed. They report an increase in interest in FLAs, which are related to English, foreign countries (different cultures), a desire to study more in order to communicate in English, a desire to communicate with foreigners in English, and a greater desire to go overseas at some time. What are some of the benefits of introducing live, video MCMC exchange experiences for young EFL Japanese learners? It is possible to use video communications as a means to teach English by using such exchanges as a foreign language activity as a motivating intervention.

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Appendix

The student survey

English translation of the questionnaire items using a six-point Likert-type scale from1 (*Completely Disagree*) to 6 (*Completely Agree*).

1. I like foreign language (English) activities.
2. I want to know more about foreign countries (different cultures).
3. To communicate in English, I want to study more.
4. I have confidence to communicate using simple English.
5. For myself, I want to communicate with foreigners in English.
6. I want to go overseas at some time.

Educational Manga: Deceptively Educational

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This paper examines how 67 Japanese university students viewed, by questionnaire, an educational manga textbook: what they particularly liked and did not like about it, their first impressions (and changes to them), and their preferences in textbook style, price, and size. Two main points may be noted from the results of this study. First, the majority of these students (particularly those in the lower English proficiency level group of the two class groups) preferred educational manga to traditional textbooks. Second, first impressions of educational manga can be deceiving. Some students changed their opinion regarding its difficulty and others who initially perceived it not to be study material changed their minds after studying with it. Educational manga may be facing a barrier to language classroom use if it does not appear to be educational.

この論文では、教育マンガ教科書の特に気に入った点とそうでない点、第一印象とその後の変化、教科書の好みのタイプや値段やサイズについて、67人の日本人大学生のアンケート調査の結果を報告する。この調査では、二つの大きな結果が見られた。一つは、大半の学生（特に2クラスの内、英語能力の低いレベルのクラス）は一般の教科書で学ぶより、教育マンガ教科書で学ぶ方がより良いと感じた。もう一つは、教育マンガは第一印象とは違うことが多い。学生の中には難易度に対する意見を変えたり、また初めは勉強らしくないという印象を持っていた学生も学び終わった後自分の意見を変えたりした学生もいた。教育マンガが教育的とは思われない場合、語学教室でこのような教材が使われない理由となっているかもしれない。

Educational manga (Ogawa, 2013), along with graphic novels (Monnin, 2010) and manga textbooks (Uchida, Orita, Kunigami, Terano & Yoshikawa, 2012), belong to the comic genre, which provide "***range*** and ***versatility*** with all the potential imagery of ***film*** and ***painting*** plus the ***intimacy*** of the ***written word***" (McCloud, 1993, p. 212[1]). As explained in Ogawa (2014b), the use of "image literacies" (Monnin, 2010, p. 123) is not uncommon in the language classroom. They have the desirable features of visual stimulation (Wolfe, 2010), improved student understanding (Uchida et. al., 2012) and improved learning through heightened attention (Cary, 2004) stemming from the inherent emotional intimacy. It may be easier for educators to accept visual materials like educational manga into their classrooms when they consider that *The Newsom Report* of 1963 encouraged English teachers to use comics (Mouly, 2010) and that, if history had been different, it may have been books instead of video games that were met with resistance from educators and others (Johnston, 2005). In fact, Short and Reeves (2009) suggest that materials such as educational manga can be effective education tools and Lee and Morrall (2006) have developed a computer-based English learning tool inspired by manga.

While educational manga have the potential to accomplish some educational aims better than the traditional textbook, what is the reality of using them in the language classroom? The author and her university lecturer colleague had previously collaboratively designed an educational manga textbook for their students to learn about the job-hunting process in

Ogawa. E. (2017). Educational Manga: Deceptively educational. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 208-216). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

English. This textbook begins by talking about work, then describes step-by-step how to write an English resume, and finishes with the topics of interviews and networking. They designed the textbook using the software program *Microsoft Publisher*, with the storyline and characters (drawn in draft form) primarily devised by the colleague while the author focused on the learning activities (see Ogawa, 2014a). Please note that the particular version (see Appendix A for a sample page) used in this study was simplified by the author to better meet the needs of the particular participants in this study and is based on the earlier collaborated version described in Ogawa (2013). As in preceding publications, this paper also reports on the impressions of students who used an educational manga textbook for the first time. However, it examines different aspects. It follows on from two JALT publications: Ogawa (2013), which was a preliminary study of the use of educational manga in the Japanese university English language classroom and Ogawa (2014a), which analyzed its activities or tasks. It is also preceded by Ogawa (2014b), which demonstrated (through the examination of pre- and post- surveys) that students *did* perceive educational manga to be both a desirable and a useful medium for study and that students *could* learn content material through them, as well as an analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of using educational manga as educational materials in Ogawa (2017). In turn, this paper examines how students ranked various aspects of their textbook, what they particularly liked and did not like about it, their first impressions (and changes to them), and their preferences in textbook style, price and size.

Methodology

In January 2014, a questionnaire (see Appendix B for an English translation) was distributed by the author to 67 students she taught in her two second-year English classes for the 2013 academic year of Business Administration students in a central Tokyo university. The questionnaire, which along with the responses was in the students' native Japanese, consisted on one side of ten Likert-type questions on a scale of -5 (not at all) to 5 (definitely so). This particular type of scale, although unusual, was deemed to be meaningful for the students and less likely to result in the middle number being repeatedly chosen. The other side asked respondents: (1) to list three advantages and three disadvantages of educational manga compared to traditional textbooks, (2) to list three impressions they first had of the textbook and to indicate whether or not those impressions had changed, and (3) to state which type of textbook they preferred, what advice they had for publishers of manga textbooks, and what they considered an appropriate price. The textbooks were provided without cost to the students, but were of low print quality and were merely stapled together down the center.

Due to the mix of quantitative and qualitative data, different methods of analysis were used. Means were calculated for the ten quantitative questions on the first side of the questionnaire in order to provide a comparative measure between the questions. However, further analysis was not considered worthwhile since the study was of a small scale. All 67 students completed every question in this section except for the second question (one student failed to indicate a response and therefore it had an n value of 66). Likewise, mean averages (for each class and the total sample — all of which were the same when rounded to the nearest yen) were calculated for the textbook price. Percentages were calculated for the textbook preference question.

Analyzing the qualitative data was more complicated as the respondents wrote freely without pre-determined categories in order for the question design not to lead the answers in any particular direction. Therefore, data categorization was conducted after questionnaire collection, by listing all of the comments together and grouping them into similar themes. The advice/requests for publishers mainly related to specific details of this particular textbook (e.g. characters' hairstyles, quality of drawings, etc.) and therefore are excluded from this report due to being irrelevant. However, comments regarding the compact size of the textbook were included as this would likely be relevant to other educational manga.

Results

How Good Is Educational Manga as a Textbook?

The first side of the questionnaire listed ten questions and required respondents to rank (from -5 to 5) how much they agreed with each of them. The mean responses for each of these ten questions are shown in Table 1.

As is evident in the table above, every question received a positive average score that was higher than a 2 on the scale. The highest score was achieved by the question asking whether the students enjoyed using manga in class (3.40). The next highest score indicated that these students considered textbooks like this to be better than traditional textbooks (3.16). The lowest score went to the question asking if students believed that their English improved after using the textbook (2.24), which perhaps was more of an indication of the students' limited confidence rather than their impressions of the textbook (although this is inconclusive from these results). Although no questions received negative scores, the average score was also comparatively lower for the question regarding whether the respondents learnt new English grammar and vocabulary after using the textbook (2.28).

Advantages and Disadvantages

When asked to list advantages of educational manga, the following three reasons were quoted the most often: "It's fun" (or something similar), "It's manga (and therefore it's interesting)", and something along the lines of "It's easy to understand" (see Figure 1). First, 26 students wrote comments which were placed into the first category. Second, 24 stated that it being a manga was an advantage, with several students clarifying that being a manga was an advantage because it was interesting. Third, 18 students stated that, compared to traditional textbooks, this textbook was easy to understand and placed that comment in the "Advantages" column of the survey form.

The top disadvantage by a clear margin was the fact that some of the pictures were unclear. This comment was made by 54 students and will be addressed later in this paper. Other disadvantages noted were that this particular textbook was all in English and lacked Japanese (8) and that there was limited opportunity for study of grammar (12).

First Impressions and Changes After Use

Respondents were asked to list three first impressions they had of their educational manga textbook and to indicate whether or not that opinion changed after

Table 1
How Good Is Educational Manga as a Textbook?

Question (n = 67 unless otherwise indicated)	**Mean**
Good way to study about job hunting	2.31
Good way to study English (n = 66)	3.09
English improved after textbook use	2.24
Like English more after textbook use	2.51
Better than traditional textbook	3.16
Enjoyed using manga in class	3.40
Story and characters were good	2.93
Enjoyed participating as manga character	2.85
English conversation skills improved after textbook use	2.55
Learnt new English grammar and vocabulary after textbook use	2.28

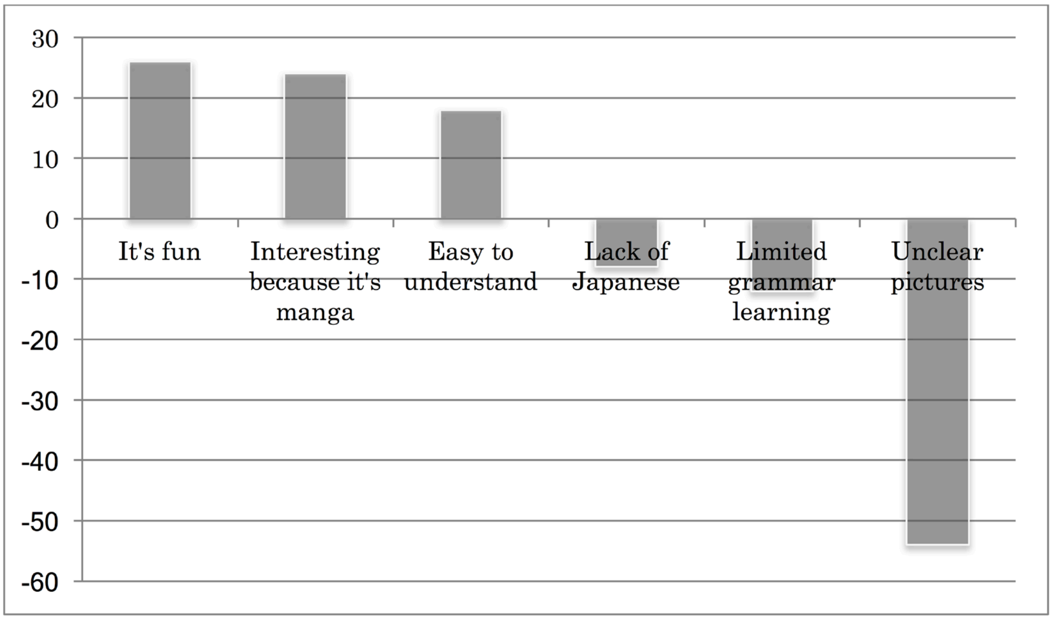

Figure 1. Advantages and disadvantages of educational manga.

using the textbook in class. Since multiple answers were requested, results in this section are given in numerical form only (number of responses) and not percentages. They are also illustrated in Figure 2. Many students (29) thought their new style of textbook looked interesting and they did not change this opinion after using the textbook. Some students (15) thought it did not look or feel like study material and about half (7) of these students changed their minds after using the textbook. Some (18) thought it looked difficult but they all changed their minds after using the textbook. Conversely, others (13) thought it looked easy and eight of them changed their minds. Some (17) students commented that the pictures were substandard and these students remained of the same opinion after using the textbook.

Preferred Textbook Type

Out of 62 students (five students did not answer this question), 49 (79%) preferred to use educational manga. This compares to 13 students (21%) who preferred a traditional textbook. The dominance of preference for educational manga is evident when visually depicted, as in Figure 3. It should be noted that, although there were not large discrepancies between the English abilities of the students from

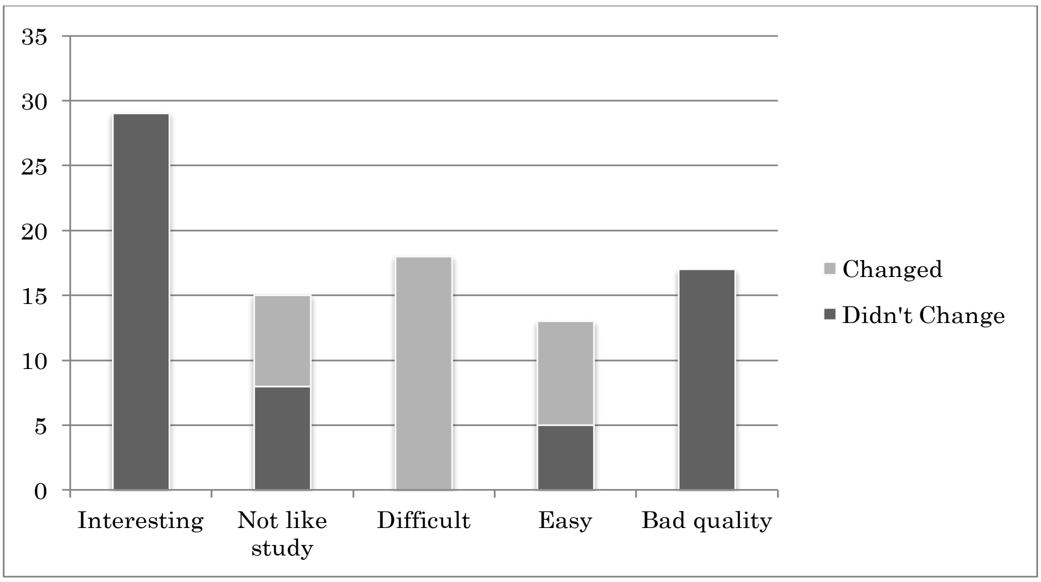

Figure 2. First impressions and changes after use.

each class, 85% of the students in the class with the lower level of English proficiency who answered this question stated that they preferred educational manga, compared with 71% of students from the higher class.

Some interesting comments were made regarding this question. Below are some selected quotations explaining why these respondents chose an educational manga over a traditional textbook, translated into English from the original Japanese: "It's fun to learn and I am motivated to try to understand", "Because, I never want to see a traditional textbook again", "I can let things sink in without the feeling of resistance to usual textbooks", and "From the perspective of someone who is bad at English, a manga-type [textbook], compared with a rigid textbook, gains my interest and even makes me want to study". However, for a minority of students "Manga is not interesting. It's difficult to understand" or "Conversation is difficult for someone like me with limited grammatical knowledge to understand. But, I don't think manga is entirely inappropriate because its wide entrance makes it easy to enter".

Discussion and Conclusions

Two main points may be noted from the results of this study. First, building on from the results of Ogawa (2014b), which found that students found educational manga to be a desirable learning medium, this study found that the majority of these students preferred educational manga to traditional textbooks. This was particularly true for the students in the lower English proficiency level group of the two class groups. The main reasons appear to be because it is easy to understand and fun to read — two aspects which may appeal more to students with limited English ability. Other appeals included that in this particular textbook they could take part in the story as a manga character, as well as the innate appeal of manga (exactly what respondents meant by this is unclear). The overwhelmingly most common negative point was that of the pictures not being of good quality. Since this was due to it being a draft textbook with poor quality printing, the pictures were not always clear. Therefore, this reservation can be dismissed as a reason not to use educational manga of professional quality since it would not be an issue in such a case. Despite this limitation, the average indicated price preference was approximately 840 yen. A textbook of professional quality would be expected to demand a higher price. It should be emphasized that the results presented in this study indicate that, after using an educational manga textbook, students indicated that such a textbook: was enjoyable to study and to participate in as a manga character, had good characters and storyline, was a good way to study about job-hunting and English, enabled them to learn new grammar and vocabulary and to like English more, improved their English conversational and other skills, and overall was better

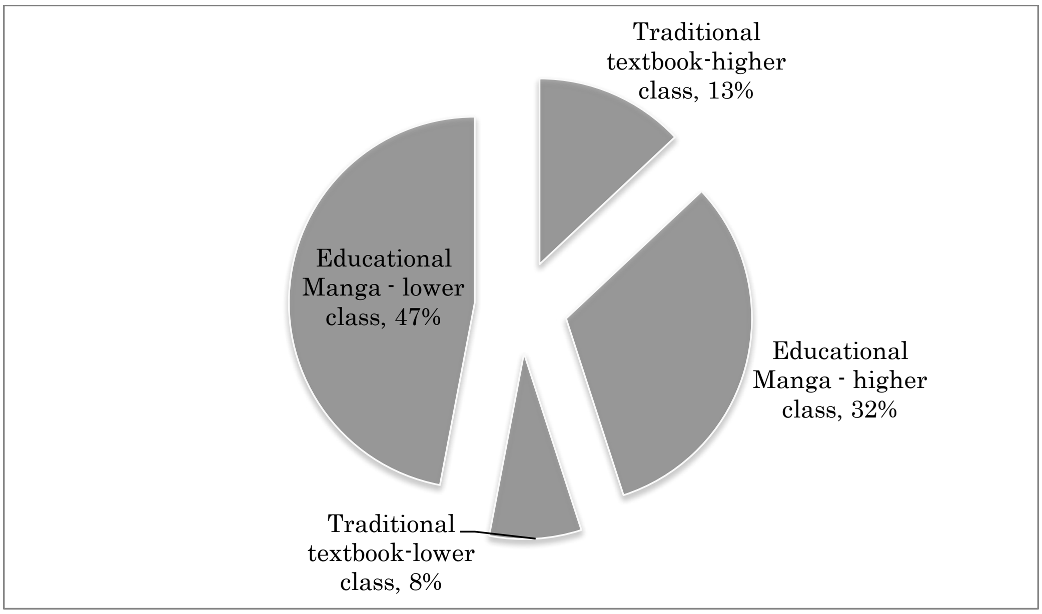

Figure 3. Preferred textbook type.

than a traditional textbook.

Second, in some cases, first impressions of educational manga textbooks can be deceiving. For example, at first some students thought it looked easy and approximately half of this number changed their opinion after using the textbook. On the other hand, many students thought the textbook appeared to be difficult but did not think so after using the textbook. Perhaps of most interest is the fact that many students at first thought that their educational manga textbook did not look like study material, but about half of them changed their minds after actually studying with it. It is possible that this impression that educational manga gives by not appearing to be educational may act as a barrier to the introduction of educational manga in the language classroom.

Notes

1. Bold and italics as in the original but text decapitalized from the original comic format.

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Erina Ogawa is a New Zealander who teaches English and Global Human Resources courses at Reitaku University. Along with articles on educational manga, she has published on student belief, strategy use, and confidence in English language learning. Erina also has several articles concerning multicultural identities, particularly regarding multicultural youth, as well as the internationalization of the cultural identities of Japanese university students.

Appendix A

Sample Page of Educational Manga Used

Appendix B

English Translation of Japanese Questionnaire Form

***Job Hunting: Resume and Interview Skills* Textbook Survey**

A. Please answer the following questions by circling a number from -5 (Not at all!) to 5 (Definitely so!)

1. This textbook is good for studying about job-hunting.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5

2. This textbook is good for studying English.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5

3. My English improved from using this textbook.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5

4. I like English more by using this textbook.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5

5. I like this textbook better than traditional textbooks.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5

6. I had fun studying in class with manga.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5

7. The story and characters were good.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5

8. It was fun being a manga character.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5

9. I understand English conversation better from using this textbook.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5

10. I learnt new words and grammar by using this textbook.

-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 1 2 3 4 5

B. Please fill in the chart below.

Please write three advantages and three disadvantages of this textbook, compared to a traditional textbook.

Advantages	Disadvantages
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

Please write three first impressions of this textbook. After using the textbook, did your impression change?

First Impressions	After Using Textbook
1.	Changed / Didn't Change
2.	Changed / Didn't Change
3.	Changed / Didn't Change

C. Please answer the following questions in as much detail as possible:

Which would you choose, a traditional textbook or a manga textbook? Why is that?

Do you have any opinions or requests to give a manga textbook publisher?

What price is right for this textbook? ¥.............

Thank you very much!

Erina Ogawa

The Language Learning Effects of a Short-Term Study Abroad Program

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This study investigates the effects of short-term study abroad programs on language learning of the participants by comparing a case study of Tokiwa University with previous studies which also examined short-term study abroad programs in Japan. In Japanese academic years (April-March) 2014 and 2015, twenty one students from Tokiwa University participated in a "4-week Conversation & Culture Program" at the University of California, Irvine Campus in the U.S. The findings show that a study-abroad experience, even a short-term program, can enhance participants' motivation to learn the target language, as well as to improve their actual language proficiency. The participants' overall language test scores increased approximately 10% as previous studies have shown. However, unlike previous studies, there was no significant difference in listening scores, which was expected to improve and affect the overall score the most. Another finding is that the lower-level participants improved more than the higher-level participants.

この研究は、短期海外留学プログラムの効果を言語学習の観点から検討するものである。ここでは、短期海外留学プログラムに関するこれまでの日本の大学における事例研究を振り返りながら、水戸市にある常磐大学の事例をみていく。常磐大学は、米国カリフォルニア大学アーバイン校の付属英語学校で実施される「4週間の会話と文化プログラム」に希望学生をほぼ毎年引率している。2014年度と2015年度には合計21名の学生が参加し、現地で英語や文化を学んできた。研修前後の英語のテスト結果やアンケートから、参加者は1ヶ月のプログラムでも英語への自信や英語力を向上させたことがわかった。英語力全般の伸びは、先行研究が示したリスニング力向上によるものではなかったが、同じように10%程度確認できた。他にも、英語力の下位群の伸びが上位群より大きかったという結果は、一部の先行研究が指摘しており、常磐大学の事例もそれに加わることになった。

According to a survey conducted by the Japan Student Service Organization (JASSO, 2016), the number of Japanese university/college students studying abroad has been increasing in recent years. That number nearly doubled from 36,302 in academic year 2009 to 81,219 in academic year 2014. The JASSO's survey (2016) also reports that short-term study abroad programs, with a length of stay of less than a month, have been increasing. In academic year 2009, about 46% of the students were on short-term study abroad programs, and in academic year 2014, the number had reached about 60%.

The probable reason students decide to study overseas is to learn a foreign language as they experience a foreign culture. Many short-term study abroad programs include a homestay experience, language instruction at school, and exchanges with local students. Participants also visit various places and join local events to deepen their understanding of

Otsu, R., & Satake, M. (2017). The language learning effects of a short-term study abroad program. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 217-224). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

the particular culture. Through these opportunities, participants expect to improve their language skills, broaden their cultural point of view, and grow personally.

In this article, we will focus on the question: How effective is a short-term study abroad program for participants in their language learning? First we review previous studies that discussed study abroad programs by Japanese universities and colleges, and then we investigate a study abroad program to the University of California, Irvine Extension (UCI) in the U.S. conducted by Tokiwa University in academic years 2014 and 2015.

Previous Studies on Short-Term Programs

Although many studies have been made on study abroad programs over the past years, very few have focused on study abroad programs of less than a month. This section concentrates on such a short program and summarizes what effects have been found.

To examine the language learning aspects, two methods are used in previous studies. One is a questionnaire survey that examines participants' subjective evaluation of their language learning. The other is objective testing, in which language tests are given and the results are analyzed. Some studies compare the test scores before and after the participants' study abroad experience, and some compare the participants' and non-participants' test scores.

The Effects on Language Aspects

Previous studies based on subjective evaluation show that most participants felt that their general English skills had improved or that they had gained confidence in using English (Bunno & Sugimoto, 2000; Furuya, 2005; Kobayashi, 2004; Matsuda, 2007). These reports indicate that listening ability is considered their most improved skill.

As for previous studies based on objective evaluation, we have referred to ten case studies, and six of them report a score difference between the pre-test and post-test. The others (Kimura, 2006; Kuno, 2011; Otsuka, 2009; Sabet, 2007) compare the scores of participants with those of non-participants. In this study, we take the former six studies and investigate how much participants' language ability improved through a short-term study abroad program.

Table 1 shows the length of stay, the number of participants and test types in the six studies respectively. It also indicates the rate of increase of averaged scores of the pre- and post-tests that the participants took, rounded off to one decimal place. Since some tests measure particular skills while others do not depending on the test type, only listening scores and overall scores that are relatively common are taken into consideration. The results of other skills are reported altogether as "Others." Red characters mean that there was a significant difference (at $p < .05$).

As shown in Table 1, only Nonaka (2005) reports no significant difference in both the overall and listening scores, while other studies report the opposite results except the study by Taura. et al (2009) which only takes listening scores into consideration. Furthermore, the rate of increase of the participants' overall averaged scores was between 6.4% and 11.7%, and the rate of increase of their averaged listening scores was between 8.5% and 15.2%, which was higher than any other skill. This indicates that the participants' subjective evaluation of their listening ability matched their objective evaluation.

An interesting finding related to the objective evaluation in Nonaka (2005), Nonaka (2008), and Yoshida & Kodera (2009) is that lower-level participants' groups improved more than higher-level participants' groups. They divided participants into groups according to their pre-test scores, and then compared each group's averaged scores with their post-test scores. Their results show a significant difference in lower-level groups and higher-level groups in the overall score and in the listening section.

A Case of Tokiwa University (Academic years 2014 and 2015)

A Short-Term Study Abroad Program to the U.S.

Tokiwa University's short-term study abroad program to the U.S. begins with seven preparatory workshops before actually going abroad to the "4-week Conversation & Culture Program" at UCI, and one meeting after coming back to Japan. The seven workshops provide instructions for survival English, travel tips, homestay manners, and the assignment of a group project which participants do during their stay in the U.S. On the first day at UCI, participants are assigned to a class (B1 class= Beginning level, B2 class= Beginning+ level, C class= Intermediate-low level, D class= Intermediate level, E class = Intermediate-high level) according to their proficiency test results.

The participants take two classes for about three hours each day from Monday to Friday. One class is to practice mainly reading and writing, and the other class is to practice mainly listening and speaking. The participants are also given an opportunity to do some activities with UCI students, which is called "Conversation Partner" (CP) for three hours twice a week. A UCI undergraduate and three or four participants are grouped together to enjoy conversation, do their favorite activities, like playing pool, or going shopping.

Participants in academic years 2014 and 2015 did other things in their free time. They worked on their group project of interviewing the UCI students on campus and making a report on their project. Another thing was to visit a Japanese class to talk about Japanese culture and communicate with local students learning Japanese. Some participants also visited a local Japanese school for bilingual children and played with the children learning Japanese. On the weekend, most of the participants actively went out for fun, for instance, going to the beach, a mall, or Disneyland. Regarding the homestay, they could choose if they

Table 1
Studies Based on Objective Evaluation with Pre- and Post-Tests

Author (Year)	Sojourn term (weeks)	Participants (number)	Test type	Overall score Increase rate (%)	Listening score Increase rate (%)	Others Increase rate (%)
Kobayashi (1999)	3-4	31	ITP TOEFL	6.4	8.5	10.8
Nonaka (2005)	3	51	TOEFL	0.1	2.3	-1.23
Nonaka (2008)	3	29	TOEIC IP	7.8	12.7	0.5
Taura, et al (2009)	3	20	TOEFL	NA	11.0	Only listening measured
Yoshida & Kodera (2009)	2	15	CASEC	11.7	Understanding specific information (15.2) Understanding general information (13.1)	9.3
Kimura (2011)	3	14	Eiken STEP	9.9	11.2	2.34 (Significant difference confirmed not in the Grammar & Vocab. Scores, but in the Writing score)

Note. Yoshida & Kodera (2009) does not contain detailed statistical data, so authors conducted a t-test using the participants' score data (pp.115-117) to confirm significant differences in the overall score and listening (understanding specific information).

wanted to stay alone or with a peer.

The Effects on Language Learning

Two kinds of questionnaire surveys were conducted in order to observe the participants' subjective evaluation on language learning. Also, the results of the proficiency tests that UCI conducted at the beginning and the end of the program were analyzed in order to observe the participants' objective evaluation. UCI usually conducts the proficiency test, Michigan English Language Institute Testing (ELI Test), only at the beginning of the program, but the ELI Test was done again at the end of the program for the purpose of our study in academic years 2014 and 2015. The ELI Test consists of a listening section (L) of 20 questions, and a section on grammar, vocabulary and reading (GVR) of 80 questions, for a total score of 100.

Figure 1 describes the subjective evaluation and reveals five points. 1) most of the participants felt that their general English skills had improved. 2) about 90% of the participants felt that their listening skills had improved. 3) almost 80 % of the participants felt that their speaking and reading skills had improved. 4) almost half of the participants thought that their writing and vocabulary skills had improved, however, less than half of the participants thought that their grammar skills had improved. 5) all the participants felt that their strategic skills for communication had improved.

These results were similar to the previous studies introduced above. Staying in an English-speaking environment and learning English in communicative classes that the participants rarely experience in their daily life may have contributed to giving them a lot of English input as well as forcing them to use English to survive. As for vocabulary and grammar skills, the participants did not seem to have time to use their familiar learning techniques such as translating every line of the textbook into Japanese, and answering vocabulary, grammar, and reading questions on paper. It may have been difficult for students to follow the rapid flow of English conversations. One participant said that when he was in the U.S., he tended to focus on learning listening and speaking skills more than on the mechanics of grammar.

Figure 2 shows the participants' attitudes about English learning. Almost all the participants came to like English, and around 85% of the participants came to have confidence in their English use and their ability to handle English-only classes. This is an amazing result since at the beginning of the program, participants were so worried about communication in English that they frequently depended upon one of the authors who accompanied the participants' group in academic year 2014 for guidance and support.

The objective evaluation for all the participants is shown in table 2. It is the result of the ELI Test for all 21 participants of the 2014 and 2015 programs. The

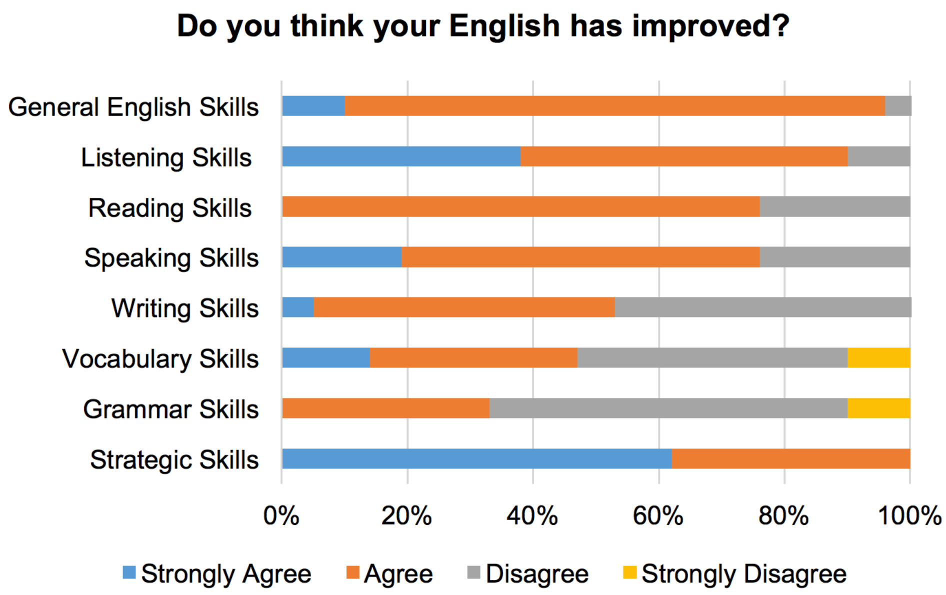

Figure 1. Participants' subjective evaluation of their English learning.

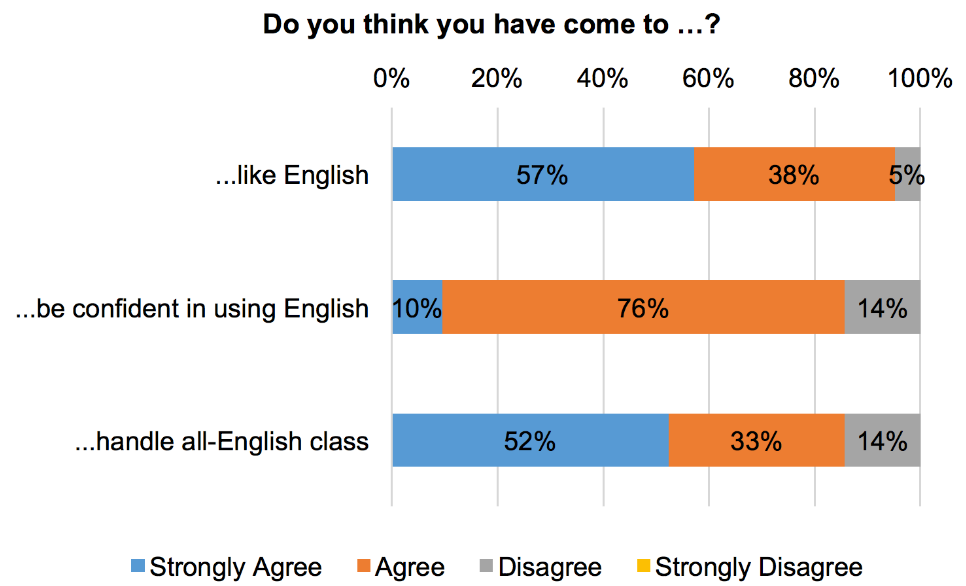

Figure 2. Participants' attitude toward language learning..

averaged scores and standard deviations (SD) of each group as well as of all the participants of the pre- and post-tests are shown. Both the overall scores and the GVR scores between the pre- and post-tests show a significant difference. Also, the lower-level group's (B1 class) GVR and overall scores, and the middle-level group's (B2 & C classes) GVR and overall scores show a significant difference. Significant differences are indicated in red.

In summary, the rate of increase of the averaged overall score of all the participants was 13.7% and it is higher than any previous study. Secondly, the overall increase in score is not due to their listening, but due to the increase in the GVR score. It differs from the participants' subjective evaluation and what previous studies show. Thirdly, the rate of increase of the lower-level group is higher than that of the higher-level group. The rate of increase for the B1 class is more than twice that of the rate of increase for the B2 and C class. This is similar to some previous studies that show lower-level classes exceeding higher-level classes in their improvement.

Conclusion

The purpose of this project was to investigate the effectiveness of a short-term study abroad, through reviewing collected results from previous studies and examining a case study done by Tokiwa University. Research results concluded that the overall test score has increased approximately 10% in both previous studies and Tokiwa University's case. The reason that Tokiwa University's case was slightly higher than previous studies might be the length of stay. Tokiwa University's program was one or two weeks longer

Table 2

ELI Test Results (Academic years 2014 and 2015)

	B1 (n=9)			B2 &C (n=8)			D &E (n=4)			Total (n=21)		
	L	GVR	Overall	L	GVR	Overall	L	GVR	Overall	L	GVR	Overall
Pre-test	6.11 (1.05)	23.44 (5.53)	29.56 (5.70)	8.00 (1.93)	35.38 (4.31)	43.38 (3.78)	11.25 (1.89)	50.50 (7.19)	61.75 (9.00)	7.81 (2.44)	33.14 (11.45)	40.95 (13.32)
Post-test	7.56 (3.50)	30.33 (5.24)	37.89 (7.22)	9.00 (2.56)	39.88 (5.51)	48.88 (6.81)	10.75 (3.40)	50.75 (10.44)	61.50 (13.72)	8.71 (3.23)	37.8 (9.92)	46.57 (12.06)
Increase rate (%)	24.6	29.5	28.0	4.7	12.7	12.7	-4.4	0.6	-0.5	11.5	14.5	13.7

than other study programs.

Besides the overall test score, Tokiwa University participants also improved their GVR scores, while participants in previous studies reported listening improvement. Lastly, Tokiwa University's case study showed that the lower-level group improved more as some previous studies also show.

Those improvements may have been influenced by each participant's personal experience, from an uneasy beginning to gradual competence. They asked for help frequently at the beginning of the program and sometimes grumbled, but they never gave up joining everything the program provided, and found ways to stay positive. Such an attitude may have contributed to their positive evaluations both subjectively and objectively.

The group difference may be explained in the following two ways. The first is that in the lower-level class students learn very basic English compared with the higher-level class. So, in such a short term, it may be easier for lower-level participants to acquire new basic language skills than the more complex language skills required of higher-level participants. The second is the affective filter hypothesis proposed by Krashen (1985) in which the lower-level students are not able to exercise their full ability at the beginning, but once they get used to the learning environment, their growth can be great.

Whether short term or not, a study abroad program provides wonderful opportunities for participants to improve language skills; something that cannot be gained in one's own country. The following will be crucial to the success of a short-term study abroad program: instructions before traveling, support from schools both in Japan and overseas, information exchange between schools, careful preparation of activities, and choosing quality host families. More students will study abroad in this increasingly globalized world in the future, especially in short-term study abroad programs. These programs should continue to be valued and demanded.

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We are grateful to the Japan Students Services Organization (JASSO) for permission to extract a part of the effects on participants' language learning from our paper in the JASSO's web magazine, *Ryugaku Koryu* (Otsu and Satake, 2016). Sincere appreciation is extended to the staff members at the International exchanges and language learning center of Tokiwa University and to UCI Extension, to Taku Sato who gave us advice on the statistical data for this study, and to Frank Tuck who proofread our paper. We would also like to acknowledge all the cooperation of our students who participated in the study abroad program.

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The Benefits and Challenges of Using Google Forms With Extensive Reading

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Two post-secondary institutions used Google Forms as a tool for the assessment and evaluation of Extensive Reading (ER). This paper will outline the rationale, procedure, benefits and challenges of using technology such as Google Forms to evaluate ER. Despite similar teaching contexts, the two institutions had very different experiences with Google Forms as an assessment tool. Although the use of Google Forms did help to attain some teaching goals, it also created new challenges.

2つの高等教育機関において英語の多読の授業の評価にGoogleフォームを利用した。本研究において、多読の評価にGoogleフォームのようなテクノロジーを用いた理由とその手順、さらに、利点と今後の課題について明らかにする。2つの高等教育機関で同様の条件のもと、授業が行われたにも関わらず、Googleフォームの使用について顕著な差異が得られた。Googleフォームを授業目標の達成に役立たせることはできたが、見直すべき点も新たに発見された。

According to Nation (2009), extensive reading (ER) is a fundamental component of meaning focused input and fluency development. Teachers who use ER are faced with the challenge of how to encourage and assess student reading activity. To that end, teachers can set reading time benchmarks as a method of encouraging and assessing student reading activity. Asking students to keep reading logs is one method that can be used to monitor reading time (Schmidt, 2004). Teachers are faced with the obstacle of how to collect and manage student reading data in an efficient and reliable way. In this paper, the authors attempted to use Google Forms as the means of collecting student reading activity information for assessment. The authors found that collecting data about student reading time with Google Forms has both benefits and challenges, which are largely influenced by the teaching context.

Owatari-Dorgan, J. P., Roberge, L. & Van Deusen, L. (2017). The benefits and challenges of using Google Forms with extensive reading. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 225-230). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Paper-based Reading Logs for Extensive Reading

Collecting data on the time students spend reading is one method of evaluating student ER activity. Eichhorst & Shearon (2013) provide an example in the form of student reading logs. The goal of this approach was to encourage the development of regular reading habits. Each week, students report the date and number of minutes spent reading and the total number of minutes is evaluated based on a time count rubric. The implementation of this system relies on students completing and submitting paper forms to the teacher, who then checks them and returns the forms to the students.

The authors attempted a similar paper-based method when beginning to implement ER at their school; however, they soon experienced problems with using paper forms for evaluating reading time count activity. The most frequent problem was students forgetting their forms at home or losing them. This prevented teachers from providing scores and feedback in a timely manner to students. Another problem was that students were observed to be filling in their weekly reading logs in the minutes before the deadline, raising questions about the students' ability to accurately recall their reading activity. Finally, having access to data about student reading activity can be valuable, but in a paper-based system that information is limited to the physical location of the reading log. Thus, such information may not be accessible when it is actually needed, for example, when providing support to a student. Inputting such data into an online spreadsheet can be overly time consuming. For all of these reasons, the teachers decided to implement a digital version of the reading log.

About Google Forms

Google Forms is an online tool that allows for the collection of survey data from respondents. Each form has an associated link which can be published or shared. After filling out the form, data can be stored in an automatically generated spreadsheet. The creator of the form has control over the spreadsheet and can decide whether to share the results with respondents. Setting up a Google Form is a relatively simple process that can be done by anyone with a Google account. More information about the process and the features of Google Forms can be found at https://www.google.com/forms/about/.

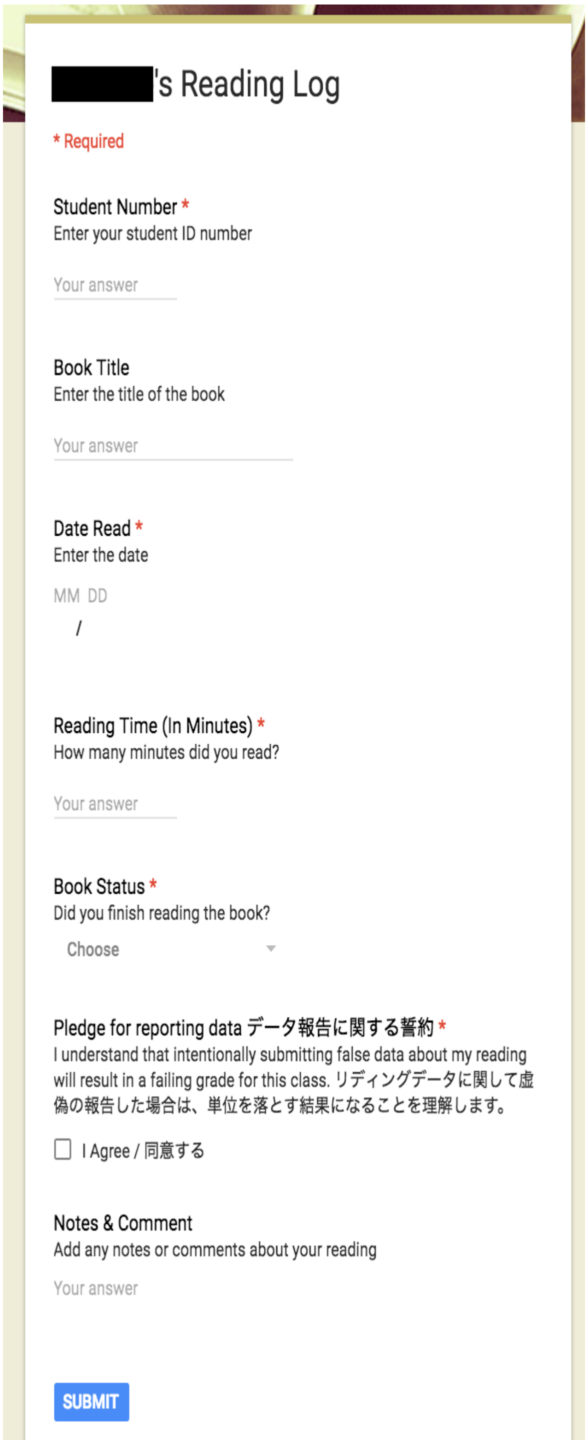
Rationale for Assessing with Google Forms

The authors attempted to use Google Forms as an electronic reading log based on the reasons below:

1. Cost: Using the service has no financial cost.
2. Paperless: The teachers felt they wanted to reduce paper waste and eliminate the need to handle, store and manage paper logs.
3. Efficiency: It was thought that this method would be time efficient for both teachers and students. Additionally, students could add a log entry from anywhere with a computer or smartphone with internet access.
4. Security: Teachers would have access to a students' reading data at any time. As data is automatically saved and backed up in the cloud, logs could not be misplaced or destroyed.
5. Digital Literacy: If students are exposed to, and have opportunities to utilize new technologies, they may subsequently develop their digital literacy.
6. Monitoring: By logging all reading time, teachers can monitor reading habits. Furthermore, due to the sharing functionality, both the teacher and the student can have access to the reading data.

