The 2014 PanSIG Proceedings

Sustainability: Making Teaching and Learning Last

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Message from the editors:

The 13th Annual PanSIG Conference was held at Miyazaki Municipal University on May 10th and 11th, 2014. The theme of the conference was, "Sustainability: Making Teaching and Learning Last". 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.

The 2014 PanSIG Proceedings is a representative effort from the conference in Miyazaki. 33 papers were accepted for publication in this year's volume. These papers cover a diverse range of topics including CALL, bilingualism, learning Japanese, student exchanges, and service-learning in Iwate. The quantity and quality of presentations and published papers from the conference show the professional determination of the talented individuals who have shared their thoughts and insights on teaching and learning in these proceedings. We are honoured and proud to have been a part of this process and we would like to thank all of the contributors for submitting their papers for this publication.

We are also very grateful for the great group of volunteers who helped us to get through the peer review and editing process. We could not have put these proceedings together without the help of the many people who took the time to read through these papers and offer their professional insight to the authors. 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 own professional development.

Gavin Brooks
Mathew Porter
Myles Grogan
May 2nd, 2015

Message from the conference chair:

Through the fantastic work of editors Gavin Brooks and Myles Grogan, we finally 'wrap up' PanSIG 2014 with the publication of these proceedings. A job like this is a huge undertaking and as this is going to press, only a few days have passed since the conclusion of PanSIG 2015 in Kobe. We can now look forward to PanSIG 2016 in Okinawa, which we're sure will bring together the ideas, energy, and people that have always characterized the PanSIG conferences.

There are a number of other people, far to numerous to mention, to thank, and if we try to thank them, we will certain miss some. So we would like to underline our hope that some of the ideas that led us to set up the PanSIG in Miyazaki may continue to circulate through JALT, as is appropriate with a conference built around the theme of sustainability. By bringing the PanSIG to a location a bit off the beaten track, we hoped to create a model and an impetus to have a more open conference outside of the Osaka-Tokyo crescent. We have heard that PanSIG 2016 in Okinawa will also adopt the all poster presentation format and we are also encouraged by the fact that George MacLean, the president of the Okinawa chapter, will be taking on the role of main conference organizer. We hope that PanSIG 2016 will be as much of a boost to their chapter as it has been to the Nankyu chapter and we look forward to that.

However, as Dick Allwright and Rosa Lenzuen noted in a presentation at TESOL 97 (20 years ago!) that laid out the initial ideas of Exploratory Practice, the importance is not the sustainability of practices and procedures, but the sustainability of ideas, of which practices and procedures are only "a potential means to a much more important end". Keeping that in mind, we would like to encourage not only a creation of 'narratives' that may unfortunately stick to well-worn paths, but practices and procedures that move JALT towards a true sustainability of ideas.

Hugh Nicoll & Joe Tomei
Conference Chair, PanSIG2014

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The Management of the Rights to Knowledge during Interaction in a University Language Lounge

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In recent years many Japanese universities have established language lounges with the objective of improving students' communicative competence in English. The setting of language lounges in universities is different from language classrooms where the students gather and the teacher goes in and delivers a lesson. In language lounges, students interested in learning more and improving their English communicative competence go in and interact with the teachers available. This paper looks at a few instances of interaction in a university language lounge and analyzes the various strategies the participants use in the management of knowledge. It also highlights the typical aspects of university language lounges where the students also display rights to knowledge, which does not usually happen in language classrooms.

近年、多くの日本の大学では、学生の英語コミュニケーションスキルの向上を目的とした言語ラウンジを設置している。大学における言語ラウンジは、学生が集まり、教師が来て、授業を行う、といった一般の教室とは異なる。言語ラウンジでは、英語コミュニケーション能力の学習と向上に関心を持つ学生が来て、空いている教師と対話をする。本論文ではある大学の言語ラウンジにおける対話の例をいくつか概観し、参与者が知識を駆使する際に用いる多様なストラテジーを分析する。本論文のもう一つの焦点は、言語の教室では通常生じない、学生が知識への権利を示す、という大学の言語ラウンジにおける典型的な側面である。

The present paper analyzes university language lounge data and observes the position the participants hold regarding the status of knowledge. A detailed analysis will bring out how the participants manage their rights to knowledge. In naturally occurring talk, the participants demonstrate different positions related to their knowledge of the topic from less knowledgeable (K-) to more knowledgeable (K+) or maybe from shallow to deep (Heritage, 2010). Based on the subject the participants talk about, the epistemic status of the participants is always challengeable. However, in classroom interaction, it has been reported that the teacher generally holds the rights to knowledge and abundantly takes the position of higher knowledge and the students hardly challenge their teacher's position in the upper epistemic status (Heritage, 1984).

Methodology

The data for this study come from about 50 minutes of video recording of a university language lounge conversation from a Japanese university in the Tokyo metropolitan area. In the language lounge, the students come and practice so that they can improve their English. The participants include three Japanese

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university students and a native English speaker who also teaches general English classes at the university. The video was observed repeatedly without imposing the prior information about the participants and transcribed using the conversation analytic transcription conventions developed by Jefferson (1984). The detailed transcription convention is presented in the Appendix. The observation of recorded video was based on an emic perspective (Goodwin, 1984; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Pike, 1954) that conversation analysts usually employ. The following analysis is made from the participants' perspective rather than the observer's impressions and theories.

Analysis

In the present analysis of the language lounge data one of the facts observed is that language lounges, which usually involve teacher-student interaction, often contain the feature of mundane conversation. The features of mundane conversation are grounded in the fact that the teacher and the students repeatedly attempt to challenge their recipient's epistemic status and attempt to hold the higher epistemic status. On the other hand, the language lounge at times also exhibits features of language classrooms through the fact that the teacher occasionally initiates repair on the problematic parts in language forms the students use. Moreover, during the course of assisting students with their problematic utterances, the teacher positions himself in the upper epistemic status.

Extracts 1 and 2 from the data corpus show the shift in the epistemic status between the teacher and the students. Prior to this excerpt, the teacher concludes the previous discussion and selects Shu as a new speaker to initiate a new topic. Shu then starts introducing himself.

Prompted by the teacher's turn allocation and request for introduction, Shu starts introducing himself in line 02. Since Shu is introducing himself, he has more rights to the knowledge about himself. But during the introduction he experiences some sort of problem in the production of his utterance in line 07 and 08 where he says 'I'm belonging- I'm belonging'. He orients to the utterance as a repairable utterance but appears to have reached the conclusion that 'I'm belonging to' is a solution to his problem as evidenced by his continuation of the turn in line 09. But at this moment, the teacher goes back to pinpoint Shu's problematic utterance and corrects with the correct form of verb 'I belong to' which the student subsequently accepts by repeating it. Looking at the

Extract 1: (1) Intro [8:30]

```
01  Tea:  so Shu, please introduce yourself to these fine gentlemen
02  Tea:  uh:: my name is Shu and uh: I belong to:: uh:: I belong uh-
03        I major in economics. uh:::(.) i::::: I'm freshman
04        and I enter entered this uh: last April. uh::  (0.6)
05        so I (.) I play basketball too.
06  Tak:  uhm::
07  Shu:  ah: so: um I'm belonging-
08        I'm belonging?
09        I'm belonging to (.) ah:::
10  Tea:  ah <I belong (.) to.>
11  Shu:  I belong to (.) uh:: (0.6) sea(.)gulls, in (.) in Kamakura
12  Tea:  (.)Kamakura's club
```

```
Extract 2: (2) Seagull

 11  Shu:  I belong to (.) uh:: (0.6)sea(.)gulls, in(.)in Kamakura (.)
 12        Kamakura’s club
 13  Tea:  seagull?
 14  Shu:  seagulls.
 15  Tea:  seagull like a bird? ((makes bird sound))
 16        ((laughter))
 17  Tea:  sea su- seagull?
 18        what’s thuh seagull
 19  Mak:  [huh huh huh
 20  Tak:  [huh huh huh
 21  Shu:  °I don’t know.° club- CLUB name
 22  Tea:  AH::::::: it- it’s a bird ((flying gesture))
 23  Tak:  (   )
 24  Tea:  okay. (0.8) so: what does this club do_
 25  Shu:  (0.8)
 26  Shu:  ah:: um=
```

interaction here, we can claim that it is Shu’s epistemic ground to talk about himself. He certainly holds the higher knowledge position (K+) in introducing himself, but the teacher also displays his K+ position by correcting Shu’s language.

This instance shows that the teacher orients to Shu’s higher epistemic status in content by correcting only the language form, and at the same time Shu also accepts the teacher’s higher knowledge in the formal aspect of the language under use by repeating and accepting the correction. The teacher repetition of the student utterance is one of the strategies teachers deploy to validate the appropriateness of the answer since the repetition of repair shows acceptance of the repair (Hosoda, 2000).

In the continuation of the introduction, Extract 2 demonstrates the teacher’s orientation to the students’ K+ position by genuinely asking questions about the content of the student’s talk. In his introduction Shu tells the group the name of the club that he belongs to, which raises an understanding problem on the part of the teacher.

While the student continues introducing himself, he produces his club name in line 11 and says “I belong to (.) uh:: (0.6) sea(.)gulls, in (.) Kamakura (.) Kamakura’s club.” When the student produces ‘seagulls’ in his utterance, the teacher first repeats in the singular form of the word with rising intonation as a request for confirmation which the student confirms by repeating his original plural form. In line 15, the teacher displays his candidate understanding of the word. On saying ‘seagull like a bird’ and making a bird sound, the teacher explains the real meaning of the word seagull and also subjecting the word “seagull” to repair in the context. In lines 17-18, the teacher again initiates repair in the part of the student’s talk. The repair in line 18 ‘what’s thuh seagull’ reveals that the teacher has a problem in understanding the word in the context, rather than a hearing problem. In line 21, the student initially says he does not know the meaning which exhibits the students’ claim of insufficient knowledge (Sert & Walsh, 2012) but he then provides the meaning in the context in which he used it. He explains that the word "seagull" is a name of a club. After obtaining the contextual meaning the teacher displays his understanding in line 22 with a "change of state token" (Heritage, 1984). This interaction demonstrates that the teacher is in the lower knowledge position (K-), thus he orients to the student's higher epistemic status. However, after acknowledging the student's explanation of the word used as a club name, the teacher adds more information saying "it's a bird". By doing this, the teacher displays his higher epistemic status with regard to linguistic capabilities in that he reveals his knowledge of the actual meaning of the word the student has used with contextual meaning.

In the continuation of the discussion, the participants initiate a new topic and start talking about the statue of Buddha. They start discussing about the statues of Buddha in Kyoto and Kamakura. While the other participants, Makoto (Mak) and Takeshi (Tak) are manipulating Buddha in both places with similar level of meaning, Shu challenges his co-participants' knowledge by drawing a difference between the two places as shown in Extract 3.

In this extract, Shu challenges the other participants' knowledge about the Buddha in Kyoto and the Buddha in Kamakura. When the other participants reveal their understanding that Buddha in both places are the same type of Buddha prior to this segment, Shu challenges their understanding by pointing out the difference between the Buddha in Kyoto and Kamakura. By producing "Kyoto Buddha is more famous than °Kamakura (Buddha)°" in a declarative form, Shu demonstrates his higher knowledge about the topic. When the participants move on to the discussion about Buddha, the teacher also assimilates with the topic and produces talk related to Buddha and says "but there is a Buddha nearby Ofuna station." With this part of his utterance, the teacher tries to exhibit his knowledge related to the topic. When the teacher says that there is a Buddha near Ofuna station, Shu rejects the information saying that it is not Buddha in line 17. When Shu says the one at Ofuna station is "not Buddha, it's (.) Kannon Buddha," he again demonstrates his K+ status by discarding the information provided by the

```
Extract 3: (3) Buddha (3:56~)

 12  Shu:  Kamakura Buddha (.)
 13        Kyoto Buddha is(.) more (.) famous than °Kamakura (Buddha)°
 14  Tea:  than Kamakura Buddha
 15        but there is a Buddha um by Ofuna Station
 16  Shu:  ah:: Ofuna? (0.6) I bu-
 17        not Buddha, it's uh (.) Kannon Buddha
 18  Tea:  uh: what's the difference?
 19        ((Laughter))
 20  Shu:  it's uh lady? lady.
 21  Tea:  (0.4) oh. but it's not it's not the Buddha?
 22  Shu:  not man not Buddha
 23  Tea:  OH::::
 24  Shu:  it's a lady lady god
 25        (     )
 26  Tea:  OH:: okay.
```

teacher. As Shu rejects the information provided, the teacher inquires to clarify the difference in line 18. By asking this question, the teacher is allowing Shu to take on a higher knowledge stance by positioning himself in the K- position. With this genuine question asked by the teacher, Shu continues to demonstrate his higher epistemic status and continues clarifying the difference between the real Buddha (Kyoto, Kamakura) and the Kannon Buddha (Ofuna). Once the difference is clarified, the teacher says "OH::::" which displays his understanding. With this "change of state token" (Heritage, 1984), he displays his transformation of knowledge from not having knowledge to having knowledge about the topic under discussion.

In asking genuine questions, the teacher treats the students as "knowing" participants. Thus by asking genuine questions, the teacher displays his identity as a "not knowing" participant since the management of the knowledge determines the identity of the participants (Raymond & Heritage, 2006). Extract 4 gives one more example where the teacher asks genuine questions to the students. The participants have been talking about the war movies related to the Second World War. Prompted by this topic the teacher asks when they study history in Japanese schools.

In Extract 4, the teacher relates his upcoming question to the previous discussion (line 01). He asks about the time Japanese students study Japanese history in their schools. Asking this question, he positions the students as knowing participants and at the same time displays his identity as someone who has not studied at Japanese junior high and high schools. In this interaction, the participants are talking about learning Japanese history in schools. Since the learning of Japanese history is a fact experienced by the Japanese students, they supposedly know the information they have experienced (Heritage, 2010; Sacks, 1984). So, on asking the genuine question in lines 3-4, the teacher positions himself in the unknowing status and the Japanese students in the higher epistemic status. The teacher's production of a genuine question in the pursuit of knowledge is one of the clear signs of the changing epistemic state of the participants and it demonstrates that the participants' identities are managed by their knowledge.

Conclusion

With the examples presented above, I illustrated how the participants manage the rights to knowledge during interactions in the university language lounge. The participants in the language lounge interaction demonstrated their knowledge shift from one to another during the course of talk. On asking genuine questions and positioning himself in the lower epistemic status, the teacher did not always orient to being a 'teacher'. The fact that he did ask genuine questions is evidenced by his use of the "change of state tokens" (Heritage, 1984) that demonstrates his transformation from a not knowing participant to a knowing participant. The domain of knowledge of the participants changes frequently based on the topic they choose in the interaction. Thus, in this setting the students are frequently found to be in the more knowledgeable position, which may be rare in classroom talk. Since the teacher does not have complete control over the knowledge, the students will be more encouraged to participate in the language lounge interaction which is considered to help learning in a more natural way.

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Extract 4: (3) History 07:25~

 01  Tea:  so since we're on the topic of war (0.3)
 02        like I'm just kind of curious like I mean
 03        you all studied Japanese history (1.0)
 04        i:n high school? junior high school
 05  Shu:  uh both.  both (of them) (0.8)
 06  Tea:  (well). what did you learn about (.) world war two?
```

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Author's Biography:

Baikuntha Bhatta is a graduate school student in the foreign language department of Kanagawa University. His research interest includes conversation analysis, teacher education, second language education, and related fields. He has been doing different research works using conversation analysis in the field of language education. He interest is centered on observing and analyzing data from different cultural settings.

Appendix

Transcription conventions

Convention	Meaning	Use
[text]	square brackets	start and end of overlap
=	equal sign	continuation of single utterance
(0.5)	timed pause	indicates pause in seconds
(.)	period in parenthesis	shows a micro pause (less than 1 second)
(hh)		audible laughter within a talk
hhh		audible exhalation
.hhh		audible inhalation
okay	underline	stress
okay?	question mark	rising intonation
okay,	comma	low-rising intonation
okay.	period	falling intonation
OKAY	capitalized text	increased loudness
˚okay˚	degree symbol	decreased volume
>okay<	greater than symbols	faster than the surrounding speech
<okay>	less than symbols	slower than the surrounding speech
oka::y	colon(s)	lengthening of the preceding sound (the more colons show the more lengthening)
oka-	hyphen	cut-off of the ongoing talk
((comment))		non-verbal behavior / transcriber's comment
(okay)		uncertain transcription

Other-Initiated Other-Repair in Second Language Conversations

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Previous research on repair in mundane conversations between native speakers has shown that other-initiated repair is not as common as self-initiated repair and that there is a preference for self-repair over other-repair. Research on native classroom interaction has suggested that other-repair occurs more frequently in the classroom than in mundane conversation. This research also revealed that other-initiated other-repair does occur in the classroom, but it is not as prevalent as cases of other-initiated self-repair. This paper focuses on other-initiated other-repair and illustrates how and where other-initiated other-repair is performed in native-non-native conversations in a university language lounge and examines how and why the findings from this research are similar or different to the findings of previous research on repair.

これまでの母語話者間の会話で行われる修復に関する研究では、他者開始の修復(other-initiated repair)より自己開始の修復（self-initiated repair）がよく見られ、他者修復（other-repair）より自己修復(self-repair)は優先性が高いということが分かった。母語話者の教室の相互行為の研究では他者修復は日常会話に比べ教室ではより頻繁に見られるということが明らかになった。また、その研究では、他者開始の修復は教室では見られるが、自己開始の修復ほど頻繁ではないことが示された。本稿では他者開始ー他者修復(other-initiated other-repair)に焦点を当て、母語話者と非母語話者の会話の中で、どこで、どのように他者開始ー他者修復が行われるのか、また、本研究の結果はこれまでの修復に関しての研究の結果といかなる相違点があるのかを検討する。

Conversation analysis is a field and approach which describes and analyzes talk in social interaction. In the field of conversation analysis, repair refers to “practices for dealing with problems or troubles in speaking, hearing, and understanding the talk in conversation” (Schegloff, 2000, p. 207) and there are four types of repair: self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other repair, other-initiated self-repair, and other-initiated other-repair. Here, *self* refers to the speaker of the trouble source and *other* refers to the recipient of the talk. In their seminal paper on repair, Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) point out that self-initiated repair is more common than other-initiated repair in native conversations and that when other-initiations of repair do occur, in most cases they are repaired by the speaker of the trouble source.

In this paper I analyze conversations between native and non-native speakers in a university language lounge, which is a place where university students can

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go to practice speaking English with a native English speaker. Although it is a called a language lounge, it is essentially a language classroom in the sense that teachers decide the discussion topics and activities, repair students' mistakes, and decide who speaks when. In this paper I focus on other-initiated other-repair, which appears to be more common in conversations between native and non-native speakers.

There are two types of conversations: mundane conversations, which are conversations between friends, family, and strangers, and institutional conversations, which are conversations found in companies, hospitals, classrooms, news interviews, etcetera. Regarding institutional conversations, Heritage and Clayman (2010) remark that "communicative conduct in more specialized social institutions embodies task- or role-oriented specializations that generally involve a narrowing of the conduct that is generally found in ordinary conversation" (p.12) and through the participants actions and inactions we are able to see how participants orient to their roles.

In conversation analysis the analyst does not ascribe identities to the participants a priori. Rather, participants' identity categories and the characteristics associated with them are only mentioned in the analysis when the participants orient to them and when they are visible in the interaction (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998). Because both the students and teachers in the language lounge orient to their identities as teacher and students, I will refer to them as so. Interaction in language lounges is still an under-researched area and a lot can be gained from understanding various aspects of interaction in a language lounge. As a starting point of the investigation of language lounge interaction, I focus on repair in this paper.

In this paper I examine repair in conversations in a university language lounge between one teacher and three students from a conversation analytic perspective and my objective is to answer the following questions.

How and where in the interaction is other-initiated other-repair performed in a language lounge?

How are the findings in this research similar or different from the findings of other research on repair?

Methods

The data analyzed in this paper come from approximately 50 minutes of audio/video recorded data of interaction in a university language lounge. There are four participants: three Japanese students who are non-native English speakers, whose names are Makoto (Mak), Takeshi (Tak), and Shu (Shu), and one teacher (Tea), who is a native English speaker. The actual names of the participants have been changed in the transcripts to protect their identities. Occasionally students decide a topic or bring something to class such as a movie that they want to discuss, and on the day that this conversation was recorded, Shu brought in a movie he wanted to talk about. Throughout the interaction a significant amount of the participants' responses were minimal, but because Shu prepared a topic to discuss, his talk time was longer than that of the other students. The data were transcribed according to the transcription conventions developed by Gail Jefferson (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984).

Analysis

Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008) point out that other-initiated other-repair is generally understood as correction and that correction in which other speaker corrects current speaker involves the suspension of turns or sequences in order to attend to a trouble source. Some of the repair that occurs in the following examples does involve a suspension of a turn, but in one of the examples (Extract 3) the turn could possibly be heard as syntactically complete, so it does not necessarily involve a suspension of a turn. There is sometimes a pause after the problematic turn, which could possibly occur because the teacher is giving the student an opportunity to repair their own mistake. I discuss this in more detail later. In this paper I use the word "repair" instead of "correction" as the word repair is a more encompassing term. Correction is generally understood as meaning replacing an error or mistake with the correct word, but repair is a more general term that also involves fixing utterances that are not necessarily "mistakes" or "errors" (Schegloff et al., 1977).

Schegloff et al. (1977) state that, "Repair initiations by any other party occupy one main position: the turn just subsequent to the trouble source turn" (p. 367). In all of the following excerpts the repair-initiation and other-repair occur in the turn immediately after the trouble source. Other-initiated other-repair sometimes involves the other speaker interrupting the current speaker (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). In some of the examples presented in this paper the other-repair could be seen as a type of interruption. Other-initiated repair often involves the recipient of the talk initiating the repair and leaving it to the speaker to repair the trouble source (Schegloff, 2000), but in all of the examples in this paper repair is initiated by the teacher and performed by the teacher. McHoul (1990) states that, "other-correction—consisting almost entirely of teachers correcting students' talk—occurs more readily in the classroom than it does, according to Schegloff et al., in everyday conversation where it is quite a rare occurrence" (p. 351). The findings in this paper support his observation.

Schegloff (2007) states that it is not common to find instances of "other-initiated repair leading to other-repair" (p. 101). It is possible that other-initiated other-repair is more common in language classroom conversations between native and non-native speakers as compared to mundane talk between native speakers. This data suggests that this could be the case, but this is not a large enough data sample to make that assertion. McHoul (1990) mentions that in his L1 geography classroom data in which repair was initiated by the teacher, other-initiated self-repair outnumbered cases of other-initiated other-repair, but instances of other-initiated other-repair were observed.

In Extract 1, which showcases an example of other-initiated other-repair, the student demonstrates his uncertainty of the upcoming utterance by saying "it's (.) uh: (1.3)" and then produces the problem source "it's more better than=."

Tea repairs Shu's mistake in the turn following the trouble source (line 06) by interrupting Shu and saying "=mm ah they've been getting better?" Interruption is the next speaker's starting up of a turn

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Extract 1:

 01  Tea:    five years ago they were terrible=
 02  Shu:    =eh
 03  Tea:    =once Michael Jordan [left
 04  →Shu:                        [re- recently recently it's (.) uh: (1.3)
 05  →       it's more better than=
 06  →Tea:   =mm ah they've been getting better?
 07  →Shu:   ((nods)) °getting better°
 08  Tea:    ah ahahah
 09  Tak:    Ben Wallace come (.) the team
 10  Tea:    oh Ben Wa-=
 11  Tak:    =Ben Wallace
 12  Tea:    a::h ah ahahah ((to Shu)) do you know Ben Wallace?
 13  Shu:    ((shakes head)) (1.0)
 14  Tea:    he came from the Pistons (.) right?
 15  Tak:    (2.0) two: years ago (1.1) so he (1.0) take (1.5) Bulls
 16  Tea:    oh: ah ahahah
```

before the current speaker's turn is completed. I mean that the next speaker begins their turn before the current speaker completes theirs. Shu acknowledges the repair by repeating the words "getting better." Regarding her data on L2-L1 and L1-L1 conversations Hosoda (2006) states that, "L2 speakers in the L1-L2 conversations usually accept the repair by repetition, which is uncommon in the L1 conversations in the corpus" (p. 43). Schegloff, et al. (1977) mention that trouble source turns are rarely interrupted by other-initiated repair and that when trouble source turns are interrupted, it is usually by the speaker of the trouble source. Schegloff (2000) states that later research on other-initiated repair revealed that 16 out of 350 cases of other-initiated repair involved interruption. In this example the teacher does not give the student a chance to self-correct as he interrupts him and corrects him immediately after the problematic utterance is produced.