Google Forms Data Collection Procedure

As with most extensive reading, the process of collecting student reading data with Google Forms begins with independent student reading. After each discrete period of reading, regardless of length, students visit a Google Form (Figure 1) that was created for them via a private link that was provided by the instructor on the learning management system. The Google Form asks the students for some basic information about their reading activity. For example, the students are asked the date on which they read and how much time they spent reading. In addition, the students are asked to write the name of the book that they read as well as mark whether they finished the book during the reading time. Each time a student completes the form and submits, the Google Form generates a new line on a private spreadsheet (Figure 2) that was automatically created for the student. The spreadsheet can be made visible to the student by the teacher. At the end of each evaluation period, the teacher opens each student's spreadsheet and totals the reading lengths reported by the student. After checking the total reading time reported by the



[redacted]'s Reading Log

* Required

Student Number *
Enter your student ID number
Your answer

Book Title
Enter the title of the book
Your answer

Date Read *
Enter the date
MM DD
/

Reading Time (In Minutes) *
How many minutes did you read?
Your answer

Book Status *
Did you finish reading the book?
Choose

Pledge for reporting data データ報告に関する誓約 *
I understand that intentionally submitting false data about my reading will result in a failing grade for this class. リディングデータに関して虚偽の報告した場合は、単位を落とす結果になることを理解します。

I Agree / 同意する

Notes & Comment
Add any notes or comments about your reading
Your answer

SUBMIT

Figure 1. Example of Google Form used at school 1.

student, the teacher checks the reading time against a rubric and assigns the student a score for that reading period.

Education Context

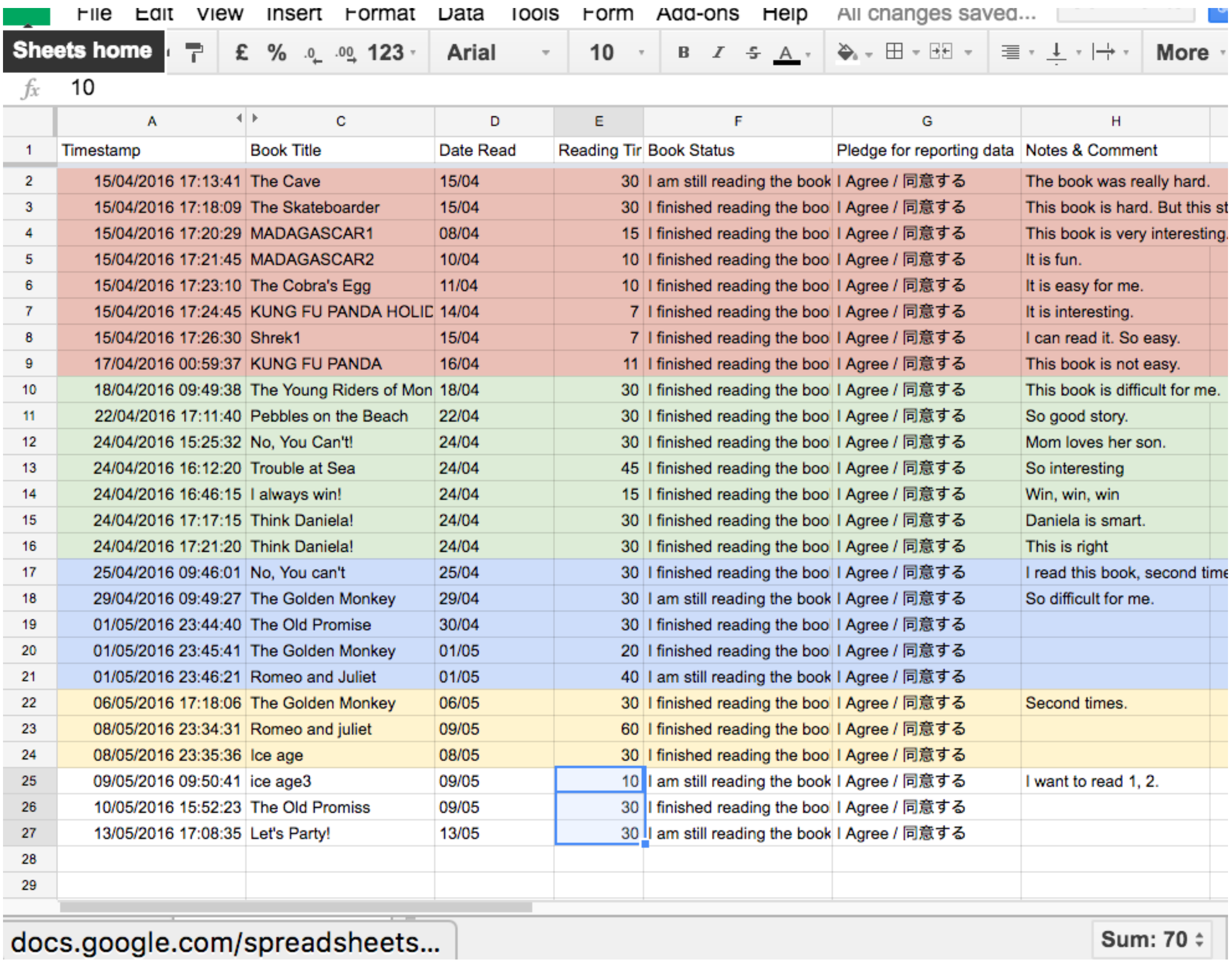
Google Forms was used with extensive reading at two schools in rural southern Japan. School 1 is a small university, and had been practicing ER for one semester using a paper-based system prior to switching to Google Forms. ER was used in a reading classes for first- and second-year students in an intensive English program. Prior to entering the program, students had no experience with ER. First-year classes met twice a week for 90 minutes; second-year classes met once a week for 90 minutes. First-year students were given 30 minutes at the beginning of most classes for in-class reading time; whereas, second-year students were required to do all of their reading outside of class. Class sizes ranged from 10-17 students. Students were required to read for a certain amount of time each week and log their activity using Google Forms.

School 2 is a small community college, and had not previously implemented an ER program. As a trial, a teacher from School 2 integrated an ER component into an existing language course that was being team-taught by two teachers, one Canadian and one Japanese. The course was offered to first-year students and instruction was given in both English and Japanese. Forty-five students were enrolled in the course and met once a week for 90 minutes for a total of 30 lessons. Students were asked to borrow books from library and bring them to class. Students were given 20-30 minutes at the beginning of each lesson for silent reading and were asked to read a minimum of 30 minutes a week of their own time. To the teacher's knowledge, none of the students had previous experience with extensive reading.

At both schools, the courses were held in a Language Lab and as such, all students had access to computers and the internet. All students had access to the reading log with either their phone or through a classroom computer. Much of the course material was provided to students via an online learning management system. Moreover, students at both schools had little experience with online learning and had never used Google Forms prior to the start of the course.

Benefits and Challenges

Using Google Forms to monitor student reading time had both positive and negative aspects. Teachers and students had access to the log at any time from a variety of devices which was convenient. Teachers often observed students logging reading time from



	Timestamp	Book Title	Date Read	Reading Tir	Book Status	Pledge for reporting data	Notes & Comment
2	15/04/2016 17:13:41	The Cave	15/04	30	I am still reading the book	I Agree / 同意する	The book was really hard.
3	15/04/2016 17:18:09	The Skateboarder	15/04	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	This book is hard. But this st
4	15/04/2016 17:20:29	MADAGASCAR1	08/04	15	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	This book is very interesting.
5	15/04/2016 17:21:45	MADAGASCAR2	10/04	10	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	It is fun.
6	15/04/2016 17:23:10	The Cobra's Egg	11/04	10	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	It is easy for me.
7	15/04/2016 17:24:45	KUNG FU PANDA HOLIC	14/04	7	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	It is interesting.
8	15/04/2016 17:26:30	Shrek1	15/04	7	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	I can read it. So easy.
9	17/04/2016 00:59:37	KUNG FU PANDA	16/04	11	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	This book is not easy.
10	18/04/2016 09:49:38	The Young Riders of Mon	18/04	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	This book is difficult for me.
11	22/04/2016 17:11:40	Pebbles on the Beach	22/04	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	So good story.
12	24/04/2016 15:25:32	No, You Can't!	24/04	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	Mom loves her son.
13	24/04/2016 16:12:20	Trouble at Sea	24/04	45	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	So interesting
14	24/04/2016 16:46:15	I always win!	24/04	15	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	Win, win, win
15	24/04/2016 17:17:15	Think Daniela!	24/04	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	Daniela is smart.
16	24/04/2016 17:21:20	Think Daniela!	24/04	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	This is right
17	25/04/2016 09:46:01	No, You can't	25/04	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	I read this book, second time
18	29/04/2016 09:49:27	The Golden Monkey	29/04	30	I am still reading the book	I Agree / 同意する	So difficult for me.
19	01/05/2016 23:44:40	The Old Promise	30/04	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	
20	01/05/2016 23:45:41	The Golden Monkey	01/05	20	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	
21	01/05/2016 23:46:21	Romeo and Juliet	01/05	40	I am still reading the book	I Agree / 同意する	
22	06/05/2016 17:18:06	The Golden Monkey	06/05	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	Second times.
23	08/05/2016 23:34:31	Romeo and juliet	09/05	60	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	
24	08/05/2016 23:35:36	Ice age	08/05	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	
25	09/05/2016 09:50:41	ice age3	09/05	10	I am still reading the book	I Agree / 同意する	I want to read 1, 2.
26	10/05/2016 15:52:23	The Old Promiss	09/05	30	I finished reading the boo	I Agree / 同意する	
27	13/05/2016 17:08:35	Let's Party!	13/05	30	I am still reading the book	I Agree / 同意する	

Figure 2. Spreadsheet, generated by Google Forms, containing a single student's reading log submissions.

their mobile devices at various times throughout the day. Furthermore, Google Forms prevented students from losing or forgetting their reading logs which was a common problem with paper forms that school 1 had experienced previously. Conversely, it was impossible for students to forget or lose their logs using the Google Forms system. In this respect, Google Forms was deemed to be effective for managing student reading data.

In the small class environment of school 1, the teachers were able to actively manage student reading by providing weekly feedback about reading times in the form of a weekly assignment. This awareness of student performance allowed the teacher to provide additional support to students who were not reading consistently via a brief student-teacher conference. The large class environment of school 2 made evaluation of reading time much more time consuming for the teacher. As such, the teacher was only able to provide reading time feedback at the end of the semester. Given the experiences at school 2, using Google Forms for reading time data collection was useful but proved too time consuming to monitor weekly, biweekly or even monthly. Thus, Google Forms for assessment purposes did not help the teachers to provide constant feedback to the students, especially the ones that needed encouragement to read more throughout the semester. This may or may not be a Google Forms issue but rather a problem of scale and the teacher time needed to provide weekly feedback to many students.

At school 1, teachers also sought to ensure that students were logging their reading times actively throughout the week rather than completing the reading log at the end of the week immediately prior to the due-date of the assignment, which was a common problem with the paper-based system. The teachers began this practice out of concern that waiting to complete the log may cause students to miss-remember reading times. Additionally, this type of student activity could be viewed as suspicious behavior or a reflection of poor ER habits. The teachers at school 1 were able to monitor this aspect because each entry submitted via Google Forms includes an automatic timestamp. With this timestamp, teachers at school 1 compared the asserted date of reading with the actual date and time of logging. If the students were following the correct procedure outlined by the teacher, the two dates should be relatively close. When these two dates were not close, the teachers met with students to discuss their reading and logging habits. At school 2, the teachers could not do this because evaluation was not conducted until the end of the semester.

At both schools, teachers found setting up the Google Form system challenging. Although creating a single Google Form is not particularly difficult, creating forms for the entire class could be quite time consuming since the form must be duplicated, renamed and shared with each student in the class. Moreover, the spreadsheet with students' reading results must also be shared with each student individually. Based on the amount of time required, the process of setting up Google Forms for reading data collection may be too cumbersome for classes with a large number of students.

Another major challenge for both schools was the multiple layers of technology necessary to use Google Forms for reading logs. Students are required to have email accounts, which many students did not have, requiring that time be spent on setting this up. Only this year did school 1 begin providing school email accounts. Many students at school 2 expressed confusion and frustration having to log into the learning management system to find the correct link. In fact, some students did not keep a log or logged their time on the example form. As a result of these difficulties encountered by some students, the use of Google Forms was somewhat problematic at school 2.

On the other hand, school 1 had a more positive experience with Google Forms. In general, students logged consistently and correctly. This may have been the result of a concerted effort on the part of the teachers to train students about how to log at the beginning of the semester. Moreover, weekly feedback about time count logging may have helped re-enforce proper logging practices. Thus, based on the experiences of the authors, teachers should consider planning time and strategies to provide support for students that may struggle with using Google Forms.

Finally, using this method alone for evaluating reading time, there was some possibility that not all students were being truthful. Although each form contained an honesty pledge at the bottom, some students may have not been honest in their reports which can compromise the fairness of the evaluation. In the case of school 2, the teacher used the reading time collected with Google Forms as the sole ER evaluation method. Therefore, it was possible that student extensive reading evaluation did not accurately reflect student reading activity. Thus, to limit this possible evaluation weakness, school 2 decided to use school 1's approach in the future. At school 1, students took a short quiz after completing each book thereby allowing the teacher to cross-reference reported time counts with quiz scores. Since cross-referencing the data proved to be a time-consuming task, the teachers refrained from actively cross-referencing every students' log on a weekly basis. Instead, the teachers looked for suspicious activity such as unusually long reading times for a single book or uncharacteristic bursts of reading activity and cross-referenced these specific incidents. In general, cross-referencing revealed that students were not following standard ER practice but were being honest about their reading activity. This was deemed an effective method of maintaining the integrity of the time count data and of facilitating a more comprehensive method of assessing and evaluating the ER portion of the course. The details of such a system are outside the scope of this paper, and are a topic for further research. Regardless of the method used to collect student reading time, there is an inherent risk of fraudulent reporting by students. Nevertheless, aggregating all of a student's reading time in a single spreadsheet allows teachers to more readily identify suspicious activity, logging mistakes or other reasons for concern.

Conclusion

There are benefits of and challenges associated with using Google Forms to collect student reading data. As discussed above, the benefits are primarily related to the efficiency, security and organization of student reading data. This allows teachers to have a better understanding of student reading activity, thus allowing teachers to provide meaningful feedback. Most of the challenges discussed in this paper are related to the time and effort it takes for teachers to complete initial setup and continuously evaluate. In the case of having many students, this may be too much for a teacher to manage. Although Google Forms is a useful option for teachers to use for collecting reading data, the teaching context plays a pivotal role in determining how helpful it might be in a given class.

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We Created New, Deeper Meaning: The Use of Transformed Practice Activities in a Literacies Classroom

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In Transformed Practice activities, original texts are recreated in different modes (e.g. spoken to written) and/or genres (e.g. email to poetry). Students demonstrate both comprehension of the original text's meaning and the creative ability to make new meanings when reconstructing texts in new forms. When successful, the activities imply that learners are able to achieve genre awareness by identifying the key features, affordances and constraints of each mode/genre. In this paper, the focus is on the genre of narrative, with examples of student work in which they rewrite news narratives as fairytales, or vice-versa, and reflections on the changes they made.

トランスフォームド・プラクティス演習において、元テクストは異なるモード（例えば口語から文語）やジャンル（例えばEメールから詩）で再作成される。学生はテクストを新たな形式で再構築する際、元テクストの意味の理解と新たな意味の創造の両方を行ってみせる。同演習は、うまくいった際、学習者が個々のモードやジャンルの主たる特徴、アフォーダンスや制約の特定を通してジャンル認知を成し遂げることを意味する。本研究では、ナラティブのジャンルに焦点を置き、学生がニュースをおとぎ話（あるいはその逆）に書き換えた例、書き換えの際に与えた変更に対する省察の例を示す。

Transformed Practice (TP) activities are creative tasks in which learners take an original text and recreate it in a new form, e.g. in recognition of a different audience, or to convey a new meaning in some way. TP forms part of the Multiliteracies pedagogical sequence, as described by Cope and Kalantzis (2000) and briefly outlined in the 'Background to the Course' section below. However, in this paper it will hopefully be demonstrated that they are creative and worthwhile activities in their own right that can be used in any teaching context. TP allows students to be innovative while engaging in the learning process, and at the same time confirms that they understand the key features of certain types of text.

This paper features a simple example of such an activity, involving a transformation between different types of written narrative. However, other suggestions for TP are given at the end, after an explanation of the pedagogy, a description of the task, and an analysis of two students' responses to the task.

Owens, J. E. (2017). We created new, deeper meaning: the use of transformed practice activities in a literacies classroom. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 231-241). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Background to the Course

At a university in Japan, a new course has been in operation since 2013. The Foundational Literacies (FL) course utilizes what is termed a 'Multiliteracies'-based pedagogy (New London Group, 1996). 'Multi' here on one level refers to "social diversity" (Cope and Kalantzis, 2012, p. 1), opposing the predominant preference for teaching only standardized forms of language. It also insinuates "multimodality" (p. 2), emphasizing the full range of modes people use when creating meaning. The inclusion of multimodal forms of communication in the language classroom is important, as the New London Group (1996) notes that, all modes (textual, audio-visual, spatial, etc.)

interrelate and interact with one another. Similarly, Kress (2003) views "language modes" as only a "part of the whole landscape of the many modes available for representation" (p. 36). The FL course, designed for first-year university students, attempts to factor the above into its course design.

The term 'literacies' is intentionally plural, emphasizing a "broader view of literacy than... traditional language-based courses" (New London Group, 1996, p. 60). Replacing the older Basic Reading and Writing courses, it integrates both of these traditional 'skills', and places a greater emphasis on the aforementioned multimodality. This 'linking of literacies' (Hirvela, 2004) hopefully enables students to more actively participate in a variety of meaningful contexts.

The course is designed to help provide learners with the tools necessary for self-empowerment in order to participate successfully in what is now often labeled a 'post-Fordist' world of 'fast capitalism': "... to develop the capacity to speak up... negotiate, and to be able to engage critically with the conditions of their working lives" (New London Group, 1996, p. 67). In such a society, a much larger range of skills and the capacity to interact in many different ways with many different people are essential. More traditional pedagogical models that focus solely on the ability to read and write traditional text formats carry less pertinence.

The curriculum is genre-based, with students in the advanced tier studying five main genre-units (Email, Narrative, Product Review, Information Report and Essay). It is hoped that by experiencing a range of different genres, discourses and rhetoric types, the students taking the course will develop a sufficient level of textual and cultural awareness. It is empowering in as far as studying and understanding a variety of text types, and the linguistic choices and norms embedded within them, offers the student the opportunity to reach "new realms of social activity and social power" (Cope and Kalantzis, 2000, p. 129). More specifically, we wish to instill a sense of 'genre-awareness' (Johns, 2008) in students, such that they are able to recognize, and thus manipulate for themselves, the key features (register, lexicogrammar, format, etc.) of each genre.

Cope and Kalantzis (2000) suggest a Multiliteracies-led course should follow a suggested pedagogical sequence, where students first experience 'Situated Practice', followed by 'Overt Instruction' and 'Critical Framing'. Finally, in the 'Transformed Practice' stage, they show they are able to "implement understandings acquired" (New London Group, 1996, p. 35) through these earlier stages. It is this last stage that forms the focus of this paper. Before discussing the Transformed Practice stage specifically, however, it is important to discuss more generally the idea of transformation in semiotics.

Transformation

Transformation is central to modern semiotics, which views any creative or meaning-making act as "a new sign... made from existing meaning-resources" (Kress, 2003, p. 40). This suggests that any communicative act is a form of TP on some level as it creates and combines what already exists to construct a new message. Human beings are "ceaselessly engaged in representing the world" using "resources which are never fully adequate to this task", thus "the process of transformation is central: that which is not adequate is transformed... into something that is more adequate" (p. 46).

Kress provides some examples to illustrate how transformation works at the level of grammar and syntax to alter meanings. One such example is a historian's nominalization of the verb 'invade', commonly used when discussing white colonization of Australia. In this context, 'invasion' becomes agentless and has no object-noun, thus avoiding criticism of the colonists. He successfully "transforms the existing resources of the language to serve the directions of his interest." (p. 75).

More pertinent to this paper, transformation also works at the level of genre. Kress compares a job description, made up of "heavy nominalized... language" (p. 76), with a "job application" for the same position. The applicant copies some of the language used in the description but "uses transformational means to unmake and move away from" some of the nominalizations towards a "more event-like structure" (p. 77) by employing more verbs and human agency.

It should be noted that Kress makes a distinction between *transformation*, defined as "processes operating within the one mode only" (p. 47), and *transduction* – "the shift of 'semiotic material'... across modes" (p. 36). This paper, however, categorizes both sets of processes more loosely as transformation.

The New London Group (1996) define "Transformed Practice" as a "Transfer in meaning-making practice, which puts the transformed meaning to work in other contexts or cultural sites" (p. 88). What this can mean in the context of a classroom is having students redesign an original text, where text is defined very loosely as "...any stretch of language that functions as a unity..." or "...involves a recognized language system" (Baker and Ellege, 2013, p. 150) and can thus include multimodal formats. Such transformations can occur across modes. For example, Stein (2008) explains how children in South Africa were able to use "performances" and images to "express certain meanings the words cannot" (p. 78) when it came to telling stories, and how certain students whose English writing skills were not necessarily strong were subsequently able to shine when recreating texts in different modes.

By engaging in transformational activities, a sense of authorship is instilled in students, who become more 'agentive' and active in the learning process (Jewitt and Kress, 2003). In moving meaning through boundaries of genre and/or mode, the key features of each become more salient. Witnessing learners engage in transformational work allows us to appreciate the array of "meaning-making" (Stein, 2008, p. 44) abilities they are able to manipulate. The task essentially acts as both an opportunity for the students to engage in the process of learning and evidence of this very process.

Thus, TP activities are a regular feature of the FL course. The remainder of the paper describes one such activity and student responses to it.

Transformed Narratives

The Narrative unit is the second unit in the FL course. A more complete description can be found in Owens and Johnson (2016). In summary, the students encounter a variety of different sub-genres of narrative in this unit (blogs, fairytales, personal narratives, news stories, etc.), comparing (for example in terms of structure) and contrasting them (such as the different audiences or styles of vocabulary) with the intention of enabling the students to acquire a substantial level of 'genre-awareness'. They are then asked to complete a task involving transformation.

After reading various news and fairytale narratives, the students watch a video (Guardian, 2012) in which a traditional fairytale ('The Three Little Pigs') has been metamorphosed into a commercial for the Guardian newspaper posing as a news story. In this altered version, the 'victims' of the original story (the pigs) become the perpetrators, framing and killing the wolf in order to commit arson and insurance fraud. A range of 'real' social issues is then explored. The students in groups reflect on the transformations that have taken place in this altered version, for example in mode (written text to video) and genre (fairytale to news narrative/commercial). They also consider the changes in terms of audience, language, location (time and place), vocabulary and, crucially, meaning. They are thus able to see clearly how "...the process of transforming a text... makes it more effective or more appropriate for a particular communicative effect" (Jones & Lock, 2011, p. 91).

The students then have to complete their own transformative activity, taking either one of the news narratives and adapting it into a fairytale, or vice-versa. Then they write a 'Reflection' in which they reflect on the changes they made and why. What follows is a description of two examples of student work with respect to the research question: has the Transformed Practice activity helped the students to acquire / shown evidence of the acquisition of genre-awareness?

It should be noted that in this example activity, it is only the genre that is transformed and not the mode (i.e. none of what Kress above refers to as *transduction*). This is in part because at this stage of the course it would have comprised too large a cognitive load for students to undertake, especially considering time restraints. However, TP activities work well both across mode and genre if students have access to the right resources.

Analysis

The students who take part in the FL class are Freshman university students, typically 18 or 19 years old, based in Japan. Both instances of work described below were produced by students in the advanced tier course.

One student decided to recreate the Japanese fairytale 'Yuki Onna' (in which a ghost kills a man and then marries his apprentice in human guise before threatening him and vanishing) in the form of a news story (Appendix 1), while another transformed a news story about three Mexican fishermen surviving nine months at sea into a fairytale (Appendix 2). It should be noted that the former example of student work also featured in less detail in an earlier paper (Owens and Johnson, 2016). These two examples are considered most pertinent for this paper as they show what are essentially transformations in opposite directions (news to fairytale and vice versa) and thus are able to illustrate the extent to which students have achieved a more complete sense of genre awareness.

The researcher hopes to demonstrate this awareness by analyzing the transformed texts and the reflections, focusing specifically on certain areas. First of all, a transitivity analysis on both the original texts and the transformed versions is conducted in order to examine shifts in semiotic work. Following that is a more specific focus on the changes the learners have made in terms of vocabulary, content and structure, and their awareness of having made these changes in their reflections.

Transitivity

Halliday's (1994) systemic-functional grammar (SFG) helps us understand language as a resource that construes reality through lexicogrammatical choices. A more complete explanation of SFG is not possible here given certain constraints, but a rudimentary summary is necessary. Halliday describes language as having different semantic systems that create meanings in different ways, which he terms metafunctions, all of which are observable at the clause-level.

The experiential metafunction relates to making sense of the world, constructing a reality that manifests itself through different processes and agents of those processes. A transitivity analysis focuses on this experiential metafunction, unpacking each language act by looking at '*who does what to whom?*' in each instance, categorizing the different types of process that occur and the participants. For example, any verb that implies action is taking place (e.g. 'She kicked him') is termed a Material Process ('kick'), with the doer ('She') labeled Actor, and the done-to ('him') labeled Goal. There are other types of process too, such as Mental (e.g. think), Behavioral (laugh), Verbal (say, report), Relational (be, become) and Experiential ('there is/are...').

A transitivity analysis is relevant here because it helps us understand shifts in semiotic work that the learners are making in reconstructing their texts. Certain genres encompass certain patterns in terms of the types of process they typically utilize; for example we would obviously expect a newspaper report to make use of more Verbal Processes than a fairytale. If students, consciously or unconsciously, demonstrate a cognizance of these tendencies, it could be said to offer some proof that genre awareness has been realized.

Tables 1 and 2 show the results of a basic transitivity analysis in which the different types of process have been tallied in both the original texts and both the transformed texts. The top number refers to the total number of processes of each type present in each text, while the numbers in parentheses express these as percentages.

Some meaningful patterns can be observed. 64% of the Yuki Onna fairytale is action-based, conveyed as Material Processes. This figure is much lower in Student 1's news version. Also, proportionally she makes more use of both Mental and Verbal Processes, as might be expected of a news story. The student has successfully embedded much of the Material 'action' of the original fairytale within Verbal and Mental Processes in her transformative text. One example transformation exemplifies this well. The original sentence from 'Yuki Onna' that reads "Then Yuki-Onna... *changed* into a white mist, and *screaming* and *shuddering*, *passed* through the smoke-screen, never to *return* again," contains five Material Processes (italicized). The student transforms this language

Table 1

Processes in the 'Yuki Onna' fairytale > news story transformation

Process	Material	Mental	Verbal	Relational	Behavioral	Experiential
Original fairytale (97 processes)	62 (64%)	10 (10%)	5 (5%)	19 (20%)	0	1 (1%)
News transformation (61)	29 (39%)	9 (15%)	8 (13%)	18 (30%)	0	2 (3%)

Table 2

Processes in the 'Mexican Fishermen' news story > fairytale' transformation

Process	Material	Mental	Verbal	Relational	Behavioral	Experiential
Original news story (113)	53 (47%)	29 (26%)	16 (14%)	12 (11%)	2 (2%)	1 (1%)
Fairytale transformation (100)	49	21	9	18	1	2

cluster into one where the action is rooted in both Verbal and Mental Processes: "A witness *said* they *saw* her *leaving* the home very quickly with suspicious behavior." Crucially, she is conscious of having made this change deliberately, claiming in her reflection that, "I found that tabloids like to use gossip and rumor to make their story so I used the neighbors and things people said to tell the story."

The opposite pattern is to some extent true in Student 2's work, with fewer Mental and Verbal Processes in her fairytale reworking of the original news story; however there is no significant increase in her use of Material Processes.

What can also be seen from both tables is that both students made greater use of Relational Processes even though their transformations travelled in opposite directions in terms of sub-genre. This is probably due to a greater reliance on simple sentences that use the word 'be', as they are both writing in their L2.

Content and Structure

Looking at their reflections, the students show keen awareness of what they are doing in transforming work across boundaries of genre. For example, in terms of content, they both reflect on the way different sub-genres of narrative should resolve. Student 1 notices that often in Japanese fairytales there seems to be no clear resolution of events, and that this form of narrative had to be transformed to work as a news story: "In the Japanese story, we never know why the action happened… so finally I made it into a story that hasn't been solved… I must make the explanation clear to the reader." Student 2 meanwhile is able to recognize that fairytales need some level of moral significance to work, and thus decided to change the ending of the real news story by making the rescuers 'good' and 'bad' fantastical animal-based characters: "We thought the normal happy story is not interesting, so we change… we wanted to tell them another morals. Therefore we created new deeper meaning."

The students also demonstrate knowledge of structure in their work. Student 1, for example, says she made deliberate use of "short paragraphs" in her tabloid version of events. She also decided to use "sub-headings", which "…can be used in a newspaper to help the reader." Similarly, Student 2 describes how she intentionally structured her fairytale into "6 paragraphs": "main theme", "scene setting", "complication", "main events", "further actions", "result" and "evaluation", a pattern she has evidently noticed works well in the production of folk stories.

Vocabulary and Audience Recognition

At the level of lexis, the students also exhibit appreciation of the distinctive features of different genres. In explaining her word choices for transforming a fairytale into a news story, Student 1 comments that she "used more conventional style. I took out literary words for the different newspaper style". She illustrates this by way of an example, describing how she had Yuki wearing Gucci designer clothes instead of the "dazzling white garments" of the original. This same awareness of style and register is demonstrated in Student 2's work in the opposite direction. She "changed some modern words to old fashioned words so that it can sound more like a fairytale."

She attributes some of these lexical changes to awareness of audience, explaining in her reflection that she hoped her story to appeal to "all of ages", thus she "mixed formal and informal words." Student 2 similarly displays an ability to consider her audience, justifying her aforementioned use of short paragraphs and subtitles in the news story as they "make it easier to read for audience that doesn't have time – maybe they are reading on the train to work."

Image

As the course is rooted in a Multiliteracies-led pedagogy, it is particularly satisfying to observe that both students were also able to voluntarily, without any prompting, reflect on the use of multimodality in their own work and in the genres in which they are writing. Student 1 explains her choice to "put in the picture… to follow tabloid style. If there is a criminal the tabloid tries to show them and especially they like to have pictures of beautiful girls!" Student 2 sees the use of visuals as equally important in fairytales: "Adding some pictures might look more effective, so I portrayed two pictures which drawn awful mermaid face, and three Mexican men running away with a kind of shark." Her decision to add this illustration of her own accord is explained by her wanting to make a "tremendous impact" on the reader.

Conclusion

The examples of student work and their subsequent reflections show how they were both able to become fully aware of and understand the key features, affordances and constraints of different sub-genres of narrative. They have to some extent achieved 'genre awareness'. As such, the activity itself forms part of this process of becoming aware, but also helps document it. Engaging in Transformed Practice both allows students to become more deeply involved in the understanding of texts, and shows evidence of this understanding.

The example used here is a relatively simple one, in which students change one form of story into another. However, there are almost limitless ideas for the classroom application of Transformed Practice activities. Moving across boundaries of genre, students could be asked to change a travel blog into a travel guide, or construct a dramatic piece of classic theatre out of a dialogue between friends. More simply, they could reflect on the changes they would need to transform a personal diary into a fairytale, or an academic essay into an email to a friend, possibly using textspeak or local dialect.

If time and resources are available, learners might want to try altering the mode, too, for example, reworking a written news report into a news bulletin made for television. They could equally think about transforming written texts into musicals or mimes.

Transformed Practice, in this context, integrates reading and writing skills, and could be worked to make use of other 'literacies' too. They are also fun and interactive activities, encouraging students to be creative and make use of their innate ingenuity by requiring them to demonstrate their meaning-making abilities in the creation of new texts from something already in existence.

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Appendix A

Yuki Onna news story and reflection

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.

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!

Appendix B

Fishermen fairytale and reflection

The Adventure Of Three Mexican Fishermen

Once upon a time, there are three Mexican fisher men who are all 20s'. One of them likes reading fairy tales and the rest of them like it as well. Therefore they desired to see a mermaid in the ocean and intended to journey to see it, so they took their all stuffs, foods and water. However, it was very hard for them to find a mermaid in the vast ocean and they didn't have idea to locate the point where a marmaid was. One year had passed since they traveled on the ocean.

One day, they found a shadow on the big rock . "Look at over there! " One of the men said loudly with pointing at it. There was a beautiful mermaid sitting on the rock. She smiled at them and they tried getting close to her. At last, they succeeded in seeing the mermaid but they couldn't move because she charmed them by her beauty. She reached for one of the men's face and suddnely pulled him into the ocean. At that time, they looked at her face and then noticed she has a terrible face with fangs.

Although the other two men tried saving him from her, yet they failed because she was very strong and they were pulled together. Therefore their ship turned over.

Under the sea, they were fighting against this awful mermaid. Abruptly, something crossed between the mermaid and three men so they fled from the mermaid thanks to "something " They wondered, "what was that!?" then"something" came toward them and they realized that "something" was a SHARK!! "We will be eaten!! Let's escape from it" "Er....but the shark helped us" They argued for a short while. The shark said " I will take you to your home" At first, they couldn't believe it. "Who said?" "It's me" The shark smiled. "Come on! Grasp my dorsal fin" The marmaid came again but the shark attacked her by its tail fin. They found the shark kind and accepted its suggestion. The shark swam very very fast with keeping them on its fin.

Hence, the three men arrived at their home. Their relatives and friends had mostly given them up for dead. That's why they were delighted with the safe return of three men back. However, the people in this town were surprised at the shark and tried to kill it. Three men said "Waaaaaaaaaait!! He helped and took us here so please don't kill it, please" Because of the three men's persuasion, they didn't kill him.

" I can never thank enough to you, guys...." . Then the shark was shaking and become smaller, no , become a MAN!! "I am really appreciate to you and I am the prince of another country. Well, I was turned into a shark by God's magic because I was wretch and the God said this magic will never be broken unless you change your mind. Now I understand that meaning!" Eventually, the marmaid disappeared into the ocean with a frustrated look on her face and they lived happily ever after. Why did the prince not go back to his country? Because three Mexican fisher men asked his father, the king to allowed him to stay with them and they can enjoy reading fairy tales with the prince from now on.

Deep meaning

The story tells children that what goes around comes around even in the case of good things or bad. That's why you should be careful about own behavior and care about everyone else. And Don't judge people by their appearances.

Reflection of Fairy Tale

1. **Contents**

We made a fairy tale from the news, about three Mexican fishermen survived. We thought that normal happy story is not interesting, so we change the beautiful mermaid to kind of monster, and general scary shark to kind shark or real man. Original news already has deeper meaning, but we wanted to tell them another morals. Therefore we created new deeper meaning: What goes around comes around even in the case of good thing or bad, and do not judge people by their appearances or stereotypes. In this story, the prince was very arrogant, so god turned him into a shark. After that, he changed his mind therefore he could regain his real body. Those morals are still told to this day as a proverb.

2. **Organisation**

We really wanted to give them impacts, so we put the awful mermaid picture which has a tremendous impact on front of the paper. As our plan, classmates took on surprised expression when they saw our handout. It makes me satisfied.

There are 6 paragraphs. First one descrives main theme and scene setting. In the second paragraph, three Mexican fishermen found the mermaid, it is complication. Besides there are also main events. Third paragraph, begin with "Under the sea" is not fun as Disney, but this is most excited parts. Subsequently,Paragraph 3, 4 and 5 has many main events or further actions. Final paragraph is begin with " Eventually", so there is result and evaluations.

3. **Language choices**

We wanted to read this story for all of ages. Therefore we mixed formal and informal words,such as spoken languages, and did not add any difficult words so much. For example, we wrote some spoken language to make reader not boring,keep excited. Besides, we wrote " Waaaaaait!" in the paragraph 4 as a informal word in order to express an urgency. We guess those device makes reader fun and attract. In addition, we changed some modern words to old fashioned words so that it can sounds more like a fairy tale.

So Many Words, So Little Time: Implementing a New Method for Teaching Vocabulary in a Literacies Course

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Enabling students to acquire large numbers of academic words in what is already an intense course is obviously a challenging undertaking. Members of a project group at a Japanese university therefore decided to pilot a creative, efficient and effective strategy for doing this that involved games, novel forms of testing, mnemonics and retrieval exercises. This strategy was tested with two classes in the last academic year, and initial feedback suggested that the approach is promising. In this session, we will provide background and rationale to the approach and offer examples from the pilot that highlight the ways that these activities are being integrated into the course, and the degree to which we feel they have been successful.

学生に、授業の課題の他に大学英単語の習得を課すことは容易なことではない。某大学の教員研究グループではこの度、独創的で効率が良く、なおかつ効果的なゲームや言葉遊び、小テストを含む画期的な方法を試験的に授業で取り入れた。この方法は、二つの講義で今学期試され、得られたフィードバックは期待できるものであった。当セッションでは、プロジェクトの背景と概要のほか、講義に取り入れられた数々の方法にスポットライトを当てて詳しく紹介する。

Vocabulary - and in particular the types of vocabulary that are most pertinent to students in any given setting - is often taught in ineffective ways (Folse, 2004). Recognizing vocabulary learning's importance in SLA was the first impetus for this study. The second was a need to refine and improve the vocabulary-learning component of one core freshman course taught at our institution: Foundational Literacies (FL).

Given that there were several issues plaguing the course in its original format regarding the vocabulary-learning component, teacher-researchers set out to create a new method, which would adhere to the new departmental curriculum, empower students more, and be theoretically justified. In other words, the current research is interested in examining the vocabulary learning outcomes of the new method, exploring the benefits of word meaning retrieval in another class, and inquiring as to whether or not students in the course preferred the new method. This pilot study is the result of that initial effort.

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Background to the Course

The Foundational Literacies (FL) course at Kanda University of International Studies is a relatively new and innovative course. It utilizes a Multiliteracies-informed pedagogy, as inspired by the New London Group (1996), focusing on the use of multimodality in class and symbolic competence (Kramsch, 2006). For more detail about the design of the course see Owens and Johnson (2016). Its core objective is the acquisition of "genre-awareness" (Johns, 2008, p. 238) and textual-awareness across a range of modes and formats. Thus the curriculum follows a genre-based structure.

Originally, the vocabulary component (which accounts for 10% of students' total grade) was set up to complement this emphasis on genre. The course is made of several units, each corresponding to a different genre. Words from each unit appearing in the academic word-list were used in vocabulary tests taken upon completion of the unit. The tests were multiple-choice based, created by the teacher, and taken by students via Moodle (a classroom management system). Whilst advantages to this form of vocabulary-testing included reinforcement of the vocabulary learnt on the actual course, there were several disadvantages. For example, the tests for each unit were inconsistent in size, creating a very uneven workload for students at various stages of the course. The tests were also very time-consuming to create. Moreover, it could be argued that only taking tests at such disparate long intervals is too random and therefore ineffective. We decided to implement a new form of vocabulary teaching that would be more enjoyable and interactive for the students, and where the tests would be shorter and more frequent.

Additionally, it was argued that it would constitute a more effective use of class time if students had wider access to a more generalized set of academic words than simply vocabulary appearing in the course materials. Related to this, the course designers also had to consider institutional goals. One such goal is to enable students to achieve high scores in certain English-speaking proficiency tests e.g. TOEFL, in order for them to be eligible for scholarships to foreign universities in English-speaking countries. An additional aim of the FL course is therefore to help with student acquisition and retention of academic vocabulary. Specifically, it was felt the New Academic Word List (NAWL) would be most relevant.

The Pilot

The New Academic Word List (NAWL)

The 963-word New Academic Word List (NAWL) is essentially an updated and greatly expanded version of the Academic Word List (AWL) (Coxhead, 2000) which was created as an academic complement to "common, everyday language," or core vocabulary. Core vocabulary was defined as being words on the General Service List (GSL) created in 1953 by Michael West (West, 1953). In other words, items on the AWL do not appear on the GSL. The NAWL words are drawn from a much larger corpus, and, in the same way that the AWL was created with the GSL in mind, the NAWL was cross-referenced with the New General Service List (Browne, Culligan, & Phillips, 2013). The NGSL draws from a corpus approximately 100 times the size of the original GSL (273 million vs. 2.5 million), which arguably increases the reliability of the list by ensuring that "core vocabulary" does not appear on it. Furthermore, when the NGSL/NAWL are compared to the GSL/AWL against an academic corpus of 288 million words, the NGSL/NAWL combination provides approximately 5% more coverage of the corpus and mastery of both lists provide about 92% coverage of overall coverage versus 87% for the GSL/AWL (Browne, Culligan, & Phillips, 2014).

It was felt, however, that requiring students to learn an additional 963 words was too ambitious, given that the course is already very dense and intense in terms of workload and materials. A more realistically achievable goal of the 500 most frequent words from the NAWL was set.

The authors decided to pilot the new method of vocabulary teaching/testing with the first 250 of these words in Semester 2 of the 2015-6 academic year. It was initially piloted with just two classes to test another variable: one class also experienced retrieval exercises (see below) and one class did not. Furthermore, some class time with both classes was spent on familiarizing students with useful vocabulary acquisition techniques such as mnemonics and other useful strategies to help students 'know' the word rather than just 'memorize' its meaning, the latter being a habit which seems to be an unfortunate consequence of Japanese high school language education.

Thus, the pilot can be said to consist of essentially two parts: the testing itself, and a very basic examination into the effectiveness of retrieval exercises.

Theoretical Consideration of Retrieval

In order to maximize the potential for participants to learn target vocabulary items, this pilot study took retrieval into consideration. In particular, we drew upon a plethora of findings from educational psychology that suggest and empirically confirm that learning followed by retrieval or review can have a significant impact on a learner's ability to retain the information over the long term (Cepeda, Vul, Rohrer, Wixted, & Pashler, 2008; Karpicke & Bauernschmidt, 2011; Leitner, 1972). Within SLA, this psychological phenomenon extends to learning vocabulary in a foreign language (Bahrick, Bahrick, Bahrick, & Bahrick, 1993; Goossens, Camp, Verkoeijen, Tabbers, & Zwaan, 2012).