As mentioned above, Schegloff et al. (1977) note that repair initiations are commonly done in the turn following the turn that contains the trouble source, and this is true for the example above.

Extract 2 is another example of other-initiated other-repair performed by Tea. Shu pauses a few times in line 07, the turn which contains the trouble source. After the problematic utterance, "many people is dead (0.9) in the war" is produced, there is a 0.9 second silence in line 08. This could be either because Shu has finished his turn and is waiting for the teacher to speak or because the teacher is giving Shu a chance to self-repair or continue his turn. Interlocutors sometimes withhold repair initiations (Jefferson, 1972), and it is possible that Tea is withholding repair until the trouble-source turn is finished. This repair space can be understood as a repair-initiation opportunity space

```
Extract 2:

 01  Shu:    this picture is::bi- big meaning uh: of America(1.0)uh
 02          because:(1.3) because America America is: America: want to::
 03          finish (0.9) want to finish the war .hhuh because of a lack of
 04          money
 05          (1.1)
 06  Tea:    un hn
 07  →Shu:   hn: and: (0.8) many people is dead (0.9) in the war
 08          (0.9)
 09  →Tea:   ah died [in the war
 10  →Shu:           [died in the war in the war
 11          (1.8)
 12  Shu:    so:: (1.9) in (.) in newspaper is is (.) newspaper's picture
 13  Tea:    un hn
 14  Shu:    used this picture
 15          (0.7)
 16  Tea:    unhn
 17  Shu:    uh this one uh: do uh uh many American is proud proud of: (1.0)
 18          uh::American soldiers
```

(Schegloff et al., 1977).

There is also a 0.9 second pause after the word "dead," which is the trouble source. This could signify that Shu is waiting for repair or confirmation from the teacher. After Shu fails to self-initiate repair, Tea initiates and carries out the repair in the turn following the trouble source turn by saying "ah died in the war." Shu demonstrates his understanding of the correct expression by repeating "died in the war in the war". Because this utterance is produced in overlap with the teacher's repair Shu repeats "in the war" one more time.

Other-initiated other-repair can also be seen in Extract 3. Schegloff (2007) states that, "speakers do make 'errors' of grammar, word meaning, pronunciation, etc." (p. 100). As we can see in the following excerpt, Shu makes a grammatical error when he says, "so so::: so soldiers soldiers eh:: (2.0) hm:: had to: had to:: death in order to gain" in lines 10 and 11, and then there is a 1.0 second silence. It is possible that Tea is withholding repair and giving Shu a chance to self-repair. Schegloff et al. (1977) state that "other-initiations regularly are withheld a bit past the possible completion of trouble-source turn" (p. 374) in order to provide an opportunity for the speaker of the trouble source to initiate repair. The phenomenon of withholding repair supports findings that there is a preference for self-initiated repair over other initiated-repair.

When Shu fails to self-repair, Tea repairs the trouble source in line 13 by saying, "had to die." with an emphasis on die which demonstrates to Shu what the repairable is. Shu acknowledges that he understands by saying "die. to die." The first "die" seems to function as a receipt of the repair and "to die," seems to place the phrase in context and allows him to continue. Other-repair can sometimes be downgraded through the use of uncertainty markers such as rising intonation after the repair or expressions such as "I think" (Schegloff et al., 1977). As we can see in this extract, the repair does not contain any uncertainty markers. This could be because it is clear to Tea what Shu is trying to say. Because Tea is a native English speaker, English language is in his epistemic domain (Heritage, 2013) and he can repair English language-related mistakes

Extract 3:

```
01  Shu:   u::m (1.4) Japanese:: Japanese side is u::h is: (1.3) u::h (3.1)
02         uh proud of (.) proud of dead eh in order to in order to (0.8)
03         fight in order to win? uh the (very big war)(1.4) so:: it's a
04         beautiful thing, (0.8) a beautiful thing is death. (0.6) ah they
05         think they thought. (1.0) they thought eh: ancient eh an
06         Japanese (1.7) Japanese government.
07  Tea:   you mean like the samurai and [stuff like that?
08  Shu:                                 [hm yes. (.) samurai
09         (1.1)
10  →Shu:  so so::: so soldiers soldiers eh:: (2.0) hm:: had to: had to::
11  →      death in order to gain
12         (1.0)
13  →Tea:  had to die.
14  →Shu:  die. to die (2.3) so: but Kuribayashi is: is a not true. (1.2)
15         he was thinks (0.8) eh its uh not true.(1.1) uh:: so:: (1.7)
```

with confidence. We can see how he asserts the repair with the falling prosody on "die" in "had to die.".

Discussion

The data presented in this study demonstrated how other-initiated other-repair is performed in a language lounge. In all of the examples the repair was initiated and performed by the teacher, who, by being a native English speaker in an English language lounge, sometimes has the knowledge to repair students' language-related errors when necessary.

The repair-initiation was always performed in the turn just subsequent to the trouble source. Other-initiated other-repair suggests a preference for maximum adjacency between the trouble source and repair. Two of the three examples above contain repair withholds. Withholds provide expanded transition space to allow the speaker of the trouble source to self-initiate repair (Schegloff, 2000). In addition, as Schegloff et al. (1977) argue, there is a preference for self-correction, and withholding repair is one way that the recipient of the trouble gives the speaker of the trouble source a chance to self-initiate. However, even though there was a pause after the trouble source in two of the three conversations presented in this paper, because the speaker of the trouble source failed to self-initiate, repair was initiated and performed by the teacher.

The examples of other-initiated other-repair presented in this paper all share the same repair sequence. It is as follows:

Turn 1: trouble source turn (student)
Turn 2: other-initiated other-repair (teacher)
Turn 3: partial or full repeat of repaired phrase (student)

In Extract 1, the teacher corrects the student by saying, "they've been getting better?" and the student partially repeats that by saying, "getting better." In Extract 2, the student fully repeats the repaired utterance by saying, "died in the war." In Extract 3, the teacher repairs the trouble source by saying "had to die," and the student partially repeats this by saying "die. to die." The repetition of the repaired utterance functions as an acknowledgement of the repair to the repairer of the trouble source.

Language teachers could benefit from an understanding of what interactional devices students deploy when they need help finding a correct word or phrase, and how students demonstrate their understanding that certain parts of their speech have been repaired. As this study as well as previous studies (e.g., Hosoda, 2006) illustrated, students commonly demonstrate their understanding of the repair by repeating the repaired items.

In mundane conversation other-initiated other-repair is quite rare. The data presented in this paper suggests that other-initiated other-repair may be more common in language lounges, but further research analyzing a larger data sample of language lounge conversations between more teachers and students could reveal whether the other-initiated other-repair mentioned in this paper is indeed a feature specific to language lounges or if they are particular to the participants in the conversations analyzed in this paper.

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Kyoto Studies: Local to Global Education

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As Japanese universities internationalize, instructors must redesign content courses to meet new curricular requirements and to suit students with a variety of language backgrounds. This paper examines these issues through a case study of the evolution of "Kyoto Studies." Starting as an EFL content course for Japanese students, it was redesigned for a Japanese studies program, and then revised to become a regular course in an English-medium-instruction department in a "Global 30" Project university. The paper focuses on conditions imposed from outside by "globalized" administrative requirements and from inside by the dynamics of multicultural, multilingual students.

日本の大学が国際化するに従って，講師達はコース内容を新しい科目要件に見合うよう、そして多様な言語背景を持つ生徒に沿うよう変えなければならない。この論文は、これらの課題を「京都研究」という科目が進化していくケーススタディーを通して検証する。それは日本人生徒のためのEFLを含むコースとして始まり、日本研究プログラムとして再構築され、「グローバル30」プロジェクト大学の中の中級英語講座の通常講座になるよう改訂された。この論文では、「グローバル化」した管理要件によって外部から課された条件と、多文化で多言語の生徒たちの多様性によって内部から課された条件について論ずる。

This paper will discuss the evolution of a course in three different teaching environments. The course on Kyoto's society and culture was originally created for an EFL class where the students were all native speakers of Japanese. Several years later the same subject was used for a course in which half of the students were native speakers of Japanese and half native English speakers. Finally, it was further developed for a class of international students. The paper discusses the challenges presented and the changes made to the course by institutional goals (top-down), and the demands and interests of the students (bottom-up).

In the first section, I describe how the course, Kyoto Studies and Tourism, developed at Doshisha Women's College (DWC). The next section will outline the changes that this course underwent when it was taught at the same institution but in a new setting, DWC's Japanese Studies Program, with a very different make-up of students. In the third section, I review how the course changed again when it was taught at the Institute for the Liberal Arts at Doshisha University for a group of international students. The teacher had to reinvent the course each time to balance the wishes of the institution and the students. In the final section I give an analysis of this experience and explain how with each version of the course, the materials changed but the fundamental style of teaching did not.

Carty, P. C. (2015). Kyoto studies: Local to global education. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 23-27). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

Kyoto Culture and History at Doshisha Women's College

This two-semester course is taught for third-year students as an advanced class in the CASE program (Career and Academic Studies in English), which is a three-year English as Foreign Language (EFL) program in the Department of Social System Studies at DWC to allow students to study their major in English. This allows students to "deepen their understanding of their courses and offer a different perspective on them" (Fujiwara, 2008, p. 31). One of the majors in the Social Systems Studies Department is Kyoto Studies and Tourism (Doshisha Women's College, 2011a).

The main institutional goal for my course was to help students understand the relationship between tourism and Kyoto and to study how Kyoto's unique attractions make it one of the premiere tourist destinations in the world. In addition, by studying the city in English, students could both reinforce their knowledge from and gain a new understanding of the other classes they were taking in Kyoto Studies and Tourism.

The students were all native speakers of Japanese with upper intermediate skills in English. Their writing and reading skills were stronger than their speaking and listening skills. The challenges I faced were to teach content while making it engaging, and while practicing and improving their English skills. One advantage to this course was the year-long time frame with one theme that allowed the teacher to incrementally develop the students' understanding of difficult concepts over many classes. Understanding the demands of the institution and recognizing my students' abilities, I had to create a syllabus and materials for each class. The guiding principle to consider what information is most necessary to explain Kyoto to a visitor and what questions tourists would most likely ask. Since there was no appropriate textbook, I had to create my own materials.

I will give one example of what students were/are required to do for homework and classwork. Tourists often ask, "Why did Kyoto become the capital?" To answer that question we explored in detail Emperor Kammu's move from Nara to Kyoto. For homework all students were given a reading of approximately 800 words. Students were also given 10 to 16 questions each week about the reading. The students are divided into two groups, A and B. "A" students had to answer the even questions and "Bs" had to answer the odd questions. In addition, students were given a list of famous characters from the Heian Period. They had to choose and write a short essay about one of those characters.

Class began with a short introduction on the topic for that day. All "A" students gathered together and checked their homework, as did all "B" students. Once they were sure of their answers, then each "A" student partnered with a "B" student and they asked each other questions. After students had filled in their question sheet, they met in groups of four and shared information about the Heian Period character they had researched. While one student was speaking, the others listened and took notes. In the next step, students found a new partner and reviewed the original homework questions. They had to answer without looking at their paper and competed to see who could answer more questions correctly. Finally, we had a full class discussion and a short PowerPoint presentation of the key points from that lesson. By doing these exercises, students were actively practicing all the language skills. At the same time they were learning about Kyoto. The key point is that the students are engaged. In the official course evaluation and in-class evaluation, students have rated this class above average in most categories.

To test the students I have two oral quizzes each term. Students are given ten essay questions for homework. In the next class, I interview one student at a time for five minutes and ask each student three questions. The results of the oral quiz show that the vast majority of students are able to produce clear and well-organized answers.

This course can be most accurately characterized as Content Based Instruction (CBI) (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 2003). In addition a Sustained Content Teaching (SCT) approach is used. This is when language teachers research a subject and teach it themselves. They offer the learner their experience and understanding of learning languages; in other words, they can teach the content but also recognize and manage the language difficulties students might have (Pally, 2000). These two labels best describe how this course responded to both institutional demands (CBI) and student needs (SCT).

Japan Studies C: Kyoto Culture and History in the Japanese Studies Program at Doshisha Women's College

After teaching the above course for several years, I was asked to teach a Kyoto Studies course for exchange students mostly from the US; DWC students could also enroll. DWC has several affiliated colleges overseas at which its students can study abroad. The JSP program was initiated in 1992 to offer a chance for students from those affiliated colleges to spend the fall semester studying Japanese language and culture at DWC. In addition, it allows for students at Doshisha Women's College who have achieved a high level of English to take classes with the visiting students (Doshisha Women's College, 2011 b).

This is an important program for the college. The institutional message was to make the class academically challenging and engaging for the visiting students and make sure the "classmates," the term used for the Japanese students who attended the class, were able to participate. My first consideration was to find the right materials. The materials I had previously created for the CASE program were content based but with language practice in mind. The content in the original materials was not extensive enough for an L1 student. Fortunately, John Dougill's *Kyoto: A Cultural and Literary History* (2006) covers the history and culture of Kyoto very well. The one problem was that for a majority of the Japanese students in class, the book was very difficult and reading one chapter required hours of work. If the material was too hard for the Japanese students, they may not have participated actively in discussions, and might have been hesitant to ask questions.

My challenge was how to assist the Japanese students to manage the difficult textbook. In the first few weeks, I matched a Japanese native speaker with a visiting L1 student. There were a few reasons for this. First, they had to do a museum poster presentation project together. They were required to visit the museum together; therefore, they had to exchange emails and often be in contact with each other. This poster presentation took place in the 6th class, but they had to plan the trip to the museum right from the first class. They were required to interview one staff member at the museum and speak to one visitor. The visiting student needed the Japanese speaker to help conduct the interview, and they both used their language skills in translating the interview into English. This was an efficient way to combine the students' strengths, to make the pair realize that working together is truly beneficial, and to make a classroom that has a lot of connections among the students.

The second reason to match a visiting student (L1) with a native Japanese speaker (L2) was to have them assist each other with the text. Before class each week, I required the partners to contact each other and ask questions about the chapter we had to read for the following week. This helped both L1 and L2 students to understand the chapter more deeply. The L1 students sometimes had questions about Japanese society or history that the L2 student was often able to answer; meanwhile, the L2 English learner had many vocabulary questions. Even though the students were very busy, a class survey showed that roughly 80% were able to contact their partner. Making these partnerships was a good strategy to encourage the formation of strong bonds among the students even though there were distinct fluency differences

Compared to the first course described above, this class did not focus nearly as much on language practice. We had no exercises for repeating sentences. We had no cloze exercises to help with listening skills. This course raised the academic level while taking steps to bond the two different groups in the class and help the Japanese students overcome difficulties with the text. The poster presentation project is an example of a task-based learning activity used to create an atmosphere that allows the L1 students to contact the L2 students outside of class and makes it natural for the students to rely on each other for assistance.

Kyoto Society and Business at Doshisha University's Institute for the Liberal Arts

The Institute for the Liberal Arts at Doshisha University offers a B.A. conducted entirely in English. It "combines a private American liberal arts college atmosphere and educational approach with an emphasis on building partnerships between students and professors in small classes conducted in English," (Doshisha University, 2014). This institute is a response to the "Global 30" program initiated by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). By increasing the number of Japanese students studying abroad and the number of visiting students in Japan, MEXT hopes to create "an academic environment where international and Japanese students can learn from one another and build lasting international bonds…" (MEXT, 2009-2014). In keeping with these principles, I was asked to offer a class that was academically rigorous with a focus on critical thinking and writing skills. The students in this class were from all over the world.

Faced with the clear directions from the institution and a very diverse student composition, I had to find materials that challenged the students academically while making the best use of their diverse backgrounds. The question of materials was complicated by the fact that there is no textbook in English that covers society and business in pre-modern and modern Kyoto. The Sustained Content Teaching approach seemed most practical for this course (Pally, 2000). First, topics were chosen that would be most relevant and engaging to a broad range of students: education, art, technology etc. After establishing the topics an extensive search was undertaken through academic journals, books, newspapers, and the Internet to find appropriate materials that would provide a deeper understanding of those topics. The questions for the readings were formulated so that the discussions would allow students to share their various cultural backgrounds.

The English language level of this class was the highest among the three classes, with a very high percentage of fluent or nearly fluent students. The percentage of time devoted to lecturing increased in this class. However, the largest percentage of time was still devoted to discussion by students. With a class of 38, I broke the students into groups of five or six each time. Those groups were carefully constructed to make sure that a variety of ethnic backgrounds were represented in each group. Each class had a topic, such as education, textiles, or movies in Kyoto. For each topic the readings followed a pattern: explanation of the historical background and description of a contemporary company or institution practicing that trade. The discussion questions reviewed the reading and also asked the students to share knowledge from their own country.

One example is a class on textiles. We had a reading that described the transformation of *kimono* into artwork in the Meiji Period, which led to the development of the department store. A second reading explained the collapse of the textile industry in the 1980s and 1990s. Another article explored one traditional *kimono* maker now using their textile skills to produce high-end automobile seat-covers while still making *kimono*. After discussing the content of the readings, students were given more open-ended questions such as: Do you have a traditional garment in your country? Do you think it is important to protect traditional clothing? The goal of such questions is to establish an environment in which international students and Japanese students can learn from each other.

The other main issue with this class is the question of English ability. I do not focus on teaching English language skills. For the final paper, I give guidance on the style and basic outline of the paper. During class, however, I do not go into the group discussions and correct English. I tell the students it is important that if you do not understand something said by a classmate, you can politely ask them to repeat or rephrase it. In whole-class discussion, I try to model this when I do not understand clearly what a student has said. This class can be best described as English as a Lingua Franca in an Academic Setting (ELFA). English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) has been defined by Jenkins as "English when it is used as a contact language between people from different first languages (including native English speakers)" (2014, p. 24).

Conclusion

As the institutions where we teach become increasing global, we need to carefully weigh the goals of the institutions with the aspirations and abilities of a more diverse student population. The popularity of content courses that visiting students and L1 Japanese speaking students both attend will require language teachers to develop certain skills. Those skills will include an ability to find materials to create new courses. The most helpful guide in creating new material has been the concept of a student-centered communicative classroom. Students need to make discoveries by discussing the material and expressing their own opinions. One essential lesson that has been learned for a successful international class is the creation of exercises and projects that help L1 students and L2 students work together and avoid any chances that these students will not interact in a meaningful way. In addition, the materials should be crafted so that students will be able to share their experiences and backgrounds with each other. This is fundamental for a successful international educational experience, which helps students attain a global perspective. It is equally important to use the diversity of the classroom as a positive resource. The final lesson for a class composed of a great variety of international students was to learn the importance of the concept of ELF. The full ramifications of ELF for global education is beyond the scope of this paper, but in short, it has become a helpful guide in assisting students to understand that the most important point in their discussions is that other members understand the ideas they are trying to express. Students must learn to negotiate meaning among themselves in a world in which the majority of their English interactions will be with L2 speakers of English.

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Two Resources for Extensive Reading in Japanese

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A key benefit of extensive reading is that it can be undertaken independently by learners outside the classroom, and is thus particularly effective as a sustainable long term learning strategy. However, while learners of English have the luxury of hundreds of graded readers to choose from, locating suitable extensive reading materials can be more problematic for learners of other languages. This paper introduces two Japanese language magazines, *News ga Wakaru* and *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo*, compares various features of their design and content, and explores the author's own experiences of extensive reading in Japanese.

多読の主要な利点は、教室の外で学習者が単独で取り組むことができ、長期的な学習戦略として特に有効であることだ。しかしながら、英語の学習者は贅沢にも等級分けされた何百冊もの本の中から読むものを選ぶことができるものの、他の言語の学習者にとっては、多読に適した読み物を見つけることが大きな問題となる。本稿では、2つの日本語の雑誌、『Newsが分かる』と『中上級の日本語』を紹介し、これらのデザインと内容の様々な点を比較し、著者自身の日本語の多読経験を検討する。

While there are many complex factors involved in achieving a high level of proficiency in any given field, it is hard to deny the central importance of time on task (Ericsson, Prietula, & Cokely, 2007). Clearly, for second language learners too, spending sufficient time in contact with the target language is one of the keys to proficiency. However, for many learners, especially those whose years of formal education are behind them, practical constraints preclude achieving this contact time through formal instruction alone. Over and above taking lessons, learners need to find their own ways to improve or sustain their language proficiency.

Extensive reading (ER) is one means by which language learners can spend time in contact with the target language, with studies such as Robb and Kano (2013) showing unambiguously the benefits which can accrue to language acquisition through a well planned and implemented ER program. But while these students had access to a university library well stocked with graded readers, not all language learners can count themselves so fortunate. In particular, while huge global demand ensures that those studying English have no shortage of material for ER, learners of other languages are not as well provided for.

As both a learner of Japanese and an advocate of ER in my own EFL classroom, I naturally have been highly motivated to practice what I preach. Unfortunately, however, graded readers in Japanese are few and far between. While the excellent *Level Betsu Nihongo Tadoku Library* (レベル別日本語多読ライブラリー) series produced by Ask Publishing kept me occupied for a few months, I soon ran out of suitable books, as the highest level in this series is appropriate for learners between the N3 and N2 levels of the Japanese

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Language Proficiency Test, and is comprised of only ten volumes. For a learner at this level of proficiency to then graduate to authentic materials seems a huge leap, and certainly one that was beyond my own capabilities. At this point, thanks to my Japanese teacher, I was introduced to the two magazines which form the focus of this article: *News ga Wakaru* (News がわかる) and *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo* (中上級のにほんご).

Background Information

Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo

Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo is a monthly magazine published by Sousaku Shuudan Nihongo (創作集団にほんご). It is 40 pages long, B5 size, and costs 600 yen per issue. It is available for purchase in a number of bookshops that stock foreign books, and subscriptions are offered for either three, six or twelve months. The magazine is written specifically for learners of Japanese at intermediate to advanced level.

News ga Wakaru

News ga Wakaru is also published monthly, and is part of the Mainichi Newspapers Company Ltd, one of Japan's most prominent media organisations. It is an A4-sized publication, consisting of approximately 60 pages, and is priced at 330 yen. It can be purchased from a wide range of bookshops or by annual subscription, and is produced for a primary target readership of Japanese junior high school students.

Content

Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo

The content of *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo* follows a regular format, and consists of the same nine sections each month. These sections are described briefly below.

News. Each edition begins with four short news articles, usually around fifteen lines long, on current topics.

Quiz. The quiz focuses on Japanese language, culture and life. To give one example, the quiz from the February 2014 issue asks readers to match five Japanese sportsmen and women with their sports, and then provides a one-paragraph biography of each athlete.

Manga. The same manga series appears every month, depicting the lives of a multi-generational Japanese family and their American foreign exchange student. The story is used as a theme around which to introduce a set of related vocabulary items, and explanations and definitions of the featured words and phrases follow on the next page.

Topics from daily life. This section provides information on aspects of life in Japan, and usually includes and explains lots of related vocabulary. Recent topics have included reading Japanese recipes, filling in delivery forms, and understanding an apartment floor plan.

Studying Japanese from newspapers. This feature began in January 2013, and each month has provided information for learners on how Japanese newspapers are laid out and tips on how best to approach different parts of them.

Business etiquette. Aimed at foreign professionals working in a Japanese office environment, the format of this section varies month to month, sometimes including a quiz, sometimes a dialogue, but always focusing on a particular aspect of Japanese business culture.

Idioms. The idioms section is the one which offers least from an ER perspective, consisting simply of definitions and examples of several idioms, grouped according to a common kanji.

This month's topic. These are four-page articles on topics of current interest, usually looking at a social trend or issue.

Jikkuri yomou. Despite the title, loosely translated as 'Let's read carefully', it is this final section that bears most resemblance to typical extensive reading materials. The readings are usually fiction, and generally adapted from Japanese works of literature or folk tales. At eight pages, this is the longest section of the magazine; moreover, stories are sometimes continued over two or more issues.

Overall, the most salient feature of the content of *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo* is that it has clearly been created specifically for learners of Japanese as a foreign language. Firstly, while the language is aimed at fairly advanced level learners, it is nevertheless graded: the news articles, for example, are both considerably shorter and in simpler language than would be found in a publication written for native speakers. Moreover, the majority of sections include glossaries with definitions or explanations of key words, and five of those sections adopt a specifically pedagogical standpoint, whether the purpose be to explicate Japanese language (Studying Japanese from newspapers, Idioms), culture (Topics from daily life, Business etiquette), or both (Manga). One potential criticism here would be that many of the cultural points are likely to already be known to learners who have attained a sufficient level of Japanese to be reading this magazine, and may thus not be of great interest. On the other hand, when reading in a foreign language, prior familiarity with the topic can be beneficial for learners (Kanda, 2009), increasing both comprehension and motivation, and enhancing the reader's ability to guess new words from context, rather than relying on glossaries or a dictionary.

The inclusion of vocabulary explanations, as well as comprehension questions (in the *News* section) also raises the point of whether *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo* can in fact really be viewed as a resource for extensive reading, given that many of the passages appear better suited for use in classroom-based intensive reading exercises. Of course, the magazine is not specifically designed for ER, but as a more general language learning tool; nevertheless, how it is used is up to the individual reader. For example, although the manga strip has a specific lexical focus, this is something I rarely pay attention to, preferring to read and enjoy it simply as a story, glossing over the majority of unknown words. Conversely, when reading the news section I find the explanations of key vocabulary essential to understanding both the gist and detail of the articles.

News ga Wakaru

A glance at the contents page of *News ga Wakaru* (Appendix A) shows that the magazine is divided into three broad sections: the first 25-40 pages are devoted to feature articles, with the remainder divided between pieces classified in the contents page as either 学ぶ (*manabu*: study) or 楽しむ (*tanoshimu*: fun).

Feature articles. These range from two to eight pages in length, and cover a wider range of topics than the feature articles in *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo*. The March 2012 issue is fairly representative, including articles on the following topics: increasing life-expectancy of pets, the search for the Higgs boson, Iraq and Iran, baseball, and the construction of the Yanba Dam.

'Study' section. The contents of this section vary slightly from month to month, but generally include the following four items: four to six 'News file' pages, which feature summaries of the main national and international news stories from the preceding month; a Q and A section looking in greater depth at a social or scientific issue; one page of puzzles and brainteasers; a multiple choice quiz on news and current affairs, with answers provided on a later page. In addition to these regulars, other features, such as a column on economics, appear sporadically.

'Fun' section. This part of the magazine usually includes between seven and nine separate features. As with the 'study' section, some of these are included in each issue, while others appear only occasionally. In the former category are two four-page manga strips, a travel journal, an interview, a photography column, a recipe page and a crossword puzzle.

News ga Wakaru is aimed at roughly ten to fifteen year-olds and thus caters for a fairly wide range of abilities, something which is reflected in both the topics and the language found in the magazine. Interestingly, in my own experience, it has not always been the case that features aimed at younger readers have been easier for me. For example, one of the manga strips, *Shoujo Kisha Mai-chan* (少女記者マイちゃん), is set in a junior high school. Despite the abundant visual clues, it is often the case that my lack of familiarity with teenagers' language has left me floundering when reading this strip. Conversely, articles on politics or the environment, for example, often complement the kind of topics and vocabulary which regularly appear in JSL textbooks, and in terms of both language and content are more familiar to me.

Overall, the content has a more international flavour than that of *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo*, in which both the news and feature articles are generally Japan-centric. Another notable point about *News ga Wakaru* is the diversity of topics covered. The feature articles and 'study' section are categorised into sixteen fields, and articles on at least ten of these areas usually appear in each edition, ensuring the magazine caters for a range of tastes. Inevitably, articles aimed at young teenagers often present information which is hardly surprising to someone in their forties, yet on many other occasions *News ga Wakaru* has not only provided me with Japanese practice but also expanded or refreshed my knowledge. Indeed, it has at times been immensely satisfying to read articles in Japanese on subjects that I studied thirty years ago and find long-since forgotten knowledge flooding back.

Unsurprisingly, given its target readership of native Japanese speakers, *News ga Wakaru* contains a lot less explicit language support than does *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo*. Occasionally, feature articles include a 'key word' box, explaining a term crucial to understanding the article, but these are usually only fairly technical terms, for example *katsudansou* (活断層: active fault) in an article on earthquakes.

Design

Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo

Like many JSL textbooks, *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo* is simply designed, produced in black and white, and very text-heavy; with the exception of the manga strip, few illustrations accompany the articles, and those that do are simple line drawings. No use is made of photographs, and graphs, tables and maps are few and far between. Nevertheless, there are other features of the magazine's design which aid the reader.

Appendix B shows one of the news articles from the February 2014 issue of *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo* The first point worthy of note is that no furigana are present in the main text. Instead, the readings of all kanji are given in a box on the opposite page. In my own experience of reading in Japanese, I have always found the ideal amount of furigana to be included in texts a somewhat thorny issue. With furigana present I find it physically impossible to read the kanji without reference to the furigana. This is frustrating as it deprives the reader of the chance to recall kanji readings unaided. Conversely, a text including too many unglossed kanji can be frustrating for different reasons: having to frequently check a dictionary is clearly not conducive to a pleasurable reading experience, and looking up kanji readings is, of course, more time-consuming than looking up words written in a simpler script. In its news articles, *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo* thus provides a neat solution. By reading with the magazine folded in half I can reinforce my knowledge of familiar kanji and challenge myself to read those which I have encountered but not yet fully internalised, something not possible when furigana are placed directly above the kanji. But when I either fail to recall the correct reading of such kanji or come across entirely unfamiliar characters, the furigana box on the opposite page provides a quick and simple reference, the use of which barely interrupts the reading experience, especially as the lines in the article are numbered and referenced in this box.

Taken as a whole, *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo* offers different options with regard to furigana. While the news articles and *This month's topic* follow the system described above, other sections, such as *Business etiquette*, only gloss kanji on their first appearance, while others yet (for example, the reading section) gloss all kanji, however simple or however often they appear. Finally, in the manga strip furigana are provided only for highlighted vocabulary items, and only in the glossary, not within the illustrations themselves. Over and above the style and content of the articles, the design of the magazine thus also contributes to providing a variety of reading experiences.

News ga Wakaru

Along with the contents page, Appendix A shows the first page of one of the feature articles from the March 2012 edition of *News ga Wakaru*, and illustrates three points of significance with respect to the design of the magazine.

Firstly, in contrast to *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo*, *News ga Wakaru* is a full-colour publication. Furthermore, the use of colour is not limited to illustrations or graphics, which of course benefit greatly from being in colour, but also extends to the text itself; this page includes text in black, purple, and white, and this is common throughout the magazine, with most pages using at least two or three colours. Also, the news and feature articles are colour-coded according to topic; thus, the headings and subheadings in Appendix A are in purple, as this is the colour representing *ikimono* (生きもの: living things).

News ga Wakaru also makes extensive use of photographs, illustrations, graphs, tables and maps. Although only one page is included here, the article in Appendix A runs to seven pages in total, and these pages include 16 photographs, four illustrations, three graphs and one table. Most photographs are well chosen, clearly relate to the text, and usually come with an accompanying caption. While some illustrations are simply decoration, others are used to explain in graphic form something related to the topic, especially in those articles focusing on scientific themes.

Lastly, a key feature of the design is the layout of the text itself. Rather than long pages of uninterrupted text, which can be intimidating for the L2 reader, all articles are broken down with sub-headings into manageable chunks, and features such as text boxes, thought bubbles and mini-dialogues are used to expand on particular points outside the main text.

While these three aspects of design certainly combine to create a visually appealing product, their importance goes beyond the aesthetic. The Japanese orthographic system is immensely complex, and ploughing through pages of uninterrupted black text on white background can be an intimidating and unappealing task for a language learner, however stimulating the content. Rather than simply starting at the beginning and proceeding to the end of an article in a linear fashion, the reader is offered a variety of ways in which to engage with the text. To take the article in Appendix A as an example, the first page offers several entry points to the text: by looking at the photographs, and then reading the title (which is both in colour and a large font), the highlighted question next to the illustration, and the text in the circle in the top right corner, the reader has a good idea of the likely content of the article before embarking on the main text. This has two benefits: firstly, it is a great help in deciding which articles to read; secondly, having a mental schema already in place enhances the ability to infer meaning from context and facilitates greater comprehension.

Conclusion

Day and Bamford's (1998) second principle of extensive reading states that "A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available" (p. 8). For learners of English, graded readers provide this variety, in terms of both topic and level; learners of Japanese, however, have far less appropriate reading material available. It is to be hoped that in the future the range of graded readers available in Japanese will be expanded; in the meantime, however, although not specifically designed for extensive reading, both *Chuujoukyuu no Nihongo* and *News ga Wakaru* can go some way towards plugging this gap.

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Appendix A

子どもがニュースを楽しく学べる

月刊 Newsがわかる 3月号

CONTENTS もくじ

キャラクターの絵 森本サンゴ

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生きもの

犬や猫 平均年齢 14歳

長寿化するペット

ペットとして飼われる犬や猫の寿命がのびている。平均年齢は14歳*(人間なら72歳ぐらい)ほどで、30年前の3〜4倍。栄養豊かなペットフードをあたえられ、獣医療も進んで病気が治るようになったからだ。もはや17〜18歳(人間なら84〜88歳ぐらい)以上も珍しくない。それだけに、飼う時は長年世話をする覚悟が求められる。

大人になっても世話できる?

ペットショップで愛くるしい子犬や子猫を見つけて「ほしい!」と思う人は多いだろう。でも、衝動買いはいけない。

10歳のきみが子犬や子猫を買ってもらった場合、それはきみが大人になっても生きている可能性が高い。途中であきてしまわないだろうか? 進学や就職で実家をはなれるかもしれないのに、最期までいつくしめるだろうか? 安易に親や祖父母にまかせていいのだろうか?

飼うなら成長した動物でも

「生まれたばかりの子犬や子猫を飼いたがるのが日本人。でも、動物が幼いとその性格はわかりません。ヨーロッパやアメリカでは捨て犬を飼う人が結構います。たいてい1〜8歳になるので、性格がわかり、自分に合った犬を選べます」と獣医師の須田沖夫さん。ペットの寿命が長くなった今、飼う前には家族でよく話し合い、成長した動物も選択肢に入れることを考えよう。

ごろりと寝転がる猫

2012.3 Newsがわかる 3

Appendix B

ニュース日本語版 2014/2

11 ページにフリガナを付けたものがあります。学習者に合わせて使い分けてください。

国際 G８認知症サミット開催される

2013 年 12 月 11 日、英国ロンドンで「G８認知症サミット」が開催された。これは、高齢化が進むにつれ、世界的に患者が増加している認知症を世界的な共通課題として話し合おうというもの。G８各国の政府代表、欧州委員会、WHO、OECD代表のほか、研究者、製薬会社代表などが出席した。

日本からは、土屋品子厚生労働副大臣が出席。認知症先進国ともいえる日本の現状や認知症に対応する施策などについて説明した。サミット宣言では、2025 年までに治療法などを特定することを目指し、各国共同で研究費を大幅に増やすことで合意した。

WHOによると、認知症の人は世界で約 3,600 万人（推計）いるという。日本では、65 歳以上の高齢者のうち認知症の人は約 462 万人（2012 年時点）。さらに認知症予備軍と言われる軽度認知障害の人は約 400 万人いると推定されており、65 歳以上の約４分の１が認知症とその予備軍と言われている。

（参考：厚生労働省HP）

◇読み取りのポイント

1．「G８認知症サミット」は、何のために行われたのですか。あなたの言葉で答えてください。

2．あなたの国の認知症の現状を話してください。

2

①認知症 開催 ②〜年 〜月 〜日 英国 ③高齢化 進む 世界的 患者 増加 ④共通 課題 話し合う ⑤各国 政府 代表 欧州委員会 研究者 ⑥製薬会社 出席 ⑦日本 土屋品子 厚生労働副大臣 先進国 ⑧現状 対応 施策 説明 ⑨宣言 治療法 特定 目指す ⑩共同 研究費 大幅 増やす 合意 ⑪人 約 〜万人 推計 ⑫〜歳 以上 高齢者 ⑬時点 予備軍 言う 軽度 障害 ⑭推定 〜分の〜

◇語句解説

◎G８：Group of 8。アメリカ、イギリス、ドイツ、フランス、イタリア、カナダ、ロシア、日本の８カ国。

◎認知症：いったん正常に発達した知能が、脳の障害などのために低下する症状。元は「痴ほう症」と言っていたが、2004年に厚生労働省が呼び方を変えた。

◎欧州委員会：欧州連合（EU）の行政機関。

◎ＷＨＯ：世界保健機関。World Health Organization。国際連合の専門機関の一つ。

◎ＯＥＣＤ：経済協力開発機構。Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development。

◎特定する：多くの中から、特にそれだと指定する。

◎合意する：意思や意見が一致する。

◎予備軍：そのうち、その状態になる可能性が高い人たち。元は、後方に予備として備えられている軍隊のこと。

◇読み取りのポイントの答え

1．世界中で認知症の人が増えているので、各国の共通課題として話し合うために行われました。 など。

2．略。

3

An Investigation Into Teachers' Self-reflections and Beliefs on Implementing the New Course of Study

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In April 2013, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) enacted a new Course of Study (2009) for senior high school English education which attempts to improve student's communicative abilities. Most notably, MEXT is urging teachers to teach English primarily in English, and employ language activities as a central teaching practice in their classes. This paper describes a survey study of the implementation process of the new Course of Study (2009) in all prefectural and city senior high schools in Kumamoto Prefecture. This survey investigates about teachers' beliefs and practices in regards to their use of language activities and English in the classroom. The findings provide insight into the extent to which the reforms of the Course of Study are being implemented in Kumamoto Prefecture, and identify what the teachers feel are limitations or prerequisites for real educational reform to take place.

2013年4月文部科学省は、高校生の英語によるコミュニケーション能力を高めるために、新学習指導要領(2009)を実施した。最も重要な点は、文部科学省は英語の授業を原則的に英語で行うことと、授業の主要部分を言語活動とすることを促しているという点である。本稿は、熊本市立及び熊本県立高等学校においての、英語の新学習指導要領実施についての調査研究である。この調査の目的は、英語の授業を英語で行うことと、言語活動に対する英語教師の考えや意見、そして、それをいかに実践しているかについて調査したものである。この調査の結果、熊本県において、新学習要領を実施したことによって、いかに授業における英語環境が変化したか、そして実際にはどういった問題点や改善が必要であるかが判明した。

While the classroom is considered the primary context for applied linguistic research, the national context can have a strong influence on the teacher and the classroom. In Japan, approximately every ten years, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) revises the Course of Study for English, the main policy document that outlines educational objectives and content for senior high school English classes in Japan (Tahira, 2012). This paper will present a survey study of the teachers who were involved with the implementation of the new Course of Study (MEXT, 2009) in all the prefectural and city senior high schools of Kumamoto Prefecture in its first year. By investigating teachers' teaching beliefs and practices in regards to the new Course of Study, the study aims to provide insight into the effects the policy reform is having in the local context, and to point out what might be limitations on the change

Gallagher, N. (2015). An investigation into teachers' self-reflections and beliefs on implementing the new course of study. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 36-51). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

process.

Kumamoto represents an excellent case study because it was identified in Schoppa's 2002 work on education reform in Japan as a prefecture that often looked to the Ministry of Education for guidance and directives. According to Schoppa's research, like other rural prefectures, Kumamoto followed the Ministry advice quite closely (Schoppa, 2002), making Kumamoto Prefecture an ideal place to research the efficacy of Ministry-driven curriculum reforms. This paper will first review two key reforms of the new Course of Study, and introduce a cost-benefit analysis that can be used to predict the likelihood of an educational policy's implementation. Then, the data and results of the teacher survey will be presented and discussed.

A General Outline of the New Course of Study

Two key reforms characterize the 2009 Course of Study: conducting classes in English, and language activities becoming central to classroom instruction.

For the first time in its 50 year history, MEXT proclaimed that all English courses at the senior high school (SHS) level should be conducted primarily in English, "transforming classes into real communication scenes" (MEXT, 2009, p. 3). This is not intended as a prohibition of the use of Japanese in class. If English is maintained as the central language of instruction, the MEXT guideline to the Course of Study (2010) states that Japanese can be used by the teacher to clarify instructions, language, or to further the objectives of a Teaching English Through English—or TETE—class (MEXT, 2010).

While this policy still permits some use of Japanese, the extent to which it promotes the use of English depicts a scene of teaching practices and goals much different from the current scene of SHS English teaching. In a survey conducted in December 2007, MEXT ask teachers whether they instructed their classes primarily in English. Around 21% - 27% of teachers reported that they mostly instructed in English in the OC (Oral Communication) course, while only 1-1.5% of teachers mostly used English in the courses, English I and II (Yamada & Hristokova, 2011). If such a gap between the reality of classroom practices and the new standards exists, a considerable amount of change in classroom practices, as well as teacher and student behaviour, will be required. Furthermore, the new Course of Study (2009) does not provide specific instructional guidelines for how to teach English in English effectively in class, making it unclear how the policy's implementation will proceed locally nationwide.

Second, MEXT has declared that language activities should be the central mode of classroom instruction in all of the English courses, while integrating the teaching of the four language skills (MEXT, 2009). By having students engage in productive language activities, MEXT expects the courses to focus on productive language use and performance, as opposed to acquiring formal knowledge about English through teacher-fronted lectures. By declaring the kinds of teaching practices that should be employed in English courses, the new Course of Study has provided more direction than previous versions, which have been criticized for failing to provide instructional guidelines (Gorsuch, 2000; Nishino 2008). Gorsuch's research (2000) on the 1989 Course of Study argued that the omission of any kind of instructional guidance in the Course of Study set the policy implementation up for failure, as it could not give clear direction to teachers on the instructional practices necessary to reform the existing practices. Despite this change in policy, the new Course of Study gives only general guidelines, lacking a description of actual classroom procedures and practices, which would explicitly demonstrate to teachers how language activities might be connected to the course contents.

Educational Change Research

Public educational reform in Japan is decided nationally under the provision of MEXT, and enacted centrally through the Course of Study (See, for example, Gorsuch, 2000). MEXT, as the adopter of the change, is the process participant which holds the authority, making the decisions and giving directives from the top (Kelly, 1980). The Japanese SHS English teachers, on the other hand, are the implementers, the participants who will actually institute the change in the practical setting (Kelly, 1980). Kelly claims that in any change process, the implementers will undergo a cost-benefit analysis of whether the implementation of the policy is worthwhile. The factors considered under the cost-benefit analysis can be analysed under three general criteria: acceptability, feasibility, and relevance (1980). Acceptability refers to whether the implementers believe that the change process is desirable and beneficial; in short, do teachers see the benefits of the policy. Feasibility describes the logistical considerations of the context being affected by change. The relevance criteria assesses if the change is appropriate for the particular classroom context. If the teachers as implementers perceive the policies of the new Course of Study as having high feasibility, acceptability, and relevance, then there is a higher likelihood the policy will be implemented as intended. Kelly's three criteria will be used as a tool of analysis within the present study.

Research Question

Have teachers changed their way of teaching in response to the new Course of Study, and what do teachers' beliefs suggest about the constraints to implementing the new Course of Study?

Method

Design

A survey questionnaire was chosen to investigate the changes in classroom practices within an entire prefecture in the first year of implementation of the new Course of Study, and to collect data about teachers' beliefs on English language use and employing language activities in their own classrooms. Utilizing a quantitative tool like a questionnaire is essential to capture the general state of implementation of the new Course of Study. The questionnaire includes 11 closed questions as well as one open-ended written response type question (Appendices A & B). The survey was administered in Japanese with the intention of maximizing the number of respondents.

Participants

Since the new Course of Study only applied to first year SHS English classes in the first year of enactment, questionnaires were sent by mail in January 2014 to all the prefectural (54) and city (2) senior high schools in Kumamoto Prefecture where there were teachers instructing first year classes. Each respondent returned the independent questionnaire voluntarily by mail; names of respondents or schools of employment were not collected.

Results and Discussion

A total of 70 teachers from the initial 174 teachers returned surveys (a respondent rate of 40%). Although no incentive was provided, my personal acquaintance with many English teachers from my over three year experience working as an ALT for Kumamoto Prefecture may have contributed to the higher than expected respondent rate.

An Increase in the Use of Language Activities

The data suggests that there has been a general trend in increasing the amount of language activities used in classes after April 2013. Prior to April 2013, the majority of teachers (57%) reported rarely using language activities in their classes (only in 5-25% of their classes). After April 2013, however, the number of teachers "rarely" using language activities decreased to 31%, with 46% of teachers reporting use of language activities sometimes in their classes (or 26-50% of the time—see Figure 1). Assessing their own teaching practices, the majority (61%) of teachers reported a small increase in the amount of language activities they use in class, while 23% of teachers reporting a large increase in the amount of language activities they use. It seems that the majority of teachers have responded to the policy but have not made major changes in how they use language activities in the class. Furthermore, only 11% of teachers claimed to be meeting the expectations of the new Course of Study. The findings suggest that teachers are making small adjustments to their teaching practices rather than attempting to match the standards set out in the new Course of

Study.

An Increase in the Ratio of English Instruction

The majority of respondents have reported increasing the amount of English they speak in class since April 2013. Around 87% have reported using more English in class: 20% by a lot, 41% by quite a bit, and 26% by a little. Despite this increase, 75% of teachers have reported using a considerable amount of spoken Japanese in class, with 44% of teachers reporting use of Japanese for around half of the time in class (36-60% of the time), while 31% claimed to be using it a lot in class (between 60-80% of the time—see Figure 2). These findings show that while teachers have made efforts to increase the amount of English they use, the majority of teachers depend on Japanese for a considerable portion of their classes. This suggests that the majority of teachers have not undergone much re-organization of their teaching practices. It appears that the extent of English being used in Kumamoto is still well below MEXT's policy expectation (MEXT, 2009).