In their 2008 study, Cepeda et al. attempted to determine the ideal gap between the introduction of items to be learned, review sessions, and a post-test. Their findings suggest that the ideal gap changes depending on primarily the length of time that a learner desires to retain the information (i.e. over many years, a few months, or only a week) (pp. 1100-1101). While Karpicke and Bauernschmidt (2011) found that there was no significant difference in learning gains between three relative spacing paradigms, their results also confirm that repetition and retrieval aid long term retention.

Student-centered Testing and Test Creation

In order to increase the motivation of the students and make the testing more interactive, especially in a course that claims to have done away with more traditional, dry methods of language teaching, the actual process of testing itself needed to be more student-centered. Thus it was decided that students should actually participate in the test creation process itself. Below is a description of the entire process.

In the first week of a 15-week semester, an example test created by the teacher-researcher (see Appendix) was given to students. Students took these tests in groups, in what could be called a 'pub quiz' format i.e. they sat in groups and discussed each question amongst themselves before settling on one answer. The students were informed that this was just an example test and that it would have no impact on their final grade.

The test itself featured a variety of different multiple-choice based question types (collocation, gap-fill, guessing from context, definitions...etc.), such that the student was encouraged to develop deeper word knowledge (Nation, 2013). After the test, students identified these different types and forms of the questions from the example. At this point, students were given a list of the selected most frequent 250 NAWL items, separated into 10 sub-lists of 25 words each. Students were then put into 5 groups. Each group was asked to focus on two sub-lists each and told they had to create a test themselves using 10 of the 25 words from each list and the various different question types they had identified in the example test. These tests were submitted to the teacher, to check and 'clean up' if necessary, and then taken by the whole class, roughly once a week (e.g. the test for List 1 was taken in Week 2, the test for List 2 was taken in Week 3...etc.)

In each case, the teacher told the students in advance which sub-list would be tested next lesson without revealing exactly which 10 words would appear. Thus, they were encouraged to study the meanings of all the words in each list.

Each week, the tests were taken in the same 'pub quiz' format, so that each group worked together both in the creation of the tests and in actually taking them. They thus shared the same grade. Additionally, the use of Moodle was scrapped in favor of using paper handouts for the tests. The mark at the end of the semester, out of 100, was used as their Vocabulary grade (10% of the whole course) and replaced the old genre-based, Moodle method.

The advantage of this student-centered method is that it instills in the student some form of ownership over the test-taking process. The 'pub quiz' format encourages competition, so that students are deliberately making the tests more difficult and thus study harder but in an environment that is arguably fun, more engaging, and therefore induces less anxiety.

Methodology

Participants / Research questions

Two classes featured in the Semester 2 pilot: Class A and Class B. Both classes were from the advanced tier of the FL course. They were therefore of similar ages (Freshman students) and levels. Both classes had experience of the old vocabulary-testing method in the first semester.

Class A experienced follow-up retrieval exercises, where students were asked to recall the meaning of previously studied English words one week after taking each test. Teachers used a variety of different exercises to this effect, most of them 'fun' activities, such as word sort, concentration or using mnemonics, typically taking not much longer than 15 minutes of class time. The variation in what activities were used could be seen as another limiting factor (see below) but it was seen as essential to allow teachers creative freedom in their own lessons. The very fact that some sort of retrieval took place was seen as more important than precisely what form the activity took. By contrast, Class B did not have experience any retrieval activities.

Both classes took a 'pre-test' at the beginning of the semester (see below), and then took the same test at the end of the semester. In addition to the pre- and post-tests, students were also asked to complete a survey asking them to appraise the new method by directly comparing it to the old method.

Our research questions were thus:

1) Did the new method have any significant impact on the retention of academic vocabulary? That is, was there a significant difference between pre- and post-test scores (taken in Week 1 and 15 of a 15-week semester)?

2) Did the class that had experienced retrieval make significantly more gains than the class that did not?

3) Was the new method rated more favorably than the old by students?

If the answer was affirmative for all questions, the intention would be to roll out the new piloted method across all FL classes in the following academic year.

The New Academic Word List Test

The test used in the pilot to determine vocabulary knowledge gains was a truncated version of the NAWLT (Stoeckel & Bennett, 2014). The creators of the test explain that the New General Service List Test (NGSLT) was created based on the same principles and design as the Vocabulary Size Test (VST) developed by Nation and Beglar (2007), and it is to be assumed that the NAWLT made in conjunction with the NGSLT was developed according to the same specifications.

The entire NAWLT contains forty questions, twenty of which correspond to the first half of the list, and twenty to the second half. However, because the pilot study did not set out to teach the entire 963 words on the list, the validity of the test would be thrown into question if used as is. To remedy this, the researchers created and administered a sub-set of the test that contained only those items that were both on the NAWLT and in the target 250 words in the pilot study. In this way, the original forty item test was reduced to ten items which was used as both the pre-test before the pilot began and the post-test at the end of the 15-week period.

The results of the pre-test were not shared with students until the end of the pilot to avoid students remembering which items were on the test, which would clearly call the test results into question.

Results / Discussion

Quantitative Results of the Tests and Discussion

The results of the participants' pre- and post-tests are reported in Table 1 along with standard deviations and effect sizes. Test scores were out of 10 points and are reported as a percentage for clarity.

To determine whether or not there were any significant differences between the pre- and post-tests, a paired-samples, two-tailed *t*-test was used. As the results in Table 1 indicate, the mean scores of both groups improved to a significant degree ($p < 0.05$). Additionally, calculation of Cohen's d shows a medium effect for the group with retrieval, and a small to medium effect for the group without retrieval

Table 1
Results of Pre- and Post-Tests

GROUP	Pre-Test Mean Score and *SD*	Post-Test Mean Score and *SD*	Avg. *SD*	Significance Value $p <$ 0.05 (t-test)	*d*
Class A (Retrieval)	68%, 1.47	77%, 1.62	1.54	0.025229*	0.56
Class B (No Retrieval)	64%, 1.57	72%, 1.89	1.73	0.024123*	0.45

Notes: d = Effect size Cohen's *d*; Significance Value = *t*-test result
* = $p < .05$

(Cohen, 1988).

To conclude the quantitative results, Welch's *t*-test of unequal variance with two tails was used in order to explore the possibility of significant differences between the two groups' test scores. No significant differences were found between the pre-tests (p = 0.394667) or the post-tests (p = 0.379177) at the $p <$ 0.05 level.

One of the goals this pilot study set out to accomplish was to add to the body of research suggesting that retrieval is an effective strategy for learning and retaining vocabulary over the long term (Bahrick et al., 1993; Goossens et al., 2012). Rather than employing tightly controlled experimental conditions lacking ecological validity, this pilot study hoped to provide empirical data supporting the notion of retrieval in a non-experimental, action-research based classroom setting. This was partially to see whether the effects of retrieval would be strong enough to account for potential gains in the test scores. Looking at the test scores alone, one can see that both of the groups' improved significantly over the course of the semester-long pilot study. However, it is impossible to attribute said improvement to any one aspect of the class, including the retrieval.

On the other hand, one can conclude several things about the data: the fact that the groups did improve and to what comparative degree they did so both within- and between-groups. The two final *t*-tests that were performed comparing the between-groups differences between pre- and post-test scores showed non-significant differences. Based on this, the research can safely conclude that the participants started at roughly the same knowledge level of the words on the test. The results further help to illustrate that both of the groups improved their scores to approximately the same degree. This also indicates that the retrieval activities did not seem to benefit the retrieval group to any significant degree.

Qualitative Results of the Surveys and Discussion

In the survey, both classes were asked to state the extent to which they agreed/disagreed with a series of statements appraising the new method, sometimes in direct comparison with the old method. Answers were multiple-choice, ranging from 'strongly disagree' (weighted as 1 point) to 'strongly agree' (4 points). In effect this meant that an average score ranging from 1 to 2.49 would imply an overall negative appraisal of each statement, and 2.51 to 4 would suggest a positive assessment. No middle-option was available as an answer, as Chen, Lee and Stevenson (1995) suggest that Japanese respondents have a tendency to choose 'no opinion' if given the opportunity.

The statements that received average scores suggesting positive appraisal across both classes, in order of highest to lowest, can be seen in Table 2.

Only one statement received a score suggesting negative appraisal (see Table 3)

Student-answered surveys carry an inherent limitation in what they can suggest as learners are not necessarily the best placed to know what qualifies as effective. Nevertheless, it seemed appropriate to ask for their opinion given that part of the rationale for making changes to the vocabulary component of the course was student dissatisfaction with the old method.

As can be seen from the two tables, most aspects of the new method received positive appraisal.

Table 2
Positive Appraisals

Statement	Average weighted score
Taking shorter tests every week was preferable to taking longer tests at the end of every unit	3.34
Reviewing the vocabulary in Freshman English classes helped/would have helped us to retain the vocabulary	3.09 (2.92/3.2)
Having the students prepare the tests rather than the teachers is a better idea	3.03
I feel like my vocabulary has improved more this semester as a result of the 2nd method	2.81
Overall, the 2nd method was overall better than the 1st method.	2.72
I would have liked more time in class spent on practising / revising useful vocabulary strategies	2.72
The choice of vocabulary (NAWL) that we studied in the 2nd method was more relevant than in the 1st method (directly from the course)	2.69
Using paper rather than Moodle is easier	2.66

Table 3
Negative Appraisal

Statement	Average weighted score
Taking the tests in groups was more effective than taking them individually	2.16

Despite the results of the test (comparing A and B) suggesting no significant benefit, students clearly favor the retrieval activities. They were also mostly positive about the weekly smaller tests, students preparing the tests themselves, the overall progress that they felt they had made as a result of the newer method, the use of paper instead of Moodle, and the use of the NAWL.

They were, however, negative about the group-testing format. Invited to comment on their answers, this dissatisfaction seems to come from a sense that more confident students did not wish to share a grade with 'weaker' students, who in turn felt that sharing a grade with 'stronger' students meant they were less motivated to study hard for themselves.

Limitations

The researchers were able to isolate the between-groups retrieval variable in the classroom, but further exposure to the vocabulary outside of the classroom is impossible to account for. This is one distinct disadvantage of action research conducted in classroom settings. Moreover, the retrieval activities used were not controlled, and their various incarnations were left to teacher discretion; one teacher's retrieval activities might be more effective than another's. The amount of uncontrolled variables in such settings are legion, and therefore nothing concretely scientific can be asserted concerning the participants' improvement in relation to retrieval, the new testing method, vocabulary study strategies, teaching style, or any other factors.

Additionally, it was felt in hindsight that the pre-/post-test itself was imperfect. It featured just 10 questions and only tested receptive knowledge of meaning, not productive knowledge of form, meaning and use.

One final limitation is the survey results. While the students did give mostly positive appraisals of the new methods, these results could be subject to a degree of acquiescence bias due to the nature of the relationship between the researchers and the students (i.e. the researchers are one of the students' teachers), or the nature of the response items themselves. In other words, *extrapolation of these results should be exercised with caution.*

The need for continuous improvement of the vocabulary component of the FL course and these perceived limitations provided the impetus for a second pilot.

Conclusion and Future Actions

Considering the limitations of the pilot along with prior research into the subject of vocabulary acquisition and retrieval, it is still much too early to make any strong claim based on our pilot study about retrieval or the new testing method that was employed. Nevertheless, the survey results suggest that students favor the piloted method of vocabulary-testing over the old. Whereas the old technique was laborious and in fact not used by some teachers as a result, the new method engages students more and is more likely to have a positive effect on their retention of useful academic vocabulary.

We are introducing a new approach towards vocabulary teaching and testing in a new course to improve on what was there previously, and to that extent we seem to have been relatively successful. In terms of future research, we intend to carry out a new pilot with some adjustments: we will utilize a more effective pre- and post-test, we will trial the pilot with a larger number of classes to obtain more reliable results, and we will discard the use of group-testing in favor of a method that encourages students to work towards their own vocabulary grade. This new pilot will be administered during the 2016-7 academic year.

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Appendix

Example test

1. He has a large repertoire
   a. Collection of skills
   b. Kind of weapon
   c. A long list
   d. A good reputation

2. To drive a car legally, you must ___________ a driver's license.
   a. integrate
   b. adapt
   c. obtain
   d. audit

3. The most appealing __________ of the company for me is the salary.
   a. limb
   b. aspect
   c. objection
   d. regime

4. Define: Theorem
   a. A statement that can be proven
   b. Something that makes a change
   c. A thin covering of tissue
   d. A state of balance

5. The northern country is dominant.
   a. dangerous
   b. sensitive
   c. horizontal
   d. powerful

6. a finite ________
   a. book
   b. resource
   c. hair
   d. leader

7. Choose the sentence that makes the most sense.
   a. The dog infected its water happily this morning.
   b. The captain's shirt was infected with color.
   c. The poor woman was infected with a disease.
   d. The governor gave an infected speech to the city.

8. The proposition was foolish.
   a. idea
   b. generalization
   c. criterion
   d. discourse

9. Define: impact
   a. A quality of something
   b. A striking effect
   c. A system of government
   d. A statistic

10. Choose the sentence that makes the most sense.
    a. His test answers were accurate, so the teacher failed him.
    b. The man's description was accurate, so they didn't understand him.
    c. If a shooter is accurate, they hit the target most of the time.
    d. He played the game accurately, so he lost.

Developing EAP Materials: A Data-Driven Learning Innovation

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This paper outlines the application of a materials development framework in order to embed data-driven learning activities into a first-year undergraduate writing course. Data-driven learning can promote student autonomy, and here it is considered as an innovation that is intended to replace the usual methods of vocabulary study in the classroom. Both data-driven learning and regular vocabulary learning techniques are evaluated. The materials created are evaluated for their educational value in terms of students' learning gains on vocabulary tests, students' self-efficacy towards task performance, and students' attitudes towards the tasks. Results show that students find DDL much more difficult, and have less confidence in some aspects of task performance, despite higher scores on immediate post-tests. Suggestions are made on how to adjust the materials and the teaching.

本稿は、大学一年生のライティングコースの中にデータ駆動型学習を含めるため、 教材開発枠組の応用を一つ述べる。データ駆動型学習は、学習者自主を促し、通常の英単語の指導方法を置き換える目的として、指導方法のイノベーションであるとも考えられる。本稿では、データ駆動型学習の活動も通常の英単語の活動も評価される。単語テストのスコアー、データ駆動型学習のタスクと通常のタスクのパフォーマンスに対する自己効力感、タスクに対する態度により、作成した教材の評価を述べる。データ駆動型学習を通じた試験のスコアーが向上する証拠があるにもかかわらず、学習者は、データ駆動型学習のほうが通常の勉強より非常に難しく思い、タスクパフォーマンスの幾つかの面に対する自信を失うことがわかる。作成したデータ駆動型学習の教材や指導をどのように改正すろかを提案する。

Undergraduates majoring in STEM subjects in Japan present challenges to materials developers and teachers. One of the biggest challenges is to create materials which motivate learners who have traditionally been regarded as having low motivation (Hill, Falout, & Apple, 2012). This report outlines an experimental approach to evaluating materials creation which aimed to improve the motivation and vocabulary learning of learners in a first-year undergraduate writing course. Data-driven learning (DDL) has been shown to positively affect learner motivation (Hadley, 2002), so a DDL approach is compared with a more traditional dictionary based approach.

Tomlinson (2013a) points out that materials development should include an understanding of the conditions that can promote language learning. DDL is a pedagogical innovation which has been shown to enhance learning (Chujo, Anthony, Oghigian, & Uchibori, 2012) and benefit the development of student autonomy (Flowerdew, 2012). During DDL activities, learners are guided through making hypotheses about many salient features of language, including word meaning, phrasal patterns,

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collocations. They do this through a condensed reading (Gabrielatos, 2005) of concordance lines. Concordance lines are the "data" which provide evidence for learners' hypotheses, and any revisions in their hypotheses. In this way, the students act like researchers of language (Bernadini, 2004; Johns, 1986). Thus, DDL activities are student centered and promote their autonomy. As Dornyei (2001) suggests, a focus on student autonomy can improve learner motivation.

DDL materials were developed around a framework offered by Jolly and Bolitho (2011). The framework is a network of procedures which includes the identification of need, exploration of need, contextual realisation of materials, pedagogical realisation, production, student use, and evaluation against agreed objectives.

Method

Jolly and Bolitho (2011) acknowledge that teachers will not apply the framework in a linear fashion. However, for logical presentation, each step is outlined below in the order provided by the authors.

Exploration of need

Students' levels ranged from high beginner to low intermediate, and none of them had had any experience with data-driven learning. They were scheduled to write on two topics: globalization and the Internet. To understand the range of vocabulary required, short articles on the topics were selected from students' reading texts and graded readers mandated by the curriculum to create a small pedagogical corpus (Willis, 1998). This corpus was scanned into the KeyWords program on the Compleat Lexical Tutor (Cobb, n.d.) website. This program generated a list of topic specific vocabulary, such as "effect", "include", "avoid", and "impact". This was correlated with a corpus of first and second year undergraduate students' writing collected over three years. 15 words which were either not common in students' writing, or used with mistakes, were isolated for study: effect, problem, include, prevent, avoid, impact, damage, likely, difficulty, decide, cause, means, suggest, such as, without. Thus, one objective of the DDL materials was to improve learning of these items.

Contextual realisation

DDL is often associated with learners searching for words in computers, generating their own concordance lines and using the data to make hypotheses about language. However, the students were members of a department whose TOEIC averages were the lowest in the university. Their classes were mixed proficiency, and this "hands-on" approach was considered too difficult for them. Gilquin and Granger (2010) point out that the learners' levels should affect decisions about the mode of presentation in DDL. Therefore, printed worksheets containing concordance lines were prepared. This allowed me to simplify concordances to make language points more salient.

Pedagogical realisation

For each word studied a three-step DDL task was created. Step 1 (translation) involved translating a sentence from Japanese into English. This elicited the key word and generated hypotheses of its use based on students' current knowledge. Step 2 (exploration) involved condensed reading of concordance lines, and was guided. For example, students were asked to notice what adjectives collocated with the key word, and were asked to infer phrasal patterns. To reduce the complexity of the task for the mixed proficiency groups, only ten concordance lines were chosen from the pedagogical corpus. Step 3 (paraphrase) involved paraphrasing an English sentence. Which aimed to encourage students to apply their observations from Step 2 to a novel context.

DDL requires the exploration of language. For this to succeed, students need to be active in their learning. One way to promote this is through interaction. Sociocultural theory (Wertsch, 1998) suggests that the cognitive load during learning can be shared among students working in groups. Furthermore, Estling Vannestal and Lindquist (2007) have observed that student motivation increases when working on DDL activities in groups. Therefore, tasks that promote peer interaction were designed.

To encourage the students to interact more, the activities were designed as a game in which students worked in pairs. Each pair was allocated 10 points. For each step in the DDL task, they could gamble some of their points. If their answers were correct, they received back double the amount they gambled. If their answers were incorrect, they lost the points. Students were also given a time limit of 10 minutes per word to complete the three steps. This prevented a diffusion of responsibility and encouraged a fast-paced sharing of ideas.

Production

Appendix A provides an example of the worksheet created for the three DDL steps. All the information needed to complete the DDL tasks, including the concordance lines, was contained in one sheet.

Student Use

One sheet was given to each pair of students. They collaborated to complete the tasks on the worksheets and score more points than other pairs of students. The teacher ran through one worksheet with the students together. After this, the students completed each worksheet without teacher input. Every 10 minutes, the teacher provided feedback and checked answers.

Evaluation

Because the DDL activities were an innovation to replace the current vocabulary study methods, the DDL method needed to improve motivation and lead to greater learning. To evaluate this effectively, it is necessary to compare motivation and learning under DDL with motivation and learning under traditional dictionary use. Boulton (2010) provides a description of a quasi-experimental design which is adapted here to evaluate the difference in learning gains between DDL and dictionary use. However, to be a valid comparison, the procedure of the dictionary methods was adapted to include the same three steps as DDL: translate – explore – paraphrase. An example dictionary-based worksheet is given in Appendix B. While this itself constitutes new materials development, the time spent developing dictionary based worksheets was much shorter than DDL based worksheets. Therefore, measurement of learning also allows a valid cost-benefit evaluation of materials creation for the teacher.

Following Boulton (2010) in the experimental setup, 15 words were split into three sets of 5 words, with set 3 being the control items. Two writing classes were chosen, Class A ($n_A = 20$) studied sets 1 and 2 under DDL and dictionary methods respectively, and class B ($n_B = 16$) studied sets 1 and 2 under dictionary and DDL methods respectively. One set was studied each week, and the control set was not studied.

Students in the two classes were informed that the vocabulary learning activities were being observed and they gave permission for their work to be analyzed for research purposes. The students were told that their ability to use these words in their writing would not impact on the assessment of their paragraphs, but were asked to do their best to learn the words.

Students were given a pre-test of the 15 words one week before the DDL activities and told that they would be studying these words in the following two weeks. The pre-test consisted of 30 TOEIC part V questions, two questions per item. Immediate post-tests for each week's activities provided feedback to students and the teacher. The immediate post-tests consisted of two TOEIC part V questions per item, 10 questions in total. A final post-test was held one week after the activities. This provided insight into the long-term learning gains. This test also consisted of 30 questions, which were different from the pre-test and intermediate post-tests.

To measure motivation, students completed two surveys to compare the DDL and dictionary methods. The first was a self-efficacy survey. Bandura (2006) states that self-efficacy is concerned with the belief an individual has in their ability to achieve success in a task. He claims that self-efficacy is an important factor affecting the motivation of learners (Bandura, 1989). The survey asked students to rate their ability on a scale of 0 – 100 (0 = not at all confident, 100 = extremely confident) to perform tasks both under DDL and dictionary methods.

The second survey asked students to rate their perceptions of the ease, usefulness, enjoyment, and whether or not the activities were a good use of time for both DDL and regular methods. Each item was a bi-polar scale from 1 to 10, with, for example, 1 = easy, and 10 = difficult. Appendices C and D contain these two surveys respectively.

Results

The results of the quasi-experimental evaluation of learning and motivation are reported here.

Pre-test

A *t*-test was run to compare the scores on items to be studied under DDL with items to be studied with dictionary methods. This gives insight into whether students in both conditions have equivalent knowledge of all the items. The results were: $M_{DDL} = 6.22$ and $M_{dic} = 6.08$, $t = 0.26$, $df = 69.79$, $p = 0.79$. This means there is no significant difference in students' knowledge of these words before the DDL and dictionary activities.

Pre-test vs Delayed Post-test

Table 1 shows no significant difference ($p = 0.78$) between the scores on the pre-test and the delayed post-test for the control items (total 10 questions per test). The items used in the DDL and dictionary methods also show no significant difference ($p = 0.34$ and $p = 0.84$ respectively). This is not surprising given that no opportunity to recycle vocabulary learning was included in the activities.

There is no significant difference between items under DDL methods and items under dictionary methods.

Pre-test vs Immediate Post-test

Table 2 shows the t-test results comparing the pre-test scores with the immediate post-test scores under the DDL and regular methods. There is a significant difference between the pre-test and immediate post-test means for the DDL method ($p = 0.0003$), but there is no significant difference for the dictionary method ($p = 0.19$).

Self-efficacy survey results

The self-efficacy survey asked students to compare their ability to perform tasks through a DDL method with their ability to perform tasks through dictionary use. Table 3 shows the results of the comparison. There is a significant difference in self-efficacy for questions 2

Table 1

Pre-test and Final Post-test Scores and The t*-test Results*

Items	Pre-test mean	Delayed Post-test mean	Paired t-test
Control	6.72	6.58	$t = 0.28$, $df = 69.49$ $p = 0.78$
DDL method items	6.08	6.52	$t = -0.95$, $df = 66.81$ $p = 0.34$
Dictionary method items	6.22	6.11	$t = 0.19$, $df = 69.83$ $p = 0.84$

Notes. df = degrees of freedom, *t* = *t*-test value

Table 2

Pre-Test and Immediate Post-test Scores and the t*-test Results*

Items	Pre-test mean	Delayed Post-test mean	Paired t-test
DDL method	6.08	7.92	$t = 3.85$, $df = 68.1$ $p = 0.0003$
Dictionary method	6.22	6.83	$t = 1.31$, $df = 62.23$ $p = 0.19$

and 5. The difference in question 2 shows that students are more likely to feel confident finding patterns under the dictionary method than DDL. The difference in question 5 shows that students are more likely to feel confident translating sentences from Japanese to English when studying under the dictionary method than DDL.

Perceptions Survey

Table 4 shows the perceptions of students towards the DDL and regular methods. There is a significant difference in perception of ease, with students finding DDL activities to be much more difficult. Similarly, students find the dictionary methods to be more useful and a better use of time. However, both types of activities are perceived as equally fun.

Analysis

What follows is an analysis of the data collected as part of the evaluation stage in Jolly and Bolitho's (2011)

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations and Paired T-test Comparing Students' Self-efficacy Toward DDL and Dictionary Methods of Learning

	M_{DDL}	SD_{DDL}	M_{dic}	SD_{dic}
1. If I know the meaning of a key word in advance I can find the meaning	73.5	22.01	77.25	20.0
		t-test, $p = 0.2$		
2. Even if I don't know the meaning of the key word in advance, I can quickly find a pattern.	55.38	20.92	66	21.3
		t-test, $p = 0.008$*		
3. I can find a pattern by collaborating with my classmates.	77.25	16.94	76.75	19.79
		t-test, $p = 0.77$		
4. I can find a pattern even without the collaboration of my classmates.	56	25.20	60.88	23.1
		t-test, $p = 0.07$		
5. I can accurately translate Japanese to English by using the key word.	54	22.74	62.25	20.06
		t-test, $p = 0.007$*		
6. I can easily write a paraphrase by referring to the concordance lines / dictionary information.	59.5	24.17	63.75	20.96
		t-test, $p = 0.07$		
7. I can score well on TOEIC Part V questions after studying concordances lines / dictionary information.	50.38	23.87	50.38	23.86
		t-test, $p = 0.07$		

Note. * = significant

Table 4

Students' Perceptions of the DDL and Dictionary Methods of Learning

	M_{DDL}	SD_{DDL}	M_{dic}	SD_{dic}
1 = easy, 10 = difficult	6.08	1.87	4.15	2.00
		t-test, $p = 0.0000016$*		
1 = useful, 10 = not useful	3.6	2.32	2.53	1.80
		t-test, $p = 0.005$*		
1 = a good use of time, 10 = a waste of time	3.38	1.69	2.73	1.45
		t-test, $p = 0.002$*		
1. 1 = fun, 10 = not fun	3.15	2.10	3.63	2.33
		t-test, $p = 0.19$		

Note. * = significant

framework.

Learning gains

No significant gain in scores for the control items is expected, because these were not studied. However, there is no significant gain in mean scores for the items studied under both dictionary and DDL methods between the pre-test and the final post-test. This is likely due to the lack of activities between weekly classes for recycling vocabulary. Furthermore, students were not required to use the words in their paragraph writing until after the final post-test.

The immediate post-test means under the DDL method show a significant gain over the pre-test. This is possibly due to the design of the activities and tests. The tests were designed to assess specifically the patterns that were made prominent in the DDL exploration and paraphrasing activities. On the other hand, the dictionary method did not require students to make hypotheses about language rules as part of the task, and students were instead provided with rules, possibly making them less salient.

Motivation

Even though students scored significantly higher with the TOEIC Part V questions on the immediate post-test under the DDL method, there was no difference in student confidence doing DDL and using dictionaries. This can probably be explained by a much higher perceived difficulty with DDL tasks. Furthermore, students feel much more confident at finding patterns when they do not know the meaning of a word under the dictionary study method (question 2 on the self-efficacy survey). This probably signals that students are comfortable in the familiar territory of the dictionary, in contrast to the unfamiliar DDL. This is supported by the observation that students are much more confident accurately translating Japanese to English after studying with the dictionary method. In the open feedback, one student wrote: "I think DDL is easy for people who understand some English, but it is difficult for people who don't". This contrasts with other comments that the pacing of 10 minutes was good, that the activity sequence helped them to think, and that this was a fresh way to study vocabulary. Given the mixed proficiencies of the students in the class, it is not surprising that some students find DDL difficult.

Discussion

Students in this research tended to find DDL difficult and not as useful as dictionary study methods. Even though they scored better on the post-test immediately after the DDL method of study, they did not feel they could do better than after studying under the dictionary method. This contradiction tentatively suggests a cognitive overload on the part of some students who found DDL much more difficult than using dictionaries. The factors that probably impacted on the perceptions of lower proficiency students are: complexity of the task; number of concordance lines; unfamiliarity of the tasks. In fact, Clarke, Howard and Early (2006) point out that when tasks become too complex, and too novel, they can have a demotivating effect. Nonetheless, students believed that they could perform better when collaborating with their classmates and when working with familiar words. This implies that the collaborative nature of the activities was a success.

Conclusion

In this report, an evaluation comparing DDL materials with dictionary-based materials showed that students unfamiliar with DDL tended to prefer the dictionary methods, even though the DDL methods had a greater impact on their test performance. Pair collaboration during the activities provided students with more confidence to do the activities, and this has room for development, such as by providing space for peer feedback and grading. In fact, by including the concordance data as part of feedback data, it might be possible to encourage students to demonstrate to each other the value of a DDL approach, and thus improve their motivations towards it. Finally, the creation of the DDL materials was time-consuming, with only immediate benefits in gains, and no long-term gains. Long-term gains could be improved by including homework tasks. The time invested could then have greater return in learning.

In sum, many DDL studies have not provided a strong description of how their materials were created, making studies difficult to compare. Furthermore, DDL studies tend to be laboratory style studies, and not suitable for the classroom. This author hopes that teachers will see the value of developing DDL activities through a materials development framework, such as Jolly and Bolitho's (2011) framework, and bring DDL into the mainstream of teaching.

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Appendix A

An example of a Data-Driven Learning worksheet.

Name..................................... Student Number............................

START 10 points

effect / effects

QUESTION 1: Translate
Try to translate this phrase into English without a dictionary: （人）の感情に影響を与える

QUESTION 2: Skim the concordance lines and answer the questions below

		effect	
1	the hobbies we do in our free time all have an	effect	on the world of business
2	the dust has an	effect	on all of us
3	the distance from the internet provider has an	effect	on the speed that you get data on your phone
4	carbon dioxide will have a negative	effect	on the temperature of the Earth
5	drinking coffee can have a positive	effect	on a person's mood
6	perhaps it's due to the terrible	effect	of the radioactive dust
7	we will also tell you about the health	effects	of dark chocolate
8	some people are worried about the harmful	effects	of information technology
9	Scientists are studying the long-term	effects	of alcohol on the brain
10	a lot of data has been collected about the	effects	of smoking.

i) There are five adjectives (形容詞) next to "effect". Write them in the box here.

ii) There are two patterns in the concordance lines. The first pattern has been written for you. Can you write the other pattern. Note that the ( ) means its an option.

1. the + (adjective) + effect(s) + of
2.

QUESTION 3: Paraphrase (言い換え). Read the following sentences. Try to paraphrase them with the word "effect". The first one has been done for you.

1. Scientists are trying to find out how caffeine influences your memory.
2. Scientists are trying to find out **the effects of caffeine on** your memory. (1の言い換え)

3. Scientists believe that caffeine can influence your memory.
4. .... (3の言い換え)

SCORE______

Appendix B

Example of a dictionary based worksheet.

Name....................................   Student Number............................

START 20 points

impact

QUESTION 1: Translate
Try to translate this phrase into English without a dictionary: 多くの人々に甚大な影響をもたらす

QUESTION 2: Read the definition of "impact"

The **impact** that something has **on** a situation, process or person is a sudden and powerful effect that it has on them.

QUESTION 3: Search for "impact" on www.tangorin.com and look at the examples.

i) Find an example where "impact" is a noun (名詞). Write it here.

ii) Find an example where "impact" is a verb (動詞). Write it here.

iii) Find an example which follows this pattern:
(have/has/having/had) + a + (adjective) + impact on
and write it here.

QUESTION 3: Paraphrase (言い換え). Read the following sentence. Try to paraphrase it with the word "impact".

1. Pollution could create a huge problem for our children.
2. .... (1の言い換え)

Appendix C: Self-efficacy Survey

When you studied concordance lines, you worked with your classmates to find patterns from some example sentences. If you tried to study with concordance lines again in the future, how confident would you be from 0 (not at all confident) to 100 (very confident) to do the following activities:

1. Find patterns if you knew the meaning of the key word in advance: _____________
2. Find patterns if you did not know the meaning of the key word in advance: _____________
3. Find patterns by collaborating with your classmates: _____________
4. Find patterns even without the help of your classmates: _____________
5. Use the key word to accurately translate a Japanese sentence into English: _____________
6. Paraphrase an English sentence by referring to the concordance lines: _____________
7. Correctly answer TOEIC part V questions after studying concordance lines: _____________

When you studied key words in a dictionary, you worked with your classmates to find patterns from some example sentences. If you tried to study with the dictionary again in the future, how confident would you be from 0 (not at all confident) to 100 (very confident) to do the following activities:

1. Find patterns if you knew the meaning of the key word in advance: _____________
2. Find patterns if you did not know the meaning of the key word in advance: _____________
3. Find patterns by collaborating with your classmates: _____________
4. Find patterns even without the help of your classmates: _____________
5. Use the key word to accurately translate a Japanese sentence into English: _____________
6. Paraphrase an English sentence by referring to the dictionary: _____________
7. Correctly answer TOEIC part V questions after studying with a dictionary: _____________

Appendix D: Perceptions survey

Studying with concordance lines was:

easy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	difficult
useful	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	not useful
a good use of time	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	a waste of time
fun	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	not fun

Studying with a dictionary was:

easy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	difficult
useful	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	not useful
a good use of time	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	a waste of time
fun	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	not fun

Benchmarking to Determine International Activities for a Nursing Program

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First, this paper describes the challenges faced by Japanese hospitals as they deal with increasing numbers of foreign patients and current efforts by Japanese nursing programs to prepare nursing students to care for these patients. It then describes a benchmarking activity undertaken to identify the range of international activities offered by Japanese nursing programs, which were then used in a market research survey with first-year nursing students to measure interest and likelihood of participating in potential programs. Finally, this data was used to create short-, mid-, and long-range programming goals for a newly created international affairs committee at a nursing university

本稿ではまず、国際患者が増える上日本の病院が直面する課題や国際患者に適切なケアができるような看護師を育成する看護系大学の取り組みを説明します。そして、看護系大学が提供する国際交流活動をベンチマーキング活動で明確し、そのデータを市場調査で諸国際交流活動に対して1年次看護学生の関心度と潜在的な活動に参加可能性を測定しました。このデータを踏まえた短期、中期、長期的なプログラミングの目標を新たに成立された国際交流委員会で使用されました。

Nursing education in Japan is not immune from recent trends in Japanese higher education to develop a global workforce, reflecting the need for skilled nurses able to participate in the international research community, contribute to international relief projects, and provide effective care to the growing number of foreign visitors and residents in Japan. When attending to the growing number of foreign patients, nurses face several linguistic and cultural challenges. Mitsubishi UFJ Research & Consulting (2012) conducted a survey of 507 Japanese hospitals examining their experience treating foreign patients. Problems stemming from a lack of foreign language proficiency among medical staff members was indicated by 93% of the hospitals, followed by a lack of multilingual signage and forms (60%), and problems with cultural differences (52%). Similar results were found by Nomura Research Institute (2016) which conducted a survey of over 2,500 hospitals asking about their handling of foreign patients during the previous year. Trouble dealing with foreign languages and cultures (including signage, forms, and meals) was indicated by 72.7% of the hospitals and the lack of doctors and nurses who could speak a foreign language was cited by 71.7%.

In 2010, the Japanese government identified medical tourism as one area of potential economic growth and began issuing visas for medical stays in July 2011. The total number of medical tourists is unknown, but according to the above surveys, makes up only 1-2% of foreign patient visits. Despite resistance from hospitals, the Japanese government is keen to increase the number of medical tourists seeking medical exams and treatment in Japan. Saito (2011) visited seven hospitals at the forefront of medical tourism and interviewed staff to identify challenges facing Japanese hospitals as they accept more foreign patients. Among the challenges he found

Porter, M. (2017). Benchmarking to determine international activities for a nursing program. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 264-272). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

were insufficient language support, particularly the lack of expert medical interpreters on call; cultural misunderstandings related to differences in hospital systems, customs, and culture; medical disputes, especially related to payment; and trouble involving Japanese patients.

Globally Minded Nursing Education

Nursing programs at higher education institutions that serve populations in multicultural societies have included coursework to help prepare future nurses to provide for patients with diverse cultural backgrounds. Leininger established the field of transcultural nursing (2001) as she developed a theory of cultural care along with accompanying research methods and clinical practices. The central purpose of transcultural nursing is the discovery and explanation of "diverse and universal culturally based care factors influencing the health, well-being, illness, or death of individuals or groups" so that "culturally congruent, safe, and meaningful care" (Leininger, 2002, p. 190) can be provided to patients of diverse or similar cultures. To help achieve this goal, nursing students today in places like the US, Canada, and Australia are expected to develop cultural competence. Cultural competence has been defined many ways, with one influential example develop by Campina-Bacote (2002), who proposed a model which "views cultural competence as the ongoing process in which the healthcare professional continuously strives to achieve the ability and availability to work effectively within the cultural context of the patient (individual, family, and community) (p. 181) by developing the interdependent constructs of cultural awareness, cultural knowledge, cultural skill and cultural desire while seeking out cultural encounters.

Beginning in 2008, Japanese nursing programs were encouraged to include coursework to help students gain broader cultural understanding, leading to the creation of *kokusai kango*, or international nursing, courses. Although Nakagoshi, Mori, Tanaka, Nomura, and Joho (2014) describe international nursing education as similar to the field of transcultural nursing, their survey of 72 international nursing programs showed that international nursing in Japan is still undefined and lacks specific learning outcomes. Kubo, Yamanouchi, and Hiruta (2016) reviewed 20 research reports on international nursing education between 2007 and 2015 and found a lack of a shared educational philosophy and learning goals, concluding that the international nursing programs reviewed were still at the trial-and-error stage and in need of a common competency model to improve international nursing education.

International Activities of Japanese Nursing Programs

As Nakagoshi, Mori, Tanaka, Nomura, and Joho (2014) point out, Japan is not a multicultural or multilingual society, which is an influential factor causing Japan to lag in its efforts to develop a standardized approach to international nursing education, this despite the growing number of international patients in Japan. Therefore, rich, multidimensional encounters with people of different cultural backgrounds must be offered to Japanese nursing students to help them develop cultural (and linguistic) competence. Although little comprehensive research exists about the international activities of nursing programs, a study by Cardenas, Nishito, Tsukinoki, and Kobayashi (2013) found that 28 of 42 member schools of the Japan Society of Private Colleges and Universities of Nursing had some kind of study abroad or foreign training opportunity for students. These opportunities were described as less than one month long by 22 schools and saw a wide range of participants, from 1 to 123, with 20-30 participants being the most common response (9 schools). They also identified challenges to establishing international activities within nursing programs, including limited human and financial resources, language barriers, lack of interest among faculty and staff, and curriculum restrictions.

Benchmarking the International Activities of Nursing Programs

The project described below was undertaken to identify the range of international activities offered to nursing department students and create a benchmark to guide the work of a newly established international affairs committee. Benchmarking in general has been defined and used in a wide variety of ways in business, industry, and, from the 1990s, higher education. Benchmarking in higher education is a methodological approach for identifying improvements and informing decision-making based on intra- and inter-organizational comparisons. Edith Cowan University defines benchmarking as the "systematic process of comparing products, services, processes and outcomes with other organisations or exemplars, for the purpose of improving outcomes by identifying, adapting and implementing best practice approaches" (as cited in Scott, n.d.). Schofield (1998) recommends seeing benchmarking in higher education on a spectrum from "the production and publication of data and performance indicators... designed for comparative analysis and use" to "process-driven quality improvement programmes" (p. 18). As Booth, Melano, Sainsbury, and Woodley (2011) show, benchmarking can be used as a "tool for continuous improvement" through projects and partnerships that provide decision-makers with useful data and evidence-based targets for improvement.

Benchmarking Methodology

Benchmarking is a systematic process that can be undertaken using a variety of methods, such as Hacker & Kleiner's (2000) 12-step method or Booth, Melano, Sainsbury, and Woodley's (2011) 9-phase process. What these and other methods have in common is their similarity to the Deming Cycle (or PDCA Cylce). The Deming Cycle consists of four phases: plan, do, check, and act. The benchmarking project begins with a planning phase in which benchmarking arrangements, targets, partners, techniques, and timeline are identified, leading to the creation of a benchmarking plan. This plan is carried out and then the results are analyzed and shared, so that a plan of action can be developed. Finally, that action plan is implemented.

Plan and Implementation

Due to the lack of international activities at our school, this benchmarking activity was conducted to provide a starting point in the process of developing successful and effective international activities for a small, women's university consisting of a single nursing faculty. The focus of the activity was to identify the variety of programs offered by nursing programs to establish what types of international activities new students might expect from their nursing institutions. This would then allow our university to consider providing programming at a level that is common to comparable nursing programs. The attributes considered when choosing benchmarking targets can be seen in Table 1. Data about international activities was gathered by examining existing programs as advertised to potential students on university websites.

In light of the school's small size and other characteristics, benchmarking targets tended to be recently established nursing universities with similar student intake and *hensachi* (a measure of a school's selectivity) and located in the same or comparably sized metropolitan areas. The attributes of the five targeted institutions and their international activities are described in Table 2.

Analysis

From the information gathered, I identified four categories of international activities: (1) those taking place in English-speaking countries, (2) those taking place in other countries, (3) field work, and (4) domestic opportunities for international exchange. The types of activities are listed in Table 3. Although no nursing programs advertised an English camp for their students, I was familiar with successful camps and decided to include it to measure student reaction.

Market research. The international activities identified in the benchmarking activity were then used in a market research survey to better understand our students' attitudes towards various programming options.

Methodology and participants. An 8-question survey about international programming was created in Japanese using Google Forms. The first question employed branching logic and separated respondents interested in international activities from those not interested. A link was shared with all 118 first-year students in Moodle at the end of the first semester and valid responses were received from 75 students

Table 1
University Attributes

Attribute	Benchmarking Target	FJGNU
Location	same or different prefecture	Fukuoka
	metropolitan or rural area	rural suburb
Organization	single faculty or nursing faculty at a comprehensive university	single faculty (nursing)
Type	public or private	private
Foundation	less than 10 years or greater than 10 years	less than 10 years
Students	coeducational or single sex	women
	intake capacity	100
Hensachi	similar or higher or lower	49

(63%). A translation of the survey can be found in the Appendix.