Teacher Beliefs on Utilizing Language Activities

The survey findings show that teachers judge using language activities as acceptable. The results identified six advantages for utilizing language activities that most respondents strongly or mostly agreed with (Table 1). First, over 95% of teachers strongly or mostly agreed that using language activities could increase the chances of English use in class. Second, 90% of teachers strongly or mostly agreed that language activities can be used to improve students' speaking and listening skills. Third, 70% of teachers strongly or mostly agreed that students enjoy doing language activities. Fourth,

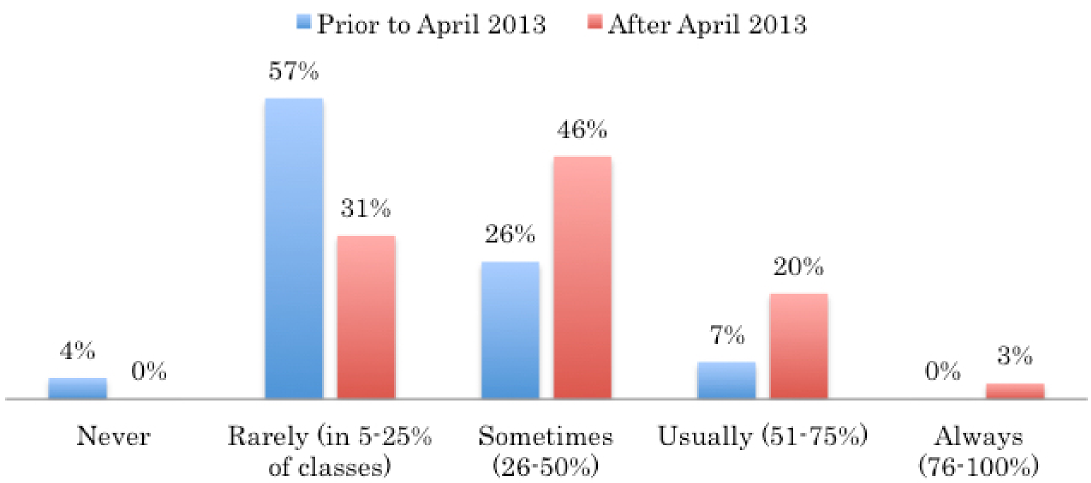

Figure 1. Teachers' use of language activities before and after the enactment of the new Course of Study

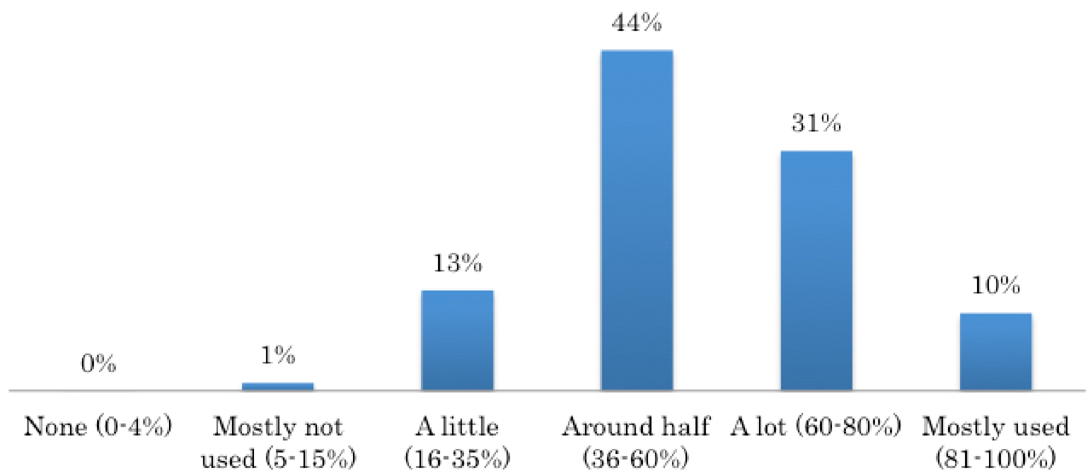

Figure 2. The amount of spoken Japanese teachers report to use in class while teaching

Table 1
Teachers' Beliefs on Language Activities (N=70)

		Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Neither	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree
a)	Language activities can improve students' speaking and listening skills.	26 (37.1%)	37 (52.9%)	6 (8.6%)	1 (1.4%)	-
b)	Students enjoy doing language activities.	8 (11.4%)	41 (58.6%)	17 (24.3%)	4 (5.7%)	-
c)	Through language activities, students can improve their motivation for studying English.	12 (17.1%)	35 (50.0%)	19 (27.1%)	4 (5.7%)	-
d)	Language activities are not limited to improving speaking and listening skills. They can also be used to improve reading and writing skills.	14 (20.0%)	33 (47.1%)	19 (27.1%)	4 (5.7%)	-
e)	It is difficult to use language activities in every class because preparing them takes time.	4 (5.7%)	26 (37.1%)	25 (35.7%)	12 (17.1%)	3 (4.3%)
f)	Language activities are not necessary for the preparation of university entrance examinations.	1 (1.4%)	4 (5.7%)	19 (27.1%)	32 (45.7%)	14 (20.0%)
g)	It is not possible to teach all the course contents with language activities.	8 (11.4%)	31 (44.3%)	16 (22.9%)	11 (17.1%)	4 (5.7%)
h)	Language activities increase the chances to use English in class.	32 (45.7%)	35 (50.0%)	3 (4.3%)	-	-
i)	There is no time in class for language activities because I have to ensure that the essential items have been effectively covered.	1 (1.4%)	12 (17.1%)	31 (44.3%)	24 (34.2%)	2 (2.9%)
j)	The students get a chance to actually use what they learn in language activities.	14 (20.0%)	29 (41.4%)	12 (17.1%)	15 (21.4%)	-

around 67% of teachers strongly or mostly agreed that students can improve their motivation for studying English with them. Fifth, 67% of teachers strongly or mostly agreed that language activities can be used to improve all four skills, including reading and writing. Finally, 60% of teachers strongly or mostly agreed that language activities give students a chance to use what they learn. These findings suggest that many SHS English teachers can identify some of the benefits of using language activities for the purpose of improving students' communicative abilities. This conclusion is similar to Nishino's findings in her 2008 study on teachers' beliefs of CLT practices, where she found that Japanese SHS English teachers perceive communicative approaches to English as valuable (Nishino, 2008).

However, it seems that some teachers did not agree that using language activities as a central classroom practice was feasible. First, around 56% of the respondents strongly or mostly agreed that it is not possible to teach the entire course contents with language activities. Teachers may question how to teach the textbook material or material for university entrance examinations under the new Course of Study policy, suggesting some teachers may prefer other teaching practices. Second, 43% of teachers strongly or mostly agreed that the preparation of language activities is time consuming and consequently difficult to incorporate into daily lesson planning, while 37% neither agreed nor disagreed with this point. As time constraints on the Japanese teacher have been widely acknowledged (Okano & Tsuchiya, 1999), any teaching approach that required a lot of extra daily planning time would pose a feasibility issue for many teachers. While this study has shown that teachers in Kumamoto perceive language activities as beneficial to student learning, the minimal increase in language activity use may be a result of teachers' beliefs that the policy is not feasible in their current teaching situation.

Teacher Beliefs on TETE

The findings suggest that teachers accept that the TETE policy have some advantages. Only 11% of respondents strongly or mostly agreed that they did not know the advantage of conducting classes in English, while 71% of teachers strongly or mostly disagreed with the statement that, "I do not really know the advantage of conducting English classes in English" (Table 2). Despite this, it seems many teachers may doubt the relevance of speaking mostly English to their students. Only 20% of teachers strongly or mostly agreed that student motivation increases when teachers speak in English, while 51% strongly or mostly disagreed and 29% neither agreed nor disagreed. If the teachers are concerned that TETE will be poorly received by

Table 2
Teachers' Beliefs on TETE (N=70)

	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Neither	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree
As I use English in class more, students' comprehension becomes insufficient.	7 (10.0%)	18 (25.7%)	31 (44.3%)	11 (15.7%)	3 (4.3%)
When classes are conducted in English, the pace is slowed down, and not all necessary teaching points can be covered.	3 (4.3%)	23 (32.9%)	22 (31.4%)	19 (27.1%)	3 (4.3%)
I am not confident in my English ability when conducting English classes in English.	3 (4.3%)	25 (35.7%)	22 (31.4%)	12 (17.1%)	8 (11.4%)
It is necessary to increase the amount of teacher training for teaching English through English.	20 (28.6%)	33 (47.1%)	12 (17.1%)	3 (4.3%)	2 (2.9%)
I can't make time to prepare for classes in English because of other school responsibilities.	4 (5.7%)	24 (34.3%)	20 (28.6%)	16 (22.9%)	6 (8.6%)
I do not really know the advantage to conducting English classes in English.	2 (2.9%)	6 (8.6%)	12 (17.1%)	20 (28.6%)	30 (42.9%)
Student motivation increases when using English.	1 (1.4%)	13 (18.6%)	20 (28.6%)	19 (27.1%)	17 (24.3%)
When the class is conducted in English, students stop paying attention, and maintaining class control becomes difficult.	2 (2.9%)	7 (10.0%)	23 (32.9%)	27 (38.6%)	11 (15.7%)
When I conduct class in English, I feel alienated from my regular self, and become unable to develop rapport with my students.	0 (0.0%)	8 (17.1%)	16 (45.7%)	28 (40.0%)	18 (25.7%)

students, they may be reluctant to adopt TETE in their class, regarding it as having little relevance to their classroom.

The findings suggest that some teachers believe implementing TETE may not be feasible under the current teaching conditions. First, a large majority of teachers agreed that the required in-service training and development to implement TETE is not enough. Seventy-six percent of respondents strongly or mostly agreed that it is necessary to increase the amount of teacher training for TETE. This finding indicates a clear feasibility issue for teachers: They believe they need more training on procedures and practices for implementing TETE. In addition, only a minority of teachers are confident in their language abilities for conducting a TETE class—about 30% of teachers strongly or mostly agreed they are confident in their language ability, 31% neither agreed nor disagreed, while 40% of teachers strongly or mostly disagreed that they are confident in their language ability. With only few teachers confident in their language ability, this presents a large barrier to the implementation of the policy of TETE, and may discourage some teachers from adopting the TETE policy. Finally, teachers are also concerned about how the TETE policy will affect students and their learning. Some teachers reported concerns about student comprehension when using TETE in class; 44% of the teachers neither agreed nor disagreed that student comprehension will be risked as the teacher speaks English more in class, while 36% strongly or mostly agreed, and 20% strongly or somewhat disagreed. Such a large ambiguity about whether TETE would negatively affect comprehension, seems to suggest that teachers regard TETE as a complex dynamic, making it difficult to discern how it would affect students learning and language intake with little prior experience of using it. While many teachers can identify the educational benefits to teaching English primarily in English, they may feel it is irrelevant and not feasible under current conditions, suggesting limitations to TETE's near-future implementation.

Conclusion

This paper investigated teachers' beliefs and practices of the new Course of Study in order to provide insight to its implementation by January 2014, and identify limitations or prerequisites for real educational change to occur. From the findings of the present study, some efforts towards reform were identified for both TETE and the use of language activities, yet it seems the teachers' practices are falling well below the expectations of the new Course of Study. SHS teachers in Kumamoto Prefecture seemed to accept advantages to both policy revisions; however, teachers are not convinced that the implementation of TETE and the primary use of language activities is possible in their current teaching context. This survey study has revealed data on the practices and beliefs in one prefecture. In order to deepen understanding about English education reform in Japanese senior high schools, the scope of future research on teachers' beliefs and practices in regards to new Course of Study should be widened to include other prefectures, as well as qualitative research such as interviews and class observations.

Notes

Parts of this paper have been submitted to the University of Birmingham as part of an MA dissertation. I have benefited from the reviews and advice of my dissertation supervisor, Takashi Miura.

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Author's Biography:

Nicole Gallagher became interested in the impact the new Course of Study (2013) was having on English teaching in the classrooms after teaching English at two senior high schools in Kumamoto City, Japan. Her interests include teacher beliefs, teacher development and educational reform.

Appendix A

Questionnaire (original)

高等学校の新学習指導要領の実施についてのアンケート

2013年4月高等学校新学習指導要領が完全実施となりました。このアンケートはこの新学習指導要領によって、高校1年生の授業がどのように変化したかについて、学術研究の参考データの収集を目ざしたものです。このアンケートの結果は、統計的に処理され、個々の回答者のお名前やご意見が表に出ることはありませんので、安心してご回答ください。なお、回答が終わりましたら、回答用紙を返信用封筒に入れ、2月25日（火）までに、ご返送ください。　ご多忙中、真に恐縮ですが、何卒ご協力のほどをよろしくお願い申し上げます。

<u>言語活動</u>

1. 2013年４月以前の１年生の授業についてお尋ねします。あなたが１年生の授業をした時、言語活動の使用頻度はどの程度でしたか。（言語活動とは、２人組でのワーク、コミュニケーション活動など）。

☐ 全く使わない　☐ あまり使わない (授業の5-25%)　☐ 時々(授業の26-50%)
☐ だいたい (授業の51-75%)　☐ いつも(授業の76-100%)　☐ 1年生は教えたことがない

2. 新学習指導要領によって、あなたのクラスでの言語活動の回数は増えましたか？

☐ はい、とても増えました　☐ はい、少しですが増えました.　☐ いいえ、前と変わりません。
☐ いいえ、前と比べて減りました。

3. 2013年４月以後の１年生の授業についてお尋ねします。あなたが１年生の授業をする時、言語活動の使用頻度はどの程度ですか。（言語活動とは、２人組でのワーク、コミュニケーション活動など）。

☐ 全く使わない　☐ あまり使わない (授業の5-25%)　☐ 時々(授業の26-50%)
☐ だいたい (授業の51-75%)　☐ いつも(授業の76-100%)

4. あなたの授業において、現在の言語活動の使用量は十分だと考えますか？

☐ いいえ、全く不十分。　☐ やや不十分。　☐ ほぼ十分である。　☐ はい、十分である。

5. 現在のあなたの１年生授業において、言語活動の内容と頻度は新学習指導要領の要求に、適合していると思いますか。

☐ 全く適合していない。　☐ クラスによっては、たまに適合している。
☐ ほとんどの場合適合している。　☐ 完全に適合している。　☐ 分からない。

6. 下の表は、言語活動の重視に対して言われている利点・問題点を挙げたものです。合っていると思う箇所にチェック(　)をお願いします。

	全くその通り	ほぼその通り	どちらとも言えない	あまりそうと言えない	全く違う
1. 言語活動は、生徒たちのスピーキングとリスニング力を向上させる。					
2. 生徒は言語活動を楽しむことができる。					

3. 生徒は言語活動を通して、英語学習への意欲が向上する。					
4. 言語活動はスピーキング力やリスニング力にとどまらず、ライティング力やリーディング力も向上させている。					
5. 言語活動は準備に時間がかかるので、毎回のクラスで使うのは難しい。					
6. 言語活動は、大学入試のための学習に必要がない。					
7. 言語活動は学習内容の全部のトピックで可能な訳ではない。					
8. 言語活動はクラスで英語を使う機会を増やす。					
9. 必要事項を効果的に教える必要があるので、言語活動をする時間がない。					
10. 言語活動で生徒たちは学んだことを実際に使う機会を得る。					

英語で行う英語の授業について

7. **現在の１年生の授業で、あなたは日本語をどれくらい使っていますか?**

☐ 全く使わない (0% 英語のみ) ☐ ほとんど使わない (5-15%) ☐ 少し使う(16-35%)
☐ 半分ぐらい使う(36-60%) ☐ たくさん使う (60-80%) ☐ ほとんど使う(81-100%)

8. **あなたは１年生の授業で英語をどの程度使っていますか?下記の表のそれぞれの場面について、パーセントを記入してください。また、配当する平均的な時間を、わかる範囲でお答えください。**

場面	英語を使う%	それに配当する平均的な時間(分)
1. 前時の復習		
2. 本時教材の導入		
3. 教材内容の理解活動や説明・復習活動		
4. 新出文法頃や語法の解説		
5. 生徒とのsmall talk (日常的会話)		
6. その他、授業運営上の指示・助言・質疑野やりとり		
7. 以上、授業全体を総合して、英語で話す割合		

9. **2013年４月以後、クラス内であなたが英語を使う量は増えましたか?**

☐ はい、大変増えました。 ☐ はい、ある程度増えました。 ☐ はい、少し増えました。
☐ いいえ、変わりません。 ☐ いいえ、減りました。

10. **新学習指導要領において、「生徒が英語に触れる機会をより充実させるために、授業は英語で行うことを基本とする。」とありますが、あなたの英語授業はこの指導要領におおむね合っていると思いますか。**

□ 合っていると思いません。　□ 努力していますが、まだ合っていません。
□ クラスによっては合っていたり、合っていなかったりします。
□ 大部分が合っていますが完全ではありません。　□ 合っています。　□ 分かりません。

11. **下記のリストは、「英語の授業は英語で行う」方針に対して予想される意見です。現在のあなたの授業について合っているものにチェックをお願いします。**

	全くその通り	ほぼその通り	どちらとも言えない	あまりそうと言えない	全く違う
1. 私が英語を話せば話すほど、生徒たちの理解が十分でなくなる。					
2. 英語で英語の授業を行うことで、授業の進度が遅くなり、必須事項を全部終了できない。					
3. 英語で英語の授業を行うほど英語力に自信がない。					
4. 英語で英語の授業を行う方法の訓練・研修がもっと必要である。					
5. 他の校務があるため、英語による授業の準備時間が作れない。					
6. 英語で授業を行うことの利点がよく分からない。					
7. 英語を使うと生徒の意欲がそがれる。					
8. 英語を使うことで生徒が集中せずクラス運営が困難になる。					
9. 英語で授業をすると、いつもの教師としての自分と違ってしまい、生徒との交流が困難になる。					

12. **新学習指導要領(英語)について何かご意見がありましたら下記に記入ください。**

____

____

____

13. **最後に、先生のバックグラウンドや勤務校について教えてください。**

(1)　**最終卒業校の専攻は何でしたか？**

学士　□ 英語教育　□ 言語学　□ 英文学　□ 英米語学　□ 教育　□ その他
修士　□ 英語教育　□ 言語学　□ 英文学　□ 英米語学　□ 教育　□ その他

(2) 教職について、何年になられますか？

☐ ５年以内　☐ ５年から１０年以内　☐ １０年から２０年以内　☐ ２０年以上

(3) 高等学校で英語を何年間教えておられますか？

☐ ５年以内　☐ ５年から１０年以内　☐ １０年から２０年以内　☐ ２０年以上

(4) 現在勤務されておられる学校にはどのような学科やコースがありますか？

☐ 全日制：普通科のみ　(理数科を含む)

☐ 全日制：普通科と国際関係の学科

☐ 全日制：普通科と国際関係の学科と職業系の学科

☐ 全日制：普通科と職業系の学科

☐ 全日制：職業系の学科のみ

☐ 定時制・通信制：普通科、職業系の学科

アンケートにご協力ありがとうございました。もしも更に詳しいコメントをいただけますなら、下記にご記入いただくか、xxxx@gmail.comまでメールでお寄せください。

貴重なご意見をどうもありがとうございました。

Appendix B

Questionnaire (English translation)

A Questionnaire About the Implementation of the New Course of Study at Senior High Schools

In April 2013, the new Course of Study for senior high schools was put into effect. This questionnaire aims to investigate what changes have occurred in first year high school classes and the data collected will be used for academic research. The results of this questionnaire will be presented statistically, and the names of the respondents will not be collected or made public. Please send your completed questionnaire by mail by Tuesday. February 25th, 2014. Thank you for taking the time out of your busy schedule to fill out this questionnaire.

<u>Language Activities</u>

1. **This question is about first year classes prior to April 2013. When you taught first year classes, how often would you use language activities in your classes? (A language activity refers to pair work, communication activity, etc.).**
   ☐ Never ☐ Rarely (5-25% of classes) ☐ Sometimes (26-50% of classes)
   ☐ Usually (51-75% of classes) ☐ Always (76-100% of classes) ☐ No experience with first year classes

2. **Have you increased the number of language activities that you use in your classes in response to the new Course of Study?**
   ☐ Yes, by a lot ☐ Yes, by a little ☐ No, there hasn't been a change
   ☐ No, it has decreased from before.

3. **This question is about first year classes since April 2013. When you teach first year classes, how often do you use language activities in your classes? (A language activity refers to pair work, communication activity, etc.).**
   ☐ Never ☐ Rarely (5-25% of classes) ☐ Sometimes (26-50% of classes)
   ☐ Usually (51-75% of classes) ☐ Always (76-100% of classes)

4. **Do you think that you are using enough language activities in your own classes?**
   ☐ no, definitely not enough ☐ no, not quite enough ☐ almost enough ☐ yes, I am using enough

5. **Do you think that your first year classes, in regards to the content and amount of language activities you are using, meet the expectations of the new Course of Study?**
   ☐ They definitely do not meet the expectations
   ☐ Depending on the class, sometimes they meet the expectations
   ☐ In most cases, they meet the expectations
   ☐ They completely meet the expectations
   ☐ I don't know.

6. **Below is a list of possible advantages and limitations of using language activities in the classroom. Please tick the box according to your own opinion.**

	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Almost disagree	Strongly disagree
a) Language activities can improve students' speaking and listening skills.					
b) Students enjoy doing language activities.					
c) Through language activities, students can improve their motivation for studying English.					
d) Language activities are not limited to improving speaking and listening skills. They can also be used to improve reading and writing skills.					
e) It is difficult to use language activities in every class because preparing them takes time.					
f) Language activities are not necessary for the preparation of university entrance examinations.					
g) It is not possible to teach all the course contents with language activities.					
h) Language activities increase the chances to use English in class.					
i) There is no time in class for language activities because I have to ensure that the essential items have been effectively covered.					
j) The students get a chance to actually use what they learn in language activities.					

<u>**Teaching English in English**</u>

7. How much Japanese are you using in your current first year English class?

☐ None (0% only English) ☐ Rarely (5-15%) ☐ A little (16-35%)
☐ Around half the time (36-60%) ☐ A lot (60-80%) ☐ Usually (81-100%)

8. In your first year classes, how much (%) English do you use? Please write down your answers for each category listed below. Please also give the average amount of time you spend on each activity, if possible.

Language Situation	The amount of English used (%)	The average amount of class time spent
1. Review of the previous lesson		
2. Introduction of new material		
3. Text comprehension activities, including explanation and practices.		

4. Explanation of new grammatical and lexical items.		
5. Small talk with students		
6. Other classroom management such as directions, advice, and classroom management		
7. Total percentage of teacher talk given in English.		

9. Since April 2013, has the amount of English you are using in class increased?

☐ Yes, it has increased a lot ☐ Yes, it has increased to some extent ☐ Yes, it has increased a little

☐ No, there hasn't been a change ☐ No, it has decreased

10. According to the new Course of Study, "classes, in principle, should be conducted in English in order to enhance the opportunities for students to be exposed to English" (MEXT, 2009). Do your English classes meet this expectation of the new Course of Study?

☐ No, I don't think they do. ☐ I am trying but not yet.

☐ I am meeting the expectations in some classes, but not in others.

☐ My classes mostly meet the expectations, but not completely. ☐ Yes, they do. ☐ I don't know.

11. Below is a list of possible opinions about the "Teaching English through English" policy. Please check the answer which is appropriate for your current class.

	Strongly Agree	Mostly agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Almost Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a) As I use English in class more, students' comprehension becomes insufficient.					
b) When classes are conducted in English, the pace is slowed down, and not all necessary teaching points can be covered.					
c) I am not confident in my English ability when conducting English classes in English.					
d) It is necessary to increase the amount of teacher training for teaching English through English.					
e) I can't make time to prepare for classes in English because of other school responsibilities.					
f) I do not really know the advantage to conducting English classes in English.					
g) Student motivation increases when using English.					
h) When the class is conducted in English, students stop paying attention, and maintaining class control becomes difficult.					
i) When I conduct class in English, I feel alienated from my regular self, and become unable to develop rapport with my students.					

12. If you have an opinion about the new Course of Study for English, please write it below.

____

____

____

13. Finally, please fill out the questions about your current school, years of teaching experience and educational background.

(1) What post-secondary degrees and majors have you completed?

BA ☐ English education ☐ Linguistics ☐ English literature ☐ English culture and language
☐Education ☐ Other

MA (if applicable) ☐ English education ☐ Linguistics ☐ English literature
☐ English culture and language ☐ Education ☐ Other

(2) How many years have you worked as a school teacher?

☐ less than 5 years ☐ between 5 and 10 years ☐ between 10 and 20 years ☐ over 20 years

(3) How many years have you worked as a high school English teacher?

☐ less than 5 years ☐ between 5 and 10 years ☐ between 10 and 20 years ☐ over 20 years

(4) What kind of courses and programs are offered at the school you currently work at?

☐ Full-time program: regular course (including a science or math stream)
☐ Full-time program: regular course and international related course
☐ Full-time program: regular course, international related course, employment skills related course.
☐ Full-time program: regular course, and employment skills related course
☐ Full-time program: Employment skills related course
☐ Part-time program/ Correspondence program: regular course and/or employment skills related course

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this survey. If you would like to leave a comment, please write it below or send me an email at xxxx@gmail.com.

Comparing TOEIC® and Vocabulary Test Scores

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This study compares the results of listening, reading, and speaking tests of the Test of English for International Communication™ (TOEIC®), the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) and the Vocabulary Size Test (VST) to determine the degree to which the test scores correlate. The five tests were taken by 82 university students and the scores were then examined for correlations. Among the three TOEIC tests, the correlation between the listening and reading tests was stronger than those between the reading and speaking tests and between the listening and speaking tests. The scores of the two vocabulary tests correlated moderately with each other. All three TOEIC tests showed stronger correlations with the VLT than with the VST. Of the three TOEIC tests, the reading test most strongly correlated with the vocabulary tests.

本研究ではTOEICのリスニング、リーディング、スピーキングテスト、Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT)とVocabulary Size Test (VST)の結果を比較し、それぞれのテストの得点の間にどの程度の相関があるか調べる。5種類のテストを82人の大学生が受け、各テストの得点の相関を調べた。3種類のTOEICテストの間では、リスニングテストとリーディングテストの間の相関がリスニング・スピーキング間やリーディング・スピーキング間の相関より強かった。2つの語彙テスト間の相関は中程度であった。3種類のTOEICテストは全てVSTよりVLTとの間でより強い相関を示した。3種類のTOEICテストの中では、リーディングテストが両方の語彙テストとの間で最も強い相関を示した。

This study compares the scores of the listening, reading, and speaking tests of the Test of English for International Communication™ (TOEIC®), the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT), and the Vocabulary Size Test (VST). The TOEIC usually refers to a multiple-choice, paper-and-pencil test composed of listening and reading questions; however, a computer-based speaking test was created in 2006 as well as a writing test. The writing test was not used in this study because of budget constraints. The VLT was originally created by Nation (1983) and has been revised several times (Nation, 1990; Beglar & Hunt, 1999; Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001). The VST is newer than the VLT, appearing in Nation and Beglar (2007). According to Nation and Beglar (2007) and Schmitt (2010), the two tests have different purposes; while the VLT is a diagnostic test for determining how much vocabulary learners know at various frequency levels, the VST is designed to estimate a learner's overall vocabulary size. However, both measure a learner's written receptive vocabulary knowledge.

The three TOEIC and two vocabulary tests were administered to 82 university students. First, the correlations between the scores of the three TOEIC tests were examined. Second, the correlations between

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the scores of the two vocabulary tests were investigated. Third, this study explored how well the scores of the three TOEIC tests correlate with the scores of the two vocabulary tests. A close relationship between a learner's vocabulary knowledge and performance on an English proficiency exam has previously been acknowledged (e.g., Nation & Meara, 2002) and there have been several studies on this topic (e.g., Qian, 1999; Beglar & Hunt, 1999; Kanzaki, 2010).

To sum up, the study was conducted to answer the following research questions.

1. How closely do the scores of the three types of the TOEIC correlate with each other?
2. How closely do the scores of the VLT and VST correlate with each other?
3. How closely do the scores of the three TOEIC tests correlate with the scores of the two vocabulary tests?

Method

The listening, reading, and speaking tests (hereafter TCL, TCR, and TCS) of the TOEIC and two types of vocabulary tests (VLT and VST) were taken by 82 participants, and the scores of the five tests were computed for correlations.

Participants

The study participants were 82 students who were attending a private university specializing in foreign languages in the Kanto area. They were recruited from among more than 300 students who were taking TOEIC (listening and reading) courses during the 2013 spring semester. They agreed to participate in the study in exchange for exemption from the 3,700-yen exam fee for the TOEIC scheduled to take place on campus on July 28, 2013.

Among the 82 participants, 64 were in their second academic year, 14 in their third, and 4 in their fourth; 10 were male and 72 were female. In terms of fields of study, there were 48 international communication majors, 20 English language majors, 12 international business majors and 2 Chinese language majors. All the participants were native Japanese speakers except for 3 native Chinese speakers.

Materials

Three types of tests from the TOEIC (TCL, TCR, and TCS) and two types of vocabulary tests (VLT and VST) were used in this study. The TCL and TCR are always administered together, and therefore they are usually treated as two sections of one test. The TCS, on the other hand, can be taken independently when it is administered as the Institutional Program (IP), in which each institution sets the time, date, and place of the exam. The three TOEIC tests used in the study were administered as IP tests.

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

Reading test of the TOEIC (TCR). The TCR consists of 100 multiple-choice questions, and raw

Table 1
Four Parts of the TCL

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

scores of between 0 and 100 are converted to scaled scores of between 5 and 495. The TCR has three parts, the details of which are shown in Table 2.

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

Speaking test of the TOEIC (TCS). The TCS is a computer-based test requiring test-takers to sit in front of a computer wearing a headset with a microphone. Instructions are provided on the computer screen and through the headset. Test-takers speak into the microphone and their speeches are recorded and sent to certified raters for evaluation. There are 11 questions in the TCS and scores are given in the range of 0 to 200. Table 3 shows the details of the TCS.

Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT). The version of the VLT used in this study was Schmitt (2000), which was included in Paul Nation's (2005) Vocabulary Resource Booklet available on his website. The VLT consists of five levels, namely the 2000, 3000, 5000, 10000, and academic word levels. The levels are based on frequency counts, except for the academic word level, which is based on Coxhead's (2000) New Academic Word List. In this study, the 10000 level was excluded because it was deemed too difficult for the participants. Each level of the test has 10 clusters of 6 words with 3 definitions, or a total of 30 questions per level. An example of a cluster is shown below.

1. business
2. clock ______ part of a house
3. horse ______ animal with four legs
4. pencil ______ something used for writing
5. shoe
6. wall

Test-takers match the words on the left with the definitions on the right. The 2000, 3000, 5000, and academic word levels of the VLT, with 120 questions in total, were used in the study.

Table 2
Three Parts of the TCR

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

Table 3
Details of the TCR

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

Vocabulary Size Test (VST). Versions A and B of the VST, which are available on Paul Nation's website, were used in the study. Each version has 100 questions to measure up to the 20,000-word level. They are different from the original 14,000 version of the VST, which consisted of 140 questions to test up to the 14,000-word level. On the original 14,000 version, 10 questions represent one 1,000-word level whereas 5 questions represent one 1,000-word level on the new 20,000 versions. The first 40 questions from each of the two 20,000 versions—a total of 80 questions to cover up to the 8000-word level—were used in the study because the higher levels were deemed too difficult for the participants. The VST has a simple multiple-choice format, as shown below.

1. see: They <saw it>.

a) closed it tightly
b) waited for it
c) looked at it
d) started it up

Test-takers choose one of the four choices that is closest in meaning to the target word or phrase in brackets.

Procedures

The participants took the TCL and TCR on July 28, 2013 and the TCS, VLT and VST on July 29, 2013. They spent about 2 hours on the TCL and TCR, about 90 minutes on the two vocabulary tests and a questionnaire, and about 20 minutes on the TCS. The results of the three TOEIC tests were provided by the Institute for International Business Communication, the administrator of the TOEIC in Japan. Seven students were hired to mark the two vocabulary tests and input the data into a Microsoft Excel file. Both the marking of the tests and the data inputs were double-checked by the author. The scores of the five tests were compiled and descriptive statistics as well as Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were computed.

Results

All the statistical analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows (IBM Corp., 2013).

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics for 5 Tests (N = 82)

	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
TCL	370.98	57.79	205	495
TCR	267.87	66.05	115	400
TCS	114.27	25.23	40	160
VLT2000	26.18	2.74	17	30
VLT3000	20.65	5.01	5	28
VLT5000	18.30	4.2	6	28
VLT AW	21.11	5.29	3	29
VLT All	86.24	14.9	45	114
VST A	22.35	3.7	14	30
VST B	21.50	3.49	14	29
VST A+B	43.85	6.16	31	56

Note. VLT AW = Academic word level of VLT; VLT All = Four levels of VLT combined.

Table 5
Reliability of VLT and VST (Cronbach's Alpha)

	VLT2000	VLT3000	VLT5000	VLT AW	VLT All	VST A	VST B	VST A+B
# of Qs	30	30	30	30	120	40	40	80
α	.62	.80	.71	.85	.92	.52	.44	.65

Note. VLT AW = Academic word level of VLT; VLT All = Four levels of VLT combined.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics for the scores of the five tests as well as different sections of the VLT and VST. The average listening score of the TOEIC is 103.11 points higher than the average reading score. Among the four levels of the VLT, the average score of the 2000 level is the highest, followed by the academic word level, the 3000 level and the 5000 level. The order is in agreement with the results reported by Schmitt, Schmitt, and Clapham (2001). The average scores of the two versions of the VST are very close, with a difference of .85 points out of 40 between them.

Reliability

The reliability indices (Cronbach's alpha) for the four levels of the VLT, all 120 questions of the VLT combined, the two versions of the VST, and all 80 questions of the VST combined are shown in Table 5. Compared to the reliability indices for the VLT reported by Schmitt et al. (2001), which are all above .90, the figures in this study are low. However, the order of reliability among the four levels in this study is the same as in Schmitt et al. (2001), with the academic word level being the highest, followed by the 3000 level, 5000 level and 2000 level. When all 120 questions of the VLT are combined, the reliability index reaches .92, which is considered satisfactory. The figures for the VST, on the other hand, are not satisfactory. Even when the two versions are combined, the reliability index is .65.

Correlations

Three sets of correlations between the scores of the five tests and the sections of the VLT and VST were computed.

TCL vs. TCR vs. TCS. Table 6 shows the correlations between the scores of the three TOEIC tests. Among the three combinations, the highest correlation is between the listening and reading scores and the lowest is between the reading and speaking scores. This order is in agreement with the correlations reported by Liao, Qu, and Morgan (2010), although the figures themselves are lower in this study.

VLT vs. VST. Table 7 shows the correlations between the VLT and VST. The 5000 level of the VLT correlates strongly with Version B of the VST at .61. However, the correlation between the 5000 level and Version A is low at .33. Overall, the VLT correlates more strongly with Version B than with Version A.

TOEIC vs. VLT and VST. Table 8 shows the correlations between the scores of the three TOEIC tests and the scores of the VLT and VST. Among the three TOEIC tests, the TCR shows the highest correlations with both vocabulary tests. The VLT correlates more strongly with the TCS than with the TCL, except for the 2000 level. However, the VST correlates more strongly with the TCL than with the TCS. All three TOEIC tests correlate more strongly with the VLT than with the VST.

Table 6
Correlations Between 3 TOEIC Tests (N = 82)

	TCL	TCR	TCS
TCL	1	.69*	.50*
TCR		1	.47*
TCS			1

* = $p < .001$.

Table 7
Correlations Between VLT and VST (N = 82)

	VLT2000	VLT3000	VTL5000	VLT AW	VLT All
VST A	.41*	.42*	.33	.34	.43*
VST B	.52*	.58*	.61*	.54*	.65*
VST A+B	.54*	.58*	.54*	.51*	.63*

Note. VLT AW = Academic word level of VLT; VLT All = Four levels of VLT combined.

* = $p < .001$.

Table 8
Correlations Between 3 TOEIC Tests and VLT/VST (N = 82)

	VLT2000	VLT3000	VLT5000	VLT AW	VLT All	VST A	VST B	VST A+B
TCL	.42*	.46*	.38*	.44*	.49*	.33	.34	.39*
TCR	.50*	.63*	.58*	.62*	.69*	.51*	.54*	.61*
TCS	.40*	.52*	.49*	.55*	.58*	.28	.28	.33

Note. VLT AW = Academic word level of VLT; VLT All = Four levels of VLT combined.

* = $p < .001$.

Discussion

The results show that the scores of the listening and reading tests of the TOEIC correlate at .69, which is higher than the correlation between the listening and speaking scores, which is .50, and the correlation between the reading and speaking scores, which is .47. This is because listening and reading are both receptive skills and therefore they are more closely related to each other than with speaking, a productive skill.

The scores of the VLT and VST correlate moderately at .63. The VLT correlates more strongly with Version B of the VST than with Version A, although the reliability index for Version B is lower.

The scores of the VLT and VST correlate more strongly with the reading scores than with the scores of the other two TOEIC tests. This is because both vocabulary tests measure written receptive vocabulary knowledge and the TCR measures written receptive skills. Spoken receptive knowledge of vocabulary is needed for listening and spoken productive knowledge of vocabulary is needed for speaking. Neither type of vocabulary knowledge can be measured fully with a written receptive vocabulary test.

For all three TOEIC tests, the correlations are higher with the VLT than with the VST, which suggests that the VLT would be the better test to predict a learner's TOEIC score. This is partly because the VLT used in this study has more questions than the VST, with the numbers of questions being 120 and 80 respectively. Another point to consider is the difficulty levels of the two tests; the VLT used in the study covers up to the 5000-word level whereas the VST in the study covers up to the 8000-word level. The VST might have been too difficult for the participants considering that they missed nearly half of the questions in the VST. In terms of difficulty levels, the VLT is more suitable for the participants, whose average TOEIC (listening and reading) score is 639.

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Using Process Drama in EFL Discussion Classes

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Among the fundamental skills that students in discussion classes need are effective communication skills, debate strategies, and critical thinking. This paper first examines process drama and its connection to the development of such skills. After a brief rationale behind the use of process drama, this paper focuses on aiding readers to implement this tool in their classroom by first discussing the components to consider and sharing practical personal experience of implementing this tool in university discussion classes.

ディスカッションクラスの学生が基礎スキルの中で特に必要なスキルは、効果的なコミュニケーションスキル、ディベート戦略、論理的思考力、である。この論文はまず、プロセスドラマとそれらのスキルの開発との関連性を考察する。プロセスドラマを利用する背景の端的な説明のあと、その構成要素に触れ、大学のディスカッションクラスにおいてこのツールを利用した実用的な個人の経験を考察、共有し、このツールを実際にクラスで使用する場合に焦点をあて説明する。

Dorothy Heathcote, a pioneer in drama and education, describes drama in the following way, "You put yourself in other people's shoes and by using your personal experience to help you understand their point of view you may discover more than you knew when you started" (cited in Wilhelm & Edmiston, 1998). Actors must try to understand the character, even if they do not agree with what that person stands for. When connecting to the different perspectives through a character (a person) that they must play, a natural motivation is nurtured to explore ideas different from their own. In my own experience, students often reject outright ideas that are foreign to them, and have difficulty going beyond a superficial level of examination. If a character they are playing has a particular viewpoint, students may be motivated to explore it further. At the same time, because the different viewpoints are not that of the student but of a character they are playing, students can detach themselves enough to more comfortably examine a position from an objective and critical point of view while still feeling "safe". The balance of connection and safe distance from being "in role" is what makes drama a starting point for critical thinking development. It is important to mention here that, while this works well in shorter drama activities such as role plays or improvisational activities, process drama reaps greater benefits due to its long term nature. Essentially, students spend more time with one character or several characters within the same story, allowing them to get a more in depth picture of the issues being examined than a once off activity.

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Drama and Communication

In discussion, students must be able to respond in a spontaneous fashion. They also may need to defend their position or critique another student's viewpoint.

Duff and Maley (2001) suggest "adaptability (i.e. the ability to match one's speech to the person one is talking to), speed of reaction, sensitivity to tone, insight, anticipation; in short, appropriateness . . . " (p. 7) are what students need to develop in language to be an effective communicator, and further suggest that spontaneous activities such as role plays and improvisation can help develop these skills. Exposure to different types of scenarios, power relationships, and emotions (Gaudart, 1990) is key, and drama helps students to create imaginary situations with a wide range of characters. It allows students to experience different relationships, tensions, and conflicts from the safe buffer zone of being in character. Described as "affective space", drama can create a safe and supporting atmosphere that encourages risk taking and exploration (Piazolli, 2011). This safe atmosphere is further developed through the collaborative nature of drama activities (Gaudart, 1990; Duff & Maley, 2001). Drama activities are heavily group-work based. Students, in teams, build a rapport through working on long-term story lines over several weeks. Teachers also work together with students in and out of role to create the situation or achieve a goal, allowing opportunity for connection with the teacher. The communication that takes place out of role is also a wonderful opportunity for students to develop negotiating and discussion skills, making drama activities doubly beneficial.

What is Process Drama?

Drama activities in education are defined as any activity that "asks the student to portray himself in an imaginary situation; or to portray another person in an imaginary situation" (Gaudart, 1990, p. 230). Process drama is essentially an extended version of this. Teacher and students work together to create an imaginary world and work within that world to explore a particular problem, situation, theme, or series of related themes (Bowell & Heap, 2013; O'Neil, 1995). In process drama, the key is that students and teacher alike work in and out of role (Bowell & Heap, 2013; O'Neil, 1995). The story created by the teacher and students are progressed through scenes and other drama activities but are not performed for an outside audience. It is similar to what children do on the playground when playing pirates or alien invasion; a themed make believe story, but one based on "grown-up" issues. Process drama can be a short one or two class activity or can expand to an entire semester, in classes ranging from writing to history and literature courses (Jackson & Schneider, 2000; Wilhelm & Edmiston, 1998).

For discussion classes, process drama allows students to play different characters that often embody differing perspectives, allowing students to gain a greater connection to these perspectives while still maintaining a safe distance from themselves. The extended amount of time with a theme, the story surrounding the theme, and the various characters involved help to promote a deeper learning experience. In essence, it is creating experiential learning. The students study an issue by doing and experiencing the issue.

Components of Process Drama

In helping those new to process drama, Bowell and Heap (2013) have broken down the components of process drama as follows (in summary form):

> **Theme/Learning Area**- issues or ideas you wish to explore
> **Context**- the fictional circumstances where the ideas will be explored
> **Roles**- teacher and students in role (Teacher role should be decided based on how the teacher wishes to facilitate the drama)
> **Frame**- the dilemma that stimulates the activity
> **Sign**- the props, the sound effects, the language
> **Strategies**- how to maximize how much the students get out of it and to assure that the learning is in line with the theme

Beginning with the goal of the activity, strategy becomes the most important aspect of the process. One key component in strategy is the choice of role that the teacher will play. The character must be carefully chosen as to allow the teacher to maximize their ability to help move the students along as an effective guide (Bowell & Heap, 2013). The power position of the character may be subordinate to the student characters, but they must be a key character so that the teacher can maintain some control over the direction of the story.

A Practical Example

This was developed as the first drama story in a university discussion class for first year and second year students. It is important to note that the class was entirely female and thus students had the additional component of gender switching in role. Cultural sensitivity, stereotypes, and the dangers of taking cultural norms as a given were the cluster of issues to be explored. For the context, I chose the idea of local Japanese schools welcoming new assistant language teachers (ALT) to their schools. The idea was that the prefectural board of education, in addition to the incorporation of English classes into their elementary schools, wanted to bring people from a wider range of cultures to aid students in learning to understand a wider range of Englishes, essentially develop understanding of world Englishes. The frame, the tension, was created by the fact that these ALTs came from cultures unfamiliar to the majority of Japanese people and that the schools they would be attending would be in rural areas of the prefecture where the teachers and students had little exposure to other cultures.

As stated above, the teacher's role is one of the most important strategic decisions to be made when planning a process drama (Bowell & Heap, 2013). For this story, I chose to be a high ranking representative of the prefectural board of education. I chose this role as it would allow me to guide other characters in-role.

Each student in the class played three roles: coordinator, Japanese teacher, and ALT. First, they were asked to work in teams to be coordinators from the board of educators, helping to teach the local Japanese teachers about the new ALTs' cultures. When not being a coordinator, class members were asked to play the role of Japanese teachers at rural schools in the prefecture. While the groups of coordinators presented or did workshops, the other students would participate as Japanese teachers, tasked to ask questions during the workshops from their character's perspective. Finally, all the students were asked to be ALTs from the countries they had researched. Signs were kept simple for the purpose of this process drama. Name tags, self-introduction forms, small cultural artifacts, and official documents introducing the new policy were some of the items to help bring the story to life. The classroom needed little changing as the workshops and various other meetings through which the story unfolded were held at schools. The location was Japan and so the Japanese school system, Japanese teachers, and Japanese English classes were all things the students were familiar with.

Implementation

In the initial set-up phase, in role, I passed out the new policy changes for English language education in the prefecture. Introducing myself as the coordinator from the board of education for this new policy, and together we explored the possible issues that could occur in the schools should this new policy be implemented. The main concern was conflict that could arise from cultural misunderstandings. Students were asked to work in groups to come up with preemptive solutions to prevent such issues. Eventually, it was decided that the coordinators would gather key members of the schools to introduce the different cultures, focusing in particular on culturally sensitive issues, which were also brainstormed in groups. In character, students discussed how best to gather and present the material. Homework was to continue to gather information for the presentation. Out of role, we discussed the issues presented in the drama, and I gave them some possible factors to consider, such as religious practices and diet.

The next group activity was a discussion, out of role, of what the culturally sensitive points of each chosen culture were. Here, a great deal of guidance was needed as this was the first time the students had had to think about this. I eventually altered the activity to first have students think about what they would tell the ALTs about the culturally sensitive points of Japan. I asked them to think about what kind of behavior might cause the Japanese teachers to become offended or upset and the cultural reasoning behind this. The reverse then became easier. Each group prepared their workshop or presentation based on the ideas that they developed.

The second part of the story began out of role. Students were asked to develop a Japanese teacher character. Where did they work? How old were they? Were they male or female? What was their position in the school? Had they had any international experiences? Once they were prepared, students were asked, in role, to introduce themselves to others and talk briefly about their background. Prior to this, they were instructed that in the next sequence, they would be asked to play two roles. When presenting their material on target cultures, they would be coordinators of the prefectural board of education. When they were listening to the presentations, they were to listen as their Japanese teacher character. After each presentation, listeners were invited to ask questions and express concerns in their role as teachers. Initially, students struggled with asking questions in character. With some side coaching, they eventually grasped the concept of asking from the perspective of someone who would have to work closely and deal with the cultural issues of the ALTs.

For homework, the students were instructed, out of role, to create a character profile for an ALT. They were asked to choose the country that they had researched and presented on and to create a character profile based on a worksheet. The worksheet contained a series of questions designed to have the students think not only about the character's background, but their motivations for coming to Japan and their views of Japan prior to visiting.

In the third part of the process drama, students participated in a hot seating activity in groups. Hot seating is a drama technique whereby an actor is interviewed in -role about themselves. The questions act as a stimulus to help actors develop a deeper and richer understanding of their character. I modeled this activity, playing an ALT whom the students interviewed. At the end of the class, students were instructed to spend the week observing their life, from their commute home, the food they ate, to interactions with people of their community with the eyes of their character and to keep a journal of the week's observation.

The final part of the ALT process drama was a meeting, coordinated by my character, the head coordinator from the prefectural board of education. The meeting was designed to be a meet-and-greet of all the ALTs and for it to be an opportunity to share both the good and bad experiences of living in Japan. At the end of this activity, the students were assigned a reflective assignment, out of role, to reflect on what they had learned about cultural sensitivity and how they felt life would be like as a foreign person living in Japan.

Observations and Student Feedback

It is difficult to comment on the results of this process drama without being subjective. What I observed is a more lively and passionate classroom environment when compared to my experience of teaching discussion in more traditional ways. Students were more willing to question, to make negative or opposing comments. In their final reflections, students were more willing to be critical of Japan and Japanese culture. They thought about how to better take care of and help people of other cultures. Students were more willing to ask me questions after class. Attendance improved. As Wilhelm and Edmiston (1998) observed in their experiences utilizing process drama, the ideas being explored seemed to come alive and become more personal to the students.

I asked my students to anonymously volunteer to answer two questions about the class: "Is this discussion class different or similar to your discussion class last year? If it is different, how is it different?" and "What, if anything, do you feel you have learned through this class?". In response to the first question, a student wrote, "In this year, it is more active than last year. Topics of discussion are also more difficult than last year, but we will develop an ability to consider." Another student reported that, "Last year's discussion class was just a debate to decide agree or disagree. But, this discussion can share a variety of sense of values." One student commented on the group work, "去年と比べて, 今年のディスカッションクラスはグループで作業をすることが多く, 英語の力と共に協調性も培うことができると思います (Compared to last year, this year's discussion class is mainly group work and we are able to build our English ability together)".

In regards to the second question, a student stated:

> 異文化圏出身の人々の立場になって，その国の宗教等を知り，その人達が日本へ来て体験するあらゆる問題点について学ぶことができました。そのため，今後は学んだことを生かして外国人と接することができると思います。(We could learn from the perspective of those from other countries, learn about their religion and such, and see living in Japan through their eyes. As a result, I would like to take what I have learned and apply it to when I am interacting with those of other cultures.

Another student commented,

> Through this class, I was able to have an opportunity to think about diversity, difference of culture and peace. Thanks to them, I could gain new way of thinking. In addition, I learned that we can come up with some good ideas to think together. This is the my learning.