Results. Interest in international activities was reported by 59 respondents (79%) and interest in short-term language course abroad by 58 of those respondents (93%). Those interested in international activities were most interested in and most likely to participate in short-term programming in an English-speaking country which included tours of medical facilities. They were also highly interested in and highly likely to participate in English camps with foreign students or foreign simulated patients. Respondents were interested in medical-related training in developing countries, but less likely to participate in those activities. Conversely, respondents were less interested in lecturers by foreign guests, but were likely to participate in them.

Concerns. Over 80% of respondents preferred programming that included a homestay, and just over half desired a chaperone. Respondents also preferred traveling with classmates rather than alone. Open responses included concerns about cost and English training prior to participating in the program. Students who were not interested in international activities were almost unanimous in their lack of confidence using English. Additional reasons included not being able to see the value of international activities to their career choice and placing priority on learning in and about Japan.

Action

The final stage of the benchmarking process is made up of reporting results of the data-gathering process and making recommendations. Based on the analysis, I created three goals: a short-range goal to establish a program that meets basic expectations for an international activity conducted by a nursing university and that would have a high likelihood of succeeding; a mid-range goal of developing an English camp with foreign nursing students who would visit our school for 3-5 days, stay with students' families, and participate in a variety of friendship-building and nursing-in-English activities; and a long-range goal of helping students to build confidence using English by creating an English bulletin board with games and expressions, an English podcast, and voluntary conversation classes. I presented my analysis and recommendations to the International Affairs Committee and received approval from the committee chair to move ahead on the short-range programming proposal. Meanwhile, I began implementing my long-range goal immediately.

Short-range goal. Choosing a destination for a short-term language course can be difficult because of the large number of choices available. Making a poor choice can leave students dissatisfied and impede future programming. I choose to approach a university in Brisbane, Queensland, Australia to

Table 2
Attributes of Benchmarking Targets and Descriptions of Their International Activities

Name	*Hensachi*	**Founding**	**Capacity**	**Type**	**International Activities**
Kobe City College of Nursing	55	1996	100	Nursing / Coed / Public	Sister school in the US. Overseas study programs. Two-week program in the US limited to 10 people. Cost: 300,000-338,000 yen plus other expenses. Site visits, Nursing English, home stay, participation in nursing class.
Kyoto College of Nursing	50	2014	50	Nursing / Coed / Public	International Nursing elective course includes trip to Switzerland and Germany that includes hospital visits and practical experience.
The Japanese Red Cross Kyushu International College of Nursing	51	2001	100	Nursing / Coed / Private	International symposium with international guests. Study abroad as part of third-year International Health and Nursing course. Many sister universities, including the US, but focusing on South and Southeast Asia. Partner school in New Zealand offers Nursing English course and site visits.
St. Mary's College	51	2006	100	Nursing / Coed / Private	Three sister schools (one in the US and two in Korea). Overseas study trips to observe health care education and facilities. Overseas practical experience and training in Korea, Philippines, Thailand.
Seinan Jogakuin University	50	1994	90	Comprehensive / Women / Private	Sister schools and partnerships in a variety of English-speaking countries and Asia. Will issue credit for participating in study abroad at other schools.

Table 3
International Activities of Nursing Programs

1	**English-speaking countries**
1.1	Short-term language course (3 weeks)
1.2	Short-term language course with hospital visits (3 weeks)
1.3	Long-term language course (5 months)
1.4	Long-term language courses with hospital visits (5 months)
1.5	Completing a nursing degree abroad
2	**Other countries**
2.1	Short-term language course (3 weeks)
2.2	Short-term language course with hospital visits (3 weeks)
2.3	Long-term language course (5 months)
2.4	Long-term language courses with hospital visits (5 months)
2.5	Completing a nursing degree abroad
3	**Field work**
3.1	Health-related field work in a developing country
3.2	Non-health-related field work in a developing country
4	**Domestic opportunities for international exchange**
4.1	Guest speakers giving health-related seminars
4.2	English camp using foreign simulated patients (1 week)
4.3	English camp with foreign nursing students (1 week)

establish a two-week language course for our students with visits to health-related facilities. The program includes homestays and a bilingual chaperone from the university will accompany the students during the entire period. This university was chosen because I was already familiar with their programs from my previous position at another Japanese university where students had returned highly satisfied and more motivated. Furthermore, the university in Brisbane also has a highly ranked nursing program with a state-of-the-art simulation center, and our university had just completed construction on a new simulation center. This similarity could help create ties between our faculties in the future. The initial explanatory meeting drew 50 students and 22 students submitted applications for the program. The program begins in March 2017 and will include pre-departure training and orientation sessions.

Conclusion

Although this project only examined a handful of the over 200 nursing programs in Japan, the lack of emphasis placed on international activities was striking in comparison to non-nursing faculties in Japan. One limitation of this study is the small number of schools it examined, but these schools provided a much needed, objective starting point for administrative decision-making. The study was also limited to programming information found on websites, which can be unreliable. In the future, I hope to partner with teacher-administrators at other nursing institutions and collaborate with them to create benchmarks and find innovative ways to improve international activities for our nursing students.

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Appendix

1. Are you interested in international exchange?
   Yes (Go to question 2)
   No (Go to question 7)

2. This is a list of programming related to international exchange conducted at other universities. Rank each item on a scale of 1-4, where 1 is "not interested" and 4 is "interested".

   [Items from Table 3]

3. Next, think about your desire to participate in the programming choices. Rank each item on a scale of 1-4, where 1 is "I don't want to participate" and 4 is "I want to participate." Positive answers do not obligate you to participate in programs if they are offered in the future.

   [Items from Table 3]

4. Are you interested in short-term overseas language study courses?
   Yes (Go to question 5)
   No (Go to question 6)

5. What do you think are necessary options for a short-term overseas study course? (Multiple response)
   Chaperone
   Homestay
   Going as a group
   Going alone
   Other (enter a response)

6. Do you have any remarks for the international affairs committee?

7. Please explain why you are not interested in international activities.

Considerations for Using Images in Teacher Made Materials

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Teacher-writers creating handouts for their classrooms should be concerned with the visual elements of the document (Romney, 2006) including how they use images. This paper proposes a three category, four purpose typology of images in language learning materials. Images can be decorative, strongly or weakly supportive, or instructional. Decorative images help materials achieve impact and make materials less intimidating. Supportive images help establish context and can activate a student's schema on the topic. Instructional images require the student to use the image to complete a learning task or activity. This paper also discusses other concerns when teachers add images to their handouts and includes examples of teacher made handouts using images.

授業内で使用する配布物を作成する教師は、どのように画像を使用するかを含め、文書のビジュアル的要素に注意を払わなければならない（ロムニー，2006）。この論文では言語習得用教材における類型論において3つのカテゴリーと4つの役割が存在すると提唱する。それらは、画像は単なる装飾用である場合、教材の趣旨を強力に、あるいはやや補足している場合、そして説明用の場合である。この論文ではも教師が配布資料に画像を追加する際のその他の懸念事項についても説明します。画像を使った教師の例が含まれています。

Anything that the learner can see in the classroom, or in the act of learning, is a visual element (Corder, 1966), but beyond the physical components of the classroom, or realia imported into the classroom, the most common visual elements are images (Corder, 1966), which include drawings, illustrations, and photographs (Hill, 2003). Winn (1987) made a distinction between pictorial representations, i.e. images, and figural representations such as charts, graphs and diagrams which, while visual, the primary meaning is conveyed through the text, albeit text that has been organized visually. Because figural representations are primarily text they are not discussed here. This paper is primarily concerned with images as photographs and proposes a new typology of how images are used in language learning materials to help teachers understand how to incorporate images into self-produced materials.

Images have been used to teach language since the very beginning of language learning (Wright, 1976), although they may have been largely sketches done by the teacher on a blackboard (Corder, 1966) and not the plethora of images found in modern coursebooks. Images are in fact so ingrained into the language classroom that most teachers, and indeed learners, take them for granted (Goldstein, 2008). Furthermore, today's students expect visually rich learning materials (Brinton, 2014), overwhelmingly prefer the use of visuals in class (Ezzedine, 2011), and often have a lower opinion of materials that are not visually appealing (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). This is likely because students are accustomed to using learning materials

Romney, C. (2017). Considerations for using images in teacher made materials. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 273-282). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

that make use of images (Lai, 2010). It is therefore important that teacher-writers consider the use of images in any and all materials that they make.

Reasons for Using Images

In general, there are three main reasons to use images in language learning materials. First, one of the main benefits of images is that they help language-learning materials achieve impact. Tomlinson (1998) defines impact as, "when the learners' curiosity, interest and attention are attracted" (p. 7) and he notes that materials with an attractive presentation, specifically those that use images, are more impactful. He goes on to say that visually attractive materials with lots of images also help the learner feel at ease, and feeling at ease is beneficial for learning. Norman (2004), while not speaking of language learning materials, notes that attractive things make people feel good, and that positive emotions are a key component for any kind of learning to take place.

Secondly, images are a channel for students to activate their prior knowledge, or schema, on a subject or topic of a lesson (Brinton, 2014). It is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss the finer points of the cognitive processes of memory, but from the cognitive perspective learning is seen as connecting prior or existing knowledge (schemata) with new information to create new knowledge (Wallace, 2001) and pictures are an easy way to bring a student's existing knowledge to the forefront. While this is most often discussed in terms of the teaching of reading, images can also set the context for which the language will be presented (Wright, 1989), and can focus learning outcomes for so-called productive skills.

Finally, images provide students with agency, or choice, meaning that students are able to control how they do a language learning activity. For example, if multiple images are presented, they can choose the image that speaks most to them (Keddie, 2009). But even when presented with a single image, students can focus on a particular element or aspect of the activity that they choose. Even something as simple as changing the order of steps in an activity or only doing part of the task can engage a student. Text based activities often do not allow this type of flexibility as instructions are usually presented in a rigid and structured way. Reading must begin at the beginning of the first sentence of the first paragraph and proceed in a predictable fashion. With images, students can start at the top or the bottom or the left or the right. There are no rules. This kind of choice is seen as a key component for learner autonomy and motivation for learning (Dörnyei, 2001).

Ways Images are Used in ELT Materials

The main concern that researchers have focused on with regard to images in educational materials, including ELT materials, has been whether or not the images have a purpose and serve learning or whether not they are merely decoration (Hill, 2003; Romney & Bell, 2012; Romney, 2012; Romney & Bell, 2014; Roohani & Sharifi, 2015; Romney, 2016).

In an attempt to clarify how images function in educational materials, Levin (1981) proposed a typology for images found in textbooks. His typology, refined in 1987, proposed five functions for all kinds of graphics, both pictorial and figural, used in textbooks regardless of subject. His typology consists of: decorative, representative, organizational, interpretive, and transformative. While not speaking of language learning materials specifically, his typology has been applied to ELT coursebooks. Romney (2012) looked at three general English course books and applied a modified version of Levin's (1981) typology and was able to find example images for each of the five functions except for transformative, including a significant number of decorative images, 18%.

Hill (2003) looked at two textbooks published in 1998 and, not using Levin's typology, coded images as either decorative or useful. In his study, he found that 45% of the images were useful and 55% were decorative. Another binary study using Hill's (2003) coding was done by Roohani and Sharifi (2015) and found that around 8% of images in coursebooks they surveyed were decorative. It is important to note that neither Hill (2003) nor Roohani and Sharifi (2015) defined what they meant by useful and did not indicate how they made a determination for assigning a function to images.

Romney and Bell (2012) did a similar study with business English textbooks, again using a binary coding system similar to Hill (2003), and identified images as either decorative or instructional. Unlike Hill (2003) their rationale was that if an image had instructions to the student and/or teacher it was instructional, anything else was decorative. Using these categories, they found that 73% of the graphics in the coursebooks they investigated were decorative and only 23% were instructional. They felt, however, that the binary coding was too simple and it seemed that there was a third category between decorative and instructional. They followed up their research in 2014 with a second study that looked again at the graphics that they previously identified as decorative and assigned them a role based on Levin, Anglin, and Carney (1987) typology. In this study they were able to reduce the number of graphics coded as decorative from 73% to 25%.

A New Typology

In an advertisement for a yet to be published e-book, Jones (n.d.) proposed three categories for images in ELT materials: decorative, supporting and central. As the e-book remains unpublished, it is impossible to know exactly what she means by each category. However, based on what Jones' three-category typology might be, and the author's previous work with business English coursebooks, it is proposed that images in ELT coursebooks could be classified into three categories with four roles. Images can be decorative, supportive, both weak and strong, or instructional.

Each of the three categories in this proposed typology relates to the reasons for using images as listed above. Decorative images help learning materials achieve impact; supportive, both strong and weak, help activate schema and provide context, and instructional images provide agency.

Decorative Images

Decorative images are images that do not contribute to language learning in any direct fashion. Clark and Lyons (2011) note that decorative images are irrelevant to learning goals and outcomes. It is easy to dismiss these images as unnecessary or even distracting. However, as noted above, these images can achieve impact and put the students at ease (Tomlinson, 1998). Therefore, while not directly contributing to learning, these types of images may help attract a student's attention and perhaps motivate them to participate in learning.

Another possible reason for including decorative images in ELT coursebooks is to help them pass the "flick test" (Bell & Gower, 1998, p. 125) or the "30-second evaluation" (Byrd, 2001, p. 422). That is to say, if a teacher, when flicking through the coursebooks finds it attractive, they are more likely to adopt the book for use in class. While this may not be an ideal situation, a teacher choosing a book based on a quick impressionistic scan of the contents, does not seem unrealistic. Decorative images are most likely to be found on the textbook cover, unit or chapter introductions, as well as headers and footers. While teacher-writers creating materials for their own classrooms do not need to be concerned with other teachers performing the flick test, they should consider that students are likely to perform a similar 30-second evaluation of the materials which can influence their impressions of the usefulness of the materials.

Instructional Images

Instructional images are images that the students use to complete a learning task or activity. One of the most common instructional uses of images in language learning materials is having the students match an image to language. For example matching a list of vocabulary items to an image of the item. An example of this kind of matching exercise can be found in *Empower B1+,* Unit 6B (Doff et al., 2015). Another common example includes information gap activities where the students look at two similar, but slightly different images, and describe them to each other in order to identify the differences. An excellent example of an information gap activity can be found in Unit 16 of *Communication Spotlight Starter* (Graham-Marr, Moran, Reynolds, & McNeese, 2009).

Supportive Images

Supportive images are images that supportive the learning, but unlike instructional images, the students are not directed to use the image when completing a task, activity or exercise. Instead the image supports the learning by offering context or by providing another channel for information reception other than the text itself. For example, if students were asked to read an article describing the life and career of a Hollywood celebrity, a supportive image of the celebrity may be included along side the text. One of the main functions of a supportive image is that they offer a way for the students to activate their existing knowledge on a subject, or schema, that enables them to more deeply understand or communicate on the subject, or to place the learning task within a cultural, geographic, local, or time context.

Weak vs. Strong Supportive Images

Not all supportive images are they same in the degree to which they support learning; some are more supportive than others. For example, in *Smart Choice 1*, Unit 9 (Wilson, 2007) students are asked to read a short article about Rome and accompanying the text is a map showing the location of Rome in Italy, as well as an image of the Coliseum, the Vatican and the Forum — all discussed in the text. These images strongly support learning because they provide the student with another modality for understanding.

In contrast, weakly supportive images provide limited clarification, expansion or reiteration of the text and do not allow students to activate schema in a meaningful way. Business English coursebooks are littered with common instances. For example, the students may have to listen to an audio recording of a business meeting and in the textbook is an image of a generic meeting room with people dressed in business suits. While an image like this does provide some context to the audio recording, a business meeting, as opposed to friends chatting over coffee, the meaning that the students need to take away from the recording relates to the content of the conversation, not the location in which the conversation is happening. The image provides more information about the setting than the content and is therefore weakly supportive. An image more related to the topic of the conversation would provide more support and therefore be strongly supportive. For example, in *Business Venture 2*, (Barnard & Cady, 2009) the students are asked to listen to a business meeting whose purpose is to discuss the relative merits of three types of cars. Instead of an image of a business meeting, images of the three cars being discussed are included and are therefore strong supportive images.

Suggestions for Teacher-writers

When creating materials for their classrooms, whether they are supplements or core materials, teacher-writers should be aware of the visual elements of the document they are producing (Romney, 2006) and should take great care when choosing images. The best and most useful images are those that are instructive. These types of images are those that the student must use to accomplish the language learning task or activity. It is beyond the scope of this paper to list, let alone discuss all of the possible instructional ways that images can be used in language learning, (see Keddie (2009) and Goldstein (2008) for up-to-date lists of ideas), but a few comments can be made.

Corder (1966) notes that there is a difference between talking about images and talking with images. Talking about images, that is to say describing their contents, is by far the most common use of images in ELT materials (Romney, 2016). Talking with images on the other hand, uses images to stimulate conversation and/or to focus a discussion on a topic. This might include activities such as having the students look at an image and discuss their personal experience with the topic (Keddie, 2009), their knowledge of the topic (Goldstein, 2008), and/or their emotional reaction to the image (Wright, 1989).

If a teacher-writer wishes to include an image, but does not have a specific task or activity in mind for it, then it is best to use a strong supportive image. An image that helps the students remember or connect what they already know about the topic of the activity, or an image that helps communicate ideas or abstract information can be beneficial. Images that specifically represent the topic, for example images of common traditional Japanese cooking, might stimulate ideas and serve to help the students talk about their favorite home cooked meal.

However, teacher-writers should take care with weakly supportive and decorative images because using too many images can be a distraction (Peek, 1987; Misanchuck, 1992) and can overload a student's cognitive processes (Clarke & Lyons, 2011).

Example Teacher-writer Handouts with Images

The following examples are of supplementary handouts made to accompany the textbooks in the *English Firsthand series* (Helgesen, Brown, & Wiltshier, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c) and are shown to demonstrate how images can be used to enhance teacher made materials. Please see Romney (2015) for a description of pedagogical considerations behind creating these handouts.

Instructional

Figure 1 shows a supplementary handout used to accompany Unit 2 of *English Firsthand Success* (Helgesen et al., 2010b). The unit is on clothing and fashion and in this handout students are asked to look at eight different photographs of London street

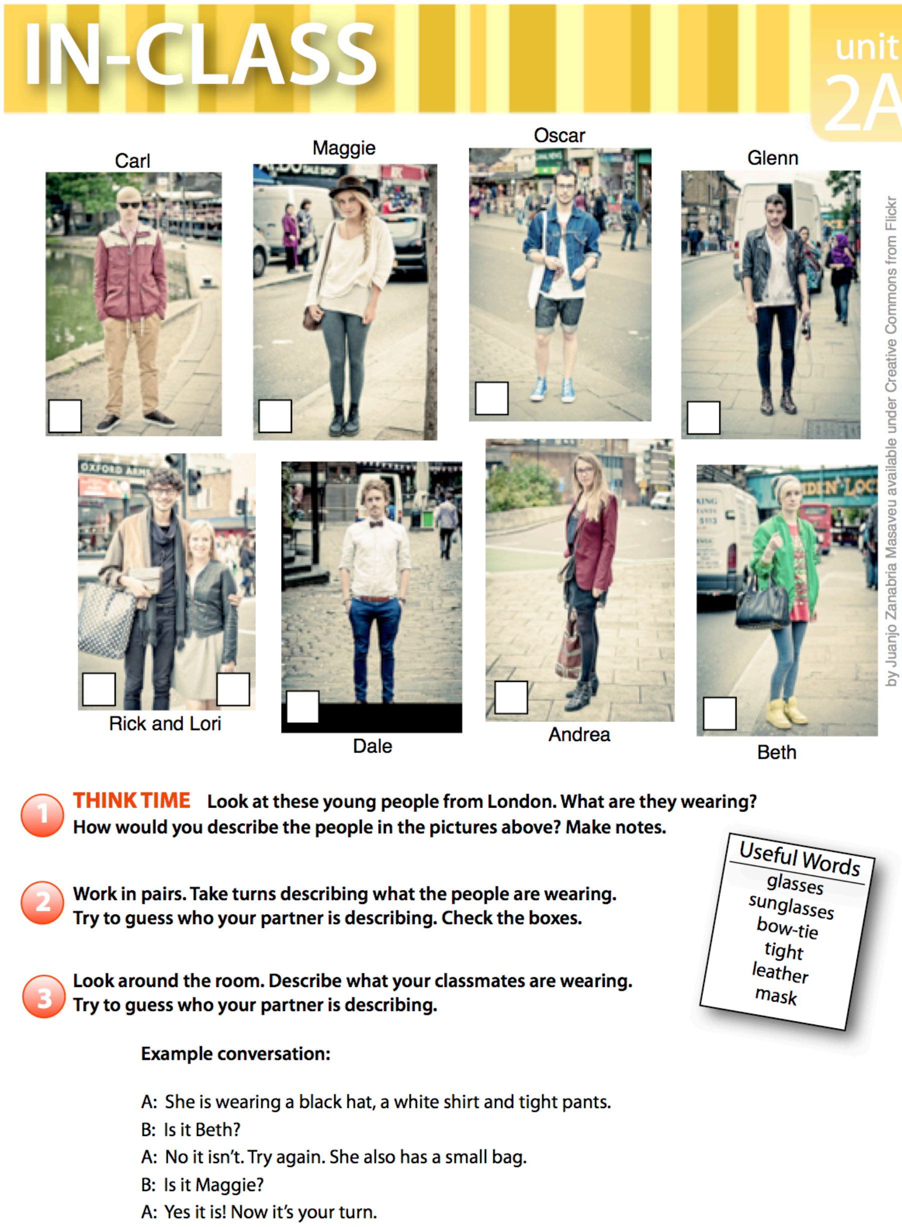
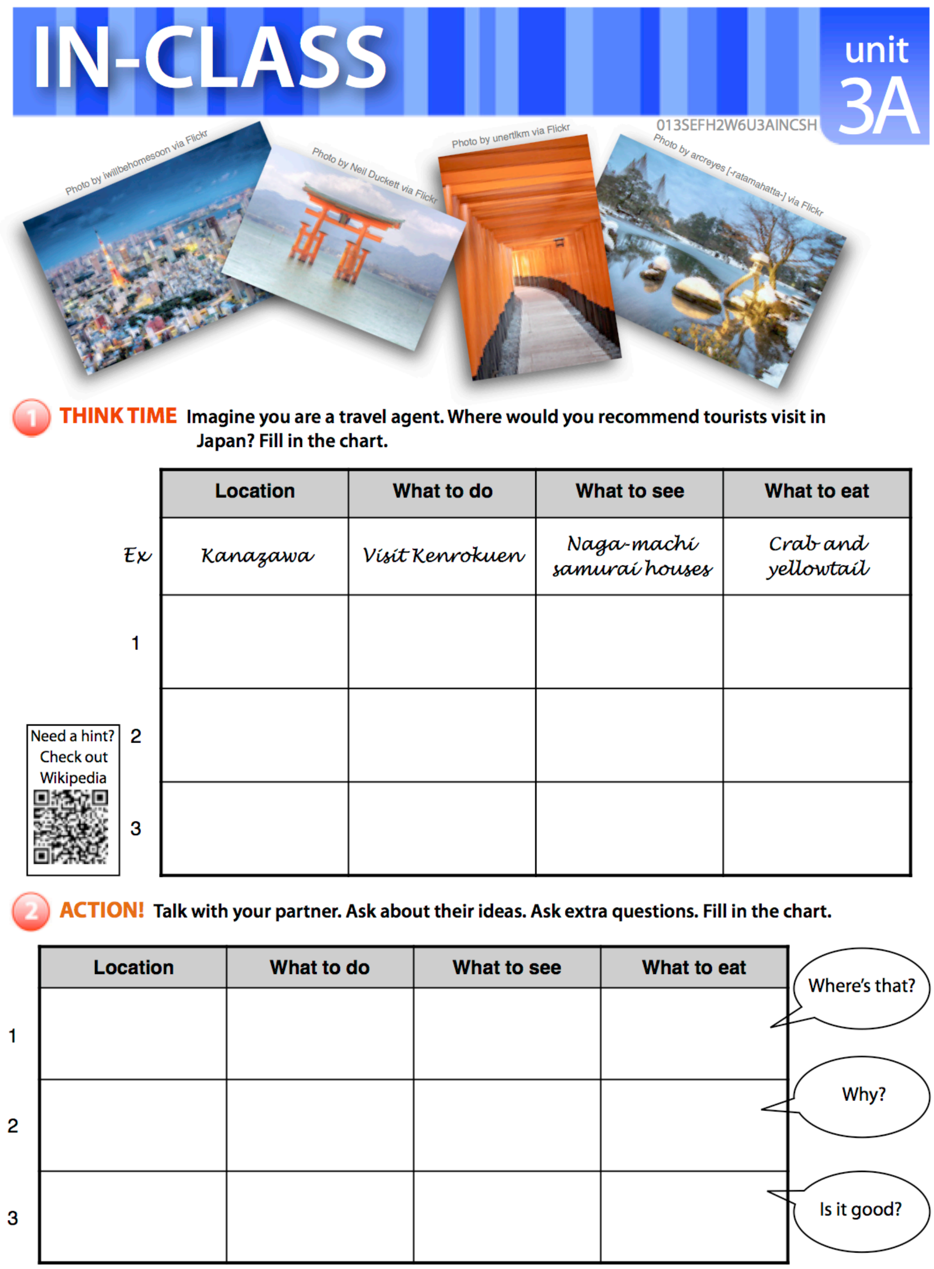


Figure 1. Handout using instructional images. Photographs by Juanjo Zanabria Masaveu, 2012, available under Creative Commons (CC BY 2.0) via flickr.com.

fashion and describe the clothing to a partner. The partner will then identify the image in question and check the box indicating that they have understood and that their partner was successful in communicating. This is an example of using images for instructional purposes and provides agency to the students to not only choose which images to describe, but also allows them to choose which elements to focus on. They could focus on only the footwear, or only jackets, etc.

Strong Supportive

Figure 2 shows a supplementary handout created to accompany Unit 3 of *English Firsthand 2* (Helgesen et al., 2010c). The theme of the unit is on travel and in this handout students are asked to come up with recommendations of places for tourists to visit in Japan. Along the top of the handout are four images of famous tourist locations in Japan and are included as examples to stimulate the students thinking and


IN-CLASS

unit 3A

013SEFH2W6U3AINCSH

Photo by iwillbehomesoon via Flickr

Photo by Neil Duckett via Flickr

Photo by unertlkm via Flickr

Photo by arcreyes [-ratamahatta-] via Flickr

1 THINK TIME Imagine you are a travel agent. Where would you recommend tourists visit in Japan? Fill in the chart.

	Location	What to do	What to see	What to eat
Ex	Kanazawa	Visit Kenrokuen	Naga-machi samurai houses	Crab and yellowtail
1				
2				
3				

Need a hint? Check out Wikipedia

2 ACTION! Talk with your partner. Ask about their ideas. Ask extra questions. Fill in the chart.

	Location	What to do	What to see	What to eat
1				
2				
3				

Figure 2. Handout using strongly supportive images. Photographs (left to right): Tokyo Blue Hour by iwillbehomesoon, 2012, (CC BY-NC-SA 2.0); Torii Gates by Neil Duckett, 2009, (CC BY-NC-SA 2.0); Torii at the Fushimi Inari Shrine by unertlkm, 2008, (CC BY-NC-ND 2.0); Blue hour at Kenrokuen by arcreyes [-ratamahatta-], 2012, (CC BY-NC-ND 2.0) available under Creative Commons via flickr.com.

activate their existing knowledge of popular tourist areas. They are strong supportive images because they are actual locations that the students could use to complete the activity.

Weakly Supportive

Figure 3 shows a supplementary handout created to accompany Unit 2 of *English Firsthand Access* (Helgesen et al., 2010a). In the unit students learn and practice basic actions and for this additional activity students first read a series of example sentences about a fictional university student in the United States and the things she can do. The students then write their own sentences and tell a partner. The handout includes a generic photograph of the university student. It weakly supports the learning as it humanizes the example sentences, but does not stimulate the student's thinking and does not help them come-up with their own ideas.

Other Considerations

Beyond the primary concern of how the image will

IN-CLASS unit 2A

1 **Look at the sentences about Madison, a university student in America.**

Photo by CollegeDegrees360 available under CreativeCommons via Flickr

1. Madison can write her name in katakana.
2. Madison can't close her bag.
3. Madison can say 'hello' in Spanish.
4. Madison can't say 'goodbye' in Korean.
5. Madison can walk 5km.
6. Madison can't draw very well.

2 **THINK TIME Now complete the sentences about you. Look at page 20, if you need a hint.**

1. I can ________________
2. I can't ________________
3. I can ________________
4. I can't ________________
5. I can ________________
6. I can't ________________

3 **SPEAKING PRACTICE Now tell your partner. Read your sentences. Write your partner's answers.**

1.My partner can ________________

2. My partner can't ________________

3. My partner can ________________

4. My partner can't ________________

5. My partner can ________________

6. My partner can't ________________

Figure 3. Handout showing a weakly supportive image. Photograph by CollegeDegrees360, 2012, available under Creative Commons (CC BY-SA 2.0) via flickr.com.

contribute to learning, there are a few other issues that teacher-writers need to be aware of. First, where to find images. It would be impossible to discuss all of the potential sources of images, as images are easy to find these days (Keddie, 2008), but teacher-writers should be aware that Google Image searches are not the only source. Dedicated image sharing sites like flickr.com and professional images sources such as iStockphoto.com are also available.

If the images are to be included into handouts that are to be printed, the images should be at least 300 dpi (dots per inch), as images with lower dpi do not have sufficient resolution to be clear and easy to discern in analogue form (Dickerson & Hillis, 2016). Images that are to be displayed electronically need only have a resolution of 72 dpi, and many images on the Internet found with Google Images are lower resolution in order to make them load quicker.

Additionally, most images are copyright. In general, teacher-writers creating materials for their own classroom use in Japan are able to use copyright images under the educational copyright exemption (Romney, 2014), but there are three important caveats. First, the teacher-writer must be using the materials at a MEXT approved, non-profit school. *Juku* and *Eikaiwa* schools do not qualify for the exemption. Secondly, the image cannot be from existing language learning materials. For example, teacher-writers cannot use scans of images from a picture dictionary, etc. Lastly, the materials created using the image can only be used in the teacher-writer's own classroom and cannot be distributed in any way. This includes writing materials for publication, including internal publication within their department or school, sharing them with colleagues, and posting them on the internet, for example on an ELT materials sharing website such as eslprintables.com. Finally, while not strictly related to copyright, images need to be attributed. Taking someone else's words or ideas without giving them credit is plagiarism, and taking someone's image without giving them credit is the same.

Conclusion

As students these days are comfortable working and learning in a highly visual world (Lai, 2010), and as they expect visually rich materials (Brinton, 2014), it is important that teacher-writers do their best to incorporate images into their materials. By understanding the purposes of how images influence learning, teacher-writers are better able to make decisions about what kind of images to use, and how to integrate them in to their materials.

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Multisensory Stories: Promoting Engagement, Motivation, and Generalization

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Stories are an important part of human history. People use stories to pass the time, communicate their emotions, connect with others, or explain events. However, some individuals cannot easily access the meaning of stories, especially those with profound and multiple learning disabilities (PMLD) and second language learners. Changing storytelling into a multisensory experience by incorporating the five senses gives students a way to understand a story and more effectively learn vocabulary. This paper describes the important elements of multisensory stories, and provides ways that educators can incorporate them into the curriculum.

物語は人間の歴史において重要な部分である。人々は物語によって感情を伝え、他人と繋がったり、事象の説明などをおこなう。しかし、最重度・重複学習障害者、及び第二カ国語学習者などの一部の個人は物語を容易に理解できない。その場合、物語を五感を取り入れた体験へと変えることにより、学習者は物語を理解し、より効果的に語彙を学ぶことができる。本論文では多感覚物語においての重要な要素について説明し、また教育者がそれをカリキュラムへと取り入れる方法を紹介している。

People love stories. Young and old alike revel in the development of plots, the anticipation of twists and turns, and the satisfying denouement of a good tale. Stories communicate emotions and values, and connect humans to one another. We tell stories to convey our happiness, sadness, or frustration with everyday events. Before writing was invented, oral stories were how time was spent and how histories were preserved:

> Storytelling is an age-old tradition that has existed since the dawn of time and in every culture. It is many things to many people. It is entertainment, a way of passing on a culture's history, or a way of teaching to both the young and old. Storytelling is art. (Lambe, 2002 as cited in Winnett, 2010)

We are exposed to stories through multiple modalities: television, movies, books, and music, among others. Whether verbal or visual, simple or complex, stories help us to connect to one another, communicate our emotions, and understand the world around us.

Yet for some, a story can be incomprehensible because the meaning of the words or pictures is inaccessible. Individuals with profound and multiple learning disabilities (PMLD) have difficulty comprehending language and thus process sounds more slowly than typically developing individuals. They do not easily understand visual representations of language such as pictures as symbols for real objects, or letters and words for verbal language (Cummings, 2015). These circumstances render traditional picture books and storybooks uninteresting or impractical. Similarly, students learning an additional language

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may not have all the tools or strategies needed to access the meaning of storybooks. If the vocabulary or grammar of a story is too difficult, or a story's plot or culture is unfamiliar, students may have difficulty relating to the story or understanding it.

One way to unlock the meaning of a story is to provide these students with alternative ways to comprehend the print and audio of a storybook. Incorporating the five senses (sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch) transforms an ordinary tale into a multisensory experience. Multisensory stories provide students with ways to access language beyond sight and sound. They give students a chance to experience language by encouraging personalization of learned language and generalization into different situations outside the classroom. This paper aims to prove the effectiveness and value of multisensory stories in a second language classroom, and to provide educators with suggestions of how to incorporate multisensory stories into their own classroom.

Storytelling in the Classroom

In the elementary school classroom, students not only engage their imagination through storytelling, but also learn appropriate communication, and acquire new vocabulary and grammar. New vocabulary or grammar is learned in context, rather than by rote memorization. Instead of learning words in lexical sets or through quizzes, students use their creativity and intellect to follow and understand a story. Their emotions become invested in the act of learning as they make sense of the story's meaning and wait to discover the ending.

Because stories and storytelling are so valuable to the development of children, they are often the core of the curriculum in elementary schools. For example, it is common for students to visit the school library where they are able to relax and enjoy "story time", sitting on a carpet surrounding an adult who fascinates with their voice and the vivid pictures of a book. Learners are able to practice the art of weaving an engaging tale with their own form of storytelling during "Show and Tell" presentation sessions. Structured storytelling programs encourage language acquisition of the L1, proving that dedicating time to reading and listening to stories is a worthwhile activity to increase students' vocabularies (Speaker, Taylor, & Kamen, 2004). In Japan, elementary school homeroom teachers may include English storytime into the curriculum, possibly asking the Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) to narrate the story. The goal may be to familiarize students with the rhythm and pronunciation of English, and while learners may enjoy the pictures and the reader's enthusiasm, the language barrier prevents them from fully understanding and engaging with the story.

In Regards to the ALT

According to the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) programme handbook (2013), in Japan, elementary school 5th and 6th graders (ages 10-12) are required to study a foreign language for at least 45 minutes each week. The goal of this time is to familiarize students with foreign languages and cultures. Typically, an Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) will visit an elementary school to help teach English to 5th and 6th grade students, anywhere from once a week, to every other month. Depending on the location, the ALT will also teach English lessons to the younger grades as well. ALTs are encouraged to play games, incorporate fun activities, and teach categories such as animals, colors, and body parts (Carter & Rose, n.d.; JET Programme, 2013).

With the presence of the foreign English teacher so infrequent, students may come to view the ALT as something of a celebrity guest. Students sometimes may not understand why the ALT has come to their school and do not know how to respond (Beal & Cook, 2003). The abundance of games in English lessons could be said to be encouraging the idea that English is entertainment, something exotic reserved for special occasions, rather than a language used for communication.

It is best for teachers to help students understand that English, like all languages, is used for expressing emotions and connecting with others and that they, too, can use it to convey their personal thoughts or preferences. Too often, students are asked to race to identify colors or body parts, or to play a game, simply to enjoy English, a situation which does not give students much opportunity to practice using language in an authentic way. Students need to learn how to use English to communicate. Through practicing various ways to articulate their thoughts through a multisensory experience, students are more likely to generalize what they learn in the language class into other areas of their lives. In the author's experience, for example, one student was taught the word "rain" through a multisensory story, then said "rain" without prompting when walking outside in the rain during a fire-drill. Learning through multiple modalities creates opportunities for learning to not only be fun, but practical and valuable.

Many elementary school teachers in Japan are not specially trained to teach English. Often, ALTs are asked to create the lessons and curriculum, even with 5th and 6th graders who use the *Hi, Friends!* textbook (Beal & Cook, 2003; Carter & Rose, n.d.; JET Programme, 2013). Team-teaching between the homeroom teacher and the ALT is also highly encouraged. Multisensory stories are an ideal activity to bring into such an environment. ALTs may have more time to create stories or sensory items, and can theoretically find books that connect with topics that students are learning in other classes. In English classes, ALTs are often already asked to read dialogues, sentences, or words aloud so that students can hear native English pronunciation. Therefore, ALTs could act as the narrators of the story, while the homeroom teacher helps with the sensory elements. In such example scenarios, with two teachers cooperating to execute a sensory story, stimuli can be incorporated more effectively while students enjoy the storytelling experience.

Multisensory Stories

Making Storytelling an Experience

Learners have many ways of intaking and processing information effectively. Educators often take this into consideration and find creative ways to present new material in a way that appeals to these learning styles. Many classrooms incorporate sight and sound using Total Physical Response (TPR), chants, or songs. Frequently, the sense of touch will be alluded to with a game of "Simon Says" or "Color Touch" where students listen to directions from the teacher, then attempt to touch the correct body part or color. These activities, while exciting and fun, arguably neglect the experience aspect. Students may touch different body parts, or different colored objects in the room, but the experiential feeling slimy sunscreen, a soft scarf, or cold water transforms learning into a novel experience.

Multisensory stories are unique in that they incorporate an extra two senses (smelling and taste), whereas strategies like TPR only include sight, sound, and touch. They were created for individuals with PMLD, to give learners tools to access the meaning and emotions of a story. Those with PMLD usually have a limited comprehension of language and sometimes have underdeveloped social skills (Whinnett, 2010). Unlike traditional picture books, multisensory ones include something to feel, something that makes a sound, or a smell. These elements encourage interaction with the story and stimulate a response from learners. Incorporating sensory items also encourages appropriate social skills, such as turn-taking and engaging with peers (Cummings, 2015).

Learning New Vocabulary

Most textbooks introduce new vocabulary in what are traditionally seen to be logical groupings, such as lexical sets (e.g. black-white-blue, mother-father-sister-brother), free associates (e.g. classroom-blackboard) or opposites (e.g. big-small, tall-short) (Nation, 2002). A learner will try to memorize "black" while studying "purple". This strategy can cause confusion, as students sometimes struggle to connect the spoken word to the correct color and then to the written word. Nation (2002) explains that when two words are strongly related and have similar features, learners have more difficulty associating each word with its correct meaning. Little to no context or background gives students little choice in strategies to make meaningful connections, leaving students with rote memorization as their only tool to learn new vocabulary.

To avoid this confusion, Nation suggests presenting words in "normal communication situations, not in contrived, language-focused activities" (p. 8). A story is an ideal communicative activity that presents new vocabulary in such an everyday manner. Students are thus able to learn new words in context, rather than simply memorizing. Further, some words in a textbook vocabulary set occur more frequently in communication than others. Students frequently learn the colors together, but "white" is more commonly used, compared to "orange" (Macalister, 2016; Nation, 2002). Higher frequency words are "core vocabulary" and "make up about 75-80% of the words we use everyday" (Parker, 2015). Focusing on higher frequency words arguably gives students more useful vocabulary.

Knowing core words such as "I," "want," "yes," or "no" gives students more power and agency in conveying and understanding messages. Core vocabulary is used across a range of situations, while lower-frequency fringe vocabulary is a larger group of words that are situation-specific. Fringe words, such as "banana", "lightning", "blue", or "plate", are used less often in conversation, but learning these encourages engagement and motivation. Multisensory stories use and emphasize core vocabulary, or the words that are used most frequently in communication, while also using some fringe words. It is argued that a mix of fringe and core vocabulary is needed as learners acquire language because core vocabulary increases communication agency while fringe vocabulary increases personalization of messages (Prentke Romich Company, 2016). While there is no single definitive list of core words, various lists have been made (Prentke Romich Company, n.d.; Zangari, 2013), and are valuable tools in helping teachers identify which vocabulary they should focus on in a story or unit.

Principles of Multisensory Stories

For use with individuals with PMLD, multisensory stories have a few principles for the format, structure, and stimuli, as well as in the way the story is read. According to these principles, the book should be 7 pages or less, use a neutral color, have one or two sentences printed on the page with no word overload and stimuli should be limited to one per page and be age appropriate. The storyteller should use an expressive voice, read sentences exactly, and present stimuli in the same way each time the story is read (Whinnett, 2010). These principles encourage active engagement and provide necessary structure for those with various learning disabilities. However, for typically developing students, these principles should serve as guidelines and less rigidity may be required.

Using Multisensory Stories in the Language Classroom

Choosing Stories and Materials

Unfortunately, few multisensory stories with corresponding manipulatives (real world objects or materials that learners can manipulate, e.g. sunscreen, a scarf) are currently available for purchase as a coordinated set. Bag Books (2016) provides stories and complementary multisensory materials, which can be useful if schools have the budget for them. However, a more convenient and less costly alternative for teachers is to adapt existing material to incorporate the principles of multisensory stories. Simple storybooks with pictures can be used, but it is best if teachers look for books with fewer words on each page. Wells (2005) also provides a few multisensory stories, available as PowerPoint presentations.

One advantage to using storybooks that are already available is that these can be connected to a topic that students are learning in a different subject, or to the time of year. If students are learning about cloud formations or weather patterns in science, *Messy Morgans Messy Weather* (Wells, 2005) is a perfect story to explore different types of weather vocabulary in English. In summer when students crave fruit and ice cream, *The Watermelon Seed* (Pizzoli, 2013) is a fun way to explore what happens to a seed that is swallowed. In Japan during marathon season or school festival preparation, when students are often exhausted from practices, *The Napping House* (Wood, 2000) is a relaxing book to calm students.

To incorporate the senses, everyday items are readily available for students to touch, smell, or taste (if appropriate to the setting). For *Sheldon Snail's Sunbathing Session* (Wells, 2005), items such as sunscreen, sunglasses, and a bag are usually easily attainable, if not already laying around in a teacher's house. A bottle or cup of lemonade still appeals to student's sight, touch, and smell, even if school rules prohibit the drinking of it. With a little imagination and a short trip to the store, teachers can have an entire set of sensory items to match a storybook.

Choosing Vocabulary

It is recommended that teachers select a few new vocabulary words (a mix of core and fringe words) in a story for students to focus on. Teacher who choose to use existing storybooks (not necessarily multisensory ones) can find guidance in core vocabulary lists online, such as those provided by Zangari (2013). Educators can use these lists to choose stories and books with a higher number of core vocabulary words. Furthermore, instead of choosing random words from the story to focus on, a core vocabulary list will help teachers to choose words that are used more frequently and will give students tools for more agency in creating meaningful communication.