In general the comments fell under the idea of group work being a comfortable and beneficial component and that the students felt they could experience different perspectives in a meaningful way. Whilst more development and research into the true effectiveness of the course is needed, initially the students are observed to have been more engaged and motivated as a result of the implementation of process drama.

Conclusion

Process drama is not a performance (Bowell & Heap, 2013). The focus is on creating a meaningful world for the students to explore issues in a safe environment. The dual benefit of playing characters causing students to invest in them and the safety of expressing ideas in character, and thus not as themselves, seems optimum for students to develop the ability to think and express themselves in a deep and meaningful way. By putting themselves in the shoes of different people, their ability to think from multiple perspectives naturally develops. The communication is varied and the possibilities are only limited by the imagination of the teacher. Process drama is a useful and powerful tool for the development of essential discussion and critical thinking skills.

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Coastal Collaboration: Service-Learning in Iwate

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Service-learning is experiential education that combines meaningful community service with instruction and reflection, which benefits both students and service recipients equally. This paper outlines an ongoing collaborative effort between two universities, one in the United States and one in Japan, to incorporate service-learning into the study abroad experience. For the past three years, students from both countries have spent several days in Iwate Prefecture performing volunteer activities, including delivering water to those affected by the disaster and assisting with cleanup and reconstruction efforts. Students also learned about the aftermath of the Great East Japan Earthquake through lectures and visits with local residents, and received course credit after completing a written reflective report. This paper details the inception and design of the service-learning program, and shows how the program has changed in the three years since it was created, and how it will continue to change in the future.

サービスラーニングとは、ボランティアとその指導と省察とを有機的に組み合わせた体験型学習法であり、参加学生とサービス受益者との双方に恩恵がもたらされることを目的としている。本発表では、2つの大学間 (日米各1大学) で進行中の留学プログラムの一部にサービスラーニングを導入した共同研究について概説する。過去3年間、日米両国の学生が岩手県においてボランティ　ア活動に従事してきた。これには被災者に水を届ける、震災の後片付けや再建の手助けをするといった活動が含まれている。また、学生は講義や地元住民への訪問を通して、東日本大震災後の各種状況について学び、省察レポートをまとめることで単位を取得することができる。本発表では、このサービスラーニング計画が実施されるに至った経緯と、その意図を詳述するとともに、開始から3年を経る間に計画がどのような変化の道筋をたどって来たか、また将来的にどのように変化し続けて行くかになどに関して報告する。

The devastation wrought by the March 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake and subsequent tsunami led to a surge in local, national, and international volunteer efforts focused on aiding the affected citizens of the Tohoku Region of Japan (specifically Fukushima, Miyagi, and Iwate Prefectures). Among these initiatives, a 5-year collaborative relief effort between Ohio University (OHIO) in Athens, Ohio, and Iwate Prefectural University (IPU) in Takizawa, Iwate Prefecture was established, with volunteer work beginning in September 2011 in remote areas along Iwate's coast. The relief effort was designed so that annual volunteer trips to Iwate would coincide with the beginning of OHIO students' study abroad experience at Chubu University in Aichi Prefecture and Musashi University in Tokyo. What began as

King, G. A., Laurence, D. R., & Maher, P. J. (2015). Coastal collaboration: Service-learning in Iwate. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 64-69). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

an international team of university students, faculty, and alumni assisting with environmental cleanup and visiting affected schools has, year by year, changed in a number of ways. However, while the number of individual participants and participating institutions have increased, and volunteer activities have grown in variety, certain long-term goals of the OHIO-IPU relief program remain unchanged.

Building long-lasting relationships between citizens in affected communities in Iwate and the relief program's participants is an ultimate goal. The continuation of meaningful volunteer efforts beyond this initial program's 5-year agreement depends on mutual trust and cooperation. Furthermore, one often-voiced yet unfortunately ignored wish of residents in such affected communities is the desire for a long-term committed relationship with volunteer groups where efforts are focused on fulfilling the needs of the community as determined by the community, as opposed to "one-and-done" volunteer visits with pre-determined ideas of how to help out (Thompson, 2012).

Given the importance of taking into account the wishes of local communities when discussing the participants, locales, and activities of each year's efforts, and with the hope of attracting enthusiastic, invested volunteers interested in both sustaining established relationships and building new ones, program coordinators must stay active in the program's evolution. One particular change from the program's inception in this area, which aims to meet both of the aforementioned priorities, has been the steady shift from a strictly volunteer experience for OHIO students as part of their study abroad program to a service-learning-based experience for both OHIO students and specially selected Chubu University students. This transformation has proved a dynamic process dependent on flexibility, open, two-sided communication, and clearly defined goals for both community residents and volunteers alike. However, with 2014 marking year four of the five-year program, the transition towards service-learning has not only been surprisingly smooth, but has also been met favorably by all parties involved.

From Volunteerism to Service-Learning

Service-learning is a form of civic engagement similar to other forms of civic engagement such as community service, field education, internships, and volunteerism; however, these are not synonymous concepts (Furco, 1996). While the focus of volunteerism lies primarily in providing a benefit to a recipient, service-learning looks for reciprocal benefits to both service providers and recipients. As defined by Jacoby (1996), service-learning is "a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities intentionally designed to promote student learning and development" (p. 5). Ash and Clayton (2009) further elaborate on the students' role in service-learning as involving three key parts: pre-volunteer classroom learning, community engagement via volunteering, and post-volunteer reflection.

This is not to say that service-learning is somehow "better" than traditional volunteerism—far from it. This paper does not seek to argue that replacing volunteer programs, whether in the context of study abroad or otherwise, should be an ultimate goal. Rather, as is the case with the OHIO-IPU relief program, and as may be the case for similar programs looking to establish committed, long-term relationships, service-learning proves an attractive option for enriching student experiences, as well as for expanding opportunities for community members on the receiving end of volunteer efforts to have their voices heard.

For students, sandwiching volunteering in between relevant preparation and meaningful reflection not only allows for greater understanding of the community they are engaging with, but students also conclude their volunteer experience with a more sophisticated understanding of the difference they have made, as well as what remains to be done in the future. Service-learning as part of a study abroad program or foreign language curriculum brings additional potential benefits, allowing students to better understand their community involvement in global terms, thus fostering a larger sense of global citizenship (Dalton, 2013). For local communities, the reciprocity demanded in service-learning allows residents opportunities to individually or collectively offer student volunteers a more in-depth understanding of the local environment, history, struggles, charms, and needs. Through collaborative activities as simple as leading community tours, attending seasonal events, offering home visits, sharing stories, and more, local residents are given the option to reciprocate, educate, and participate in what potentially can be a wonderful venue for establishing personal, mutually beneficial relationships. Once again, when done in a multi-lingual environment, the further bonus of international exchange cannot be overlooked.

During the initial OHIO-IPU volunteer group's visit to Iwate in September 2011, only six months removed from the disaster of March 11, it is not surprising that the primary focus of the group's efforts was in providing tangible benefits to affected areas. Nonetheless, volunteer activities, such as cleaning polluted rivers of debris and visiting students of an affected kindergarten, were often prefaced, combined, or concluded with lectures, anecdotes, tours, presentations, or speeches. While this in itself does not constitute service-learning, there are two important points to note. First, citing negative experiences with other relief volunteers prior to the group's visit, the decision of what activities would be done and to what degree local residents would be a part of the relief effort was determined by the community, which demonstrates local residents' "strong desire to be active in the planning and implementation of their own recovery efforts" (Thompson, 2012, Final Thoughts section, para. 1). Second, while the volunteer experience by itself was surely a moving and memorable experience for both the OHIO and IPU students involved, post-volunteer talks with students showed that hearing directly from those involved about the tsunami evacuation, the resulting devastation, the timeline for reconstruction, and so on helped students better understand and appreciate their participation as volunteers in the program, as well as to further contemplate the bigger picture of relief efforts in the Tohoku Region as a whole.

These two reflections helped shape the ongoing evolution of what began as a purely volunteer-focused program into a service-learning-based experience. In addition to attempting to better scaffold students' experiential learning with pre-volunteer preparation and post-volunteer reflection, the aim of allowing multiple opportunities for education and reflection mid-volunteering has become a staple of each year's Iwate visit. Typically this involves local residents leading or in some way participating in enriching both foreign and Japanese students' knowledge, experience, and understanding of the issues residents face.

Participant Diversity and Opportunities for Service-Learning

The second OHIO-IPU relief program Iwate trip took place in 2012 over a three-day period from September 21st to September 23rd. Participant numbers for the second trip rose from 37 to 51 individuals, with the majority of participants students and faculty from OHIO and IPU. However, this year's trip also included the addition of one student volunteer from Chubu University (CU), which would help set a precedent for greater CU involvement in future efforts. It should be noted, however, that given that the scheduling of relief trips to Iwate was intentionally designed to coincide with OHIO study abroad students beginning their time abroad at CU, OHIO alumni employed at CU have played a role in the relief program's implementation and activities from the initial year. That being said, year two of the program marked the beginning of CU student participation via a single volunteer, which would help foster service-learning opportunities for CU students in the following year.

The third OHIO-IPU relief program Iwate trip look place in 2013 over a four-day period from September 26 to September 29. Participant numbers for the third trip more than doubled from 51 to 105 individuals, with participants from OHIO, IPU, CU, Musashi University, Toyo Gakuen University, and more. Of interest for the purposes of service-learning, five CU students majoring in English were specially selected to join the program through enrollment in a credit-bearing course titled, "English for Social

Change." All five CU students had previously studied abroad at OHIO, and thus, were familiar with the OHIO students who had participated in the relief program the prior year. These CU students' pre-volunteer preparation involved reading and discussion of several English-language articles pertaining to the OHIO-IPU relief project and similar efforts in Iwate, which not only readied them for volunteering, but prepared them with necessary contextual awareness and English vocabulary to act as interpreters between OHIO students with low-level Japanese and local residents in Iwate. The CU students' post-volunteer reflection culminated in written reflections of 2,000 words or more in English, which will serve as pre-volunteer preparation materials for future volunteers.

The incorporation of CU students into the program, specifically CU students who had previously studied abroad at OHIO, has served as inspiration to faculty members at both institutions to work towards building some sort of credit-bearing service-learning component into the CU study abroad program in Ohio as well. With ideal volunteers being students from either of the two universities with prior study abroad experience at the other, the potential for reciprocal give-and-take between program volunteers is extremely valuable. Fostering such relationships between volunteer communities, rather than simply between volunteers and the recipient communities. This gives students the chance to prepare for, act on, and reflect on their roles as cultural ambassadors and linguistic assistants, thus better facilitating harmonious, cooperative volunteer bodies. These measures have the potential to take the spirit of service-learning to a level even more beneficial to volunteers and communities alike.

Activities and Opportunities for Service-Learning

Volunteer activities from year two into the present have been broadly similar to initial year activities, primarily assisting in environmental cleanup and direct interaction with local communities. However, years two and three saw the program's long-term vision of finding a niche for meaningfully engaging in sustainable, community-desired activities come into clearer focus. Furthermore, progress was also made in identifying exactly which community populations would benefit most from the type of once-a-year, long-term assistance the OHIO-IPU relief program could offer. Finally, local residents continue to play primary, important, recurring roles in the implementation and facilitation of activities.

With the need for labor-intensive cleanup of debris less of an issue after year one, environmental cleanup efforts took the shape of group participation in the Nanohana Project, which involved the weeding and clearing of fields to allow for the planting of canola seeds. This project, led by former truck driver and well-known local resident Bunzo Kanayama, would become one of the program's staple activities and a central component of future volunteer trips. Mr. Kanayama took an active role in explaining not only how cleanup would be carried out, but also importantly, why he and other residents desired volunteer assistance with the preparation and cultivation of canola fields. Additionally, Mr. Kanayama enriched the experience with stories of his experience during the disaster, as well as with stories of loved ones whom he had lost to the tsunami.

Annual participation in a project such as the Nanohana Project serves as an excellent example of a volunteer activity that can become a core component of student service-learning. Pre-volunteer classroom preparation focuses on a number of aspects related to this project. For example, learning beforehand about local residents such as the man at the center of this project, Mr. Kanayama, helps students better understand the mindset of community leaders, which strengthens student awareness of the short- and long-term benefits of their volunteerism, which allows for time to contemplate and (in L2 situations) linguistically prepare for more meaningful conversation with the man in question, which benefits community-volunteer exchange during volunteering. This allows for deeper post-volunteer reflection about how participation in the project might be improved, which can then in turn be passed on via writing or recorded interviews to the next year's group of volunteers, giving a stronger springboard into pre-volunteer preparation. Furthermore, the dissemination of volunteer reflections to Mr. Kanayama and other local residents offers them potentially valuable viewpoints on how they might expand or transform their respective relief initiatives.

Mizu-Bora (from "Water Volunteering") has become another mainstay of the OHIO-IPU relief program. Focused on enhancing meaningful interaction between student volunteers and elderly residents still living mostly in temporary housing, the Mizu-Bora Project was begun by Keiko Chiba, a professor in the Department of Living Science at IPU. This activity involves delivering bottles of water to residents living in affected areas. Although the initial need local residents had for access to clean water has since been resolved, the Mizu-Bora Project continues to thrive, presently for the purpose of emotional support. The delivering of water to temporary housing serves as a means for volunteers to engage with local residents, which opens the door to communication, relationship building, and emotional support. For many unfortunate residents, life in temporary housing has become anything but temporary, and a desire for a return to normalcy stands at the pinnacle of their hierarchy of needs (Thompson, 2012). Thus, repeated, timely visits from volunteers who are well aware of the project's objectives can serve as one step on the return to a sense of normalcy. The role of service-learning here is to assure that student volunteers are well aware of the objectives of Mizu-Bora; in other words, the water is not the point, but rather, it is communication and interaction. Pre-volunteer studying of the project's history and the current state of affairs of residents living in temporary housing, coupled with post-volunteer reflection and/or follow-up communication goes a long way in making student participation in this project a greater success for everyone involved.

Finally, guided tours of affected areas led by local residents, as well as lectures given by local residents on topics such as disaster relief and government rebuilding projects, have become another recurring feature of the OHIO-IPU relief program. While perhaps not technically a volunteer activity, paving the way for the community to play a reciprocal role in enhancing the education and awareness of student volunteers, as discussed earlier, is a valuable aspect of service-learning. Such community-led presentations allow students to learn more about the area where their volunteer work is being done, but scaffolding of these mid-volunteer opportunities for reflection can also become focal points in a service-learning curriculum. Experience has shown that one particularly difficult aspect of conducting volunteer activities with study abroad students is the ever-present need for adequate interpretation (Ogawa, Kumamoto, & Thompson, 2012). One such venue where adequate interpretation is especially necessary is in conveying the experiences and voices of community residents to volunteers. However, jargon-heavy presentations and unfamiliar dialects not only make the job of interpretation difficult, but the myriad tasks of program coordinators demand volunteers with substantial bilingual abilities available exclusively to serve as interpreters when necessary. Thus, one future criterion in the selection of CU student volunteers has become their pre-volunteer enrollment in an English interpretation class offered to juniors and seniors at CU. Together with post-volunteer reflection via written reflections, as well as the creation of helpful lists of important vocabulary related to disaster relief and community dialectal features for future volunteer interpreters, these student volunteers stand to gain substantial benefits from having their volunteer experience shifted to a service-learning-based model.

Looking Towards the Future

Years after the events of March 2011, local residents in coastal areas of Iwate remain the focus of the 5-year OHIO-IPU relief program. While continuing to evolve, the ultimate goal of this program remains the same: long-term relationship building to ensure committed, meaningful, beneficial volunteer efforts in affected regions of Iwate Prefecture. Furthermore, the program aims to design its efforts in accordance with the wishes of members of the communities it serves. Shifting program designs from simply volunteerism to service-learning not only helps achieve these goals, but it allows for the extension and enhancement of benefits for both the communities receiving volunteer service, as well as the students involved in providing the volunteer efforts.

The OHIO-IPU relief program will surely continue to evolve over the next several years, and discussions are currently underway about extending the program's efforts into the future in some form or another. With the step-by-step changes already taken towards a more service-learning-based model of civic engagement, as well as the many potential changes for greater service-learning possibilities in the years to come, this program's evolution serves as a model of how offering students a chance to serve society as part of a study abroad program can provide the students involved with valuable benefits as well. Indeed, several challenges to initiating and sustaining volunteer programs exist, be they financial, bureaucratic, cultural, etc. However, even a large-scale program such as this can offer one takeaway lesson to smaller, local, pioneer volunteer efforts. If the project goal is long-term, committed cooperation, make the participation of those involved more meaningful (and thus potentially sustainable) via academic preparation beforehand, well-crafted periods of education and personal interaction during, and reflection that leaves behind something tangible afterwards, allowing the cycle of service-learning to better itself with each subsequent rotation.

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What Students Like Writing About

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This research looks at what topics students prefer writing about. The reason for this inquiry is that the researchers noticed that there was a noticeable difference in their students' writing depending on the topic they were asked to write about. It was speculated that students would do better, and be more motivated to continue writing, if they were presented with interesting topics. This article reports on the responses from 135 university freshmen rating 65 topics they had the option of writing about over the course of a semester. The survey's purpose was to answer the following three research questions: 1) Which topics did students prefer to write about? 2) Which topics did students not want to write about? 3) What new topics would students recommend?

この研究の目的は大学でのライティング・クラスにおいて、学習者がスピードライティングを行う際に、選択されるトピックによって学習意欲に変動があるかを調査することである。調査結果から、学習者が興味深いと感じたトピックの方が意欲的にライティングに取り込むであろうと推測される。本研究では一年生135名に対し，が65のトピックについて書きやすいかどうかを評価してもらった。学生たちは毎週授業時間内（スピードライティング）と宿題（ジャーナル）で65のトピックからひとつを選んで一定時間内に英語で文章を書くアクティビティを行っていた。アンケート調査では以下の三つの課題を調べることに着目した。①どのようなトピック好ましかったか、②どのようなトピック好ましくなかったか、③新たにどのようなトピックについて書きたいと思うか。

Writing is a complex set of skills and can be difficult to learn and to teach. Teachers need to set up the correct conditions in the classroom to have students be able to write well. According to Hudson, Lane and Mercer (2005), "Facilitating the writing process should be the goal of writing instruction" (p. 477). One part of this process is coming up with a good set of topics for students to write about. This study looks at how to improve an EFL writing course by surveying students on which topics they enjoyed writing about.

For this study we surveyed 135 university freshman enrolled in a private university in Japan about what topics they enjoyed writing about and what topics they did not want to write about. Students were asked to rate the topics they had been given to write about in their course and to make new topic suggestions. The overall aim was to determine which topics should be cut and which topics should be kept in the future. It was thought that if students enjoyed the topic that they were writing about they would enjoy the writing process more and would want to continue writing.

Kobayashi, K. & DiCello, C. (2015). What students like writing about. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 70-83). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

Literature Review

Writing Topics

Whether topics should be prescribed, selected from a set of options, or completely open so writers can choose to write about whatever they want to is much debated in the field of writing instruction. Unfortunately specific research on what topics students want to write about and what writing prompts work well is limited (Hudson, Lane, & Mercer, 2005). On the other hand, studies that try to understand how topics are thought out, reviewed, and what effect this process has on student writing production and motivation are plentiful. (For examples see Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005; Blaz, 1999; Silva, 1997; Hudson, Lane, & Mercer, 2005; Polio & Glew, 1996).

Some researchers encouraged teachers to set an unusual prompt for their students. For example, Blaz, (1999) mentions having the most language production success in foreign language writing when assigning students unusual writing prompts such as, "Write the drinks that athletes should probably never drink" (p. 106). On the other hand, Silva (1997) recommended giving ESL students the freedom to choose their own topics. He justified this position by stating: "It seems to me most reasonable and motivating to have students (individually or in a group) choose their own topics, those in which they have a sincere interest and some intellectual and emotional investment" (p. 361-362). Hudson, Lane and Mercer (2005) also believed that students should be free to choose their own topics because topics "are used to facilitate written expression… (and) begin the (mental) processing needed for the compositional task" (p. 477-478). However, there is no one right or wrong answer to this question and it is necessary to consider one's own teaching context when deciding on how much freedom to give students with their topic choice. In our case, every week students were given the option to choose their own topic or select one from a list of topics given to them by the teacher. While students would sometimes opt to choose their own topic they would usually choose to write on a topic from the list provided to them by the teacher. From our observations in our own particular context we felt that, even if students ere given the option to choose their own topic, it was also beneficial to have a selection of topics that they could choose from if they wanted to.

Having Students Choose Topics

When teachers are preparing a list of topics for their students to choose from it is important for them to choose topics that will encourage their students to write. Bello (1997) advised, "teachers need to provide learners opportunities to write about topics that are relevant to their lives, to participate in various writing activities, and to feel that writing has value" (p. 5). Hedge (2005) recommended teachers reflect on several factors when planning a writing activity including, "Does the material involve students, allowing them to exploit personal knowledge and experience?" (p. 16) and "How does the content of the activity motivate, for example, through relating to other curriculum subjects, widening cultural horizons, using topics of universal interest, topicality, etc.?" (p. 16). Way, Joiner, and Seaman (2000) researched the facility of different types of prompts, descriptive, narrative, and expository, with 300, L2, beginning French high school students in the U.S. They found that narrative tasks were the easiest to undertake, descriptive were second easiest and expository tasks were the most difficult. This matched the findings of previous studies done on L1 writing tasks.

Reasoning for Offering a Choice of Topics in Timed-Writing

Research on the writing section of language proficiency exams points to the necessity of allowing students to choose a topic when practicing timed-writing. Polio and Glew (1997) observed the amount of time used to select topics during a timed-writing section of an exam. Afterwards, they interviewed students, asking advice about whether test takers should have a topic choice and how many choices they should have on a timed-writing exam. Polio and Glew's study reported that students felt that having the ability to choose from a variety of writing prompts was important because it helped them to "display their best writing ability and that they would have been hindered had they been forced to choose a different writing prompt" (p. 45). In order to give our students the opportunity to write on a topic that allowed them to display their best writing abilities we offered the participants in this study the option of either selecting from a list of topics or writing on a topic that they came up with by themselves.

Method

Participants

This survey-based study took place at a private women's university in Japan. The participants were 135 university freshman enrolled in nine different sections of the same EFL writing course. These classes were taught by four different instructors. Students in these classes were expected to write two, 10-minute speed-writing assignments per week and one weekly un-timed journal assignment over the course of the 15-week semester.

Procedure

On the final day of class, participants were given the option to rate the topics they had used for their speed-writing and journal assignments during the semester. They were informed that filling out or not filling out the survey would have no impact on their grades. The surveys were anonymous and distributed to students by their course instructors. Of the 180 students enrolled, 135 completed and submitted the survey. Course instructors collected the completed surveys and returned them to the researchers.

The survey (Appendix A) was comprised of a list of the 65 optional topics students had been give to choose from for their speed-writing and journal assignments. Students were asked to rate the topics on a five-point Likert scale (1 = delete this topic, 2 = I didn't like this topic/it was difficult to relate to this topic, 3 = this topic is so so, 4 = I like this topic, 5 = I like this topic and it was easy to write about) even if they had not chosen to write on that topic. They were also asked to choose at least two topics to delete and to suggest at least two new topics.

Results

The results of the five-point Likert scale survey mean scores were calculated using Excel and then sorted from highest to lowest in order to locate which topics were most and least preferred. All the data has been made available in Appendix B.

Which Topics Did Students Prefer Writing About?

The ten highest-rated topics in order from the highest rated topic were: A Place I have Visited in Japan (4.30), The Best Event of My Summer Vacation (4. 28), What Were the Highlights of Your Summer Vacation (4.25), Reflect and think about your first year at this university (4.13), What do you usually do during the New Year's holiday (4.12), An Old Friend (4.11), The Future (4.10), What did you do on the weekend (4.09), What do you want to do in the future (4.09), and What do you really like to do (4.07).

Which Topics Did Students Prefer Not to Write About?