Reading a Multisensory Story

When reading these stories, it is best for the narrator to read the text as is, so students can associate the phonetics of English with the letter spellings. Deviation from the written text might hinder the letter-sound or word-pronunciation association. Narrators are encouraged to read the story slowly with expression, so students can become accustomed to the rhythm and sound of English. An expressive voice will also help to engage students in the story. Finally, it is important for narrators to give students time to process the sounds and message of each page. This can be done by moving the picture in a half-circle so each person can see it, while watching students' faces to check for signs of comprehension or confusion.

For each line or sentence, it is recommended that teachers emphasize the chosen vocabulary word. They can show the corresponding item or play the corresponding audio as they say the word. After reading the sentence and connecting the new vocabulary word with the chosen sensory item, it is suggested that teachers allow students to experience the corresponding manipulative. In a classroom with many students, this can be done in rounds, where two or three students have the opportunity to experience one item, and the next set of students can experience the following item, rotating through the class so all learners interact with the story. After reading the story, teachers can complete comprehension checks to give students a chance to sense a different item than one they had experienced before, for example, asking students, "Do you want to wear the scarf or the sunscreen?"

Conclusion

Multisensory stories are a valuable tool that can be incorporated into every elementary school language classroom. They are highly motivating, communicative, and customizable. Educators can choose and match stories to content that students are currently learning, and use readily available materials. Students encounter vocabulary in context, and thus could be said to learn words that are used more frequently and follow the natural development of language. Therefore students become more effective in communicating personal thoughts or emotions. Multisensory stories build engagement and motivation, helping students to feel competent and powerful. Engagement promotes generalization of language, thus students can broaden their use of English to other spheres of their lives and use it for real communication.

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Negotiation of Meaning Through Fantasy Sports

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This paper presents survey data from an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) class using an online fantasy sports league as the primary course component. The goals of the study were to (a) determine students' perceptions regarding how effective fantasy sports were in facilitating interactive negotiation, and (b) which functions of negotiating meaning were most used. In the last class, students completed a twenty-six item, four-point Likert survey which reflected the goals of the study. Each response category was assigned a numerical value which allowed for quantified results to be obtained, thereby showing to what degree students agreed with each item or their perceived frequency of use. Responses showed that students agreed to a fairly high degree that fantasy sports facilitated negotiation of meaning. Students also responded that clarification was the most used function of negotiation of meaning, followed by comprehension and confirmation, respectively.

この論文は、ESP（＝English for Specific Purposes）クラスにおいてOnline fantasy Sports League（＝OFSL）を利用し、のちに学習者に対し実施したアンケート結果について述べている。この研究目的は、A）OFSLを利用した学習がどのように相互交渉に役立ったか、また、B）どの機能がその意味交渉で最も多く使われたか、について学習者の見解を結論づけることである。最後に行った授業で、研究目的を反映する26の質問からなるリカート法評価を実施した。これらの質問には、それぞれ4つの回答選択肢を与え、学習者がどの程度同意したかを定量化された数値に置き換え示している。この結果、学習者から、”OFSLを利用した授業が相互交渉に役立つ”という極めて高い評価が得られ、またそれには”明確化機能”が最も多く使われたと回答された。筆者は、この研究について、今後も厳密に研究と理解を続けていく必要があると述べている。

Games are ubiquitous in the L2 classroom. As Yolageldili and Arikan (2011) point out, their use extends beyond fun and entertainment, allowing learners to use language in new and exciting ways. Games provide learners with the chance to negotiate meaning and become better communicators (Lazaro & Azpilicueta, 2015). Gaudart (1999) praises simulations and role-playing games as potent techniques for L2 practice. Technological advancements have made it possible to look at games in an entirely new light. Teachers can take a product not made for language acquisition and use it for exactly that purpose.

There is almost no literature relating fantasy sports to language learning, but current technology makes it possible to implement a fantasy sports program into the L2 classroom. The purpose of this study was to connect fantasy sports to the field of L2 learning by answering the following research questions:

1. Did students perceive the fantasy sports course to be effective for interactive negotiation?
2. Which functions of negotiating meaning did students perceive to be most prevalent when engaged in fantasy sports activities?

Silsbee, S. (2017). Negotiation of meaning through fantasy sports. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 289-297). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Fantasy Sports

Online fantasy sports are simulation/role-playing games where participants assume the role of manager of a virtual team based on actual players from a given sport. Using a fantasy sports website, managers draft real players to create a team. Teams play in weekly matchups against other teams within an organized league. Team performance is evaluated depending on the real-game statistics of players in set categories (e.g. home runs, stolen bases, etc.). Statistics are tracked and calculated by the website. At the conclusion of each weekly matchup, teams are awarded one point for each category in which their team outperformed the other (wins), as well as one point for each category in which the other team performed better (losses). New matchups are scheduled and the process is repeated from scratch. Wins and losses are accumulated throughout the season, eventually crowning a league champion.

There is a growing literature examining the socialization aspect of fantasy sports. Shipman (2009) states that fantasy sports cultivate social interaction due to the direct communication needed to play the game. He explains that while the Internet has reduced much of the need for the social interaction once required before the arrival of computers, online leagues offer features which can aid face-to-face communication.

In their interviews with fantasy sports enthusiasts, Howie and Campbell (2015) found that among long-term players, heightened social interaction was a principal motivational factor for playing the game. Those findings, supported in multiple studies, show that social elements do indeed have a strong influence on the decision to engage in fantasy sports (see Ruihley & Hardin, 2011; Ruihley & Billings, 2013, Schirato, 2012).

Negotiation of Meaning

Long (1985) stresses that in order to make input comprehensible, there needs to be some kind of interactional modification. In other words, some kind of negotiation of meaning (NoM). It would therefore make sense for ESL/EFL teachers to create opportunities for students to negotiate meaning. In their study comparing how non-native speakers (NNS) comprehended English directions when given premodified input or interactionally modified input, Pica, Young, and Doughty (1987) found that comprehension was aided by repetition and confirmation of the message, and advocated a teaching approach whereby students are held more accountable for their understanding of the conveyed message. In order to promote accountability, they suggest that teachers should create tasks which facilitate checking for understanding, confirming what is being said, and asking for clarification.

Even when tasks are designed for NoM, other variables may decrease the chances of negotiation occurring. Pica and Doughty (1985) found that when a NNS interacted with another NNS, there were more instances of negotiation than when a NNS interacted with a native speaker (NS). This could be a result of the NNS assuming that the NS would understand what was being said (Rees, 1998) or simply a lack of confidence on the part of the NNS.

Methods

Participants

Participants in this study were 26 first-year Japanese male students at a university in Japan. The students were enrolled in a fifteen week English for Specific Purposes course focusing on sports-related content. The course was limited to students who participated in a sports program at the university. While levels varied, a majority of the students demonstrated low-level motivation and language ability. Students met once a week in a CALL classroom for ninety minutes, with additional time each week spent meeting in groups outside of class.

Course Overview

The central element of the course was an online fantasy baseball league. Using the Yahoo! Fantasy Baseball website (https://baseball.fantasysports.yahoo.com/), students monitored and managed their teams. In the first session, the class was divided into eight groups, with three or four students per group. As a time-saving measure, the teacher created the league, rules, and categories to be tracked. Each group was given a pre-registered Yahoo! Fantasy Baseball account along with a fully drafted fantasy team. Students were then free to modify their teams as they saw fit.

The first three weeks of classes focused on orienting students how to navigate and use the website, as well as how to play fantasy baseball in general. During this time, students also learned and practiced language skills related to NoM (Table 1).

The remaining weeks involved students managing their teams, discussing player performances, and negotiating with other team managers about possible trades. In the final class, team managers gave oral presentations about how they managed their teams and how their teams performed.

Data Collection and Instruments

Data was gathered using a modified version of the survey used by Silsbee (2016). A paper-based questionnaire translated from English into Japanese was administered during the last twenty minutes of the final class. There were 25 responses from the 26 students taking the course. The survey consisted of 26 items, 10 of which related to negotiation of meaning (Appendix). Items were adapted from the question types established by Rossett (1982) and Patton (1987).

7 of the 10 items related to NoM asked students to rate each item based on their level of agreement with the item. 3 questions asked students to rate the frequency of their use of specific negotiation functions (clarification, comprehension, and confirmation), as described in Pica's (1987) study.

A four-point Likert scale was used to measure items. Items measuring level of agreement allowed responses ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Items measuring frequency of use ranged from "never" to "a great deal."

Data Analysis

Following the analysis technique found in Silsbee (2016), raw response scores were assigned a numerical value (Table 2).

The raw score for each response was multiplied by the value assigned to that response. For example, an item with 4 "Strongly disagree/Never" responses, 16 "Disagree/Rarely" responses, 3 "Agree/A moderate amount" responses, and 2 "Strongly agree/A great deal" responses, would have an adjusted score of 53 (4x1+16x2+3x3+2x4). Once the scores were adjusted, a scale was put into place to measure degree of agreement and frequency of use (Table 3).

Table 1
Language Skills for Negotiating Meaning

Clarification	Comprehension	Confirmation
Moves by which one speaker seeks assistance in understanding the other speaker's preceding utterance through questions	Moves by which one speaker attempts to determine whether the other speaker has understood a preceding message.	Moves by which one speaker seeks confirmation of the other's preceding utterance through repetition, with rising intonation, of what was perceived to be all or part of the preceding utterance.
Ex: "Could you repeat that?" "Excuse me?" "What did you say?" "What do you mean?" "I don't understand."	Ex: "...right?" "...okay?" "Do you understand?"	Ex: A: My pitcher can't play today. B: He can't play?

From T. Pica (1987). "Second-language acquisition, social interaction, and the classroom." Applied Linguistics, 8, 3-21.

Table 2
Numerical Values for Response Choices

Response	Value
Strongly disagree/Never	1
Disagree/Rarely	2
Agree/A moderate amount	3
Strongly agree/A great deal	4

Table 3
Scale for Adjusted Scores

Score	Degree of agreement/frequency of use
80 or higher	High
70-79	Moderately high
60-69	Moderate
50-59	Moderately low
Below 50	Low

Results

Results for items measuring degree of agreement (Table 4) were fairly consistent, showing moderately high to high agreement for all but one item. Items 8, 11, and 14 all scored a high degree of agreement with scores of 81, 90, and 87, respectively. Items 2, 3, and 10 scored moderately high in agreement, with scores of 74, 74, and 78, respectively. Item 5 scored 49, representing a low degree of agreement.

For the items measuring frequency of use of specific negotiation functions (Table 5), Item 24, which asked how often students felt they negotiated to clarify meaning, scored 94. This was highest among the negotiation items, indicating that the class by and large felt they used clarification language a great deal throughout the course. Item 25, with a score of 58, showed that use of negotiation for checking comprehension was moderately low. Item 26, which received the lowest score for the negotiation items (48), signified low use of negotiation for the purpose of confirmation.

Discussion

Trends and patterns emerged from the results, which help to address the two research questions. What follows is a reconstruction of the survey items and how they relate to the research questions.

Research question 1: Did students perceive the fantasy sports course to be effective for interactive negotiation?

When talking with other students about the game, students strongly felt they asked many questions to achieve an understanding of what was being said (Item 11). Similar feelings were reported when asked if other students engaged in the same manner (Item 14). These questions mirror each other, with Item 11 addressing the role of listener and Item 14 as speaker. The fact that these two items scored similarly makes sense and strengthens their response reliability. If students felt they were asking a lot of questions, then it seems logical that they would be hearing a lot of questions as well. The same argument can be made for the items asking about comprehension checks (Items 2 and 10). Here, students agreed to a moderately high degree that they checked to make sure the listener understood their message. They also felt other students reciprocated this behavior.

Early in the course, students had many opportunities to practice language and skills which would help them to negotiate meaning. This might be the reason why students strongly agreed to Item 8. Although students responded that they had learned the phrases and skills, it does not necessarily mean they were capable of using them. Direct teaching of NoM, as pointed out by Sato (2005), might raise awareness, but does not guarantee that students will engage in such interaction. This could explain why students scored moderately high in agreement rather than high when asked if they can use English better now to help them understand what someone is saying (Item 3). The students may have felt they “learned” the language and skills for negotiated interaction, but still lack the confidence to use them.

Bower and Kawaguchi (2011) found that students are more likely to negotiate meaning in order solve communication problems than they are to correct mistakes. Factors such as not catching the error, a

Table 4
Results for Items Measuring Degree of Agreement

Item	M	SD	Adjusted Score	1	2	3	4
11) When playing fantasy baseball, I had to ask other students many questions to understand what they were saying.	3.60	.81	90	4%	8%	12%	76%
14) There were many instances where the person I was talking to had to ask me questions because he could not understand what I was saying	3.48	.77	87	4%	4%	32%	60%
8) I learned English phrases and skills that help me to understand someone if I am having problems.	3.24	.72	81	0%	16%	44%	40%
10) When playing fantasy baseball, I often checked to make sure the other person understood what I was saying.	3.00	.91	78	8%	16%	44%	32%
2) When playing fantasy baseball, the person I was talking to would check to make sure I knew what he was saying.	2.96	.97	74	12%	12%	44%	32%
3) I can use English better now to help me understand what someone is saying.	2.96	.73	74	0%	28%	48%	24%
5) I used the phrases I learned in class if I thought another student had made an English mistake.	1.96	.73	49	28%	48%	24%	0%

Table 5
Results for Items Measuring Frequency of Use

Item	M	SD	Adjusted Score	1	2	3	4
24) How often did you use these phrases: "What did you say?" "Could you repeat that?" "Excuse me?" "What do you mean?" "I don't understand."	3.76	.52	94	0%	4%	16%	80%
25) How often did you check to see if the person you were talking to understood what you were saying?	2.32	.80	58	12%	52%	28%	8%
26) How often did you repeat what someone had said to check if your understanding was correct?	1.92	.81	48	36%	36%	28%	0%

reluctance to correct another student, or as Kotter (2003) suggests, not wanting to appear too proficient, may have affected student performance when it came time to correct errors, thus resulting in a low degree of agreement to Item 5.

With the exception of Item 5, all items in this group scored either moderately high or high in agreement. This falls in line with Porter's (1986) findings that interactive negotiation is high between NNS because the lower quality of input requires more negotiation.

Research question 2: Which functions of negotiating meaning did students perceive to be most prevalent when engaged in fantasy sports activities?

It is not surprising that the frequency of use for clarification items (Item 24) was reported as high. Clarification language, or "classroom English," is frequently taught to students. Such phrases can be found in the back of most textbooks, and they are fairly simple to remember and use.

Negotiating for comprehension (Item 25) was reported as being moderately low. Although the language forms themselves are easy, using them might prove a bit more difficult for the low-level learners in this study.

Confirmation use (Item 26) was reported as low. As mentioned earlier, most interactive negotiation by NNS focuses on communication difficulties rather than error correction. However, like comprehension, even when error correction is not the reason for using confirmation skills, the complex nature of their use may be above the skill level of the students.

Conclusion

Fantasy sports both need and promote social interaction. Although not designed for L2 learning, current technology allows for their implementation into the L2 classroom. The inherent nature of the game allows for interactive negotiation. The data from this study shows that students agreed to a fairly high degree that a fantasy sports league can be an effective technique for interactive negotiation. Further data shows that students believed that NoM was most often achieved by means of clarification, followed by comprehension and confirmation functions, respectively.

Limitations

Since Likert Scale data offers only absolute response choices, the true feelings of students, which fall within a much wider spectrum are not truly represented. Additionally, student responses may be influenced by how students think the teacher wants them to respond. Finally, there is the possibility that responses were inaccurate due to the respondents' inflated perceptions of self-efficacy.

Future Considerations

This study was solely meant to collect and analyze students' perceptions regarding their use of NoM within a fantasy sports course. Further study could analyze the tasks students were asked to do and evaluate them in terms of existing literature. Focusing on how students improved in their ability to negotiate meaning is another area that deserves attention.

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Appendix

English Version of Student Response Survey

Question	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Agree 3	Strongly agree 4
1) I enjoyed playing fantasy sports.				
2) When playing fantasy baseball, the person I was talking to would check to make sure I knew what he was saying.				
3) I can use English better now to help me understand what someone is saying.				
4) I did not like fantasy baseball because it was too difficult to learn.				
5) I used the phrases I learned in class if I thought another student had made an English mistake.				
6) The teacher helped me if I didn't understand something about the game.				
7) I think the teacher enjoys fantasy sports.				
8) I learned English phrases and skills that help me to understand someone if I am having problems.				
9) I felt a fellowship with my co-managers.				
10) When playing fantasy baseball, I often checked to make sure the other person understood what I was saying.				
11) When playing fantasy baseball, I had to ask other students many questions to understand what they were saying.				
12) Fantasy sports gave me many chances to talk to other students.				
13) I would like to take another English class which uses fantasy sports.				
14) There were many instances where the person I was talking to had to ask me questions because he could not understand what I was saying.				
15) I would like to play a different fantasy sport (e.g. soccer, basketball, etc.).				
16) The website was convenient to use for playing the game.				
17) It would be too difficult to play a fantasy sport without the Internet.				
18) Fantasy sports is a good way to learn English vocabulary				
19) Given a choice between playing fantasy sports and using a textbook, I would choose fantasy sports.				
20) There were times when I needed to talk to a specific person.				
21) The English I used when playing fantasy sports can be used in other situations.				
22) I feel more confident in my ability to play fantasy sports now than when I started.				
23) Playing fantasy sports improved my attitude toward studying English.				

Question	Never 1	Rarely 2	Moderate amount 3	A great deal 4
24) How often did you use these phrases?: "What did you say?" "Could you repeat that?" "Excuse me?" "What do you mean?" "I don't understand."				
25) How often did you check to see if the person you were talking to understood what you were saying?				
26) How often did you repeat what someone had said to check if your understanding was correct?				

Measuring 1st and 2nd Year Student High Frequency Word Knowledge

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First and 2nd-year low and high proficiency university students (n=199) were given an English-to-Japanese translation test of 20 loanwords and 20 non-loanwords. Items were randomly selected from each of the university's 1st and 2nd-year second semester compulsory vocabulary lists; for a total of 80 tested items. All 40 of the tested words in the 1st-year second semester wordlist are from the 1K level of the JACET8000 word frequency list; all 40 of the tested words in the 2nd-year second semester wordlist are from the 2K level of the JACET8000. In addition to testing the words studied during the school year 2015 to 2016, the second year students were tested on the words studied in their first year. First-year students' knowledge of words they would encounter the following year was also measured. Overall, students were able to provide at least one correct translation for 44 of the 80 tested items (55%). First-year students scored higher on the 1st-year words than the 2nd-year students, and vice versa for the second year words. However, the only statistically significant difference was between the 1st- and 2nd-year low-proficiency students, and only on the 2nd-year words.

初級及び上級レベルの英語運用能力を有する大学1・2年生（n=199）を対象に、英単語の和訳テストを行った。採り上げた英単語は、対象者の大学において必須語彙リストから無作為に抽出した。1年生と2年生のリストから40語ずつ（それぞれ借入語と非借入語を20語ずつ）計80語抽出した。1年生のリストはJACET8000のK1レベル、2年生のリストはK2レベルである。これらの語彙リストは2015年度版のものである。2年生にとっては、昨年度に学習した語彙を含む。1年生にとっては、来年度に学ぶ語彙を含む。概して、学生たちは80単語中44単語(55%)について少なくとも1つは正しい日本語訳を示した。1年生は、1年次で学ぶ英単語に関しては2年生よりも良い成績を示した。同様に2年生は、2年次で学ぶ英単語について1年生より良い成績を示した。しかしながら、習熟度の低い1年生と2年生との間で、2年次の英単語に関してだけは結果に大きな差異があった。

Leading vocabulary researchers agree that meaning recall L2 to L1 translation tests are an acceptable method of assessing the most important component of vocabulary knowledge, the form-meaning connection (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004; Nation, 2001; Nation & Webb, 2011; Schmitt, 2010). Furthermore, translation ability from L2 to L1 has been identified as a strong indicator of which words students can actually understand while reading (Waring & Takaki, 2003). Translation tests are recognized as a valid, reliable method of assessing students' demonstrable vocabulary knowledge. Such tests are often used as a criterion measure to check the reliability of Yes-No test results. According to Eyckmans (2004) "asking participants to provide mother-tongue equivalents of the target language words was the most univocal way of verifying recognition" (on a prior Yes-No

Stubbe, R., & Nakashima, K. (2017). Measuring 1st and 2nd year student high frequency word knowledge. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 298-305). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

test; Eyckmans, 2004, p. 77). In a series of studies involving beginner to advanced level students, Eyckmans (2004) reported translation test (Dutch to French) means ranging from 46.5% through 59.4%. Half of the items in these translation tested were low (3K and 4K) frequency level words. Laufer and Goldstein (2004) reported passive recall (L2 to L1 translation test) means averaging 54.1% for 30 words each from the 2K, 3K and 5K levels as well as 30 from the Academic Wordlist (Coxhead, 2000). Studying loanwords and non-loanwords across all eight levels of the JACET8000 (JACET Basic Word Revision Committee, 2003) with beginner to intermediate level students, Stubbe and Hoke (2014) reported translation test scores of 28.6%. At least 50% of the items tested in these studies were low-frequency (3K + level) words. This study aims to measure beginner to low-intermediate students' translation ability of high frequency, 1K and 2K words English words, at least half of which the participants had already studied at this university.

The aim of this study is to measure and compare 1st-year and 2nd-year university students' translation ability of solely high frequency (1K and 2K) words.

Methodology

Participants and Class English Proficiency Levels

A convenience sampling of eight classes taught by the writers and other English teachers at this institution was used in this study. The participants (n = 200) were all 1st and 2nd- year university students enrolled in mandatory English classes. In addition to testing the 40 words studied during the second semester of the 2015-16 school year, the second year students (n = 91) were tested on 40 words studied in their first year to measure retention. First-year students' (n = 109) knowledge of words they would be encountering in their 2nd year was also measured. Thus roughly 54% of students were tested on 40 words that they had yet to study at this university. One 2nd-year student had a translation score more than two standard deviations (*SD*) below the test mean and so his results were deleted from the data as an extreme outlier, as suggested in De Veaux, Velleman, and Bock (2008), leaving 199 participants (109 1st-year students and 90 2nd-year students).

Classes with two levels of English proficiency took the translation test: low-level classes, where all students had scores equivalent to TOEIC Bridge scores below 100 on their most recent KSU Listening and Reading test; and high-level classes, where all students had scores equivalent to TOEIC Bridge scores above 119 on their most recent KSU Listening and Reading test. Mid-level classes, with scores between 101 and 119, were not available for testing. In total there were 97 low-level class students and 102 high-level class students. Breaking the participants down by year and proficiency level yielded 56 Low - 1st year, 41 Low - 2nd year, 53 High - 1st year, and 49 High - 2nd year students.

Test Preparation and Coding

An English to Japanese translation (L2 to L1) test of 80 high English frequency items was prepared. Twenty loanwords (LWs) and 20 non-loanwords (NLWs) were randomly selected from each of the two compulsory vocabulary wordlists of Kyushu Sangyo University (KSU). An equal number of LWs and NLWs were selected because Daulton (2008) reports that about 50% of the most frequent 3000 words in English are LWs. All English instructors are expected to teach 10 lists of 40 assigned words over 10 weeks each semester, for a total of 1600 word over the two years. Each week students are required to enter each of the 40 assigned words in their vocabulary notebook and teachers are expected to quiz the students on 15 of these 40 words in the following class.

For the present study the 40 items selected from the 1st-year wordlist were all 1K words, and the 40 items selected from the second year wordlist were all 2K, according to the JACET 8000 frequency levels. In the translation test each item was presented as an individual word, without context. For each of the 80 tested items participants were requested to provide two different meanings in Japanese, if possible. Two blank lines followed each of the tested items, one for each meaning, for example: "trust __________ __________". This was done in order to allow students to demonstrate that they do know a correct meaning for the tested item even when an incorrect meaning is the first to be recalled, as often happens with loanwords. Some of the items had only one meaning, but these were also followed by two blanks, so as to not alert the participants of the single meaning. Following the second blank line, the following five bubbles appear: 0 1 2 J B. Students were instructed not to mark these bubbles. They were included to allow for coding by the test markers, as follows: 0 represents one answer only which was incorrect; 1 represents one correct translation; 2 represents two correct translations; J represents a loanword error where the Japanese usage is not found in English; and, B represents both translations are incorrect. As this study is concerned with measuring student word knowledge, i.e. determining whether a correct translation is known, all 2s (2 correct translations; see Table 1) were tabulated then recoded as 1s (one correct translation) prior to analysis. Regrettably, this translation test was created too late in the semester to pre-test student knowledge of the 80 tested words.

Testing and Marking Procedure

The translation test was taken during regular class time and took students about 15 minutes to complete. It was a pen and paper test completed individually, without any aids (textbooks, dictionaries, etc.) Testing took place during December 2015 to January 2016. Test forms were subsequently marked manually by one of the authors. Prior to this marking, 37 of the 199 test form (18.6%) were randomly culled then copied. These 37 (a randomly selected number between 20 and 40, 10%-20%) copies were also marked by a different KSU English instructor. This was done to assess the reliability of the ratings by the primary marker. This percentage is larger than the 10% *remark rate* reported in Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt (2012). Interrater agreement between the two raters was found to be high at 94%.

Results

After presenting the raw results, descriptive statistics for the translation test will be presented, followed by a comparison of LW and NLW results, as well as a breakdown of results by 1st-year versus 2nd-year students. Finally translation test results will be broken down by student English proficiency level (low versus high) and student year, item LW status and wordlist year. Table 1 presents the raw results of the translation test for the 199 test-takers on the 80 tested words. In 46.7% of reports student provided one correct translation, and in 8.4% two correct translations were given. Blanks, or no translation provided for the word, accounted for 27.3% of total reports. Loanword errors (coded J), resulting from usages in Japanese not

Table 1

Translation Test Raw Results

Code	Reports	Percentages
1	7441	46.7%
2	1333	8.4%
0	2401	15.1%
J	310	1.9%
B	94	0.6%
Blanks	4341	27.3%
Total (199 X 80)	15920	100%

Note: n = 199, k = 80 items; 1 represents one correct translation; 2 represents two correct translations; 0 represents one answer only which was incorrect; J represents a loanword error where the Japanese usage is not found in English; B represents both translations are incorrect; and Blank represents no answer given.

found in English, accounted for 1.9% of reports. Both translations were found to be incorrect (coded B) occurred with only 0.6% of reports.

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics for the translation test. For these statistics the single and double correct answers were combined (2 re-coded as 1) and all Js, Bs and Blanks were combined with the incorrect translations (all re-coded to 0). Overall, students were able to provide at least one correct translation for 44 of the total 80 items (55%). With scores ranging from 8 through 72, the amount of variance is high. Consequently, the *SD* rate of 21% is considerably higher than the 10.4% rate found in Eyckman's study (2004, p. 81). The reliability (Cronbach's alpha) is also high at 0.96.

Table 3 presents the scores for the 40 loanwords (LWs) versus the 40 non-loanwords (NLWs). As expected, student knowledge of LWs was better than NLWs with means of 23.5 and 20.6, respectively. A *t*-test revealed that the difference was statistically significant (t = 9.95, df = 198, p < .001). An effect size test found a medium-small effect (d = .33; Cohen, 1988 suggests that an effect size of .2 is small and .5 is medium).

Table 4 presents the results broken down by wordlist. The 1st-year wordlist had a mean of 27.1 (67.7% of the 40 items), while the second-year wordlist had a much smaller mean at 16.92 (42.3%). Remembering that the 1st-year students (who made up 54% of the 199 test-takers) had yet to encounter the second-year wordlist, this drop in mean score is not surprising. As the difference in means was much larger than with the LWs versus NLWs, a *t*-test was deemed unnecessary. The effect size of 1.16 supported this decision (an effect size of 0.8 was deemed large by Cohen, 1988).

Table 5 breaks down the results by student year. The 1st-year students' mean of 42.8 (of 80) is not significantly less than the 2nd-year students' mean of 45.6 (t = 1.14, df = 196, p = .25). An effect size test found a very small effect (d = .16), confirming that the difference between the means of the 1st and 2nd-year students was not statistically significant.

As mentioned above, two proficiency levels of students participated in this study. Table 6 presents the scores for the 1st-year and 2nd-year low-level students and high-level students. The tested items have also been broken down by loanword status, and wordlist (1st or 2nd-year). Perhaps surprisingly, the 1st-year NLWs had a higher score than the 1st-year LWs

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics: Translation Test Results (n = 199, k = 80)

Statistic	Translation Test	Percentage
Mean	44.09	55.1%
SD	16.85	21.1%
Low-High	8-72	
Reliability	.96	

Note: *SD* = standard deviation; reliability = Cronbach's alpha; the "2" code from Table 1 was recoded as "1" and the codes "J" "B" and "BLANK" were recoded to "0" to allow for this analysis.

Table 3
LW Versus NLW Results

	LWs	NLWs
Mean	23.5	20.6
Percentage	58.7%	51.5%
SD	8.1	9.3

Note: k = 40 items per wordlist

Table 4

First Year Wordlist Versus 2nd-Year Wordlist Results

	1st-Year Wordlist	2nd-Year Wordlist
Mean	27.1	16.9
Percentage	67.7%	42.3%
SD	9.0	8.6

Note: k = 40 items per wordlist

Table 5

First Year Student Versus 2nd-Year Student Results

	1st-Year Students	2nd-Year Students
Mean	42.8	45.6
Percentage	53.5%	57.0%
SD	16.6	17.4

Note: k = 80 items per wordlist

for both the 1st-year and 2nd-year high-level students. With all other LW-NLW comparisons the LWs scored higher. Compared to the high-level 1st-year students, the high-level 2nd-year students retained their knowledge of the 1st-year LWs and NLWs reasonably well. The same can be said for the low-level 2nd-year retention of the 1st-year LWs, but not for the NLWs.

A one-way ANOVA determined that there were significant differences between the means reported in Table 5 (F (15, 780) = 112.7, p < .001). Post hoc analysis was conducted using a series of t-tests (see Table 7) to determine if significant differences existed between the 1st and 2nd-year low-level students, as well as for the high-level students, for any of the 8 item categories listed in Table 5. A Bonferroni adjustment for these t-tests changed the alpha significance level from .05 to .006 (.05 / 8). Only with the low-level students and only on the 2nd-year LWs and especially the 2nd-year NLWs means were the t-test results statistically significant (p = .004 and .002, respectively).

Conclusion

This study utilized an L2 to L1 translation test to measure student knowledge of high-frequency English words. Fifty percent of the tested items were from the 1K level of the JACET8000, the other 40 were from the 2K level. Two groups of university students participated: low-level English learners and high-level learners. Each group was comprised of 1st-year and 2nd-year students. Whereas the 1st-years had only studied 50% of the tested items at this university (40 items), the 2nd-years had studied all 80 items.

Overall students (n = 198) were able to produce a correct translation for 55% of the tested words. Perhaps not surprisingly, loanwords were better known than non-loanwords (m = 23.5 versus 20.6 of the 40 items). As all test-takers had studied the 1st-year wordlist, while only 45% had studied the 2nd-year list, the former wordlist was much better known than the latter (m = 27.1 versus 16.8 of the 40 items each, respectively).

In a final analysis, each wordlist was broken-down into loanword and non-loanword scores for the 1st-year versus the 2nd-year students. As would be expected, the 1st-year students out-performed the 2nd-Year students on the 1st-year wordlist items. However, the differences were not significant, which suggests that the 2nd-year high-level student retained their knowledge of the 1st-year LWs and NLWs quite well. The low-level 2nd-year students also seem to have retained their knowledge of the 1st Year NWs, but the same cannot be said of the

Table 6

Translation Test Results by Student Level and Year, and Item LW Status and Wordlist Year

Student Level - Year	N size	1Yr LWs	1Yr NLWs	2Yr LWs	2Yr NLWs
Low - 1st Yr	56	10.9	10.0	5.6	2.8
Low - 2nd Yr	41	10.6	8.9	7.7	4.6
High - 1st Yr	53	16.7	17.4	12.4	10.6
High - 2nd Yr	49	16.2	17.0	13.5	10.8

Note: 1Yr LWs denotes the 20 LWs from the 1st-yearr wordlist, 2 Yr NLWs denotes the 20 NLWs from the 2nd-year wordlist.

Table 7

t-tests of the Differences Between 1st-Year Student and 2nd-Year Student Results by Proficiency Level and Item Category

Student Level - Item Category	Difference Between the 1st and 2nd-Year Student Means	*t*-statistics	Significance	*d*
Low - 1LW	0.3	$t = 0.47, df = 85, p = .64$	NS	.10
Low - 1NLW	1.1	$t = 1.04, df = 76, p = .30$	NS	.21
Low - 2LW	2.1	$t = 2.96, df = 71, p = .004$	SIG	.63
Low - 2NLW	1.8	$t = 3.27, df = 73, p = .002$	SIG	.71
High - 1LW	0.5	$t = 1.14, df = 99, p = .26$	NS	.21
High - 1NLW	0.4	$t = 0.67, df = 93, p = .51$	NS	.16
High - 2LW	1.1	$t = 2.02, df = 99, p = .05$	NS	.41
High - 2NLW	0.2	$t = 0.38, df = 89, p = .74$	NS	.07

Note: 1LW denotes 1st-year wordlist LWs, 2NLW denotes 2nd-year wordlist NLWs; NS denotes not significant, SIG denotes statistical significant; d denotes Cohen's d; a 2 sample *t*-test, assuming unequal variance, was used for each test; significance alpha was set at .006 following a Bonferroni adjustment (.05 / 8).

1st-year NLWs.

Contrary to expectations, the 1st-year NLWs were better known than the 1st-year LWs by both years' high-level students, but not the low-level students. As for the 2nd-year wordlist, the 2nd-year high-level students scored only slightly (and not significantly) better than the high-level 1st-year students who had yet to study the 2nd-year wordlist at this university. This may suggest that the 2nd-year high-level students require greater motivation concerning their vocabulary acquisition. Also contrary to expectations, the only significant improvement was with the low-level 2nd-year students who scored considerably higher on the 2nd-year LWs and especially the 2nd-year NLWs than their 1st-year counterparts. However, as the 1st-years scored only 5.6 and 2.8 out of 20 for the 2nd-year LWs and NLWs, respectively (Table 5), significant gains on these low scores might be expected. The 2nd-year student scores of 7.7 and 4.6 out of 20 for these LWs and NLWs, though better than the 1st-year student scores, are not impressive.

Limitations and Future Research

As mentioned, the translation test for this study was created too late to allow for a pre-test before commencing the vocabulary programs, so actual learning could not be measured. Future research should include a translation pre-test of the tested items, taken before the first week of vocabulary instruction, to allow for measurement of the gains made by both these groups of students. Future research should also investigate ways of better motivating 2nd-year English classes to learn the 2nd-year wordlist.

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Appendix

Tested items and wordlists

Item	Wordlist	Item	Wordlist	Item	Wordlist	Item	Wordlist
ball	1LW	afraid	1NLW	chief	2LW	afford	2NLW
contact	1LW	as	1NLW	credit	2LW	belong	2NLW
cost	1LW	because	1NLW	defense	2LW	blow	2NLW
energy	1LW	begin	1NLW	department	2LW	east	2NLW
finish	1LW	build	1NLW	desk	2LW	fund	2NLW
letter	1LW	by	1NLW	direct	2LW	further	2NLW
major	1LW	deep	1NLW	duty	2LW	hang	2NLW
mistake	1LW	heat	1NLW	extra	2LW	hide	2NLW
national	1LW	keep	1NLW	fresh	2LW	knee	2NLW
phone	1LW	know	1NLW	income	2LW	length	2NLW
pound	1LW	meal	1NLW	mail	2LW	lovely	2NLW
private	1LW	nearly	1NLW	marriage	2LW	mostly	2NLW
quality	1LW	often	1NLW	medical	2LW	none	2NLW
round	1LW	once	1NLW	partner	2LW	pour	2NLW
series	1LW	or	1NLW	physical	2LW	row	2NLW
station	1LW	teach	1NLW	score	2LW	salt	2NLW
study	1LW	to	1NLW	section	2LW	settle	2NLW
subject	1LW	true	1NLW	security	2LW	shoe	2NLW
take	1LW	well	1NLW	sugar	2LW	smoke	2NLW
training	1LW	with	1NLW	text	2LW	unless	2NLW

Note: 1LW denotes 1st year loanword; 1NLW denotes 1st year non-loanword; 2LW denotes 2nd year loanword; 2N+W denotes 2nd year non-loanword

Foreign Language Output and Tasks in Synchronous Computer-Mediated-Communication

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This issue of whether or not the language used in synchronous computer-mediated communication resembles that of spoken language has been a subject of debate, and study results have differing variables, such as task types, which have not been considered in results comparisons. The present study compared the language outcome of three different cognitive tasks: interview, narration, and decision-making. The results revealed that the total number of words used was significantly higher in chat room than in face-to-face tasks. However, there were no significant differences in lexical diversity. With regard to the level of words, more complex words were used in the chat room narration task compared to other tasks.

SCMC（コンピューターを媒介にした瞬時性のコミュニケーション）では話し言葉と類似しているかという議論がされてきた。研究結果も様々で、要因としてタスクタイプが考慮されていないことがあげられる。本研究は認知負荷の違う3つのタスク、インタビュー、ナレーション、意思決定(Foster & Skehan,1996)による産出言語の結果を比較する。産出言語量については、対面活動と比較した場合チャットの方が顕著に多いことが明らかになった。語彙の多様性には差がみられなかったが、語彙のレベルはチャットにおけるナレーションタスクが他のタスクタイプに比べて高いことがわかった。

Computer-mediated communication (CMC), which involves using computers as the medium of communication, has shown great potential for use in foreign language-learning classrooms (Salaberry, 2000), and there are two different types of CMC: synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) and asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ASCMC). SCMC takes place in real time, such as in chat rooms, while ASCMC, which uses tools such as e-mail, involves time delays. The present study analyzed the text from three different tasks carried out in SCMC and in face-to-face communication, with the aim of identifying the differences and similarities between the performance of second-language (L2) learners in face-to-face and chat room environments by examining the total number of words produced and their lexical diversity.

The results of previous studies have shown that interactions using SCMC, particularly chat room conversations, resemble face-to-face interactions in terms of the standard features of spoken language. Studies of chat rooms have focused on linguistic competence (Blake, 2000; Pellettieri, 2000; Sotillo, 2000; Warschauer, 1996) and patterns in interactions and discourse markers (Lee, 2002; Smith, 2003). However, as chat room exchanges are based on the written form, written features, such as high accuracy compared to oral speaking tasks, are also emphasized (Takase, 2015).

Takase, N. (2017). Foreign language output and tasks in synchronous computer-mediated-communication. In G. Brooks (Ed.), *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 306-313). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Chat Text as Spoken Language

Chat room exchanges are considered to be similar to spoken language in terms of total word counts, frequency of the use of pronouns, and the mechanisms of output. The word counts are equal to or greater than those used in tasks carried out in spoken language (Beauvois, 1998; Kern, 1995; Warschauer, 1996). Yates (1996) also pointed out that pronouns, particularly first-person pronouns, and auxiliary verbs are used as frequently in chat room conversations as they are in spoken language.

Payne and Whitney (2002) stated that participants in chat room exchanges follow the same output mechanisms as they would if they were speaking. The process of speaking face-to-face involves going through the steps of forming a concept and a topic, selecting the vocabulary, and pronouncing the words. According to Payne and Whitney (2002), the process for chat room output is similar, except that the thought process used for pronunciation is omitted. Therefore, the output process in online exchanges involves one fewer step than is required for face-to-face output, which eases the cognitive load. In chat room discussions, the inherent features of chat rooms support learners to actively participate in the exchanges. Participants who are shy or afraid of making mistakes when they speak have an equal opportunity to join in, allowing them to express their true feelings in a less-threatening environment (Beauvois, 1998).

Chat Text as Written Language

Although chat resembles oral output in many ways, it remains a written form of communication. Previous studies have found that the language used in chat text is lexically and syntactically more complex than that used in face-to-face oral tasks in a foreign language classroom among non-native learners (Pellettieri, 2000; Salaberry, 2000; Yates, 1996) - it resembles written language. Pellettieri (2000) asserted that, as students can see the output, they are more likely to spot their errors and be more accurate than they are in face-to-face spoken interactions. In addition, learners will pay more attention not only to the meaning of the words, but also to the grammar in chat exchanges, which also promotes accuracy. In a study of acquisition of Spanish verb endings, Salaberry (2000) observed greater accuracy in chat texts than in face-to-face communication. In Yates (1996) corpus-based study on CMC, speaking and writing tasks, he found that chat text was the second highest in type-token ratio and word densities, after writing tasks.

However, others (Beauvois, 1998; Kelm, 1992; Kern, 1995) have found that accuracy is likely to suffer in chat interactions. Kern (1995) observed that chat exchanges focus on communication, rather than on form and accuracy. It has been stated that several variables, such as the differences between CMC, teaching instructions, and task type (Kern, 1995; Blake, 2000), affect the result. The present study focused on one of these variables, task type, and how it relates to the output of language.

Task Types

Task types play an important role in language production. Matsumura (2012) defined task activities as those in which the target language is used in a natural setting to complete the final goal. Learners can have meaningful exchanges by participating in specific activities. Blake (2000) studied three different task types in CMC, namely, jigsaw, information gap, and decision-making tasks, to identify the relationship between tasks and negotiation of meaning. He found that jigsaw tasks resulted in greater attention to the language form and a higher number of negotiations of meaning than did the other tasks. Blake (2000) speculated that this was a result of the difference in the task structure and the amount of information gained from each task.

Takase (2015) compared the language produced in face-to-face and online exchanges by measuring and comparing the accuracy achieved in face-to-face interviews, narration, and decision-making tasks with that observed in chat rooms. It was found that all the tasks undertaken in the chat rooms showed higher accuracy than those completed via face-to-face exchanges. In contrast, when comparing the results obtained from face-to-face interviews, narration, and decision-making tasks, Foster and Skehan (1996) observed that the accuracy was not the same in all three tasks done in face-to-face when complex tasks were used. In face-to-face task activities, a tradeoff effect occurs between the complexity and the accuracy of the tasks. This leads to a lower accuracy rate for decision-making tasks, which are considered to have an intense cognitive load. However, Takase (2015) reported few effects on the accuracy results relating to task type in chat room; even if the cognitive load of the task increased no significant difference in accuracy was observed.

It is necessary to further investigate how the output of face-to-face and chat text exchanges are different under task types in terms of vocabulary. Analyzing the quantity and quality of the words used in face-to-face oral tasks and online tasks will help in understanding how these two modes can be similar to, or different. Our study aimed to analyze the total number of words produced and the linguistic diversity in face-to-face and chat text communication in different task types. The two main research questions were as follows:

1. Which mode (face-to-face or text chat) produces more words?
2. Are there differences in linguistic diversity between face-to-face and chat room tasks?

Methods

Participants

A total of 127 students, all of whom were freshmen undergraduates and non-native English speakers, participated in this study. The ratio of males to females was 1:3, and the range of TOEIC Bridge scores was from 80–146 (TOEIC 200-400). The study was conducted during English communication classes.

Tasks

All of the tasks were completed during class time at the beginning of the first semester of the academic year, and everyone in the class participated. Three tasks, namely, interview, narration, and decision-making, were carried out using face-to-face communication and online chat. The participants were paired, and each pair chose a different task from each mode. Neither of the tasks had a time limit; participants were told only to complete the task. In the face-to-face activity, the participants were asked to record the conversation. In the interview task, the participants asked their partners why they use the Internet and for what purposes, and then they discussed the advantages and disadvantages of Internet use. In the narration task, the pairs carried out an information gap activity, in which the participants were required to complete a comic strip by listening to their partner and asking questions about missing pieces of information. Finally, in the decision-making task, the pairs had to decide what they should do in the case of an emergency; this scenario was supplied to them by the teacher.

Analysis Used

With the exception of any pairs that experienced technical problems, all the data were collected and used in the analysis. The face-to-face interactions were transcribed, and the chat logs were downloaded. Symbols and emoticons were not counted as words. Spelling errors in the chat logs were corrected, and any messages that had come from the software were deleted. Japanese words were labeled "J" and were not counted as part of the total number of words.

A two-way analysis of variance was used for further statistical analysis of the total number of words used and the linguistic diversity between the two modes of communication. The letter "n" refers to the number of pairs.

The level of vocabulary was examined using the AntWord profiler program (Anthony, 2014) and the RANGE and FREQUENCY programs (Heatley Heatley, Nation, & Coxhead,2002). The words used from the text were then compared with the word lists from the RANGE software, which is based on the British National Corpus. The word lists were composed of 6 levels, which were created according to frequency on A General Service List of English Words and The Academic Word List (as cited in Heatley et al., 2002). A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relationship between the modes (face-to-face and chat) and the level of vocabulary.

Results and Discussion

Total Number of Words

A comparison of the averages of the total number of words used within each mode revealed that all of the chat room tasks produced more words than were produced in the tasks using face-to-face communication (Table 1 and 2). According to the analysis, there were significant differences between the chat room tasks and face-to-face tasks (F (1, 92) = 46.6093, p=.000).

Research question 1 examined whether there were differences in the total number of words produced in the face-to-face and chat room exchanges. The results showed that the chat rooms produced more words than the face-to-face communication in all tasks; this was consistent with the results of previous studies (Beauvois, 1998; Kern, 1995; Warschauer, 1996), which found that learners attempted to substitute paralinguistic cues, such as eye contact and gestures, with vocabulary , which increased the total number of words they used.

Linguistic Diversity and Level of Vocabulary

The moving-average type-token ratio (MATTR) was adapted to measure linguistic diversity(Table 3). Covington and McFall (2008) stated that the MATTR can measure the type-token ratios independently of the text size, which is important given the fact that the chat room tasks were associated with a higher word count. As Table 4 illustrates, a comparison of the results of the MATTRs for the face-to-face and chat room exchanges revealed no differences between the two modes.

Level of vocabulary was measured to compare the complexity of the vocabulary that was used in the tasks. Table 5 shows the percentage of words that was used in each level. Base level 1 is a list of words that includes the 1,000 most frequently used words of the English language. Base level 2 includes the second

Table 1
Total Number of Words

Mode	**Task Type**	***n***	**Mean**	***SD***
F2F	Interview	14	59.8571	25.6691
F2F	Narration	14	44.4286	16.3647
F2F	Decision Making	14	67.1429	34.1712
Chat	Interview	17	82.8235	19.5647
Chat	Narration	17	158	79.799
Chat	Decision Making	17	134.9412	46.2824

Table 2
ANOVA results with Total Number of Words

Source	***SS***	***df***	***MS***	***F*-ratio**	***p*-value**		**eta²**	***p*.eta²**
Mode	106852.4182	1	106852.4182	46.6093	0	***	0.3277	0.6164
Task Type	18166.5387	2	9083.2694	5.1135	0.009	**	0.0557	0.1499
Mode x Task Type	31514.1516	2	15757.0758	8.8706	0.0004	***	0.0967	0.2342
s x Mode x Task Type	103027.4398	58	1776.3352					
Total	330559.2473	92	3593.0353					

Notes. F2F= face-to-face; *SS*=sum of square; *df* = degree of freedom; *MS*= mean square ***$p < .001$

Table 3
MATTR(Moving-Average Type-Token Ratio)

Mode	Task Type	*n*	Mean	*SD*
F2F	Interview	14	3.2716	1.901
F2F	Narration	14	3.1601	1.8919
F2F	Decision Making	14	3.5289	2.3517
Chat	Interview	17	2.9581	1.6637
Chat	Narration	17	3.5624	2.6054
Chat	Decision Making	17	3.9276	2.4354

Table 4
ANOVA results with MATTR

Source	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*-ratio	*p*-value		eta²	*p*.eta²
Mode	0.6081	1	0.6081	0.0517	0.8218	ns	0.0014	0.0018
Task Type	5.8515	2	2.9257	2.3638	0.1031	ns	0.0139	0.0754
Mode x Task Type	2.6092	2	1.3046	1.054	0.3551	ns	0.0062	0.0351
s x Mode x Task Type	71.7881	58	1.2377					
Total	422.9659	92	4.5975					

Notes. F2F= face-to-face; *SS*=sum of square; *df* = degree of freedom; *MS*= mean square

Table 5
Word Type % in Base levels

Source	F2F Interview	F2F Narration	F2F Decision Making	Chat Interview	Chat Narration	Chat Decision Making
Basewords 1	60.92	64.56	80.51	73.93	62.8	76.28
Basewords 2-16	15.52	12.96	12.28	14.02	22.2	14.41
Words not in the list	23.56	25.32	7.2	12.06	15	9.29

1,000 most frequently used words, etc. All of the words from base levels 2–16 were added to compare the result with level 1. The use of proper nouns and first-language vocabulary was not included in the any of the base level lists. The analysis of the distribution of vocabulary use at different levels, revealed a significant difference between the narration tasks in the face-to-face and chat environments (X^2 (1, n = 15)=3.8886, p = 0.04861), as shown in Table 6.

With respect to research question 2, no significant differences were found in the MATTR results. This is not consistent with Yates (1996), who stated that the type-token ratio is highest in written language, followed by CMC, and then spoken language. The differences between the latter result and the results of our study derive from the variation in the measurement scale. Yates (1996) used a type-token ratio measurement by Chafe and Danielewicz (1987), which is affected by the length of the document. In addition, the tasks in our study were different from those in the study conducted by Yates (1996), and this could also have affected the results.

As Figures 1 and 2 show, the complexity of vocabulary used in the narration task was higher than that used in other tasks. This suggests that more difficult words were chosen in chat narration than in other tasks. Blake (2000) found that the jigsaw task attracted greater attention to language form, and instances of negotiation of meaning were more numerous than in other tasks. Narration tasks, such as the one used in the present study, resemble jigsaw tasks, in which participants must exchange a certain amount of information in order to complete the task. The results of the narration tasks in the present study indicate that that task type was effective in encouraging participants to challenge themselves to use more complex vocabulary. In further research, it would be interesting to examine why the chat room tasks in narration showed increase in the use of complex words and not in interview and decision-making tasks. The use of words not on the list, such as native language and proper nouns, may have affected the result. With regard to the interview tasks, it is easy to assume that the participants used proper nouns in their exchanges as they were discussing their individual experiences of the summer. In the decision-making tasks, it is likely that participants needed to rely on their first language, as they were required to provide reasoning, which might have been challenging. Although it is not clear why it was possible for the participants to use a higher level of vocabulary in the narration task in the chat room, chat rooms did not afford an environment for the participants to communicate in their native language, as it is obvious if someone is doing so. Moreover, additional time for output allowed the participants sufficient time to choose the optimum vocabulary.

The present study showed that chat-room tasks produce more words than do face-to-face exchanges. Since there was no significant difference between the two modes in the MATTR, there was no difference in the variety of words chosen. However, the narration tasks completed in the chat room used higher level words compared with the face-to-face tasks.

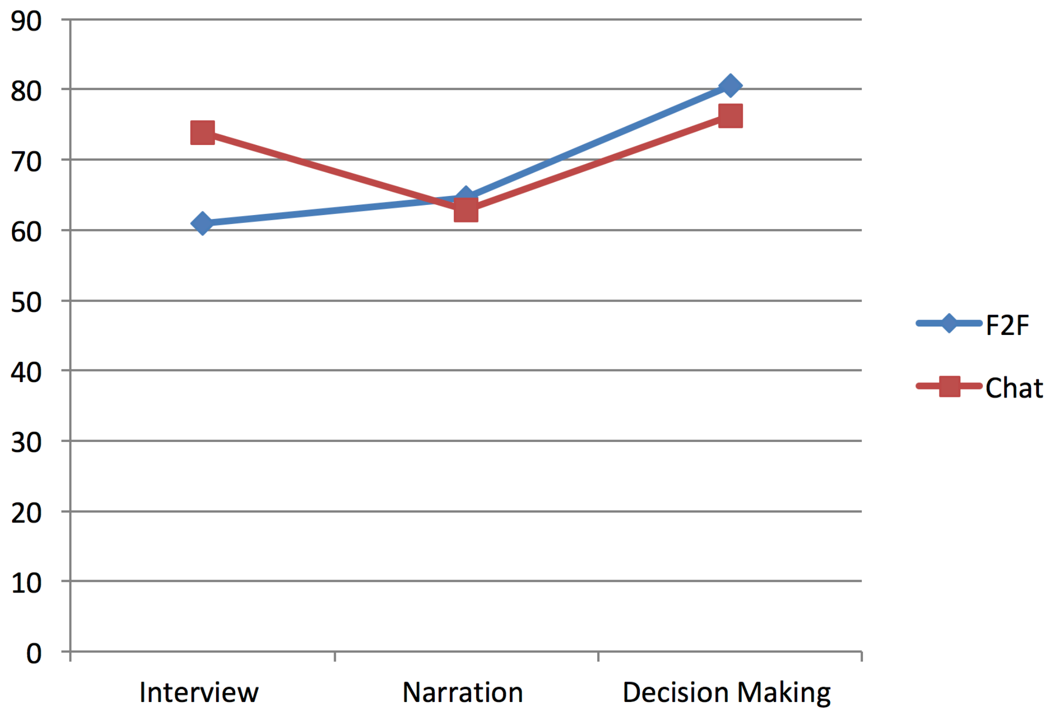

Figure 1. Type % on Level 1 Words.

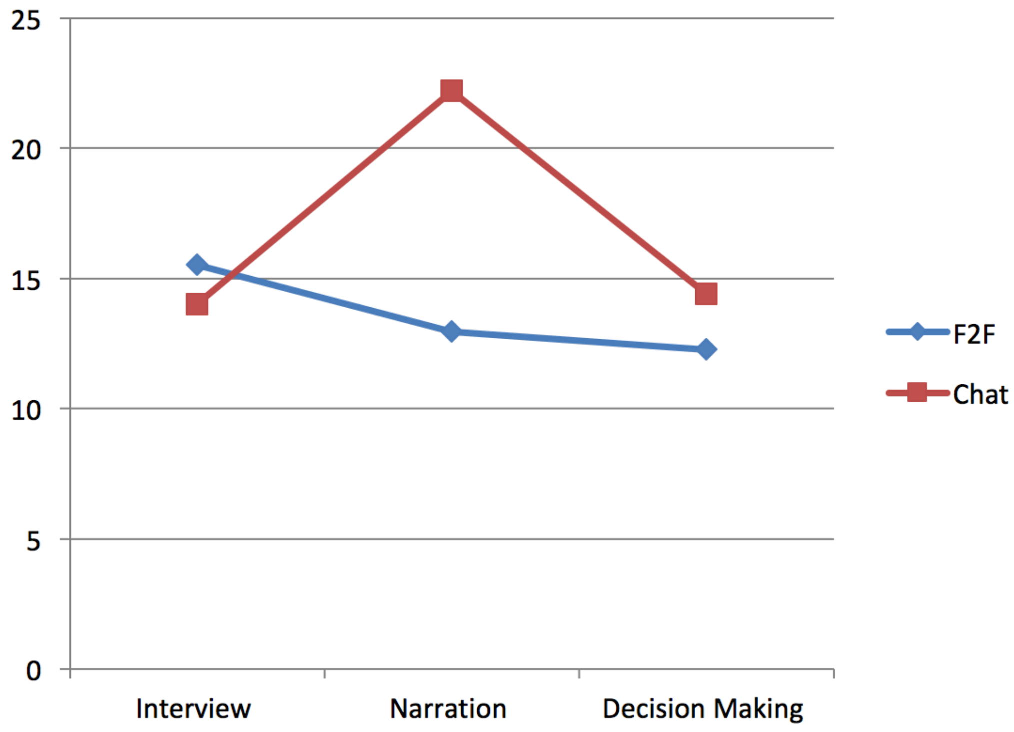

Figure 2. Type % on Level 2-16 Words.

Table 6

Chi-squared result on type% between Level 1 and Level 2-16 Words

Source	*X*-squared	*df*	*p*	
F2F Interview, Chat Interview	0.30981	1	0.5778	
F2fF Narrarion, Chat Narration	3.8886	1	0.04861	*
F2F Decision Making, Chat Decision Making	0.69456	1	0.4046	

Notes. Df=degree of freedom; *p < .01

Conclusions and Future Research

The present study examined the differences in the total number of words, the linguistic diversity, and the level of vocabulary to assess whether online tasks in chat rooms resemble or differ from spoken tasks. Compared with the face-to-face exchanges, the tasks carried out in chat rooms produced a greater number of words. However, there were no differences in linguistic diversity. A higher level of words was used in the narration task conducted in the chat room, according to the word lists. This suggests that tasks in chat rooms could foster greater linguistic output than face-to-face communication, where learners cannot rely on gestures or other cues. As exchanges in chat rooms are simultaneous, the variety of vocabulary used in the conversations resembles the features of spoken language. In future research, it would be worth exploring why certain tasks can maintain the level of, or use higher level, words in chat rooms compared with in face-to-face tasks.

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Can the Website and App VocabularySpellingCity.com Help Japanese University Students' Motivation and Build Their Vocabulary?

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This small study was done over a period of six weeks in the hopes of determining whether the very popular United States-based VocabularySpellingCity.com website would be helpful for students in a communication English class. The website is designed to provide students with spelling and vocabulary practice, and instructors can upload their own lists and use the online management system to track the students participation. After being given a list of 50 words related to the textbook, one class was given access to the website, and two classes were told to study as they normally do. The expectation was that the students with website access would be more motivated to study the vocabulary, as the gamification aspect would enhance their enjoyment. In reality, although very adept at using Japanese technology and apps, there were a number of challenges and in the end only half of the target group used the website frequently. While scores on the weekly quizzes did go up over time, in the end it is difficult to say whether the website had any meaningful effect.

このちょっとした研究は、非常に人気のある、米国ベースのVocabularySpellingCity.comのウェブサイトを使ってコミュニケーション英語クラスの学生のための参考になるかどうかを、 6週間にわたって行われました。コースブックに関連した50個の単語のリストを与えた後、 1クラスは、ウェブサイトを使って勉強し、2つのクラスは、通常どおりに勉強するように言いました。予期していたことは、ゲーム感覚で勉強するウェブサイトを使って勉強する学生の方が、やる気を起こすだろうということでした。実際には、非常に日本の技術やアプリケーションが浸透しているにもかかわらず、多くの課題があり、最終的には、半分の生徒達だけがウェブサイトを利用して勉強しました。毎週小テストを行い検証しましたが、最終的には、ウェブサイトを使って勉強する方が良かったかどうかを 言うのは難しいです。

Although English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers are often given the task of teaching 'communication' classes, all soon realize that it is impossible to have such communication without a basic vocabulary. Carter (2001) believes that "learning words is seen by many as the main task (and obstacle) in learning another language" (p. 17). He suggests that for lower level learners it is necessary to teach vocabulary, and once they reach a certain level of proficiency they are able to begin to build their vocabulary through 'incidental' contact with words. He notes there are a number of vocabulary learning hypotheses, but beginners can benefit from rote memorization and explicit learning. Carter (2001) declared that "learning words is seen by many as the main task (and obstacle) in learning another

Torbert, A. C. (2017). Can the website and app vocabularyspellingcity.com help Japanese university students' motivation and build their vocabulary? In G. Brooks (Ed.) *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 314-320). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

language" (p.47). Other authors also emphasize the importance of explicit learning and that it produces better retention than incidental exposure, especially for lower level learners (Crow, 1986; File & Adams, 2010; Kang, 2015; Moskovsky, Jiang, Libert & Fagan, 2015).

Going back forty-five years ago, Croll (1971) also pointed out that "teaching vocabulary is undoubtedly one of the English teacher's most difficult tasks" (p. 378). While lessons can be uninteresting for students, a good vocabulary is critical in order to sufficiently describe their ideas and feelings. In the 1970s, like Japan today, rote memorization was the norm and after the exam definitions were often forgotten. For his program, he considered it important to teach words in such a context that the students could relate to the meaning on a personal level. After creating a system where extra study earned extra points, he discovered that the students least in need of the extra credit were the most likely to do the extra work. Later in the term, however, other students began to build their own lists and raised their level of motivation as well (Croll, 1971).

This situation still continues, and amongst Japanese students creating flashcards and memorizing words is one of the most popular strategies for learning vocabulary. According to Little and Kobayashi (2014), even when presented with a number of options, lower level learners rely on the methods they learned early on in middle school and preferred to use homemade cards to learn scientific terms. Nation (1998) mentions spaced repetition is important, and Allum (2014) agrees, but notes that many students may overestimate their ability and not recycle the words they should be reviewing. Most Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) systems, especially those that require a premium paid membership, are designed to keep tract of successes and failures and will continue to recycle vocabulary for a period of time. Nation (1998) suggests instructors make students aware of their successes and teach students how to monitor their own progress, however a good CALL system can do this for them. Of course whether a student continues to use the system itself once the semester is finished depends on motivation.

The history of vocabulary teaching is a long one, and Smith (1969) referred to a problem which continues to vex students today, that of getting too much framework and not enough content. He makes the important point that "structure without a vocabulary is not language", and there is a need to teach at least basic vocabulary before students can be expected to go off on their own and enrich it (p. 531). He notes tests can help to motivate students, but that students prefer correcting their own work (especially if their scores are not high). He also suggests using word cards that are portable and easy to study anywhere (this is long before the smartphones were imaginable). While he understands the value of extensive reading, he comments that foreign students do not have the decades to read that native speakers have, and explicit instruction is one way to enhance the speed of their learning.

The importance of vocabulary cannot be overstated. According to Dickinson, Flushman, and Freiberg (2009), if native English speaking children are not given sufficient vocabulary support and explicit teaching at an early stage, there is a good chance less motivated or at-risk students will be further disadvantaged later on. Although this is not directly related to an EFL situation, the parallel is striking.

Today Extensive Reading (ER) is looked upon by many as a way to build vocabulary, but as Dimas (2011) realizes, for lower-level students more explicit teaching through the use of word lists is necessary. In his study, students found a word study notebook (lists with their own definitions written) to be helpful to keep track of their learning and understand meaning, but they still found it difficult to recall words for use in conversation.

As technology begins to play a bigger part in language teaching, instructor and student competence become more and more important. Benson (2011) suggested that those who thrive with CALL are those who are comfortable with technology and already have high levels of autonomy. He was critical of the fact that just as students may see learning a language as a way to boost their marketability in the job market, online content providers see learners as a way to boost their bottom lines. Benson notes that the effectiveness of CALL is still generally unproven, and the fact that much of the world does not have access to or cannot afford premium content means the potential for a gap between those well-off and those struggling will continue. For these reasons it is important to realize CALL can be a tool that may help some students, yet make others so uncomfortable that less learning is accomplished overall.

When it comes to vocabulary, CALL often takes one of two approaches. The first is to teach specific vocabulary to learners, and the second takes a more holistic approach and expects learners to make vocabulary gains by working with authentic materials (Levy, 2006). One key issue is to make sure the initial experiences learners have with CALL are not overwhelming, and that the technical challenges do not dissuade them. Levy and Stockwell (2006) recognized that mobile technologies had the potential for solving scheduling problems regarding computer labs, however they suspected the smaller screens might keep use limited. Of course at that time screen size might have been a concern, however mobile phone screens have grown substantially since then, not to mention the boom in various size tablets.

Whatever the method of instruction used, an important key to whether learners succeed is their own motivation. Robertson (2012) stated that students use a constructionist view to "make sense of the world through problem solving and social interaction" (p. 126), and that an important part of building independent thinking and autonomy was to give students room to learn on their own and with peers. Bresnihan (2016) also noted that for students to have a good discussion about a particular topic, it is often necessary to present them with reading materials that expose them to new and necessary vocabulary and to give them time to prepare. Instructors are often trying to follow a given syllabus, but since every learner has her/his own pace, it is necessary to build in time to allow those who require it more time to digest what has been presented. L. Dickinson (1987) notes that self-instruction and self-access can be a significant part of learning, as it can reduce "competition" and "inhibition" (p. 27). She says that in the end, the actual learning must be a done the student on their own, as no one can learn vocabulary for another. Working the way one does best is important, and Ellis (1997) suggests that learners are usually aware of what strategies work for them, be it speaking the words aloud, thinking about the context or writing them down repeatedly. He notes that "instrumental motivation" is important for many language learners, as they see their success as leading to concrete improvement and opportunities in the future (p. 75).

While some improvements have been shown for students using online vocabulary improvement systems such as the website WordEngine, there remain questions as to how much is possible. In one study, students who used the site for one hour made greater gains then those who only did extensive reading, however there did not seem to be a significant gain if the students used the WordEngine site for two hours (McLean, Hogg, & Rush, 2013). Although instructors and developers might be excited by new tools, it is up to the students to put in the time and fully concentrate on the task, rather than simply click the buttons. Through using colorful sites with plenty of 'rewards' such as badges, sounds and characters may at first look motivating, Baierschmidt (2013) warns that some aspects of gamification of language can cause distractions and take away for potential gains in learning.

Methodology

Teaching Context

This study was conducted across three sections of a communication English class at a private university in Japan. All the students were native Japanese speakers and non-English majors, taking a 90-minute class once a week. The make-up of the class was 33 males and 20 females, all of whom were either 19 or 20 years of age. A few of the students had recently returned from a three-week study tour to English speaking countries and were very enthusiastic. Many others were motivated to improve on their language skills, but a fifth of the class were still false beginners, having struggled to write more two or three sentences in a ten minute freewriting exercise at the beginning of the course. These students typically take the class hoping to get a passing grade that can fulfill their foreign language requirements, and according to annual surveys given by the instructor, have no expectation of using English once they graduate.

The textbook used in this class takes a multi-skill approach, but the driving force behind it is interesting content for discussion. There are plenty of pictures with opened ended discussion questions, short (50-100 words) reading passages, and a supplemental DVD for viewing.

Procedure

A word list of 50 key vocabulary words, 10 each from the upcoming 5 units of the textbook, was created using the lists provided in the back of the textbook. The words were 'target' vocabulary, highlighted in bold in the textbook, and students were provided with an English definition of the each word. This list was handed out to students in Classes A, B and C on week one. The instructor went over the pronunciation of each word and students quizzed each other on the meanings for about 10-15 minutes. The class then proceeded with the unit in the textbook that included the words in context.

Classes B and C were asked to study the first set of ten words for a quiz the following week.

Class A was also asked to study for a quiz the following week, but they were also given a password and a demonstration on how to log into the VocabularySpellingCity.com website and how to find the assigned activities. The website was chosen because the instructor already had purchased a license for 30 students and had sufficient number remaining to cover the entire class. Due to participation levels, the app group was further split into two groups, app and non-app (see Discussion). The assignment consisted of ten teacher-selected activities, which would review the 10 target words' pronunciation, spelling and meaning in a variety of ways (cloze, matching, hangman etc.). Students were told the teacher would be monitoring their progress.

The quiz itself was a simple ten-item quiz consisting of five randomly chosen words from the units' list, which the students were asked to define, and five definitions from the list where the students were asked to produce the word. The students peer-corrected the errors once the quiz was done. Allowances were made for simple spelling mistakes (up to 2 letters), as long as the word was recognizable as an answer. The instructor double-checked the scoring to make sure the peers had done so accurately.

At the end of the course the students were given a brief feedback survey and told they could write in either Japanese or English.

Results

The scores for the first quiz were quite low, but increased dramatically the second week (Figure 1). They tailed off the third and fourth weeks and by the fifth week there were hardly any differences in scores. For the 30 question final exam (a review of all five vocabulary lists from quizzes) scores were again quite

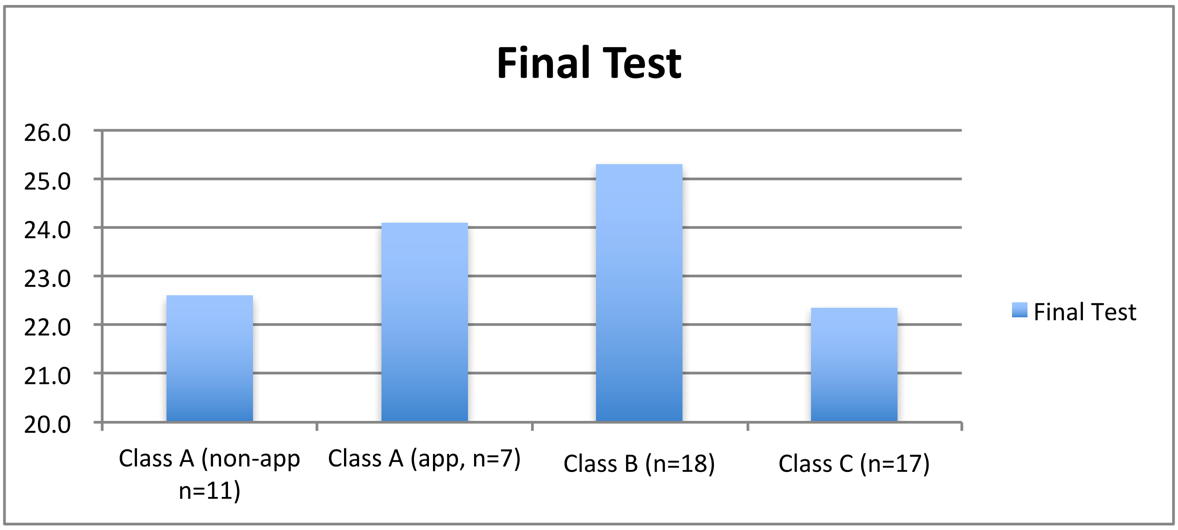

Figure 1. Final test results.

close, between 22.4 and 25.3 (Figure 2).

Discussion

The initial study had intended to discover whether having access to a customized word study program online would improve student test scores. Given that only half of the students actually accessed the website more than once, it made sense to split Class A into two, an "app group" of seven and a "non-app group" of eleven. The app group did score a total of 30.5 versus just 28.2 for the non-app group, but given this was out of a possible total of fifty, and given Classes B and C also scored more (34.9 and 33.0 respectively), it can be said the app access did not play an appreciable role in improving their scores.

All the classes were asked to report on the amount of time they spent studying for the quizzes and test. While a few put 'zero minutes' as an answer, the average was 17 minutes for the quizzes and 65 minutes for the test.

Class A was also asked to complete a form asking those who had used it what their impressions were, for those who did not, what had dissuaded them. The students were permitted to write the feedback in Japanese if they desired.

For those using the app, comments were "It helped me" (four responses) and "It helped me to pronounce words" (one response) and one person said, "I enjoyed the personalized study". One student who used the app consistently said it was better to write and study the words on paper and then use the website. Another who used it each week nonetheless said he preferred writing down the words on paper. Regarding those who did not use the app, the most frequent comment was "It was too troublesome" or "I forgot". Most of the content of the website itself is available via both mobile devices and computers, but the majority of the students chose to use their phones, of which 100% of the class own.

Conclusion

Although the level of vocabulary was high beginner and generally appropriate for the students, they struggled to learn the English words and their English definitions, especially in the beginning (quiz one). For many students, most of the vocabulary testing they have in previously demanded they match English words with Japanese translations. Having quizzes that required them to match English words with English definitions was challenging for many at first, but after some experience they soon improved. This was reflected both in the weekly tests and the final exam. Having prior exposure to the vocabulary appeared to give the learners more confidence in the class to use the words they encountered in the textbook activities, be it reading aloud or answering questions from their peers.

The fact that over half the students were resistant to the website/app showed that they are slow to change learning styles, even when encouraged/pushed by the

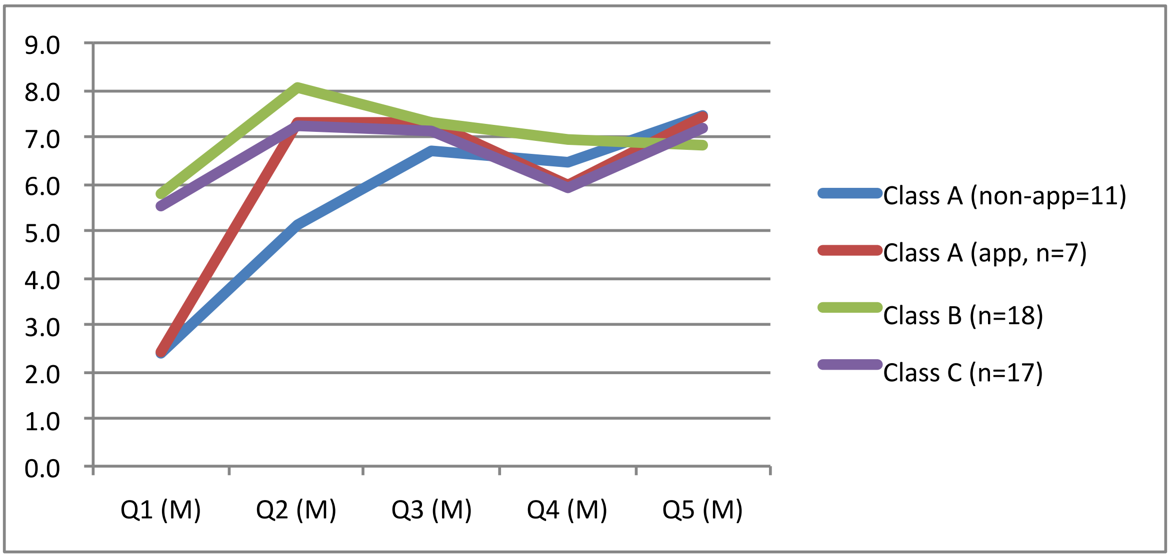

Figure 2. Week by week quiz results.

teacher. The website itself has an all English interface, and while this may add to the authentic experience of learning vocabulary and spelling the same way young native speakers do, the reality is that such an interface may have been intimidating and dissuading to the students. For example, there were minor technical challenges; one student tried to log into the teach page instead of the student page, and then took two weeks to report that they had had difficulty. For a small percentage of the students it seemed the website was helpful, and one went as far as to access it for the test, even though that was not part of the assignment.

Given that the students are mostly high beginner, non-English majors, it is hard to know how a more motivated and experienced cohort might perform. It would perhaps be worthwhile for instructors to have students create their own vocabulary lists (something the settings allow) and see whether they progress at a faster rate.

As education technology becomes more available, there are now a host of other sites besides vocabularyspellingcity.com, and it might be worthwhile looking into such sites in order to determine what kind of format works best with a given class or set of objectives. Quizlet offers similar features to vocabularyspellingcity.com, plus designated articles with accompanying vocabulary work. A similar site is memrise.com, which allows teachers to create groups and monitor students. WordEngine is a site that offers a free vocabulary level test, and then a paid program designed to focus on filling in the gaps in a particular students' knowledge. It has a Japanese interface, unlike quizlet and memrise, which some students may be more comfortable. One drawback to all such systems is that many of the most desirable features require an ongoing subscription, and if students are already being asked to purchase a textbook for class, the question of cost may be an issue.

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Basic Tutor Training Through E-learning

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An effective tutor training program is essential to developing peer tutors with the knowledge and skills necessary to provide academic support at university learning centers. Meio University's Language Learning Center (LLC) utilizes a tutor training program based on its certification from the College Reading and Learning Association (CRLA). One of the challenges of tutor training at the LLC is that all training is conducted in English in a workshop format. In order to make sure that all tutors retain the training content, the LLC implemented an e-learning review system. This paper describes the e-learning system and shows that a majority of tutors found it useful to the development of their tutoring knowledge and skills. It also suggests future improvements to the system and notes the importance of flexibility when evaluating written responses.

効果的なチュータートレーニングは、高等教育の学習センターにおける学習支援に必要な知識と技術向上を提供する効果的なトレーニングが不可欠である。名桜大学の言語学習センター（LLC）は、CRLA（College Reading and Learning Association）認定免状を基にしたチュータートレーニングを実施している。LLCのチュータートレーニングはすべてワークショップ形式を英語で行っているため、チューター間のトレーニングの理解度に差が生じている。これらの差を解消するため、LLC独自の復習用eラーニング教材作成を試みた。本文は、その教材（システム）作成の実践と試験的に教材を使用したチューター達から実際にワークショップトレーニングの復習に役立ったという結果を得たことの実例を紹介している。同時に、今後のEーラーニング教材活用の改善策と記入式の問題解答作成における柔軟さの重要性を述べている。

The Language Learning Center (LLC) was established in 2001 at Meio University in Okinawa to provide students a space for self-study, homework completion, and tutoring. Each semester, the LLC employs an average of 14 student tutors. Typically, about half to two-thirds of these tutors are full-time Japanese students, while the others are either full-time international students or short-term study abroad students. All, no matter their country of origin, are expected to have achieved Eiken Grade 2 or equivalent English test scores.

Tsukayama, J., & Kuckelman, M. (2017). Basic tutor training through e-learning. In G. Brooks (Ed.) *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 321-328). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

CRLA Membership and the ITTPC

In 2002, the LLC joined the College Reading and Learning Association (CRLA), an American organization that provides support for professionals involved in learning support services. As a part of this support, CRLA provides international certification for tutoring programs. The LLC was the first university in Japan to receive the International Tutor Training Program Certification (ITTPC). The ITTPC requires that tutor training programs meet certain requirements for training topics, assessment methods, and number of tutoring hours. In order to meet one aspect of these training requirements, LLC tutors meet once a week for a 60-minute training workshop. Quantifying the tutors' progress through the training program has proven difficult, especially as English language abilities vary from student to student. In this paper, we present our solution to this problem: an introductory intensive day of training followed by an e-learning review system in conjunction with our normal weekly training workshops. Our hypothesis is that integrating an e-learning review program into a workshop-based tutor training program can be an effective way of ensuring that tutors of various skill and language levels retain important training content.

Literature Review

Tutoring Centers and Tutor Training Programs

Since university enrollment has become more universal in Japan, universities face the issue of supporting students with varying academic levels and learning styles. Tutoring centers with peer tutoring systems have recently become a popular way to provide this support (Ishige, 2014; Tsukayama, 2011; Watanabe, 2014).

The quality of a learning center is determined by the tutors' own qualities, such as their tutoring knowledge and skills (Gier, 2003; Ishige, 2014). However, some tutors might have poor tutoring knowledge and skills from not having had good past role models or experiences with tutoring, which might lead to confusion during actual tutoring situations (Ishige, 2014). So, "a good training session can simplify the complexity to a manageable level" (May, 2003) and also gives tutors more confidence and increases their problem-solving skills while developing tutoring knowledge and skills (Ishige, 2014).

Learning support related associations such as CRLA and the National Association for Developmental Education (NADE) have created certificate systems for tutor training programs in order to standardize the quality of tutoring and learning support skills across universities (Watanabe, 2014). These kinds of centers have been functioning at universities for around forty years (CRLA), and now there are many learning centers with peer tutoring programs. This kind of program has insured that most tutors receive the basic or standardized tutoring knowledge and skills necessary to effectively support learners (Suzuki, 2011).

E-Learning

In addition to the challenge of training students with varying tutoring skill levels, the LLC's program faces the added challenge of the students having varying levels of basic language comprehension skills. One of the most important ways that institutions, whether at the university level or a center like the LLC, can deal with such a student population is through flexibility, such as by creating multiple assessment measures (de Kleine & Lawton, 2015). Since some tutors have a difficult time understanding all the content in the workshop training sessions, review is necessary in order for them to master basic knowledge and skills. Goda and Yamada write that drill type questions are an effective review style for remembering task-based learning (Goda, 2012; Reigeluth, 2012), and an e-learning review after workshop training has been shown to be an effective retention tool since it uses a text-based review to drill students on their learned knowledge and skills.

Content

The LLC's Tutor Training Program

The LLC's tutor training has traditionally been conducted as one hour of a two-hour weekly meeting. Each week, two to three tutors, including both an experienced and a new tutor, prepare the content of the week's training topic, which has been decided upon in advance in order to follow the certification requirements of the ITTPC. All training sessions at the LLC are conducted in English. The content of a training session consists of three parts: presentation/lecture about the topic information, discussion, and role play. Assigned trainers must do research and collect data for the training session using books, journals, handbooks, websites, or past training materials.

The ITTPC actually requires a certain number of training topics according to each level. In order to obtain the Level 1 certification (L1 or Certified), eight training session topics must be completed. Then four more sessions will be added at Level 2 (L2 or Advanced) and Level 3 (L3 or Master). This makes a total of 16 training session topics. The topics of each session are shown in the chart below.

New Intensive Training

Historically, these topics were covered over the course of a semester, with one and sometimes two topics covered a week. In the 2nd semester of 2015, however, Topics 1, 3, 4, and 5 were condensed into a day-long intensive training. Many of the ideas for the content of these intensive training topics were introduced from the book *Peer Tutor Training* (Tanigawa, 2014). This new intensive training was held jointly with Meio's Mathematical and Science Learning Center (MSLC), which was established in 2007 following the model of the LLC. The MSLC's tutor training program has been conducted separately from the LLC's since its content needed to be in Japanese. However, basic tutoring knowledge and skills are certainly common to all the tutors, and so the two centers joined together for the initial training. Though the LLC's regular training sessions are conducted in English, this intensive training was conducted in Japanese so as to provide support for all the centers' tutors.

Creating a New E-Learning Review Program

Since weekly training sessions have been conducted in a workshop format in English and most of the basic training was now being given in one day as an intensive training, some tutors were having a hard time understanding and then remembering all the material. Thus, we decided to create an e-learning tutor training review system to help tutors review their basic knowledge at their own pace. A trial was conducted at the LLC and the MSLC from September 2015

Table 1
ITTPC Tutor Training Topics

Tutor Training Topics
1. Definition of Tutoring & Tutor Responsibilities (L1)
2. Basic Tutoring Guidelines (L1)
3. Techniques for Successfully Beginning & Ending a Tutoring Session (L1)
4. Assertiveness and/or Difficult Students (L1)
5. Role Modeling (L1)
6. Setting Goals/Planning (L1)
7. Communication Skills (L1)
8. Referral Skills (L1)
9. Use of Probing Questions (L2)
10. Cultural Awareness and Intercultural Communication (L2)
11. Identifying and Using Resources (L2)
12. Tutoring in Specific Skills or Subject Areas (L2)
13. Training and Supervising Other Tutors (L3)
14. Group Management (L3)
15. How to Tutor or Deal with Target Populations (L3)
16. The Role of Learning Centers in Higher Education (L3)

to February 2016. The materials were created using a Learning Management System (LMS) that was provided by the Chieru Company.

E-learning offers two primary benefits for both the LLC as a whole and the individual tutors. First, by collecting data on the tutors' knowledge and skills, LLC faculty and staff can revise and adjust the tutor training program to more effectively manage their development. Second, the e-learning review sessions allow tutors the chance to reflect on their tutoring skills quietly, without the pressures of a workshop training session conducted in their second or third language.

The LMS provided by Chieru on a trial basis to Meio for this project was called Glexa. Three experienced undergraduate tutors created the training content in the summer of 2015 with the help of a staff member. During this time, the students and staff received ICT training from Chieru. From September 27 to November 15, 2015, 31 LLC and MSLC tutors completed the e-learning review program.

The questions in the e-learning review materials were created according to the content of the intensive training sessions and the book *Peer Tutor Training* (Tanigawa, 2014). Questions were presented in several different forms: multiple choice, matching, and short answer, the last of which required the students to write their responses. One of the examples is shown here from the training topic Definition of Tutoring and Tutor Responsibilities. Question 2 reads: "Please choose the correct definition of a peer tutor."

A. Mainly gives advice and support for students' college life.
B. Mainly gives academic support for the students.
C. Mainly a person who is in an equal position to other students and gives academic support to them.
D. Mainly a person who is in an equal position to other students and gives advice and support for their college life.

The correct answer is C. In the intensive training workshop, tutors learned that a peer is someone in an equal position to those around them and that a tutor is an academic supporter. After finishing each unit, tutors submitted their answers and then could check their results. Incorrect answers included an explanation of the correct answer to help tutors understand the material more fully.

Results

All tutors were asked to take an online survey after finishing the e-learning review in order to determine its effectiveness. The survey contained 11 questions answered using a five-point scale. There were also some questions that asked the tutors to write comments explaining their choices. The full text of this survey can be found in the Appendix. Even though 31 tutors (14 LLC, 17 MSLC) completed the e-learning reviews, only 19 tutors (8 LLC and 11 MSLC) took the survey. In order to collect more accurate data in the future, this number certainly needs to be improved.

Tutor responses to Question 7 on the survey indicate that more than half of the tutors (80% for the LLC, 60% for the MSLC) feel it was *very useful* or *somewhat useful* (see Figure 1).

Questions 4, 8, 9, and 10 asked tutors to identify both positive and negative experiences using the e-learning materials, and then to explain their answers. All the comments were grouped into categories according to their content (see Tables 2 and 3). Tutors wrote their comments in either English or Japanese. When quoting from the tutors' answers below, original English, including mistakes, was retained in order to convey authentic responses.

Positive comments like "a good review" and "[it helped] not to forget" were categorized in *Review was helpful*. Comments like "review anywhere" and "easy to reach" were categorized in *Benefits of online*. Tutors generally felt that the e-learning materials were useful for their review, which was our primary goal in trying out the e-learning materials. The other frequently mentioned benefit was that the review could be completed anywhere and anytime because of its online format.