The ten lowest-rated topics in order from the lowest rated topic were: To what company would you write a letter of complaint or thanks to? (2.40), What would you do if everyone forgot your birthday? (2.53), Have you ever succeeded when you thought you would fail? (2.72), What would life be like if you couldn't read? (2.75), Transportation-How do you get around? (2.75), If I had to lose a sense (sight, touch, hearing, taste, smell), which would it be and why (2.80), Was there a toy you wanted as a child but never got? (2.81), When do you like to compete with people (2.82), How much do you know about your family's history? (2.87), and A special occasion (2.88).

What New Topics Did Students Recommend?

Participants' responses to being asked to recommend three or more new topics each on the questionnaire resulted in 319 topic recommendations of which 128 were copied from the topics on the survey or from the topic list they were given in the first semester of this course. Of the remaining 191 topics that weren't copied, we received 101 unique topic suggestions with the other 91 duplicating other topic suggestions. We then separated these recommended topics into the following eight categories listed in the order of the most to the least suggested categories: Likes/ Favorites (28 and 20 duplicates), Miscellaneous Personal (29 and 10 duplicates), Abstract Thinking

(27 and 2 duplicates), School (18 and 9 duplicates), Vacation/Holidays (7 and 1 duplicate), Work (6 and 7 duplicates), Countries (6), English (5 and 4 duplicates), and Japan (2 and 1 duplicate). Appendix C gives the full details of the students' suggestions separated by category.

Discussion

Preference of Topics

Upon investigating the ten highest and lowest rated topics, we noticed students preferred to write about past experiences. Most were reflecting on something that they would have had firsthand knowledge of. This follows the literature with regards to what topics motivate students (Hedge, 2005). These were also the topics that would have been most familiar topics to the students, which is a similar to what Polio and Glew (1996) uncovered when they interviewed students about why they chose a certain prompt. According to Polio and Glew, students selected topics "based on how familiar they were on the topic or how much they had to say about it" (p. 42).

Although two of the ten most popular topics asked students to write about future events, it can be supposed that they already have strongly formed ideas about these topics. Writing about the future is a common topic in many English classes at public schools in Japan. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that this type of topic would be familiar to the students.

Students in this study also showed a preference for writing about "safe" topics. This may be due to numerous factors including their L2 ability, or their confidence in that ability, or their cultural traits. Students may not have felt comfortable writing about something they felt may upset their reader. There are also ethical issues connected to asking students to write about controversial topics that could require them to offer personal opinions on themes, such as political or religious views Silva (1997). When choosing topics it is important to remember that it is not the job of the instructor to shock students into writing but to provide an environment that is conducive to writing.

Another differentiating factor between the bottom and top ten topics was the positive or negative nature of the topics. Eight of the bottom ten topics were ones that could be said to prompt a negative response. Topics with words that could have elicited negative images or topics that may have been connected to undesirable experiences in the writers' own personal backgrounds were avoided. For example, six of the ten least popular topics used words like "lose", "fail", "forgot", "complaint", "couldn't", "never", "compete", "wait" in the topic. One reason for this is that writing about negative experiences may invoke bad feelings thus making writing a less than enjoyable task.

Topics that were too personal in nature were also avoided. For example, while the topic "How much do you know about your family history?" may have seemed like a positive topic most students did not want to write about this topic. This may have been because they felt it asked them to write about what could be an extremely private matter. The low rating of this topic may reflect that students feel embarrassment when writing about their family or sharing a private matter. This may also have been complicated by the ever-changing values of what is considered to be a 'normal' family.

As students know that they are expected to write more than a certain number of words, topics that may have been difficult for students to write enough about also ranked lower on the survey. "Transportation: How do you get around?" and "Do you read newspapers?" ranked forth and ninth lowest. "A special occasion" and "What current musicians do you think will be popular 5 years from now?" also had a low ranking. All of these topics are similar in that, while they were positive or neutral in nature, the parameters of a speed-writing activity may not have been conducive to the creativity needed to write about these topics in detail.

The lowest rated topic "To what company would you write a letter of complaint or thanks to?" is both a hypothetical situation and a possible negative topic. The complexity of writing a business letter may have also discouraged students from choosing this topic.

New Topics From Students

Most of the new topics suggested by the students were slightly different versions of previous topics. The fact that almost half of the suggested topics were copied from previous topics may have been due to students being too tired to finish the questionnaire, because they did not comprehend the question, or be simply because they really liked the topic that they copied.

Most of the suggested topics were personal and creative in nature and would require abstract thinking. Others such as "Which do you like, the sea or mountains", and "global warming" were probably taken from the students' memories of entrance exam practice questions or topics from their junior high school textbooks. Most of the suggested topics were not serious. However, there were some outliers and a few students suggested topics that revolved around disease or death. The suggested topics seemed to reflect student experiences or interests and letting these students write about those topics could give them more motivation when they are writing.

Limitations of the Study

There are a number of limitations to this study including the fact that the participants were all female, thus their opinions may not be representative of those from coed or all male classes. Furthermore, the participant pool was a sample of convenience and therefore may not represent the views of a random sample of EFL language learners. Another limitation is that the survey was given at the end of the semester. It may have been more reliable to have participants rate a topic immediately after writing about it each week as they may have forgotten about what they wrote about by the end of the semester. Also, as the researchers taught some of the students. This may have had an effect on how they rated the topics. The Likert scale could have been difficult for the participants to use since what makes a topic good or bad can be open to interpretation. For example, some students might have given a topic that they found easy to write about but boring a high score while other students may have given it a low score.

Implications for Future Research

As mentioned in the literature review, to get to the reasoning behind why students prefer certain topics to others, qualitative measures such as interviews or more longitudinal studies are necessary (Polio & Glew, 1997). These could help to determine which topics teachers should suggest during writing activities. In addition, recording the words per minute of timed-writings and comparing these across different topics could help to correlate the topics that were rated positively and negatively by students with how these topics affected the students' writing. While there are many things that still need to be done to determine which topics have the best effect on Japanese university students' writing, we hope that the current study opens the door to discussion and further research into the connection between topic selection and writing motivation and production.

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Appendix A
Survey

Please help us improve the speed-writing and journal topics for next year by rating the following topics. Even if you did not choose a topic, please rate it.

In addition:
Choose **at least** 2 topics that we should delete
Suggest at least 2 topics that we can add.

Rating System

1 = delete this topic
2 = I didn't like this topic/it was difficult to relate to this topic
3 = this topic is so so
4 = I like this topic
5 = I like this topic and it was easy to write about

Rating	Topic
	What were the highlights of your summer vacation? (SW1)
	My favorite restaurant (SW2)
	A Childhood memory of summer holidays (J1 option)
	The Best event of my summer vacation (J1 option)
	What did you do on the weekend? (SW3)
	What do you want to do in the future? (SW4)
	A Special Occasion (J2 option)
	My best or worst birthday memory (J2 option)
	What would you do if everyone forgot your birthday? (J2 option)
	To what company would you write a letter of complaint or thanks to? (SW5 option)
	What I like to talk about with my friends (SW5 option)
	Write about the people in your family (SW6 option)
	Write about what you like to talk about with each family member (SW6 option)
	If I had to lose a sense (sight, touch, hearing, taste, smell) which would it be and why? (J3 option)
	Who do you think has an easier life, men or women? Why? (J3 option)
	Japanese food (SW7)
	If you won the lottery, how would you spend the money? (J4 option)
	Are you in a hurry to grow up? (J4 option)
	Children (SW9 option)
	Movies I loved as a child (SW9 option)
	Why are fast food restaurants so popular? (SW10)
	Things people are afraid of (J5 option)
	Working as a team - Is it fun or stressful? (J5 option)
	Describing Japanese food (J5 option)
	How do you study? What works best for you? (SW11)
	What current musicians do you think will be popular 5 years from now? (SW12 option)
	When do you like to compete with people? (SW12 option)

	A place I have visited in Japan (J6 option)
	The English Drama Festival - How are your preparations? (J6 option)
	A dream holiday (SW13)
	What were you doing this time last year? (SW14
	Transportation - How do you get around? (J7 option)
	My favorite fast food restaurant (J7 option)
	Have you ever succeeded when you thought you would fail? (J7 option)
	What would you like to learn about? (SW15)
	How much do you know about your family's history? (SW16)
	Can money buy you happiness? (J8 option)
	What are some memorable meals that you have had? (J8 option)
	What do you really like to do? (SW17)
	A family outing or vacation (SW18)
	The future (J9 option)
	What would your dream home be like? (J9 option)
	As a child, what did you really like to do? (SW19)
	What would you wait in a long line for? (SW20)
	Compare customs in Japan and another country (J10 option)
	How did you start doing something you love? (J10 option)
	Do you read newspapers? Why or why not? (SW21 option)
	Do you read manga? Why or why not? (SW21 option)
	What would life be like if you couldn't read? (SW22)
	My favorite books (J11 option)
	What is your favorite restaurant (J11 option)
	What do you usually do during the New Year's holiday? (SW23)
	Becoming an adult (J12 option)
	Goals for next year (J12 option)
	What are your high school friends doing now? (SW25)
	What are you doing to prepare for final exams? (SW26)
	Japanese cooking (J13 option)
	Reflections on the English theatre festival (J14 option)
	An old friend (SW27)
	Was there a toy you wanted as a child but never got? (SW28 option)
	What was your favorite toy as a child? (SW28 option)
	What did you do over the holidays? (J14 option)
	Study plans for this year (J14 option)
	Reflect and think about your first year at this university (SW29 option)
	What advice would you give to a new student joining this program? (SW29 option)

2 or more topics that I suggest

1

2

3

4

Appendix B

Table A1

Average Rating of Each Topic

Topic	Rating
A place I have visited in Japan (J6 option)	4.30
The Best event of my summer vacation (J1 option)	4.28
What were the highlights of your summer vacation? (SW1)	4.25
Reflect and think about your first year at this university (SW29)	4.13
What do you usually do during the New Year's holiday? (SW23)	4.12
An old friend (SW27)	4.11
The future (J9 option)	4.10
What did you do on the weekend? (SW3)	4.09
What do you want to do in the future? (SW4)	4.09
What do you really like to do? (SW17)	4.07
A dream holiday (SW13)	3.98
Write about the people in your family (SW6 option)	3.98
What did you do over the holidays? (J14 option)	3.90
The English Drama Festival - How are your preparations? (J6 option)	3.87
Japanese food (SW7)	3.87
Goals for next year (J12 option)	3.84
A family outing or vacation (SW18)	3.76
If you won the lottery, how would you spend the money? (J4 option)	3.74
What were you doing this time last year? (SW14	3.73
What are your high school friends doing now? (SW25)	3.72
What I like to talk about with my friends (SW5 option)	3.70
Reflections on the English theatre festival (J14 option)	3.63
Study plans for this year (J14 option)	3.63
What would you like to learn about? (SW15)	3.62
What is your favorite restaurant (J11 option)	3.62
My favorite books (J11 option)	3.56
Write about what you like to talk about with each family member (SW6 option)	3.53
What would your dream home be like? (J9 option)	3.50
Can money buy you happiness? (J8 option)	3.47
A Childhood memory of summer holidays (J1 option)	3.47
As a child, what did you really like to do? (SW19)	3.46
What advice would you give to a new student joining this program? (SW29 option)	3.44
Do you read manga? Why or why not? (SW21 option)	3.43

My favorite restaurant (SW2)	3.43
Becoming an adult (J12 option)	3.41
Japanese cooking (J13 option)	3.40
Compare customs in Japan and another country (J10 option)	3.39
How do you study? What works best for you? (SW11)	3.39
Describing Japanese food (J5 option)	3.36
Why are fast food restaurants so popular? (SW10)	3.34
Movies I loved as a child (SW9 option)	3.33
My favorite fast food restaurant (J7 option)	3.29
My best or worst birthday memory (J2 option)	3.29
How did you start doing something you love? (J10 option)	3.21
What are you doing to prepare for final exams? (SW26)	3.18
Children (SW9 option)	3.16
Who do you think has an easier life, men or women? Why? (J3 option)	3.15
What was your favorite toy as a child? (SW28 option)	3.15
Things people are afraid of (J5 option)	3.10
Working as a team - Is it fun or stressful? (J5 option)	3.02
Are you in a hurry to grow up? (J4 option)	2.97
What are some memorable meals that you have had? (J8 option)	2.94
What current musicians do you think will be popular 5 years from now? (SW12 option)	2.91
What would you wait in a long line for? (SW20)	2.91
Do you read newspapers? Why or why not? (SW21 option)	2.89
A Special Occasion (J2 option)	2.88
How much do you know about your family's history? (SW16)	2.87
When do you like to compete with people? (SW12 option)	2.82
Was there a toy you wanted as a child but never got? (SW28 option)	2.81
If I had to lose a sense (sight, touch, hearing, taste, smell) which would it be and why? (J3 option)	2.80
Transportation - How do you get around? (J7 option)	2.75
What would life be like if you couldn't read? (SW22)	2.75
Have you ever succeeded when you thought you would fail? (J7 option)	2.72
What would you do if everyone forgot your birthday? (J2 option)	2.53
To what company would you write a letter of complaint or thanks to? (SW5 option)	2.40

Note. *Ordered from highest to lowest rating.*

Note. *Rating averaged to nearest second decimal point.*

Appendix C

Table A2

Student Recommended Topics by Category With Number of Times Suggested	**# of Times**
Likes/Favorites	
Favorite Season	6
Favorite Hobbies	4
What is your favorite TV drama?	3
Favorite Country	3
Favorite Clothes	2
What was the best memory this year?	2
Which do you like, dog or cat?	2
Your favorite character	2
Favorite sport	2
Favorite actor	2
What are your favorite fashion brands?	2
What is your treasure?	1
My favorite drink	1
How to make my favorite food	1
Have you ever been to your favorite artist's concert	1
Your most like attraction	1
My favorite place in Aichi	1
My favorite things this year (I bought)	1
My favorite lifestyle	1
Your favorite cafeteria	1
What is your favorite café in this city?	1
What is your favorite color?	1
Do you like to go out alone?	1
Do you like human?	1
Who is your ideal woman?	1
Which do you like, glasses or contact lens?	1
Which do you like, sea or mountain?	1
Which do you like, hot or cold?	1
Miscellaneous Personal	2
Do you have a boyfriend?	2
What is your ideal image that you want to be?	2

Tell me about your love	2
A timetable of one day	2
Last night's dream	2
I want thing now	2
How many languages do you want to learn?	2
Are you interested in fashion?	2
My hometown	2
Who is your respect person?	2
How do you spend your remaining years comfortably?	1
What do you want to do after retirement?	1
When you go to a theme park, how order do you ride attractions?	1
Do you shop near the university?	1
Do you want to be a princess?	1
When do you want to die?	1
Your strong point and your weak point	1
How feel happy?	1
How do you think about Disneyland?	1
Tsutaya or Geo, which do you go often?	1
Have you ever played an instrument?	1
Please introduce	1
What will you try to do?	1
What do you use, your phone's cover?	1
How do you choose your stationary?	1
If you live yourself how do you save money?	1
My good memories	1
What would you want to be when you were a kid?	1
What's your surprised thing in 2013?	1
What do you think about real important things	1
Abstract Thinking	
What do you want to do if you can use magic?	3
Whom do you become if you become anyone?	1
What would you do if you meet someone who you wanted to by chance?	1
If you were president, what would you do?	1
Describe about global warming	1
Things that changed from old time	1
What ability do you want?	1
Write about animals under the sea!	1

Good points and bad points of society	1
Time is important, isn't it?	1
Why is Disneyland called land of dreams?	1
Write a story	1
What do you think about cosmetic surgery?	1
The most interesting imagination you have ever thought	1
Coming world over	1
Which do you choose, friend or boyfriend?	1
Is dieting good for us?	1
If you become a princess, what will you do?	1
Love is over	1
What do you choose, man, faith, or money?	1
If you stay only one in the world, what do you do?	1
If you have cancer, what do you think?	1
If your partner died in future, you would find a new husband, why?	1
Do you believe in fortune-teller? Why or why not?	1
If you can go to universe, what do you want to do?	1
If a disease find in your body, would you treat in hospital? Why or why not?	1
School	
Why did you decide to enter this university?	4
What do you think about this department?	3
Why did you choose this department?	3
Do you like this university?	2
What is your favorite class in this university?	2
What club are you a member of?	2
What did you join club activity? If you didn't, what did you want to join?	1
Memory of club activity	1
Do you like to go to club?	1
How about your school festival?	1
Please tell me about your high school life	1
When you were a high school student, what is the best memory?	1
What do you want to do in university?	1
Why do you have to do homeworks, do you think?	1
How do you think about the self access center?	1
My friends in university	1
High school and junior high school friends	1
High school friends and local friends	1

Teachers	1
About school	1
Vacation/Holidays	
Travel plans for this year	2
How about your Christmas?	1
A plan of spring vacance	1
Happy Halloween	1
What do you do in the winter?	1
Where sightseeing would you recommend?	1
Where do you want to visit to honeymoon?	1
Work	
What is your part time job?	7
How to choose your part time job	1
Do you wanna work in foreign country or not?	1
Where do you want to live in the future? Why?	1
What is the thing you can get from at a part time job?	1
My dream job	1
Countries	
What do you think about foreign countries?	1
Do you want to go to a foreign country? Why?	1
Have you ever eaten foreign country food? How?	1
America	1
Which country do you want to live?	1
How many countries have you been?	1
English	
Why are you studying English?	5
My goals for English	1
What do you think of English homework?	1
Do you think you wanna use English in your future, or not?	1
Learning English	1
Japan	
Do you like Japanese culture?	1
Do you think about Japanese rules?	1

Note. *Language was left the way participants wrote it except if they stated the university's name, in which case it was replaced with "this university"*

Comparing Different Teaching Positions in Japan

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In Japan, English teachers, especially those new to the field, can often become overwhelmed and confused by the various types of schools, from Eikawa schools to universities, and the large variety of teaching positions available. The author has been teaching in Japan for more than 20 years at several types of schools. In this paper, he uses his experiences to compare different teaching positions from English conversation schools to high schools to universities. The paper discusses the duties for each position and the advantages and disadvantages of each.

日本では、英語教師達は、特にこのフィールドに新しいと、しばしば英会話スクールから大学までさまざまなタイプの学校があるので圧倒されたり、混乱することになります。そして多種多様な指導の立場も可能なのです。 著者は日本でいくつかのタイプの学校で、20年以上にわたり教えています。本論文では、彼は大学から高校、英会話スクールと、異なる教職を比較するために彼の経験を使っています。論文は、各教職とそれぞれの長所と短所の役目を説明します。

When I started teaching in Japan many years ago at an English conversation school, I had friends who were teaching at a university. When I heard them talking about their jobs, I knew that I eventually wanted to teach at the university level. Now, 25 years later, and after spending the past twelve years teaching at universities, I have come to the realization that while teaching at the university level has many advantages, there are also many positive aspects to the other teaching positions in Japan.

In this paper I will introduce four different kinds of teaching positions: language schools, private high schools, contract university positions and part-time university positions. I will talk about these positions because I have direct experience with each job. I will discuss my own experiences and share the experiences of several other teachers that I interviewed. Between myself and the other teachers, we have more than one hundred years experience teaching at these different levels in Japan. In order to gather information, I had participants respond to a four-question interview form:

- How long have you taught in Japan?
- What types of positions did you hold?
- What were the duties of each position?
- What were the positive and negative aspects of each position?

I then used this information to summarize the duties as well as the advantages and disadvantages for each job in order to give readers a comprehensive look at each type of position.

Types of Positions

English Conversation Schools

English conversation schools, known as Eikawa

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schools, exist in abundance in almost every city in Japan. It is a multi-billion yen per year business that employs nearly 15,000 non-Japanese. (Nagatomo, 2013). The most well-known schools are ECC, Berlitz and Aeon. Eikaiwa schools cater to all age groups of students from toddlers to senior citizens. The most common students are high school/university students who are looking to get some real speaking practice and housewives and businessmen who study for a hobby or for career development.

Duties. Duties at an Eikaiwa school center around teaching. The average Eikaiwa teacher will teach between 20-25 hours a week. The classes are usually small with anywhere from three to ten students. The style of teaching varies dramatically depending on the school. Some schools have a very set curriculum where everything the teacher does is closely scripted. In other schools, you are free to design your own lessons and potentially participate in curriculum development. When not teaching, the teacher will spend their non-teaching hours, preparing lessons, attending meetings and possibly handing out advertisements for the school. Often, teachers will be asked to participate in English camps and other extra-curricular activities (S. Hatfield, personal communication, February 12, 2014).

I spent my first three years in Japan teaching at the Sendai YMCA Language School. This school was a combination language and hotel school, (senmon gakkou). The native English-speaking teachers usually taught around 20 hours a week with a two-hour class in the morning and another two-hour class in the evening. We also participated in language camps during the summer and worked together to develop curriculum.

Advantages. An English conversation school can be a great place to develop your teaching skills. Since you will be teaching all levels of students and teaching a relatively large number of classes per week, you will need to develop a personal approach that works for all levels. You will also be exposed to many textbooks and materials. At the Sendai YMCA, there was a lot of sharing of ideas among teachers and most of my initial ideas about how to teach came from my co-workers.

Another great advantage is that you get to interact with a wide spectrum of Japanese. One of the main reasons I came to Japan was because I wanted to meet people from Japan and experience Japanese culture. In my classes, I was able to have conversations with housewives, businessmen and doctors. Teachers at our school were often invited to students' houses for meals, so it was a great way to experience Japanese culture and see how people in Japan really live. I also had many students who were medical doctors. Many of them would feel much more relaxed speaking English after drinking, so they would often take me to great Japanese restaurants that I would never have been able to afford myself, to practice English.

Another plus of language schools is there is a bit less pressure at an English conversation school in contrast to the other teaching situations. P. Aaloe observed, there are rarely grades or tests and the emphasis is more on having an enjoyable time with students than creating a rigorous academic environment (personal communication, October 28th, 2014).

Disadvantages. One of the biggest disadvantages of teaching at language schools is scheduling. At the Sendai YMCA, we taught from 10-12 in the morning and then from 6:30-8:30 at night. We had a break in between, but were basically tied to the school all day. If you have a family, the prime family time, evenings and weekends, are also the prime teaching times (Nagatomo, 2013). Another disadvantage is the number of teaching hours per week. According to Zoller, "Most schools will have you work around 25 teaching hours a week. . . . Those hours are usually counted in minutes, and when most classes range from 40 to 50 minutes and start on the hour, that means that a lot of that extra time ends up being sandwiched between classes" (2013). During that time, you are often expected to interact with students and parents, so it could be that you work 35 hours a week and still be within 25 teaching hours. You might also be asked to perform non-teaching related duties. Most Eikaiwa schools require attendance at certain weekend or after-hours events. These include holiday parties and field trips (Zoller, 2013).

Private Junior High/ High School

There are two kinds of junior/senior high schools in Japan: private and public. Japanese law requires all public school teachers to have a Japanese teaching certificate. Because of this, it is difficult for non-Japanese teachers to work at public schools. Some local governments will hire non-Japanese teachers directly to work as Assistant English teachers. However, most foreigners working in public schools are hired through the government's JET program, (Teaching English, n.d.) or through a company that out-sources teachers to public schools (Sekeres III, 2010). As a JET you are responsible for team teaching classes with a Japanese teacher.

Teaching at a private school is very different from teaching at a public school. You are usually hired directly through the individual school and are responsible for teaching your own classes, writing and administering tests and making grades. In general you are considered a regular member of the teaching staff (S. Hatfield, personal communication, February 12, 2014). According to (M. Bartsch, personal communication June 15th, 2014) recently there has been a push by some schools to help "foreign teachers" get their Japanese teachers' license. If a native teacher has their teachers' license they are considered to have the same benefits and position as a Japanese teacher.

I taught for six years at Shirayuri junior high and high school an all-girls Catholic school. I was teaching part-time at this school while I was at the YMCA and when my contract finished at the YMCA, Shirayruri asked me to join their teaching staff.