Because of the novice IT skills of the LLC and MSLC's tutors and staff, the e-learning system was set up to accept only the most exact sentences or words for written answers, which eventually led to a few LMS problems. Comments such as "e-learning required exact the same answers and did not accept the sentences that were correct in meaning" were

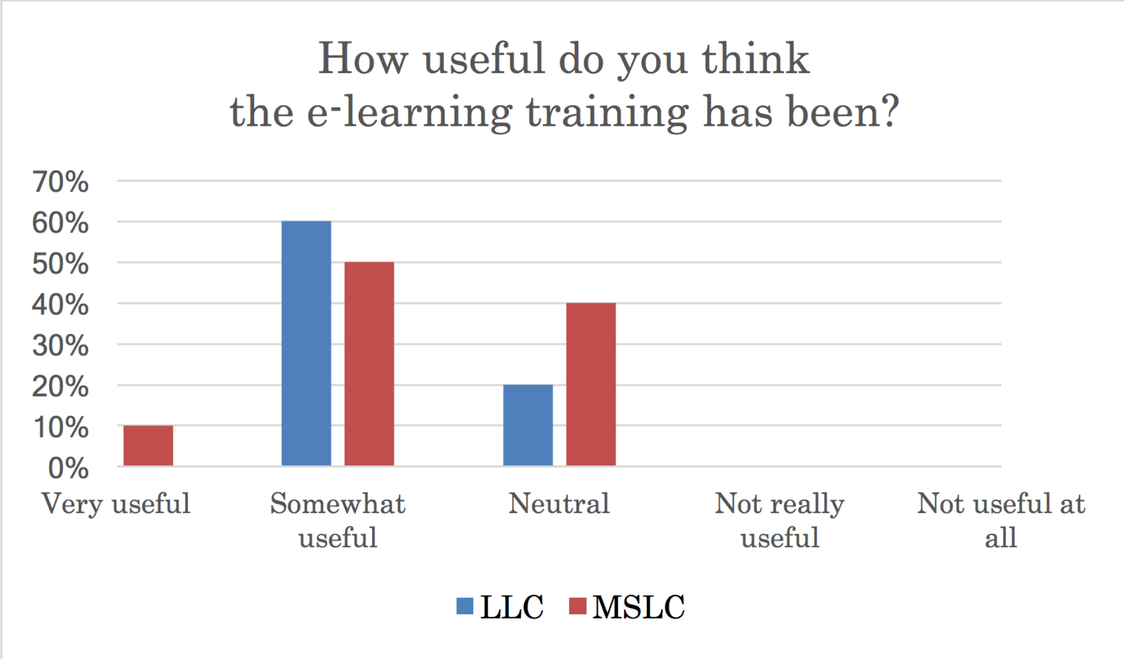

Figure 1. LLC and MSLC survey results: Question 7

Table 2
Positive Comments About the E-learning Review System

Positive comments	LLC	MSLC	TOTAL
Review was helpful	6	10	16
Benefits of online	2	1	3
Other	2	1	3
Total	**10**	**12**	**22**

Table 3
Negative Comments About the E-learning Review System

Negative comments	LLC	MSLC	TOTAL
LMS	5	7	12
Question was too complicated	6	1	7
Difficult vocabulary	4	1	5
Technical problems	0	3	3
Lack of information	1	1	2
Other	3	1	4
Total	**19**	**14**	**32**

categorized as *LMS*. Comments like "I did not really understand the questions" and "there was unsure answers in questions" were categorized in *Question was too complicated*. Comments like "The language usage was a bit too formal" or "The questions were too difficult to understand ..." were categorized as *Difficult vocabulary*. Several tutors struggled with the difficulty of the Japanese vocabulary and grammar used in the questions, which may be due to the lack of experience in test design on the part of the tutors and staff. This particular problem affected the LLC tutors more because several of them were international students.

In summary, although we received more negative comments than positive comments about the e-learning review program, overall, students rated the program positively, specifically in regard to deepening their understanding of their tutoring skills and knowledge, as we can see in their responses above to Question 7. Most of the negative comments were in relation to problems associated with the novice levels of IT knowledge and test design in our tutors and staff. These problems can be easily remedied with more training in future versions of the system.

Conclusion

Although there is not firm evidence demonstrating that the e-learning review program affected tutoring knowledge and skills *in practice*, overall, tutors felt that it helped their review of the workshop-based training sessions. Our results from this first trial also produced some meaningful and helpful suggestions for developing the e-learning materials in the future.

Regarding the issue of the LMS not accepting written or fill-in-the-bank answers that deviated from the answer provided by the test-makers, these question forms need to be more flexible, for example by basing them around keywords or having staff check each answer so that tutors will not have to memorize exact answers. As for the language difficulty in the e-learning material, the Japanese grammar and vocabulary will need to be revised to be simpler for both Japanese and international students.

One added benefit of our program is that since advanced tutors use the LMS to create the review material, they are able to develop their own ICT skills while sharing their tutoring knowledge and skills. LMS can also provide various tools for making different ways to test tutors' skills. One example is a tool to make movies. Though it was not introduced this time, it could be an effective way to show both good and bad models in actual tutoring situations.

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Appendix

Survey about your e-learning experience

Please choose best answers for your ideas.

Q1. How many times did you have problems with the online training?

None 1 to 3 times 4 to 7 times more than 7 times

Q2. How difficult did you feel it was to answer the questions?

100% 80% 60% 50% 40% 20% 0%

Q3. Which questionnaire form did you feel was difficult? (Multiple choice)

- ☐ Fill-in-the-blank
- ☐ Writing
- ☐ Multiple choice
- ☐ Matching

Q4. Why was the form in the previous question difficult to answer?

Write your answer

Q5. Which training had the hardest content?

Write your answer

Q6. How much time did you take for each chapter?

10 to 30 min. 30 min. to 1 hour 1 to 2 hours more than 2 hours

Q7. How useful do you think the e-learning training has been?

Very useful Somewhat useful Neutral Not very useful Not useful at all

Q8. Please write the reasons for your answer to the above question.

Write your answer

Q9. Please write the positive points of training through e-learning.

Write your answer

Q10. Please write down the negative points of training through e-learning.

Write answers

Q11. Comments

Write your answer

Note: All questions were used in the LMS survey used for the e-learning training review

Screen Versus Paper: Perceptions of Screen-Based Reading versus Paper-Based Reading in Supplementary Extensive Reading (SER) Programs

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This paper presents the perceptions of 70 English Language majors who practiced paper-based and screen-based Supplementary Extensive Reading (SER) over one year at two Japanese universities. Students from four (two Reading and two non-Reading) courses practiced paper-based SER in semester one and screen-based SER in semester two (using online website, Xreading.com). An overall preference for screen-based SER is investigated through questionnaire responses and performance data. Insights into differential responses from first and second years, between genders, and between students from different contexts are considered as are reasons for the continued strong support for paper-based SER. Implications of this research may interest departmental course co-ordinators and influence future research programs.

本稿では、日本の2つの大学において、約1年以上の間、70人の英語専攻の生徒が、紙ベースおよびスクリーンベースでの〝補足多読”（SER）を行ったことを示しています。4つのコース（内2つはリーディングコース、残り2つはリーディング以外のコース）の生徒達は、前期に紙ベースのSERに参加し、後期にスクリーンベースのSER（Xreading.comのウェブサイトを使用して）に参加しました。スクリーンベースのERに対する生徒達の全体的な選好については、アンケートの回答およびパフォーマンスデータを通して調査されます。紙ベースのSERのサポートを継続する理由があるとして、1年目と2年目、男女間、違うコースの生徒達の間での回答の相違に関する洞察は考慮されています。本研究の意義は、部門別のコーディネータの関心と今後の研究計画へ影響を与える可能性があることです。

Extensive Reading (ER) programs are now acknowledged to hold significant benefits for language students. In a meta-analysis, Nakanishi (2015, 6) suggested ER research show they can “improve students’ reading proficiency”. Others, such as Grabe (2009, 328), claim long-term and large-scale ER improves “abilities in several other language areas”. Often the focus of a course, ER also plays graded but supplementary roles, and this paper is concerned with students who participated in what the author calls Supplementary Extensive Reading (SER). SER remains an ER program and aims for Waring & McLean’s (2015, 164-165) four essential elements in ER: reading with fluent comprehension, reading in large volume, reading over extended time-periods, and reading long, meaningful texts. These texts can be either paper-based or screen-based books.

Walker, R. j. (2017). Screen versus paper: Perceptions of screen-based reading versus paper-based reading in supplementary extensive reading (SER) programs. In G. Brooks (Ed.) *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 329-341). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

Paper-based books

Until recently, ER programs used paper-based book libraries of graded readers (GR) that were built-up with financial backing from institutions. Effective programs tend to follow four conditions that are outlined in Robb and Kano (2013, 245): i) ER is used in a variety of courses, ii) students are held to account for their reading, iii) teachers assess student performance with ease, and iv) books are easy to manage and access. These four conditions make ER programs easy to participate-in because books are easier to obtain and responses are completed in a smooth manner. However, it is notoriously difficult to satisfy them all. A student can falsify claims about the number of pages he or she has read and it is possible to write a response based on information from the front and back cover. Because of this, many teachers have wondered how to make ER programs more transparent and easier to track or observe.

Screen-based ER books

Screen-based (e-books or digitised) books are still new to ER, but in 2014 a pay-to-access online library of GR texts, Xreading, became available. The following year Milliner and Cote (2015) reported on their use of it with university students. They found that students had a positive perception of reading e-books on smartphones, but that it didn't necessarily lead to engagement with the texts (p.408). They counselled potential teacher-users to take an active and ongoing role in guiding, instructing and supporting the service. After all, the smartphone is still widely perceived as a medium for casual or fun activities. A call to use it for educational purposes acts to confront prior expectations. Screen-based books, therefore, are a convenient but largely unproven ER medium; paper-based books, however, are proven as an ER medium, yet may have become inconvenient.

Non-ER reading specialists such as Naomi Baron have warned of negative effects associated with reading on digital devices. They include reduced concentration, reduced possibilities of rereading text, poor memorisation, and the loss of the emotional connection formed with paper texts (see Baron, 2015). More worrying for ELT students, Mangen et al. (2013) showed how reading on screen-based media led to weaker comprehension of texts. However, despite her reservations, Baron forecasts digital reading to soon dominate certain genres and called for research on meaningful uses of screen-based technology (p. 233). Some of these studies suggest that the performance of younger generations when screen-based reading is similar to that of paper-based reading. In their study on text comprehension and memorization, Porion, Aparicio, Megalakaki, Robert, and Baccino (2016) claimed screen-based reading to be "comparable" to paper-based reading; Norman and Furnes (2016) showed it need not damage metacognitive regulation, and Tveit and Mangen (2014), in a study on teenagers, described how a majority (and especially males and reluctant readers) already preferred screen-based readers. Crucially though, they found that 'avid readers' still preferred print.

Research Questions

This exploratory research sought to discover student perceptions of SER after four groups spent the spring semester doing print-based reading and the fall semester doing screen-based reading. It utilises responses from a Likert-scale questionnaire (see Appendix A) and student performance data to shed light on the following questions:

1. Are students happy to do ER?
2. Which medium do students believe helps them concentrate more?
3. Do students prefer to take SER books out of a traditional or an online library?
4. Is Xreading useful for university students?
5. Where did students do their reading on Xreading?
6. Which medium would they choose again: paper or screen?

Research question 1 concerns SER with both media. Questions 2, 3, and 6 necessitate comparison between media. Questions 4 and 5 focus on Xreading.

Context

70 English Language majors from two universities (hereafter university one and university two) and four separate courses practiced paper-based SER between April and July 2015 and screen-based SER from September to January 2016. One first year class and one second year class were taken from both

universities. University one students were enrolled in non-Reading courses; university two students in Reading courses. Questionnaires were administered to students immediately after the program's completion. Table one details the respondents in each course and divides them by gender. Females outnumbered males by almost two to one. The asterisk next to each class denotes a level within the institution. One denotes low-level and two denotes high-level. Three courses were deemed high-level; the Discussion class from university one was deemed low-level.

Semester one: Paper-based SER. In the paper-based programs, university one students were requested to read ten or more SER books and handwrite responses to them before the end of the semester. Their responses were used in four in-class book talks and submitted for grading at the end of the semester. University two students followed a departmental requirement to read 300 or more pages and follow the same book talk and written response program. Course content for university one courses focused on discussion or writing skills while university two courses focused on intensive reading of American literature. SER was an external (yet crucial) part of these courses, but only essential data was retained by the teacher.

Semester two: Screen-based SER. In summer 2015 the author decided to use Xreading in semester two. Unlike with print-based ER, the screen-based product, Xreading, automatically provides statistics on several variables. Six variables concern us here: the number of books read, the number of words read, average book levels, time spent on a text, reading speed, and comprehension-based quiz scores. Descriptive data for these variables is in Appendix B. It shows that five times more Writing students (from university one) read over 15 books on Xreading than they did on paper. The university two first-year Reading class read the most books (an average of 24), read the highest average number of words (24,608), spent the longest time reading (3 hours, 17 minutes), and read the highest average level of text, 2.14. (There are 8 levels which suggests they read comprehensible texts that could be read without need for translation.) For the final two variables, the second-year Academic Reading class had the highest average reading speed (182 words per minute) and the second-year Discussion class scored the highest average quiz score (74.6%).

The Questionnaire

The Likert-scale questionnaire contained 33 statements in four sections: ER at this university, Assessment & Post-Reading Activities, Paper-Based & Screen-Based ER, and Online ER – Xreading. It was adapted from Dornyei and Taguchi (2009) with the statements

Table 1

Questionnaire Respondents Divided by University and Gender

	Male	Female	Total
University 1			
Discussion (Year 2) *	5	9	14
Writing (Year 1) **	6	11	17
			(31)
University 2			
Reading (Year 1) **	5	15	20
Academic Reading (Year 2) **	8	11	19
			(39)
Total	**24**	**46**	**70**

answerable via a six-point scale that ranged from strong agreement to strong disagreement. Before answering, students were informed of the sections and asked to query anything they did not understand. Having practiced paper-based reading in semester one and screen-based reading in semester two, they were then instructed to close their eyes and reflect on their experiences with both media. The teacher reminded them of his neutrality for paper and screen in SER before instructing them on how to answer each question. Students were given 15 minutes to complete it.

Discussion

Statements relevant to the six research questions are discussed below.

1 Are students happy to do ER? Students from both universities unanimously stated that all English majors should have the chance to do ER. Table two below shows that 69 out of 70 students believed that all English students should have the chance to do ER.

A majority of students also agreed that ER improved their confidence in other English skills (see table 3), with a similar number agreeing that the minimum reading target of 15 or more books was suitable (see table 4). Unexpectedly, students in Reading courses expressed slightly more enthusiasm for ER than those in non-Reading courses.

2 Which medium do students believe helps them concentrate more? A surprising find of this questionnaire was that a slight majority of students believed they could concentrate more when reading on screen than on paper. With the understanding that concentration is a precursor to comprehension, their perception runs counter to studies such as Mangen et al (2013) who claimed paper-based reading led to better comprehension. Tables 5 and 6 both show that a very slight majority of SER students believed they concentrated better when doing screen-based reading.

Table 2

All English (Major) Students Should Have the Chance to Do ER

	strongly disagree	**disagree**	**a little disagree**	**a little agree**	**agree**	**strongly agree**
Discussion		1		5	7	1
Writing				3	12	2
Reading				5	8	7
Academic Reading				5	7	7
Total		**1**		**18**	**34**	**17**
		Disagree: 1			**Agree: 69**	

Table 3

ER Improved My Confidence in Other English Skills

	strongly disagree	disagree	a little disagree	a little agree	agree	strongly agree
Discussion		2	2	7	2	1
Writing			4	10		2
Reading			2	9	5	4
Academic Reading		1	2	10	4	2
Total		**3**	**10**	**36**	**11**	**9**
		Disagree: 13			**Agree: 56**	

Table 4

The Aim to Read 15+ Books in Semester 2 Was Suitable

	strongly disagree	**disagree**	**a little disagree**	**a little agree**	**agree**	**strongly agree**
Discussion		1	4	2	4	2
Writing	1		5	6	2	3
Reading		1		8	3	8
Academic Reading	1	1	2	9	5	4
Total	**2**	**3**	**11**	**25**	**13**	**15**
		Disagree: 16			**Agree: 53**	

Table 5

I Concentrate Better When Reading Books on Paper

	strongly disagree	**disagree**	**a little disagree**	**a little agree**	**agree**	**strongly agree**
Discussion	2	3	7		2	
Writing		1	3	2	5	6
Reading	2		8	4	4	2
Academic Reading	1	4	5	3	3	3
Total	**5**	**8**	**23**	**9**	**14**	**11**
		Disagree: 36			**Agree: 34**	

Table 6

I Concentrate Better When Reading Books on a Screen

	strongly disagree	**disagree**	**a little disagree**	**a little agree**	**agree**	**strongly agree**
Discussion	1	2	2	3	5	1
Writing	2	5	4		5	1
Reading	1	3	5	4	3	4
Academic Reading	3	3	1	5	6	1
Total	**7**	**13**	**12**	**12**	**19**	**7**
		Disagree: 32			**Agree: 38**	

This result merited further investigation. Firstly, by excluding the low-level Discussion class from my calculations, I re-calculated table 6 and found that 32 high-level students agreed that paper-based reading helped them concentrate better (as opposed to 24 who disagreed). This suggests that a small majority of higher-level students believed they concentrated better on paper. Secondly, by focusing on male respondents, it was discovered that lower-level males were more likely to believe they concentrated better on screen, and that three times more males in high-level classes claimed to concentrate better when reading with paper (see

Appendix C). Overall, preferences are equally divided but there is a suggestion that lower level students – especially males - believe they concentrate better when reading on screen than on paper. This echoes the findings of Tveit and Mangen (2014).

3 Do students prefer to take SER books out of a traditional or an online library? Tables 7 and 8 reveal students to have a slight preference for taking books out of an online library. Once again, the lower level Discussion class distort the picture. By excluding data for this class, higher-level students gave equal support to both systems.

4 Is Xreading useful for university students? Table 9 shows almost unanimous support for the use of Xreading with university students. Although a few high-level Academic Reading students disagreed, the majority see a place for Xreading. Given such backing, it is important to find out where, when and with what students it can be best used.

The support for Xreading is all-the-more-impressive as the website went offline due to a technical problem in late 2015. Table 10 suggests this prevented students from reading more books. Even so, the vast majority unequivocally believe XReading is a useful resource.

5 Where did students do their reading? Students today live hectic lives and balance many responsibilities. Their need for effective time-management skills is essential. Quite possibly, due to the sheer convenience of having a library on a smartphone, in SER programs, students are more likely to read screen-based texts than paper-based ones. Unsurprisingly, as tables 11 and 12 show, a majority used Xreading when travelling; a larger majority, though, used it at home or in their rooms. This suggests that both smartphones and computers were used. More specific details about their reading habits needs to be discovered in future studies.

Table 7
I Like Taking Books Out of a Traditional Library (Offline)

	strongly disagree	**disagree**	**a little disagree**	**a little agree**	**agree**	**strongly agree**
Discussion	3	2	8	1		
Writing		3	2	5	3	4
Reading	2	1	7	4	3	3
Academic Reading	2	3	6	5	2	1
Total	**7**	**9**	**23**	**15**	**8**	**8**
		Disagree: 39			**Agree: 31**	

Table 8
I Like Taking Books Out of Xreading's Online Library

	strongly disagree	**disagree**	**a little disagree**	**a little agree**	**agree**	**strongly agree**
Discussion	3	2	8	1		
Writing		3	2	5	3	4
Reading	2	1	7	4	3	3
Academic Reading	2	3	6	5	2	1
Total	**7**	**9**	**23**	**15**	**8**	**8**
		Disagree: 32			**Agree: 38**	

Table 9

Xreading Can Be a Useful Resource for University Students

	strongly disagree	disagree	a little disagree	a little agree	agree	strongly agree
Discussion				4	5	
Writing			1	5	7	4
Reading			2	4	7	3
Academic Reading	1	3	2	4	5	1
Total	**1**	**3**	**5**	**17**	**24**	**8**
		Disagree: 9			**Agree: 61**	

Table 10

Problems With the Site Stopped Me Reading More Books

	strongly disagree	disagree	a little disagree	a little agree	agree	strongly agree
Discussion	2	1	2	5	2	
Writing	1	3	4		8	4
Reading	1		6	2	6	3
Academic Reading	1	1	3	3	3	1
Total	**5**	**5**	**15**	**10**	**19**	**8**
		Disagree: 25			**Agree: 45**	

Table 11

I Used Xreading When Travelling Around (e.g. On the Bus, Car or Train)

	strongly disagree	disagree	a little disagree	a little agree	agree	strongly agree
Discussion	4	1	2	4	2	1
Writing	2	4	1	1	3	6
Reading	1		5	3	6	5
Academic Reading	4	3	1	1	8	2
Total	**11**	**8**	**9**	**9**	**19**	**14**
		Disagree: 28			**Agree: 42**	

6 Which medium would they choose again: paper or screen? The questionnaire concluded by asking students which medium they would choose in a future SER program: paper or screen? Table 13 shows that almost two out of three students chose screen-based ER, which included a majority from three out of four courses. Students from the best-performing group (Reading) and the lowest-level group (Discussion) gave Xreading strongest support. Of equal significance was the Writing course students who preferred paper. This higher-level class included avid readers whose liking of a traditional library is evident in Table 7.

Table 12
I Used Xreading When at Home or in My Room

	strongly disagree	disagree	a little disagree	a little agree	agree	strongly agree
Discussion	4	1	2	4	2	1
Writing	2	4	1	1	3	6
Reading	1		5	3	6	5
Academic Reading	4	3	1	1	8	2
Total	**11**	**8**	**9**	**9**	**19**	**14**
		Disagree: 28			**Agree: 42**	

Table 13
Medium Students Would Choose in the Future

	Paper-based	Screen-based
Discussion	3	10
Writing	10	7
Reading	4	16
Academic Reading	8	11
Total	**25**	**44**

Conclusion

An overall preference for screen-based reading from 70 English Language majors strongly indicates its great potential with ELT students. Indeed, as Shimada (2017) recently suggested, in a study with Japanese students using TOEIC materials, students at Japanese institutions may now prefer web-based materials over paper-based materials. In this study, it was discovered that first years read more screen-based books than second years, but that higher-level students were more likely to choose a paper-based book than lower-level students. It also appeared that lower-level males preferred screen-based reading, which may be because a majority believed they could concentrate better with this medium. Inferential analysis of data from this and other studies is needed to confirm any age, gender and proficiency-based preferences. Follow-up research will focus on a more controlled look at student preference and performance over one year of mixed media SER from Reading and non-Reading-based courses.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire

To answer a question you should tell me how much you agree or disagree with a statement. Do this by drawing around a number from 1 to 6. Try and answer all of the statements

Strongly disagree	Disagree	A little (slightly) disagree	A little (slightly) agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

Example:

(e.g.) If you strongly agree with the following statement, write this:

I like reading very much	1	2	3	4	5	6

About me

Check the below box which applies to you

Male		Female	

Section 1 EXTENSIVE READING (ER) AT THIS UNIVERSITY

1.	All English (major) students should have the chance to do ER	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Doing ER improved my confidence for other English skills (e.g: Conversation, Reading, and Writing)	1	2	3	4	5	6
3a.	Since April 2015 I think I spent too much time doing ER	1	2	3	4	5	6
3b.	Since April 2015 I think I spent too little time doing ER	1	2	3	4	5	6
4a.	ER is best used with 1st Year English majors at this university	1	2	3	4	5	6
4b.	ER is best used with 2nd Year English majors at this university	1	2	3	4	5	6
5a.	There were enough interesting books in the library for me in semester 1	1	2	3	4	5	6
5b.	There were enough interesting books on XReading for me in semester 2	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section 2 ASSESSMENT AND POST- READING ACTIVITIES

1.	The aim to read 15+ books in semester 2 was a good and suitable one	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	It was OK that the teacher did not always check my writing and quizzes	1	2	3	4	5	6
3a.	I like handwriting a response more than answering an online quiz	1	2	3	4	5	6
3b.	I like answering an online quiz more than handwriting a response	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	If I 'notice' a word that I do not fully understand, I keep a note about it a journal	1	2	3	4	5	6
5a.	I liked keeping a journal (or written responses) in semester one	1	2	3	4	5	6
5b.	I liked not keeping a journal in semester 2. It was better to do quizzes	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section 3 PAPER BASED AND SCREEN-BASED E.R

1a.	I concentrate better when reading books on paper (more) than on a screen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1b.	I concentrate better when reading books on a screen (more) than on paper.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2a.	I think reading books on paper is more convenient than (reading) on a screen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2b.	I think reading books on a screen is more convenient than (reading) on paper.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2c.	I think reading books on paper and on screen are equally convenient for me	1	2	3	4	5	6
3a.	I like taking books out of a traditional library (offline)	1	2	3	4	5	6
3b.	I prefer to take books out of an online library (e.g. Xreading)	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section 3 PAPER BASED AND SCREEN-BASED E.R

1	Xreading can be a useful resource for university students	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Xreading has 8 levels of books. It needs more low level (level 1 and 2) books.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Problems with the site stopped me reading more books.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	I used Xreading when travelling on the bus, car or train...	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	I used Xreading when at home or in my room	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	I had problems with instructions on Xreading	1	2	3	4	5	6
7a.	It was easy to read over 15 books on Xreading	1	2	3	4	5	6
7b.	I regularly read on XReading (one book every 1 or 2 weeks)	1	2	3	4	5	6

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

If you had the chance to use either paper-based or screen-based Extensive Reading again - which would you choose? Paper-based ER or screen-based ER?

If you had the chance to use either paper-based or screen-based Extensive Reading again - which would you choose? Paper-based ER or screen-based ER?

	Paper-based ER	Screen-based ER (Xreading)
Write 'yes' in the box of your choice		

Write a few words to explain your decision. This can be in English or in Japanese. ________________________

____

____

____

____

____

Appendix B

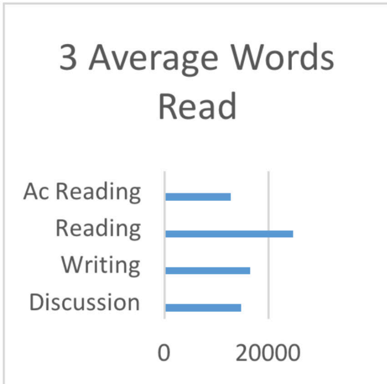
1. Percentage-based performance data for university 1

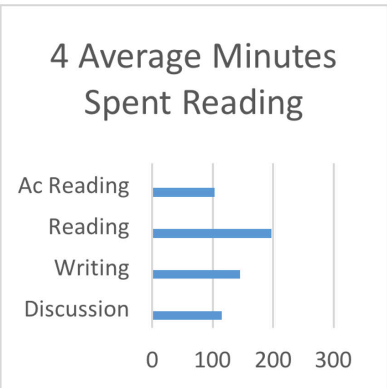
	0-4 books	5-9 books	10-14 books	15+ books
Writing (1st Year)				
Semester 1* (paper)	16%	41%	32%	11%
Semester 2 (screen)	6%	23%	6%	65%
Discussion (2nd Year)				
Semester 1* (paper)	5%	31%	47%	16%
Semester 2 (screen)	19%	31%	13%	38%

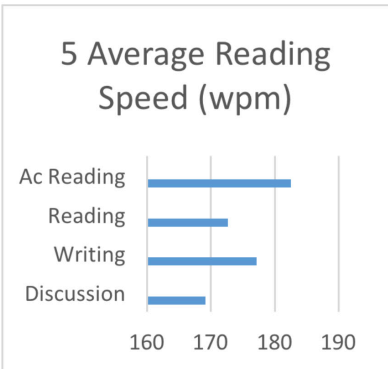
*This does not include four books read 'in-class' to raise awareness of ER.

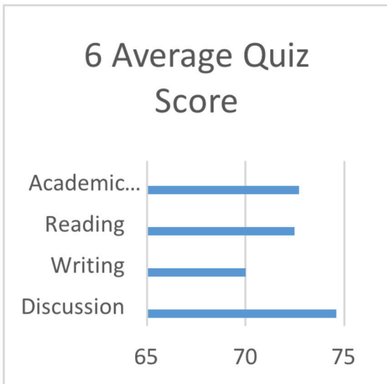
2. Raw data from XREADING FOR SEMESTER TWO

Tables on 1 Average Number of Books Read, 2 Average Book Level, 3 Average Words Read, 4 Average Minutes Spent Reading, 5 Average Reading Speed, and 6 Average Quiz Score



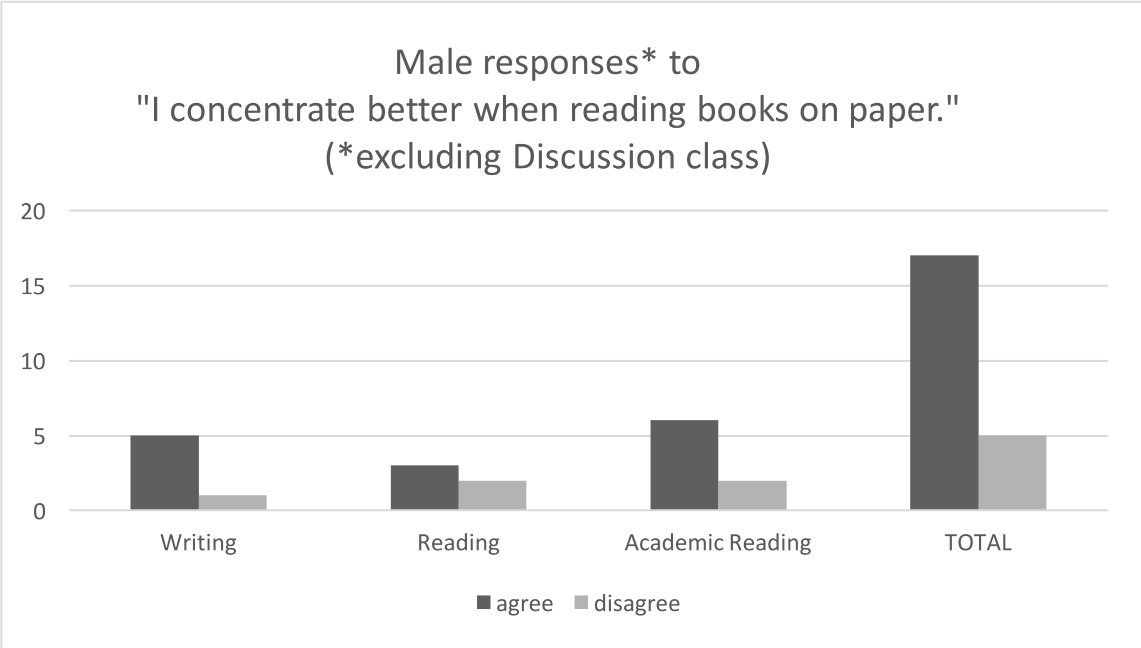






Appendix C

1. Male responses (excluding Discussion students) for the statement: "I concentrate better when reading books on paper."



Elementary Teacher Education in Japan: How Can We Help?

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Elementary school teachers in Japan have for over fifteen years now been working alongside Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) from all over the world. Although there has been a large amount of research on the interaction between these ALTs and Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs), the research has broadly looked across all levels of English instruction and seems to have focused on problems that arise between these two groups of teachers. Even though much of this data reveals cultural differences as being one of the major underlying causes of conflict, little is discussed about how we in the field of teacher education can make steps toward preventing this conflict. This paper will share data on pre-service elementary teachers' awareness of and exposure to diverse cultures at one Japanese university and discuss the implications this data has on the future of elementary education teacher training and the need for multicultural education.

日本では15年以上小学校の教師が外国語指導助手（ALT）と一緒に働き続いています。このALTと日本人外国語担当教員（JTE）の相互作用について多くの研究がありますが、こういう研究がだいたい一般的に小・中・高学校全部の英語教育、そしてこのALTとJTEの相互作用の問題の確認しかしてない。この研究で多くの問題が文化の違いで発生することが分かったのにあまりにもどうやって我々教員養成の分野の会員がこの問題を防止できるかっていう話が進んでないんです。本論文が本研究で日本にある大学で初等教育の学生の種々の文化の知ることそして直接の経験について集まったデータを発表して、初等教育・教員養成の将来と多文化教育の必要さに対する含蓄を論議します。

The topic of Japanese Teachers of English (JTE) and foreign Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) relations and team teaching has been discussed for years in Japan. Further, with the recent inclusion of required English classes in the elementary curriculum, this discussion has branched out to include elementary Homeroom Teachers (HRT) and their ALT counterparts. In terms of research that has been done on the topic, there have also been many articles exploring the difficulties between ALTs and HRTs (i.e. Leonard, 1999; Ohtani, 2010; Tsuido, Otani, & Davies, 2012) and articles explaining studies on HRT and ALT interactions (i.e. Amaki, 2008; Muller, 2015).

Many of these articles (Amaki, 2008; Tsuido, Otani, & Davies, 2012) designate a lack of communication as a common difficulty faced on both ends, as it may often be the case that "low English proficiency levels among staff English teachers lead to a lack of confidence in speaking English in class, and in the collaborative creation of team-teaching plans with ALTs" (Amaki, 2008). Further, as Ohtani (2010) states, it is often the HRT's inability to fully communicate in English combined with the ALT's inability to do so in Japanese that lead these teachers to simply stop trying to communicate.

There is, however, another source of conflict

Walter, B. R. (2017). Elementary teacher education in Japan: How can we help? In G. Brooks (Ed.) *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 342-350). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

between these ALTs and HRTs. In his book, Leonard (1999) invited both JTEs and ALTs to write him with difficulties they were experiencing while working with their team teaching counterpart, and while communication was also mentioned, the majority of the issues involve a misunderstanding or lack of knowledge about each other's culture. Some of these differences in culture included the use of vacation days (or lack thereof), issues of privacy and private space, issues surrounding gender equality, and perceived "cold" work environments; all of which led to some breakdown in HRT and ALT relationships. Tsuido, Otani, and Davies (2012) found similar responses in part of their research focusing on ALT frustrations, listing ten situations in which some cross-cultural communication problems arose. Such problems include working on Saturday, uncomfortable silence in their HRT counterparts, invasion of privacy in the form of personal questions and public expression of views on ALT morals, and an indirect approach to problem solving; many of which can be attributed simply to a breakdown in understanding of culture on both the HRT and ALT end.

Things have become more complicated since the mandatory inclusion of elementary English lessons due to the changing role of elementary ALT and HRT lesson responsibilities and expectations. In the past, ALTs were often left to teach English classes on their own (Ohtani, 2010). Indeed, at first "most elementary school teachers [were] not trained to teach English, and so there [was] a need to bring ALTs into elementary classrooms" (Tsuido, Otani, & Davies, 2012, p. 50). As time has passed, however, universities have begun training their pre-service elementary teachers to create English lessons and take the lead during elementary English classes. How then are these students being prepared to work with an ALT? In an effort to avoid cultural conflicts, it would make sense to have HRTs who are aware of differences in cultures from their own. Although an awareness of culture does not equate to full understanding of the culture, it can at least serve as a flag for teachers to recognize from where the potential conflict originates.

This paper summarizes the data from 40 elementary education student responses concerning their exposure to other cultures, their perceptions of the elementary school ALT and the role those individuals take, and perceived potential difficulties and concerns these students have looking forward to when they begin working as a HRT. Students responded to a questionnaire given to them by their instructors after one of their usual lectures. These responses give some light into what future HRTs are learning about potentially working in a multicultural environment.

Research Questions

In order to get a better view of how students in teacher training programs at a Japanese university are being prepared to work in a multicultural environment, the following questions were developed. First, what kind of exposure do these students have to cultures outside of their own? Second, how do these students perceive the culture and role of the ALT in an elementary level English class? Third, what do these students see as potential difficulties for when they become HRT and begin working with an ALT?

Method

Design

A survey questionnaire was given to the students to investigate student concerns about working with ALTs when they begin working at an elementary school, student perceptions of what an ALT is, and student experience with and exposure to individuals from a different cultural background from their own. The questionnaire was designed by the author to provide both quantitative and qualitative data, including 20 Likert scale items rating from 1 to 6 ("strongly agree" to "strongly disagree") and 9 open ended questions. Not all items designed for the questionnaire were analyzed for the purposes of the current study, as will be evident in the analysis of the data in the *Results and Discussion* section below. The questionnaire was administered in Japanese to avoid language based problems and to maximize the number of responses collected. The Japanese version of the questionnaire (Appendix A) was checked by a mother tongue Japanese speaker before it was distributed to the participants. Further, the questionnaire was given by the Japanese instructor of the course, and participants were not given details about the nationality of the researcher, to avoid any influence on participant choice of answers.

Participants

As this was the first iteration of the current study, the questionnaire was only given to three classes of students majoring in elementary education at a university in Hiroshima prefecture. The students were in a course focusing on curriculum development taught completely in their native Japanese language. The questionnaire was given to students in their classes with directions to return completed questionnaires to a sealed box located in the university. Names and student ID numbers of respondents were not collected. The questionnaire was given to 120 students, but there was only a total response rate of 33% (*n*=40).

Of the 40 respondents, 20 were male and 20 were female. The majority of respondents were in their second year of schooling (*n*=31), with considerably less third year (*n*=6) and fourth year (*n*=3) students. Respondents' ages ranged from 19 years to 24 years old. As part of the background information, respondents were asked to rate their own levels of English ability. The majority of respondents rated their English ability levels as a beginner (*n*=17) or intermediate (*n*=18). The remaining levels included no English ability (*n*=4), advanced (*n*=1), and fluent (*n*=0).

Results and Discussion

As stated above, a total of 40 students from the initial 120 students returned their surveys (a respondent rate of 33%). The following section explores participant responses in relation to the three research questions: what kind of exposure do these students have to cultures outside of their own; how do these students perceive the culture and role of the ALT in an elementary level English class; what do these students see as potential difficulties for when they become HRT and begin working with an ALT?

Student Exposure to Foreign Cultures

The data for this research question came mostly from the qualitative, open ended questions on the second half of the questionnaire, but one Likert item provided some data on participant exposure specifically to ALTs. The item stated, "I really enjoyed lessons with ALTs when I was in school." This item was to be answered only by those participants who had ALTs in any primary or secondary educational setting. Of the 40 respondents, 36 answered the question (Strongly Agree, *n*=17; Agree, *n*=15; Slightly Agree, *n*=3; Slightly Disagree, *n*=1), indicating that the majority of the participants have been exposed at least to some foreign culture at some point in their lives.

For more detailed data, participants were asked to answer these qualitative questions: "Have you spent any time outside of Japan? If so, why and for how long," and "Do you have any friends from other nationalities, or have you spent time with someone from another country?" In response to the first set of questions, 54% of participants responded that they had spent time outside of Japan. Only 3 respondents spent more than a month outside of Japan, while the majority of respondents were abroad for only 1 to 2 weeks (*n*=7). Reasons provided for the time abroad included sightseeing, involvement in a school trip, involvement in some type of study abroad or homestay program, and a baseball tournament.

In response to the second set of questions, 45% of respondents indicated that they had friends from other nationalities or had spent some time with someone from another country. As, in the previous question, some respondents had indicated that they had spent time in a study abroad or homestay program, this data is not surprising. Indeed the majority of responses explaining this interaction indicated as much. One respondent did state that they had a "haafu," or multiracial, friend in school, but that friend spoke only in Japanese. Although this data does show that many of the participants have some exposure to a culture besides their own, the limited time and type of interaction suggests that participants did not necessarily learn much about these other cultures.

Student Perceptions of ALTs

The data for this research question was collected from both Likert responses and short answer responses to the open ended question requesting participants to describe in as much detail as possible what their image of an ALT is. The Likert items listed in Table 1 show student responses in regards to how they perceive the role of an ALT in an English classroom and for English instruction in general. The final question below designating student preference between a Japanese English teacher and foreign ALT in their future classrooms was also included to determine how strongly the respondents felt about the foreign nationality of the assistant teacher.

The data provided in Table 1 shows that the majority of respondents felt that lessons with ALTs are important, but the role of the ALT is somewhat strictly defined. The majority of respondents (65%) agreed that the ALT is only helpful in the classroom itself, and that these ALTs are present to provide models of native pronunciation (82.5%) rather than to teach native-level grammar (30%). As for the nationality of the ALT, the majority of students preferred a foreign ALT (82.5%) over a Japanese teacher of English.

The qualitative question in relation to this topic asked respondents to describe in as much detail as possible their image of an ALT. A large percentage of the respondents (42.1%) described the ALT in their responses as a cheerful "mood-maker." Other commonly found words to describe an ALT included "fun," "fresh," "native," and "amazing." As to the ALT as a co-worker, very few responses considered this aspect of the ALT, but those that did seemed to focus on the fact that these individuals are assistants. One response given stated that "dependent on the Japanese teacher (homeroom teacher), the quality [of the ALT] changes. It depends on if the homeroom teacher and students can draw out the good in the ALT." Another responded stated, "in terms of their teaching, they are certainly not professionals and many are ordinary people."

Student Concerns and Predicted Difficulties

The final research question explored what elementary teachers-in-training see as potential difficulties for when they become HRT and begin working with an ALT. The respondents provided this data in response to a question on the qualitative part of the questionnaire, asking them what their concerns were about working with an ALT. As is expected, and seen in the research explored above (Tsuido, Otani, & Davies, 2012; Ohtani, 2010), over half of the respondents to this question (65.8%) described communication issues as one of their largest concerns. Respondent lack of

Table 1
Student Perceptions of ALT Roles (N=40)

	Strongly agree	Agree	Slightly agree	Slightly disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Lessons with ALTs are important for English learning.	22 (56.4%)	17 (43.6%)	-	-	-	-
2. ALTs are only useful in helping with classroom English lessons.	7 (17.5%)	11 (27.5%)	8 (20%)	13 (32.5%)	1 (2.5%)	-
3. The main role for ALTs in the classroom is to provide models of native pronunciation.	7 (17.5%)	15 (37.5%)	11 (27.5%)	4 (10%)	2 (5%)	1 (2.5%)
4. The main role for ALTs in the classroom is to teach native-level grammar.	-	3 (7.5%)	9 (22.5%)	4 (10%)	15 (37.5%)	9 (22.5%)
5. I would prefer a Japanese English assistant over a foreign ALT.	-	-	7 (17.5%)	10 (25%)	11 (27.5%)	12 (30%)

confidence in their own English ability (with 52.5% of respondents self-evaluating their English ability at a beginner level or below) was reflected in such concerns as “will [the ALT] understand my Japanese” or “My English ability is nonexistent.”

Participant concerns did go beyond simply the ability to communicate, however, as some respondents seemed concerned about issues of control during the English lesson. Although in many instances in the past the ALT in the elementary classroom was given the run of the curriculum and lesson planning (Ohtani, 2010), the inclusion of English in the elementary curriculum means that at least some universities are teaching students of elementary education how to plan for lessons in English, and it seems that some students are expecting to have full control of these lessons. Comments such as, “I’m worried about whether or not the ALT will be well engaged with the way the lessons I have designed are planned” and “whether or not we will be able to make lessons together, the leadership balance” show a shift in student expectations for the roles of the HRT and ALT during future English lessons.

Although there was no comment on concerns about possible clashing of cultures causing problems, participant responses to one Likert item show that the topic is not completely ignored. The item stated, “I feel it is important to learn about other cultures in order to teach English with an ALT,” and 97.5% of respondents agreed to some degree with this statement. This suggests that these future HRTs are aware that knowledge of another culture is important, but do not understand to what degree this knowledge can be used.

Limitations and Implications

There are some limitations to this study which are mostly in relation to the participants. The first limitation is in relation to the number of respondents to the questionnaire. Although the response rate of 33% was not terrible, there were still only 40 responses. A higher percentage of responses may have been possible if the teacher had time to give and collect the questionnaires in class. It would benefit the significance of the data and any future iterations of this study to attain closer to a 100% response rate. The second limitation is that the survey was only given to elementary teachers-in-training at one university in Japan. To get a broader understanding these students’ opinions from a national viewpoint, more data must be collected from an assortment of universities across a fuller range of prefectures in Japan. The collection of the current data was also proven to be difficult, as the process for getting approval for the disbursement of the questionnaire involved clearing quite a bit of “red tape” from the university administration. This was partially the reason why more data was not collected. Finally, a possible third limitation to the study involves the Japanese version of the questionnaire itself. Although the Japanese version of the questionnaire was checked by a native Japanese speaker, it is possible that participants could still figure out that the items were developed by a non-native Japanese speaker, potentially affecting their choices when responding to the questionnaire.

As the current data suggests, many of these elementary teachers-in-training show an interest in other cultures through their short trips abroad and recognize the importance of knowing about other cultures as it relates to working in a multicultural setting (as seen in the 97.5% affirmative participant responses to the Likert item of “I feel it is important to learn about other cultures in order to teach English with an ALT.”). There is a need in these students for knowledge about other cultures, suggesting that they would benefit from the inclusion of some sort of multicultural education course in their curriculum. Further, exposure to other cultures, whether through inclusion in international conferences or local workshops, would help these students to broaden their cultural experiences beyond these short trips abroad.

Conclusions

This paper investigated the beliefs of elementary teachers-in-training who are preparing to become HRTs at local elementary schools and teach English lessons alongside an ALT. In order to do this, three research questions were developed and data was analyzed in relation to them. The first question explored the kinds of exposure these students have to cultures outside of their own. It was determined that these students have very limited exposure to other cultures, and any trips outside of Japan were mostly over a very short period of time for the purpose of either sightseeing or a short study abroad/homestay program. The second question asked how these students perceive the culture and role of the ALT in an elementary level English class. The responses indicated that many students saw an ALT as a cheerful, fun individual who would need guidance, as they are not necessarily professional educators. Finally, this study explored what it is that these elementary teachers-in-training see as potential difficulties for when they become HRT and begin working with an ALT. Most respondents reported communication issues as their largest concerns. Although there was little mentioned of culture differences causing problems, it was suggested that the lack of this type of response may be because of a lack of knowledge in differences between Japanese and other cultures. This was supported by a very high percentage of respondents indicating that they thought it was important to know about other cultures to successfully work alongside an ALT.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire

私は小学校のALTと英語の授業について研究を進めており、そのための調査にご協力をお願いします。本調査の結果よって学業成績等において不利益を被ることは決してありません。また、本調査の結果は最終的には論文等で発表する予定ですが、それによって個人が特定されたり、個人の情報が漏えいしたりすることも決してありませんので、どうかご安心下さい。

I　あなた自身について尋ねします。

性：男・女　年齢：______　学年：________

英語力（全く無し、初級学者、中級学者、上級学者、ペラペラ）__________________

II　次の文書を読んでどう感じますか。

あなたの気持ちをもっとも適切に表す数字を一つだけ選んで、その数字に〇を付けて下さい。

（1=とてもそう思う、2=そう思う、3=少しそう思う、4=ちょっとそう思わない、5=そう思わない、6=全くそう思わない）

すべての文書が小学校でやる英語の授業のことについて聞きます。

1. 英語の授業には学生達に英語で読む機会と書く機会を出来るだけ増やすのが必要です。
1　2　3　4　5　6

2. 英語の授業には学生達に英語を話す機会と聞く機会を出来るだけ増やすのが必要です。
1　2　3　4　5　6

3. 小学校での英語の授業の間、日本語を一切話してはいけません。
1　2　3　4　5　6

4. ALT は英語の授業以外にも必要だと思います。
1　2　3　4　5　6

5. 英語を学ぶには ALT と学ぶ授業が大事です。
1　2　3　4　5　6

6. 私が学生の時、ALT との授業がとても楽しかったです。（ALT がいた場合のみ）
1　2　3　4　5　6

7. ALT の第一任務はネイティブな発音を学生にモデルとして与えることです。
1　2　3　4　5　6

8. ALT の第一任務はネイティブな文法を教えることです。
1　2　3　4　5　6

9. ネイティブな文法を教えるよりネイティブな発音を教える方が大事です。
1　2　3　4　5　6

10. ネイティブな発音を教えるよりネイティブな文法を教える方が大事です。
1　2　3　4　5　6

11. ALT になる人は第一言語（母国語）が英語の人にしかさせてはいけません。

1　2　3　4　5　6

12. 英語の授業でアメリカ英語の発音をモデルにするべきです。

1　2　3　4　5　6

13. 英語の授業でイギリス英語の発音をモデルにするべきです。

1　2　3　4　5　6

14. 英語の発音のモデルとして、アメリカ英語又はイギリス英語の発音以外認めません。

1　2　3　4　5　6

15. 英語の授業中に日本語を使うことは学生達の役に立ちます。

1　2　3　4　5　6

16. 英語の授業中に学生が日本語を使ってもいいですが、先生は使ってはいけません。

1　2　3　4　5　6

17. 私が一緒に働くなら、外国人の ALT より英語が出来る日本人の英語教師です。

1　2　3　4　5　6

18. 小学生が学ぶ英語のレベルを教える自信があります。

1　2　3　4　5　6

19. 将来一緒に働く ALT と英語で会話が出来る自信があります。

1　2　3　4　5　6

20. ALT と一緒に英語を教えるには他の国の文化を学ぶ必要があります。

1　2　3　4　5　6

III　次の文書を読んで自由に答えて下さい。

1. 出来るだけ細かく、あなたが持っている ALT のイメージを教えて下さい。

2. ALT と一緒に働く気持ちはどうですか？

3. ALT と一緒に働く事について、何か心配はありますか。もしあったら、その心配について書いて下さい。

4. ALT と一緒に働き始めたら、その ALT はどのような役割を果たすと思いますか？

5. あなたが小・中・高校生の時に ALT がいましたか？もしいたら、いつですか（例：小 5、中 1-3）？

6. 海外に行った事がありますか？もしあれば、その理由と期間を書いて下さい。

7. 外国の国籍を持っている友達がいますか？又は外国から来た人と一緒に時間を過ごした事がありますか？出来たらその人との関係を詳しく教えて下さい。

8. 英語の授業で日本語を使うことが学生の役に立つと思いますか？どうしてそう思いますか？

9. あなたが自分の英語力についてどう思っていますか？自分の英語力が小学校で英語を教えることにどう影響すると思いますか？

ご協力有難うございました。このアンケートが終わったら提出して下さい。

Creating Conditions for Collaborative Learning in the Language Classroom

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Collaborative learning is more than just a collection of pair and group work techniques. Effectively employing collaborative learning requires that teachers re-conceptualize their classroom as a 'created' space. This space is designed by the teacher to create the kinds of learning opportunities that make collaborative learning an effective pedagogical tool. This paper describes the use of techniques grounded in collaborative learning theories to bring about two of the necessary conditions for successful collaborative learning — group cohesion and scaffolded interaction – in a university ESP classroom. As a result, there was better cooperation between students and greater engagement in a group design project.

コラボレーティヴ・ラーニングは、単にペアワークとグループワークの合作と思われがちであるが、実際はそれ以上ものである。効果的なコラボレーティブ・ラーニングを行うためには、教師が「教室」という場を「創造された場」として再概念化する必要があるとされている。教師がこの「創造された場」を構築することで、コラボレーティヴ・ラーニングを効果的な教育的手段として用いることが可能となる。この研究では、コラボレーティブ・ラーニングの場が奏効するために必要な2つの要素である「グループの結束力」と、「相互作用の促進」の二つを用い、コラボレーティヴ・ラーニングの技術を適用することで、結果として工学部の大学講義において生徒間のより良い強調と、優れた設計プロジェクトへと繋がったため報告する。

Pair-work and group activities are an accepted part of most teachers' practice. Working in pairs or small groups, learners can act as mediators who help to explain new ideas or information (Gillies, 2003), serve as a pool of resources, as a source of motivation and a base of support as well as helping to facilitate language learning (Dörnyei, 1997). Yet, as Gillies (2003) notes, "placing students in groups and telling them to work together" (p. 45) does not always end up in learning or even positive interaction.

The motivation for this study came out of an English for Special Purposes course for architectural students in a Japanese university. In one portion of the course, the students work in groups to create an architectural design and present it to the class. While the majority of the students enjoyed the project and found it worthwhile, there were difficulties in some groups that did not seem to interact or cooperate very effectively or with some members who did not seem engaged in the group or the project. This led to the question of how to increase engagement and cooperation in the groups and among the members.

Collaborative learning and its range of techniques, such as the jigsaw, think-pair-share or the three-part interview, aimed at getting students to interact in a group, seemed to offer a way out of this situation. However, as Abrami, Chambers, Poulsen, Korous, Farrell, and d'Apollonia (1994) found, teachers often neglect to put into place one or more the important

Xethakis, L. (2017). Creating conditions for collaborative learning in the language classroom. In G. Brooks (Ed.) *The 2016 PanSIG Journal* (pp. 351-359). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.

aspects of collaborative learning.

To effectively employ collaborative learning in the classroom, teachers need to re-conceptualize their classroom as a 'created' space - one that has been designed to create the kinds of learning opportunities that make collaborative learning an effective pedagogical tool (Oxford, 1997). Berkeley, Cross, and Howe (2004) state that in a collaborative classroom, teachers "purposefully create a learning environment in which students interact with each other" (p. 29) and they make the intentional design of learning activities the first feature of collaborative learning.

The purpose of this study was to attempt to create such a space in the teacher-researcher's classroom and, using theories underlying collaborative learning, to design a collaborative learning environment. Widdowson's (1990) framework for pedagogic mediation was employed as the means to guide the development of principles grounded in professional knowledge but adapted to fit the context of the teacher-researcher's classroom (the process of developing these principles is described in Xethakis, 2016). These principles guided the design and implementation of activities aimed at creating conditions for successful collaborative learning in the classroom. The effectiveness of these principles and the collaborative learning techniques employed were then assessed by means of classroom observation, teacher journals and student surveys. This paper focuses on the use of these activities to bring about two of these conditions.

Condition 1: Creating a Cohesive Team

One of the most essential conditions for collaborative learning to succeed is motivating students to work as a group (Cohen, 1994), ensuring that they feel that they are part of team and "working together in a coherent group," (Scrivener, 2012, p. 85). Working in a cohesive group provides several benefits to students, including higher L2 motivation (Clement, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994), and a greater likelihood of active interaction between students (Levine and Moreland, 1990). Figure 1 summarizes the procedure and techniques used to create a cohesive team in this study.

An important factor in creating a sense of cohesion in a group is establishing a zone of comfort and a good relationship between group members, and one good way of doing this is for learners to share personal information (Dörnyei, 1997). Both Dörnyei

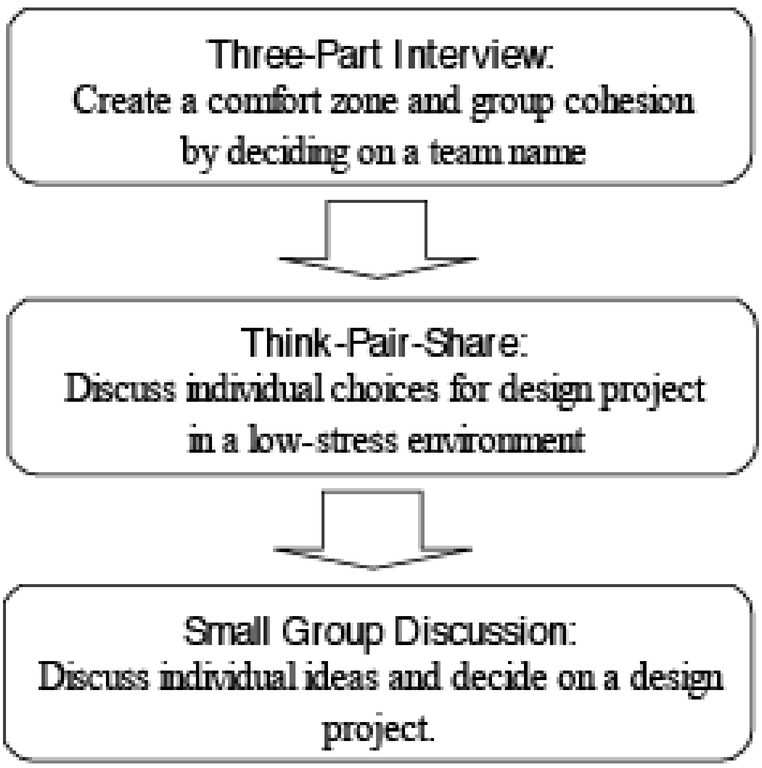

Figure 1. Collaborative learning techniques and aims in creating a cohesive team.

and Berkeley, et al (2005) recommend the use of ice-breakers for this purpose. The three-part interview is a collaborative learning technique that is well suited for this purpose (Berkeley, et al, 2005). In this technique a group of four students is broken into pairs. The pairs interview each other, and then switch partners and repeat the process.

In this study, this technique was used to create a sense of cohesion by having the students discuss six prompts to find things they had in common, such as a favorite food, a place they would like to travel to, or an activity they enjoyed. All four members then used this information to come up with a team name based on those things all four team members had in common. The goal of creating a team name encouraged the beginnings of a sense of rapport between team members, as shown in a classroom observation,

> *While a few of the students weren't very outgoing, the large majority of the students began talking with each other using the questions prompts on the sheet. There was a lot of conversation and interaction. There were a lot of smiles and laughs as well, so the students seemed to be enjoying the activity. The groups worked together to find common points for everyone in the group, and coming up with group names went very quickly (less than five minutes).* (Note 1-1)

While the ice-breaker helped to establish a rapport and a sense of cohesion, the overall purpose of this first class was to have the students discuss their ideas, decide on an architectural design and discuss some of its basic characteristics (size, location, access, etc.). This would then serve as a basis for more detailed discussions in the following classes.

Levine and Moreland (2004) note that for groups to work together creatively, the members of the group need to be motivated to share their ideas and feel that their ideas are useful to the group, they must communicate their ideas, and the group as a whole needs to take the time to consider the ideas and come to a consensus. To encourage this, the think-pair-share technique was employed. In the 'think' stage of this activity, the students are given time to consider an answer to a question or problem individually. Next, the students discuss their answers in pairs or small groups. This is the 'pair' stage. After voicing their opinions and hearing those of their partner, the students then 'share' their opinions with the larger group. This activity allows students to try out their response in a more low-risk situation before 'going public' with them, increasing students' willingness to express their opinion. Allowing the students to practice their comments first also tends to increase the quality of response (Barkley, et al, 2005). These features of the activity are especially important in a language learning context where student anxiety is always a factor.

In this class, the students were given twelve choices to consider for their design project. They were asked to pick three and write out their reasons for choosing each. The students then paired-up with another member of their group, reading their choices and reasons while their partner listened and gave simple feedback on their ideas before changing roles. This process gave the students the time to prepare an answer and the opportunity to rehearse the answer before contributing to the more high-stakes whole group discussion.

The effect of the think-pair share technique in building a sense of comfort can be seen as well,

> *Some of the students were hesitant to start talking to their partner. However, after the first partner had read their first or second choice, the pairs seemed to relax and there was more physical interaction (Bodies moved towards each other, heads began to bob up and down). By the end of the task most of the pairs were talking more freely.* (Note 1-1)

The outcome of these two techniques on the closing group discussion, where it seemed that the teams came together better and were more willing to share their preferences with each other, was noted in a journal entry,

> *I saw many of the students willing to read out their choices (as opposed to just showing their sheets) and this may have been a result of the earlier activities. There were lots of people turned around in their*

> *seats (tough to do in this classroom, so if they do it they must be interested in talking with each other). In all the groups the students were involved in the process and really working as groups, with lots of interaction, talking about design ideas, and asking other members opinions.* (Entry 1-1)

In addition to the teaching journal and classroom observation, a short survey was given to the students at the end of class to gain their point of view of on the activities. The results (See Appendix, Table 1) showed that the students enjoyed the activities overall and that they also felt that the set of activities helped them work better in their groups.

Condition 2: Scaffolding Interactions

For collaborative learning to succeed, teachers also need to consider how the students are expected to interact in each activity – a simple give and take of information or a more open exchange with a more elaborated discussion – and also the interplay between task, interaction and learning (Cohen, 1994).

McGroarty (1992) discusses the distinction between one- and two-way tasks in this context. One-way tasks, where one student speaks, the other listens and then they switch roles, can provide learners with more practice in extended speaking and listening. This may give them greater confidence in their ability to express themselves as well as understand others. The think-pair-share task discussed above is can be seen as an example of this. Two-way tasks, such as a jigsaw activity, where learners interact with partners, sharing information to complete a task, are suitable when more substantial interaction is expected.

Cohen (1994) adds two additional dimensions to the conception of tasks adopted in this study – the level of cooperation required and the degree of structure found in the task. Low-cooperation tasks merely require students to share information, as in a standard information-gap. High-cooperation tasks require students to work together to plan and make decisions in order to complete the task. The jigsaw-like activity below is an example of this type. Tight structure in a task includes explicit instructions or procedures, designated roles for students and a definite answer, whereas in loosely structured tasks the procedures for reaching a solution are not so clearly stated and there may not be a single correct answer.

In this study, the ultimate aim was for the students to engage in a loosely structured, high-cooperation, two-way task – discussing and making decisions about aspects of an architectural design. To do this, the students' interactions in each class were scaffolded, through a series of activities moving from one-way, low-cooperation tasks, with tight structures to a loosely structured, highly cooperative group discussion. Figure 2 shows an example of how this was done in a class where students decided the layout of their groups' designs.

First, the students engaged in a tightly structured, low-cooperation activity – describing the position of several shapes while their partner attempted to draw an identical picture – to help them build confidence in their ability to explain locations.

The effect of the tightly structured one-way tasks on the students' degree of comfort and confidence is shown in the following observation:

> *The fun involved in the confusion of drawing the partner's picture gained the students' interest and the level of noise rose as it went on. Many students were actively gesturing, trying to explain where things were in the pictures, with the focus on getting the picture right rather than getting the language perfect. There was laughter and chatting as they did the activities and a lot of laughing when they compared pictures.* (Note 1-3)

The next task – where students had to draw a quick sketch of their own house and then describe it to their partner – was similar, if a bit looser in structure, to the first task in level of cooperation and direction of communication, however it moved the content of the exchanges closer to the discussion activity.

The students then worked together as a group on a jigsaw-like task to fill in locations on the floor plan of a design using the different clues they had each been given. The nature of this activity provided

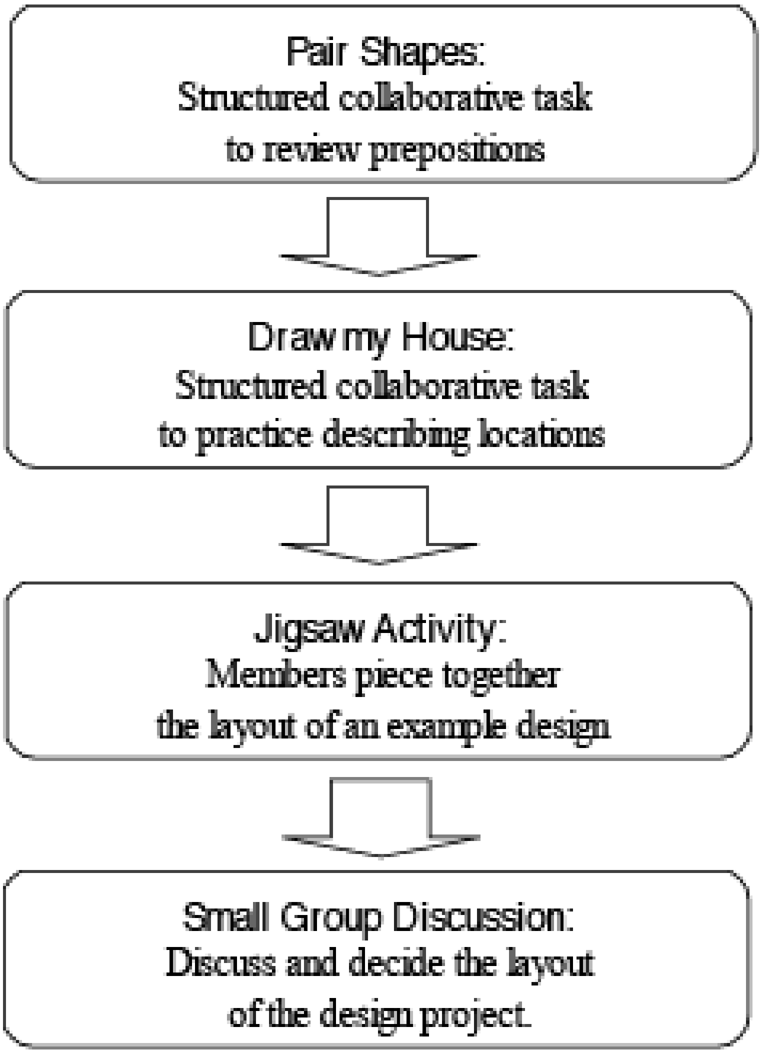

Figure 2. Class activities and their role in scaffolding students' interaction.

an opportunity for two-way interaction between group members with a lesser degree of structure, as well as introducing and providing students with an opportunity to practice language for expressing opinions about location, which they could use in planning their designs later in the class. It was hoped that this would allow the students to focus on understanding how the language related to an architectural design, rather than on understanding the language itself, as well as allowing the students to use the language more easily in their discussions of their own designs.

Another comment from the teaching journal shows the overall effect of scaffolding on the groups' interactions:

> *There was a continued level of interest and focus throughout the class and the amount of interaction in the groups – asking for opinions, talking about ideas and no one person doing a majority of the work – shows that the pair-work and jigsaw-like activities contributed to the group work on the design project. It seemed that the movement from simple to more complex practice allowed the students to use more English in their group planning and five of the six groups were focused on doing their project with lots of talking, gesturing for explanations, nods and smiles in their interactions.* (Note 1-3)

The results of the in-class survey (See Appendix, Table 2) also showed the students felt that the pair work and group activities helped them to work on their project, and that working in their groups on their project and interacting with the other group members helped them to learn English.

Discussion and Limitations

Barkley, Cross, & Howe (2005) stress the importance of designing tasks and structuring procedures to actively engage students and effectively employ collaborative learning. The series of activities discussed above helped to create conditions for successful collaborative learning by encouraging cohesion among the members of a team and scaffolding their interactions through the intentionally designed progression of the activities, moving from simple forms of one-way, highly-structured, low-cooperation interaction to more complex, two-way, 'ill-structured' (Cohen, 1994), high-cooperation forms. These activities were focused on a specific group project, however, by re-conceptualizing the use and aims of collaborative learning activities, as well as conventional pair and group activities, in their own classrooms, similar progressions of activities could be employed by teachers to improve student cooperation and interaction, as well as building confidence (McGroaty, 1992).

While this paper has shown the use of these activities in creating conditions for collaborative learning, some limitations should be noted as well. First, all the students were in the same department and have had many classes together. The cohort-like nature of the students might have predisposed them to working as a group, after overcoming some initial hesitancy. Because of this, and the fact that the study deals with only a single group of students, future research should examine the use of intentionally structured collaborative learning in other classrooms.

Moreover, though the overall levels cooperation and interaction improved greatly, there were still groups that didn't gel completely and this might be helped by more time for team-building. Prichard, Stratford and Bizo (2006) suggest that even ninety minutes of team-building training can provide longer-term benefits.

It should also be noted that while many of the interactions between group members were carried out in English, a large part of the group discussions took place in Japanese, so it is difficult to say if the techniques employed in this study helped to improve the students' English abilities. That being said, the primary aim of this study was to improve the quality of interactions and level of cooperation between group members and so this was considered an acceptable trade-off considering the overall level of the students. (For an example of activities to enable student discussions in the context of a group project, see Fushino, 2010.)

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Appendix

Results from In-class Student Surveys

Table 1:
Student replies regarding activities aimed at creating a cohesive team. (n=22)

Q1: Was today's class interesting or boring				(M=4.36)
It was boring.		It was OK.		It was interesting.
1	2	3	4	5
—	—	**3**	**8**	**11**
Q2: Do you think your group project is interesting?				(M=4.36)
It was boring.		It was OK.		It was interesting.
1	2	3	4	5
—	**1**	**1**	**9**	**11**
Q3: Did you enjoy doing group and pair work today?				(M=4.14)
It was boring.		It was OK.		It was interesting.
1	2	3	4	5
—	—	**4**	**11**	**7**
Q4: Did today's class help you to enjoy working in your group?				(M=4.14)
No, not at all		It helped some.		Yes, a lot.
1	2	3	4	5
—	**1**	**3**	**10**	**8**
Q5: Did working in a group help you to learn English today?				(M=3.50)
No, not at all		It helped some.		Yes, a lot.
1	2	3	4	5
—	**3**	**11**	**2**	**6**
Q6: Did you use English a lot today?				(M=3.36)
No, not at all		I used some English		Yes, a lot.
1	2	3	4	5
—	**4**	**10**	**4**	**4**

Table 2:
Student replies regarding activities aimed at scaffolding interaction. (*n*=18)

Q1: Was today's class interesting or boring?				(*M*=4.06)
It was boring.		It was OK.		It was interesting.
1	2	3	4	5
—	—	**6**	**5**	**7**
Q2: Did today's pair and group work help you to do your project?				(*M*=3.83)
No, not at all.		It helped some.		Yes, a lot.
1	2	3	4	5
—	—	**7**	**7**	**4**
Q3: Did working on your project today help you to learn English?				(*M*=3.89)
No, not at all.		It helped some.		Yes, a lot.
1	2	3	4	5
—	—	**5**	**10**	**3**
Q4: Did working in a group help you to learn English today?				(*M*=3.89)
No, not at all		It helped some.		Yes, a lot.
1	2	3	4	5
—	—	**7**	**6**	**5**
Q5: Did talking with the members of your group help you to learn English?				(*M*=3.61)
No, not at all		It helped some.		Yes, a lot.
1	2	3	4	5
—	**2**	**6**	**7**	**3**
Q6: Did you use English a lot today?				(*M*=3.33)
No, not at all		It helped some.		Yes, a lot.
1	2	3	4	5
1	**2**	**8**	**4**	**3**

Board Games and Foreign Language Learning: Rationale and Framework Development

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This article discusses the rationale and design of a teaching methodology that utilizes the numerous communicative features of modern board games to help develop practical communication skills in low-level EFL learners. We introduce, firstly, the particular constraints of the teaching context in which the methodology aims to be implemented, and, secondly, the definition and potential language learning affordances of board games based on affective and cognitive factors. Following, we provide a detailed account of our preliminary framework with rationale and clear guidelines for classroom implementation at each stage.

本論文では、低レベルのEFL環境でコミュニケーション能力を向上させるため、ボードゲームの様々な対話力を養う特徴を活かす教授法の理論的根拠や開発を紹介します。　最初に本教授法が用いられる環境を紹介します。そして、ボードゲームの定義と学習への好影響の可能性を認識(cognitive)や感情(affective)の要因を拠点として説明します。その後、本教授法の開発の背景となる第二言語習得理論や他の「ゲームを使った教授法」を紹介します。最後に、他の教員が簡単に使用できるように本教授法を紹介します。

Since 2003, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in Japan has been encouraging stronger focus on the development of practical English communication skills for students in junior high school, high school, and to a lesser extent university (Ministry of Education, 2003; and Ministry of Education, 2014). The Ministry's goal is to transition away from traditionally taught passive skills of reading and listening toward an increased focus on speaking and writing, so that students may "assertively make use of their English skills, think independently, and express themselves" (Ministry of Education, 2014, p. 3). MEXT is thus calling for improvements in pedagogy design, particularly through interaction, proactivity, and cooperative learning strategies.

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Introduction - What Are "Modern" Board Games?

Firstly, *board games* may be defined as those games which are played via the mediation of physical components (boards, cards, dice, pawns, etc.). In order to play such games players are required to read a rulebook beforehand. Players are also in charge of progressing the game state themselves, which is usually achieved by manipulating the position of the physical components, or by providing information regarding any changes in the game state through verbal interaction (face to face communication). Such games are thus almost invariably multiplayer activities. This is a stark contrast to video or mobile games, the games students are usually most familiar with, where AI controls rule management, the game state is updated automatically, and the game provides an extensive in-game tutorial to scaffold play.

The mechanics of *modern* board games differ significantly to those of earlier titles such as Monopoly or Risk (see Nicholson, 2008 for a discussion of modern games' lack of player elimination, more player interaction, less luck-driven play and multiple paths to victory). In this study we focus on two genres in particular due to their affordances for language learning. These are *cooperative strategy* games and *social deduction* (sometimes referred to as *hidden role*) games.

As the name suggests, *cooperative strategy games* put the players against the board game itself in a cooperative endeavour. Players have to work together to overcome a shared goal whilst avoiding or preventing obstacles that the game presents to them. Cooperative board games often give each player a unique role giving all players equal importance in determining the outcome of the game. A typical game of this genre is *Pandemic* (Leacock, 2007). Players are disease prevention specialists attempting to eradicate diseases as they spread throughout the world. The game board is a map of the earth, players are pawns that may travel from city to city, and the diseases are represented by one of four different coloured cubes (See Figure 1).

The particular affordances for language learning alluded to in the previous paragraph is explored in more detail below, but one other reason for the inclusion of cooperative games is that competition has been shown to increase cognitive load and lower attention (Nebel, Schneider, & Rey, 2016).

The typical play style of a *social deduction* game is to find a traitor amongst a group of players. The primary way of achieving this is by discussing what information each player has about others in the group. After a time limit has been reached, players vote on who they think traitor is, and the game (or round) ends with that player revealing their role. This genre was chosen due to the central communication-driven gameplay mechanic. Games in this genre therefore represent typical jigsaw information gap activities used in task-based language teaching (TBLT). Jigsaw tasks have a number of positive learning benefits such as promoting the negotiation of meaning as learners' exchange information to complete the task (Skehan, 2003). It is generally difficult to know a player's role, and players are encouraged to work diplomatically or lie in order to become victorious.

As a concrete example of a team-based social deduction game, *One Night Ultimate Werewolf* (Alspach, 2014) is a short (five-minute) game consisting of the *Werewolf* team and the *Villager* team. Players are assigned to a team by player cards which are distributed to players face down (see Figure 2).

Players assigned to the Villager team must find

Figure 1. A game of Pandemic underway in class.

Figure 2. Player cards from the game One Night Ultimate Werewolf (Bezier Games, nd).

and lynch a werewolf at the end of the game to be victorious. Alternatively, if they lynch a player from their own team instead, the Werewolf team win. This game features a number of characters on the Villager team that have the ability to secretly gather information regarding other players during a pre-play phase. In this way, information may be collected before play and then shared with the group orally during play in order to make a prediction as to which player is possibly a werewolf. Examples of how information may be divided between players can be seen in Table 1. The werewolves must divert attention away from themselves by spreading misinformation. Thus, the only mechanic for progressing gameplay is to converse with other players in order to gain information or divert attention from oneself.

The Potential Benefits of Board Games

Pedagogically, the link between prevalent language learning methodologies such as TBLT and digital video games has been made by a number of researchers (see Purushotma, Thorne & Wheatley, 2008; Sykes & Reinhardt 2013; Sykes, Reinhardt & Thorne 2010). Whether these claims transfer to the use of board games is yet to be explored. However, Sykes (2014) introduces the similarities between gameplay (not necessarily unique to the digital domain) and

Table 1
Example Character Abilities in One Night Ultimate Werewolf

Character	Ability
Seer	May look at another player's card.
Robber	May exchange their own card with another player and look at their new role.
Troublemaker	May switch two other players' cards.

tasks including clear goals, goal-oriented activity, authentic and meaningful contexts, learning by doing, opportunities for interaction, and negative feedback. Following, numerous empirical studies have shown the benefits of gameplay for both L2 acquisition (Gee, 2012; Peterson, 2012) and in the affective domain, such as in improving motivation and willingness to communicate (Reinders & Wattana, 2015). The following section highlights the affective and cognitive benefits of using board games in such contexts with a particular focus on how gameplay closely matches TBLT methodology.

Learning Rules Before Play

Board game rulebooks introduce key concepts, vocabulary, and grammatical structures encountered during gameplay, and may be referenced to assist in resolving breakdowns in communication regarding rule clarifications. Preparing to play in this way may also help reduce cognitive overload during play as the procedure is scaffolded to facilitate the development of passive skills before active skills (i.e. reading and listening skills targeted in the pre-play phase before speaking during gameplay). Thus, from a TBLT approach, the rule book acts as a priming tool (see Willis 1996) for students to become familiar with relevant vocabulary and grammar before play. Reading the rulebook and watching gameplay related videos can be considered pedagogic tasks (PTs) that work as simpler, scaffolded tasks to prepare learners for a subsequent target tasks (see Long, 2014). The target task in this case being the board game play session.

Social, Player-directed Play

Zagal, Rick, and Hsi (2006) write, "In contrast [to video games], the nature of board games implies a transparency regarding the core mechanics of the game and the way they are interrelated. This transparency makes them more accessible." With board games, then, players are active agents in progressing gameplay, solving rule disputes, and ensuring all player interactions are aligned towards the game's goal. The type of interaction is archetypical of Long's (1983) Interaction Hypothesis (where interaction acts as a tool for progressing one's interlanguage). Taking cooperative games as a concrete example, they provide the tools for creating novice-expert discussions as learners have different strategies, intellects and ambitions within the game. Such games, like other group problem-solving or puzzle-solving activities used in the language classroom, promote interaction between players and social, collaborative learning. Interaction contributes to language acquisition in accordance with the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 2014), helps to generate comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) and instances of negotiation for meaning (Pica, 1994), and, finally, pushes learners to produce comprehensible output which enables learners to develop communicative competence in the language (Swain, 1985). Novice-expert interactions or scaffolding and the collaborative construction of knowledge are concepts in sociocultural theory and have been shown to provide the opportunity for learning (for example see Donato, 1994).

Framework Overview

Our model is made up of three distinct stages: 1) Pre-play, 2) Play, and 3) Post-play. This loosely resembles Willis's traditional TBLT model (1996) where gameplay is considered the main task of the lesson. Unlike the TBLT model which is designed to be fully completed in a single class session however, there are multiple Pedagogic Tasks (PTs) (Long, 2014) or, as Sykes & Reinhardt (2011) refer to them "wraparound activities" to support and build on the main task of gameplay at the pre- and post-task stages (Table 2).

Pre-play (Extracurricular activities)

The model starts with students learning the game rules and familiarising themselves with the game. This prepares them for the play by exposing them to target vocabulary and grammatical structures that will be needed during gameplay. There are a number of reasons for requiring students to learn game rules before class. Firstly, this allows more class time to devote to playing and thus active, oral communication as seen in the educational model known as the *flipped classroom* (Herreid & Schiller, 2013). This also relates to the goal of MEXT to promote communication during

Table 2
Framework Overview

Section	Location	Task
1.1	Outside of class	Learn game rules
1.2		Create comprehension questions
1.3	In class	Comprehension check
2.1		Play the game
2.2		Debriefing
2.3		Repeat the game (if possible)
3.1		Focus on form
3.2		Written report

class time. Secondly, making students responsible for learning the rules themselves, is likely to make them more active during the gameplay phase (Crookall & Oxford, 1990).

Part 1.1: Learn the rules. Board games are often highly thematic, containing some advanced vocabulary. For example, see the below text as an example of how to set up the game *Pandemic*. The first stage is a reading activity to familiarise learners with target vocabulary, game theme, and game rules.

Place the infection rate marker on the leftmost "2" space of the Infection Rate Track. Shuffle the Infection cards and flip over three of them. Put three disease cubes of the matching color on each of these cities.

Having read the rulebook as a group, students are then directed to find and watch videos related to the game in order to solidify their understanding. Seeing an expert introduce game rules or model gameplay actions provides benefits such as presenting correct pronunciation, conversation examples, and the ability to check hypotheses regarding rules. Popular video hosting sites like YouTube feature a number of channels of experts introducing game rules (see Figure 3).

From a multimodal perspective to learning, different media have specific affordances and constraints in what they can express. Therefore, providing a visual representation of the written rule book provides a different representation that scaffolds the original reading activity (see Jewitt, 2014; Kress, 2010).

Part 1.2: Create comprehension questions. The final extracurricular activity is for learners to create 10 comprehension questions regarding the game rules. Taking the board game *Pandemic* as an example, a comprehension question could be:

Q: How many actions do you get on your turn?
A: 4

Pre-play (Classroom Activities)

Part 1.3: Comprehension check. Learners create their predetermined groups. Using the comprehension questions they wrote before class, the group reconfirms their understanding of the game rules. This provides learners with the opportunity to check their own understanding as well as others in a collaborative, structured, pre-play activity.

Play

Part 2.1 Play the game. Games are selected based on their ability to encourage communication between players as outlined in the introduction (Additionally, a list of appropriate games can be seen in Appendix 1). All wraparound tasks are designed to prepare learners for gameplay, the most demanding part of the framework where students attend to all four language skills while also concentrating on the progression of the game and game rules. During play, learners are encouraged to write down any new words or phrases

Figure 3. A screenshot of a Dead of Winter gameplay guide (Watch It Played, 2014).

they hear as well as linguistic items that they were unable to produce in English. This rapid focus on form activity during play allows learners to focus on fluency and game progression instead of their linguistic shortcomings, notes are then referenced in a post-task activity.

Part 2.2: Debriefing. Crookall and Oxford's (1990) book on the use of simulations and games in language learning contexts links debriefing to the development of critical thinking skills in language learners and for allowing them to relate their gameplay experience to reality. In the case of language learning then, we ask students to engage in retrospection regarding difficulties they had during play. Such retrospection may help to elucidate any language problems they had, or help them consider the connection between certain gameplay elements and course goals and objectives (Peters & Vissers, 2004). For instance, without the linguistic knowledge of how to make requests, and the pragmatic knowledge of how to speak to a figure of authority, learners realise that it is very difficult to become successful at the trade-based game *Sheriff of Nottingham* (Halaban & Zatz, 2014). Debriefing thus allows learners to see the connection between their success (or failure) in board games and their communicative competency.

Part 2.3: Repeat the game (If possible). Depending on the length of the game, students may get the opportunity to replay a number of times during the same class. For example, the social deduction game *Spyfall* (Ushan, 2014) has a fixed time limit of eight minutes allowing for multiple play sessions during one class period. Students may want to ask their peers or their teacher for help, or consult their dictionaries in order to better equip themselves for subsequent play sessions. Task repetition has been shown to be beneficial to learners in improving linguistic fluency and accuracy at a variety of levels of language proficiency (Bygate, 1996; Lynch & Maclean, 2000) as well as having stronger effects on language acquisition than planning alone (Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian, & Wang, 2012).

Post-play

Part 3.1: Focus on Form. At this stage, we shift focus from fluency to accuracy. The teacher leads a session looking at linguistic forms. Alternatively, as is often the case with TBLT, instructors may wish to create a focus on form section based on observations during the play session (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002). As a concrete example, students in this context were found to rarely, if ever, use *will* during gameplay to emphasise their volition. Such as:

I move here.

I *will* move here.

Part 3.2: Report and reflection. Learners are required to complete one of three different report sheets. The sheets promote students to focus on different aspects of gameplay (see Appendix 2) from linguistic, critical, and reflective perspectives. In our context students alternated the worksheet they completed after each gameplay session. This accuracy-focused activity thus matches the typical post-play report phase as seen in Willis's TBLT framework (1996). The worksheets were inspired by those used in the Brooklyn Game Lab, a progressive afterschool club teaching literacy skills through gameplay (http://brooklyngamelab.com).

Conclusion

With the above model, we have laid out our argument for how games, and more specifically board games, may be utilized in a pedagogic framework to foster oral communication and student engagement in low-level EFL contexts. The model resembles a traditional TBLT model with pre-, during- and post-play tasks. It is structured to support learners' language needs throughout with a focus on both language learning skills (speaking, reading, etc.) as well as requiring students to reflect and think critically about their gameplay sessions, the linguistic properties of games, and how gameplay language may be transferable to situations outside the classroom context.

Parallels may be drawn between our model and Sykes and Reinhardt's Explore, Experience and Expand model (2011), as they both centre on harnessing games into language learning contexts. However, our model features an increased focus on supporting low-level learners, and immediate, face-to-face communication during gameplay.

Future work regarding this model is to carry out empirical research on its learning benefits. Data is currently being collected regarding students' perception of being taught this way including a questionnaire designed with measures to explore which elements of the framework students spent the most time on, which they thought were extraneous, and possible framework adjustments for further implementation. Following on from the framework-refinement stage, we plan on exploring the discourse patterns of learner gameplay in order to understand what exactly they need instruction on in order to participate fully with this methodology. Our goal is to create appropriate materials at the post-task phase based on observations of student utterances during gameplay.

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James York is an assistant professor at Tokyo Denki University where he conducts research on the use of games in low-level language learning contexts. He is also a PhD candidate at the University of Leicester (UK). His PhD research is an investigation into the potential of virtual world tasks as a way to improve beginner learners' oral proficiency. James is also the founder of Kotoba Miners, an online language learning community which uses Minecraft as a domain for teaching.

Jonathan deHaan is an Associate Professor in the Faculty of International Relations at the University of Shizuoka. He studies media and methods that contribute to language and literacy development. The University of Shizuoka Game Lab operates afterschool programs, a charity, and various public events around games.

Appendix 1: Game suggestions

Game name	Genre and mechanics	Possible learning outcomes
One Night Ultimate Werewolf	Social deduction Team based cooperative	Question formation Confirmation checks Conditionals
2 Rooms and a Boom	Social deduction	Past tense Question formation Conjunctions (because, so)
Pandemic	Cooperative	Asking for advice Giving opinions Conditionals
Resistance: Avalon	Social deduction	Imperatives Conditionals Past tense Confirmation checks
Sheriff of Nottingham		Pragmatics Negotiation Conditionals
Spyfall	Social deduction	Question formation Vocabulary building
Codenames	Cooperative Puzzle	Vocabulary building Decision making
Burgle Bros.	Cooperative	Asking for advice Giving opinions Conditionals
Dead of Winter	Cooperative	Asking for advice Giving opinions Conditionals Confirmation checks

Appendix 2: Report sheets

Winning conditions

Who won? (You or an opponent)

How did they win?

Was there any skill involved, or was it just luck?

What did you do during the game?

Were these tactics successful?

What would you do if you played this game again?

What is your advice to other players of this game?

Name

Date

Game

Number of players

Useful Language

Were there any special **words** used in this game?

English	Japanese	Why is this word useful?

Please give some examples of **phrases** that were used in this game.

English	Japanese

Name

Date

Game

Number of players

Critical Thinking

Does this game help you learn and use English?

What does it teach?

What language skills did you acquire?

What would you change to make it so you used more English?

Name

Date

Game

Number of players