Duties. In looking at the responses from interviewees and my own experience, at a typical private school, teachers are expected to take full responsibility for teaching 15-20, 45-50 minute classes a week. That includes all aspects of teaching a class including record keeping, testing and counseling students. Outside of classroom time, there are many other responsibilities. Every week, there are several hours of meetings, including: all staff meetings, English department meetings, school year meetings and your assigned department meetings. Teachers are also required to participate in all school activities, festivals and everything else that Japanese teachers are involved in. You are usually assigned to advise a club (M. Bartsch, personal communication, June 15th, 2014). Lastly, depending on the school, you may be very involved in curriculum development (S. Hatfield, personal communication, February 12, 2014). I was the coordinator of the English conversation program and responsible for managing the foreign staff as well as developing curriculum. Along with teaching approximately 20 hours per week, I was also required to attend several hours of meetings a week, participate in field trips and advise the English club.

Advantages. Of all the jobs discussed in this paper, this is the position that I feel has the most impact on the students' lives. For junior/senior high school students, their teachers are still a giant part of their life. Many teachers go into the teaching field with the goal of doing something valuable with their careers. As a high school teacher, this is a possibility. For many of the students, you will be the first and most important non-Japanese person they have contact with. You have a great opportunity to have a positive influence on them.

Another advantage is that in teaching at a high school you will be truly immersed in Japanese society. The education system is a reflection of society as a whole, so you will be exposed to the inner workings of Japanese society. By participating in meetings, you will see how decisions are made and get an up-close view of human relationships within a Japanese staff environment. Also, since all the meetings and day-to-day logistics of the school are in Japanese, it will be a great opportunity to improve your language ability. At a high school, everything except for possibly the English department meetings, will be run in Japanese. You will be expected to at least generally participate in those meetings. The last advantage and maybe the biggest advantage is the possibility of career stability. Most high schools do not have a contract limit so there is a greater possibility of getting tenure and eliminating the stress of always having to be looking for the next job (S. Hatfield, personal communication, February 12, 2014; M. Bartsch, personal communication, June 15th, 2014).

Disadvantages. While an advantage is that you will be immersed in Japanese society, this can be a disadvantage as well. You will be one of the few non-Japanese in a large teacher's room and you will be expected to fit in and comply with the rules of that society. (M. Bartsch, personal communication, June 15th, 2014). This can be difficult at times and the pressure of fitting in to the teacher's room culture can be challenging at times. While the work hours at my school were officially 8:15 – 4:30 it was considered bad form to leave anywhere near 4:30.

It was politically smarter to stay at least until the department head went home. One semester, I stayed late almost every day to study Japanese. Though it was clear that I wasn't doing "school work," I was often praised for working so hard.

University Contract Positions

In the university teaching field there are many kinds of positions, but one of the most common is contract positions. Also, due to a recent change in the law, this type of position is actually increasing. In my current job search process I have observed that a vast majority of the jobs advertised on JREC-IN are limited term contracts. These contracts are usually one-year renewable contracts ranging from three years to five years maximum. I taught two five-year contracts at Kansai Gaidai University in Osaka.

Duties. In a contract position, your main duties center around teaching, on the average ten 90-minute classes a week. Along with your ten classes, you are responsible for a few office hours each week in which students can visit your office to practice English or ask questions about class. You are also required to attend staff meetings and school ceremonies (S. Armstrong, personal communication, October 20th, 2014).

Advantages. Teaching at a university can be a great job. The teaching load is usually less than other positions in Japan, so you have a lot of time to really develop your teaching skills. You have time to put a lot of energy into your teaching plans and to work on professional development, for example publishing and presenting at conferences. According to L. Edwards, the Coordinator for the JALT Writers' Peer Support Group, which is a volunteer group that helps teachers prepare papers for publication, this kind of position can be a good starter position because teachers have opportunities to publish in their in-house kiyou publications. These types of publications can help build resumes and are needed to get a more permanent job. (personal communication, April 16, 2014).

Disadvantages. The biggest disadvantage to a contract position is the temporary nature of the position. When you commit to this position you know you will have to go through the job-hunting process again in another three to five years. This is an unattractive option because each time you go through the process it potentially becomes more difficult because, as the older you get, the fewer opportunities there are.

Part-Time University Jobs

Every university staff is made up of part-time teachers whose role is to teach classes that aren't covered by full-time teachers. I have taught part-time for the past year at Kwansei Gakuin University in Nishinomiya and Doshisha University in Kyoto.

As a part-time teacher you can teach as many classes as you can schedule and are offered as long as you have the proper visa and enough energy. You are also free to teach at a number of different schools at the same time. Teachers who are teaching a full load of classes part-time, often teach 15-20 classes a week at two to three universities (K. Bradshaw, personal communication, June 15th, 2014).

Duties. As a part-time teacher you are only responsible for your classes. This includes creating syllabi, testing and making grades. But as soon as you finish a class each day, you are free to move on to your next obligation.

Advantages. The biggest advantage of teaching part-time is you can choose what days and what hours you work. If you have other interests you want to pursue, or if you want to work just a few days a week, this position can work out very well. It is also a good way to get exposure to different universities and get a taste of what university teaching is about (P. Aaloe, personal communication, October 28th, 2014). It also can be more of a permanent position than a contract position because there isn't a predetermined length to contracts. While many contract positions are 3-5 years, part-time positions are often renewed indefinitely.

Disadvantages. The greatest difficulty in teaching part-time is finding enough hours to make a decent living. Especially in the first year of teaching part-time it can be difficult to make the connections that help you find new positions. Also you will need to teach approximately twice as many classes per week as a contract teacher to make the same amount of money and it can be difficult to find that many classes. The last disadvantage is visa sponsorship. If you are teaching at a university part-time it can be more difficult to find someone to sponsor you.

Conclusion

When I was new to teaching, I thought that a university position was the ultimate professional goal. But after having taught for twenty five years in a wide range of positions, I can see that all of them have good and bad points and whether or not the position is the right one for you, really depends on what your priorities, needs and values are. If you want to meet and interact with the "average" Japanese person, language schools might be the best choice. If you really want to have an impact on your students' lives, teaching at a high school would be best. Lastly, if you are drawn more to higher level academics, teaching at a university would be the best choice. Personally, I feel the best teaching situation is a combination of more than one type of position. There are many ways to do this. One way would be to teach at a university full-time and teach a few English conversation classes at night. The most important step is to decide what your values are and then find the teaching situation that matches those values.

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Diary Writing Methodologies: Encouraging Independent Learning

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Diary writing is a promising technique to English language learning in Japan that has been used in various ways to encourage independent learning. This paper will summarize how 10 EFL teachers of study-abroad candidates used diary writing to prepare their students for an extended study-abroad experience in the United States, and as a result whether this encouraged independent learning or not. The researchers had the unique opportunity to examine the diary writing of Japanese non-English major university students preparing to study abroad and to see what approaches teachers used with their students. Data were collected through interviews with teachers and students. Results revealed that the methods teachers used were consistent with process writing methodology. Furthermore, results revealed several specific instances of students' independent learning. Finally, this study will provide the readers with teachers' suggestions for using diary writing more effectively in learning and teaching English.

日本にいる英語学習者にとって、英語で日記を書くことは、効果的な学習方法であると言え、自主学習を促す有効な方法でもある。本稿では、外国人英語教師10名が長期留学希望の日本人学生に対し、日記を書く課題を与え、英語の自主学習を促したかどうかを検証した。著者らは、専攻が英語ではない学生の留学候補生としての研修の一環として日記を英語で書く課題の指導を担い、各教師がどのような指導を実施したかを検証した。分析は、教師、学生へのそれぞれのインタビュー結果を用いた。その結果、以下の2点が明らかになった。一つ目は、多くの教員がプロセスライティングという英作文教育法を使用していたことである。もう一つは、この課題が学生の自主学習を促した。これらの結果より、日記の課題は英語学習と英語教育に効果的であったといえ、有効的な活用方法を提示する。

Using diary entries as a reflection tool to examine learning and teaching processes is not a new practice in the language field. In fact, it traces back to the 1970s (Brock, Yu, & Wong 1992). Many researchers have used diary entries to investigate their own teaching approaches (Brock et. al., 1992); others have used it for reflecting on their own development as researchers (e.g., Borg, 2001).

Diary writing is a promising technique to English language learning in Japan that can be used in various capacities to encourage independent learning. Autonomy occurs when learners take control (Benson, 2013) or take charge (Holec, 1981 cited in Benson, 2013) of their own learning. We chose to focus on diary writing because of its potential to encourage students to become aware of their own learning process (Rubin,

Maleki, N. M., Wright, B. (2015). Diary writing methodologies: Encouraging independent learning. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 89-94). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

2003) and to be more independent in their learning. Autonomy is one of the main principles that the school in which this study took place considers to be one of its core values. We believe that a key component of autonomy is independent learning. Being aware of the process of learning is one of the characteristics of successful learners (Rubin, 2003). We believe that process writing methodology, where the focus is on the writing process and the writer rather than on the finished product (Matsuda, 2003; Shannon, 1994), can help students become more aware of the learning process.

This paper summarizes how 10 EFL teachers used diary writing to prepare students for an extended study-abroad experience in the United States, and in turn, whether this encouraged independent learning or not. Teachers were given the freedom to use the diaries and weekly tutoring sessions in any way he or she thought would benefit the students in their preparation for studying abroad.

Research Questions

The following questions guided this research.

1. What methods did the teachers use in their tutoring process involving diaries?
2. Did this encourage independent learning? If so, in what ways?

Method

Our main objective was to catalogue and analyze the approaches teachers implemented and to determine if these were effective in promoting independent learning.

Subjects

Data were collected from 10 EFL teachers (henceforth tutors) at a four-year institute of technology in Japan. All of these tutors possess M.A. degrees in language related fields and have ample experience teaching in an EFL context. Data were also collected from 10 study-abroad candidates, which included undergraduate and graduate students. In general, the students were motivated, intermediate level non-English major learners.

Setting

The tutors met with the study-abroad candidates once a week for eight weeks. This included face to face and electronic communication. Tutors were not given specific guidelines for how to tutor the students. Therefore, they were responsible for clarifying the purpose and goals of the diary writing activity, and ensuring that the students understood what these were. Tutors sought to utilize the sessions and communications in a way that was appropriate for the students' levels and needs.

Procedure and Methodology

Each year at this university, students can apply to study in the United States for one semester. These study abroad candidates are required to complete a three month preparation course which involves a weekly class covering various English language and culture topics and a weekly tutoring session with an EFL tutor at the university. Students are instructed to keep a daily diary and submit the entries to the tutors. The tutors are then free to use the diary in any way they see appropriate. At the end of the course, students give a refereed presentation about their prospective school in English. Students then receive a pass / fail grade based on their completion of the course work, recommendation from the tutor, and result of the presentation.

Data Collection Instruments

We created a set of ten questions (see the Appendix) based on our research questions to guide our interviews with the teachers. We also came up with a similar set of questions for gathering data from students. However, we only used a portion of the student responses which were relevant to this research.

Some of the interview questions were developed based on Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick's (2006) suggestion of seven principles of good feedback practice which they defined "as anything that might strengthen the students' capacity to self-regulate their own performance" (p. 205). The rest of the questions were created to find out more about tutors' methods and students' outcome.

Interviews

Phase 1 of the study consisted of an interview with each of the tutors. They were contacted in person prior to the interview to ask whether they were willing to participate in this study or not. All the tutors accepted the request and the researchers set up a time for interviews with each individual tutor. The interview was conducted in English by one of the researchers. The other researcher was also taking notes to make sure they did not miss any of the responses.

Phase 2 of this study consisted of an interview with the students. The students were primed with an email containing the information about the study and told that they would be contacted in person by the researchers. The researchers set up a time with each student and they interviewed students individually. In order to elicit candid responses from students, their interviews were conducted in Japanese by one of the researchers who is a near native Japanese speaker.

Data Analysis

We read over the tutors and students' interview responses in order to synthesize and categorize the results according to the research questions. We grouped their responses into two categories corresponding to the research questions.

Teachers' Methods
Students' Outcome

Results and Discussion

Tutors' Methods

In the interview, tutors were asked what they saw as the purpose of having students write the diary. The results show that although teachers' perceptions regarding the goals of this activity were similar, each tutor had his or her own idea for what the goals should be. The results in Table 1 show that the majority of tutors (70%) stated that they used diary entries to improve students' English writing skills according to students' needs. Some teachers (40%) said that the purpose was

TABLE 1
Tutors' Perceptions About Having Students Write Diary Entries

The purpose and goal of having diary	Percentages
Improve English writing skills	70%
Assess student writing	40%
Authentic reason to express self	30%
Get over shyness talking about self	10%
Prepare potential topics of conversation	10%
Assess if students could complete the work	10%

to assess the students' writing.

In the interview tutors were asked about the types of feedback they provided and the way they used the diary entries during the tutoring sessions. Responses indicate that since tutors were free to implement the diaries however they wanted to, different approaches were used.

All the tutors said that they had the students choose their own topics for the diaries. The majority of the tutors (80%) had the students initially submit the diary entries via email. One of the teachers asked for hard copies and another required students to submit the entries using Google Docs prior to conferencing in the tutoring sessions.

The results also show that all tutors gave feedback comments by either writing comments on a hard copy and discussing them with students during the tutoring sessions; printing a hard copy and discussing comments only orally with the student during the tutoring sessions; or making comments in the margins of the Word document and emailing it back to the student before the tutoring sessions.

The focus and type of feedback tutors provided for students on their diary covered mechanics such as: grammar, punctuation, spelling, and word choice. The results revealed that many teachers (60%) asked the students for further clarification of intended meaning of confusing sentences or phrases. In addition, the kind of feedback some tutors provided about content was praising and suggesting different topics to write about. Error coding was a type of feedback that three of the tutors used to draw students' attention to their mistakes. Two of the tutors made writing style suggestions to students on how to more effectively express their ideas. Although only one tutor required his student to submit a second draft, all tutors made it optional or recommended for the students to submit multiple drafts. Having students submit subsequent drafts, we believe, enables students to become more aware of their writing (content, style and mechanics), in order to produce a more coherent and cohesive text.

After the students submitted their daily diaries, they met with the tutors in the tutors' office for one hour every week. According to tutors' responses, the strategies they used during the weekly conferencing were: discussing the content or grammar of the diary entries, using the diary as a starting point for conversation practice, and providing reference material or mini-lessons dealing with specific grammar points.

Students' Outcomes

Although the results from tutors' responses did not show any direct attempt to make diary writing an independent learning activity, several specific instances of independent learning were exhibited by students. The following are students' outcomes that fit Pintrich's (2000) model of independent learning:

- ***Planning, monitoring***: before submitting, students (50%) reread own writing and made corrections based on tutors' previous feedback on mechanics.
- ***Controlling***: Students (20%) indicated they would continue keeping a diary even after completing the course.
- ***Evaluating***: Students (20%) compared early entries to later ones to observe own progress.
- ***Planning, monitoring***: Students (10%) checked diary entries with Ginger Grammar Checker (www.gingersoftware.com) before submitting. After receiving feedback, they checked it with VIM text editor (www.vim.org).
- ***Planning, evaluating***: Students (10%) purchased a diary writing "how to" book and a presentation skills book.

Conclusion

Results revealed that the methods teachers used were consistent with the process oriented approach to writing. Teachers focused their efforts on the learning process and learners. This is evident from the methods they used and the types of feedback tutors gave to students which included topic choice, mechanics and content.

We believe the methods tutors used and the types of feedback they gave to students contributed to students' independent learning. Furthermore, examining student outcomes in light of Pintrich's (2000) model of independent learning, we identified many specific examples of students *planning*, *monitoring*, *controlling*, and *evaluating* their own learning.

We found that overall, tutors' use of the diary led to students being more independent in their learning. This is an essential component of studying abroad for all kinds of students, and it is especially important for graduate students who will need to self-regulate their learning in the context of graduate school, where the majority of learning takes place independently.

Further Suggestions

The following is a list of suggestions tutors gave:

- Great for small class size so conferencing can occur.
- Use diaries as a supplemental activity to a traditional class.
- Offer additional support based on student level: mechanics for lower level learners and topic suggestions for higher level learners.
- Provide consistent method of feedback (e.g., error coding).
- Give students examples of good writing to read.
- Make diary entries weekly rather than daily.

Limitations

The following are some limitations that should be considered in this study:

- Both of the researchers were tutoring two of the student participants for this study. In order to minimize any effect that this might have had on the interviewees' responses, these students were interviewed by a different teacher.

- Since the interviews with the students were conducted before the final results of the program, students might have given responses they thought would give them an advantage in being accepted to the program. In order to minimize this effect, the researchers made it clear in a written consent form to the students that their responses would not affect their consideration for being accepted to this program.

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Appendix
Interview Questions for Teachers

Teacher: ____________________ **Date:** _____________

1. What was the purpose of having students write the diary?
2. What kind of improvement (if any) did you observe in your student?
3. Do you think the student will continue keeping a diary?
4. What kind of feedback did you provide for the student's diary? And how?
5. Was the student required to write multiple drafts?
6. What steps did the student go through in submitting the final draft?
7. Did you use any specific reference material in tutoring this student?
8. In general, how do you feel about teaching English through diary writing?
9. If you do the tutoring next year, how will you change it?
10. How can diary writing be used as an activity?

Student Feedback Used to Improve Pre-Departure Preparation for a Study Abroad Program

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At Hokusei University, junior college study abroad students take English as a second language (ESL) courses at an overseas university of their choice for four months during the second semester of their first year after completing a preparatory semester. Questionnaires and interviews of returning students were performed to identify what activities prior to departure were useful, and not, for preparing study abroad students for their overseas experiences, and also to identify issues for future consideration. Results obtained indicate that interactions with former study abroad students were very useful while gathering information about their study abroad schools was deemed unnecessary. Other results will also be discussed.

北星学園大学短期大学部では、海外留学に行く学生は、前期を完全に終えた後、1年生の後期4ヶ月間、自分の選んだ海外の大学で、ESLコースを履修する。留学出発前、海外留学準備の為に、どのような活動が役立つか、あるいは、役立たないかということ、そして、将来、考えるべき事の問題点を明らかにするため、留学を終えて戻って来た学生に対して、調査とインタビューを行った。この調査の結果、先に留学した学生との交流はとても有益だが、留学先の学校について情報を集めることは役立たないということがわかった。他のいくつかの結果についても、議論を行った。

Study abroad (SA) programs are thought to benefit students in many ways. First and foremost is second language acquisition (SLA), where the target language (TL) is present in all aspects of life, not just in the classroom (Isabelli & Nishida, 2005, Pellegrino, 1998, and Shively, 2013). On the other hand, it is also possible for students to stick to their own language group and not take advantage of all the TL opportunities (Dewey, 2013), and the benefits of SA for SLA is a somewhat contentious issue (Isabelli & Nishida, 2005). It is generally accepted that longer SA experiences lead to more improvement in SLA than do shorter stays (Sasaki, 2011 and Shively, 2013). Recently, study abroad has been linked to an increase in creative thinking (Lee, 2012, and Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). Another benefit is increased intercultural sensitivity (Amuzie & Winke, 2009, and Jackson, 2006). Motivation can also be influenced positively by studying abroad (Isabelli, 2006) as well as language learning beliefs (Amuzie & Winke, 2009), and self efficacy (Cubillos & Ilvento, 2012). However, students vary greatly in how their SA experiences influence them; some see very great improvements, while some see little (Isabelli, 2006, and Shively, 2013).

Economic conditions have lead to decreases in

Maune, J. F. (2015). Student feedback used to improve pre-departure preparation for a study abroad program. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 95-102). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

Japanese SA student numbers since 2004, but the education ministry hopes to reverse that trend by promoting various study abroad programs with the goal being to double the number of SA students by 2020 (MEXT, 2011, and "Number of", 2014). A similar plan to double SA students in the USA by 2020 also is underway (Institute, 2014). Both initiatives cite globalization and other catch phrases as reasons to increase SA participation. Almost all academics feel that SA is worthwhile even though what the exact benefits are is less than clear (Long, 2012) and often overstated (Salisbury, 2012).

One Semester Study Abroad Program

The one semester SA program has been a part of the Hokusei Junior College English Department for more than 25 years. First year students take standard first semester classes along with the SA preparatory course. During their second semester they take EFL classes at an overseas university of their choice for about four months. There are currently eight university-affiliated EFL programs in five countries from which the students can choose from. Each school has a limit of five to seven students, so not all students can study at their first-choice school. The program has never had any English proficiency or other requirements that students need in order to participate, except, of course, financial considerations; students pay tuition at their SA institution and also at Hokusei. They receive credit for their required second semester classes following completion of their SA EFL classes. This allows them to graduate within the normal two years, as opposed to having to stay an extra semester. The program is quite popular; this year 31 out of 126 first year students will participate in the program.

Preparation Prior to SA

The first semester preparatory course consists of filling out school, housing, and for some, visa applications, obtaining air tickets and health insurance, deciding finances, preparing for home stays, and practicing emails to the teacher. In a separate required course, all first year students listen to lectures from a wide range of professionals who use English in their working environments -- most have studied abroad. They also have to participate at least once a week in English Lunch where they can talk with a teacher or an international tutor (Maune, 2008). SA students can also talk with former SA students.

Students who will attend the same SA institution travel together as students are required to purchase their tickets through the on-campus co-op. This insures that there are no student-derived mistakes and keeping track of each group's itinerary is easy. There has never been any significant preparation devoted to airport procedures, but there have never been any major problems at airports that would merit using class time.

While Abroad

Students are required to email the SA teacher once a week. This forces students to maintain some connection with the teacher so that if problems do arise they have a support channel open. Even with such weekly emails, there have been many student problems (mainly home-stay) that the students did not report to the teacher until after returning to Japan from their SA. Emails can be as short as, "I am OK." However, many students write about recent events which, though not a face-to-face meeting, can help them to make sense of their new, cultural setting (Otlowski, 2014).

In one case a returning student in her report expressed that she was very unhappy with her home-stay, but she had sent out an email every week for four months stating that she was OK and related many exciting experiences. She also extended her stay with the "problem" home stay for five weeks. The weekly emails can also be used as evidence in case any claims are made by dissatisfied students. The weekly emails are supplemented by a few questionnaires (really just a few simple questions) sent out to all the students; again to try to uncover any unreported, student problems. The SA teacher will occasionally visit the SA institutions, but SA students interact with their SA school's international office for the majority of their academic needs while abroad. The teacher assists students if so requested, but only via email or Skype.

Skype, Line, and Facebook, to name just a few, allow students to easily stay in touch with friends and family while abroad. Not that long ago it was prohibitively costly to make international phone calls which can now be made on Skype or Line for free. Facebook can be useful for EFL and cultural learning (Mitchell, 2012). Such social media is a boon to homesick students as well as a bane. Students can spend their whole study abroad time surrounded electronically by their home country friends, negating any immersion effects (Shively, 2013). All students stated that they often were in contact daily with friends and family making this an issue that has to be addressed.

Returning to Japan

Students return to Japan and write a report intended to provide useful information for future SA students. Students also fill out questionnaires to help determine what activities worked well or not, and other issues. They then meet with the teacher for short semi-structured interviews. These short interviews provide knowledge about the SA environment that the teacher would almost never be able to glean from infrequent guided visits to the SA schools, and allow for the following up of issues raised by the questionnaire. Results for this study are based on the 2013 SA course that consisted of 24 SA students of which all were interviewed and 20 completed the voluntary questionnaire after their SA experience (see the Appendix for questions pertinent to this study).

Successful SA Activities

Student responses to questionnaires overwhelmingly (80%, or 16 of the 20 respondents) rated directly communicating with previous SA students and reading reports as the most useful for preparing them for their SA experience. Unfortunately, more than half of the students said during their interviews that they were hesitant to contact the former SA students as they were strangers. Contacting a former SA student was one required assignment, but many students did not engage in very meaningful dialogue and were happy to ask one question and consider their obligation fulfilled. The more courageous students did meet with the former SA students, sometimes at English Lunch. Class time was used for sharing information gotten from the experienced SA students. Many students relied on such reported second-hand information.

Following the finding that the reports and meetings with the former SA students were so highly rated, more class time was used for reading SA reports and previous SA students spent one whole SA class discussing their experiences and answering questions. Many of the former students prepared presentations (i.e., a power point slide show done using A4 sheets of paper) even though they were not asked to do so. Their participation was completely on a volunteer basis, but those whose schedules allowed gladly came. They were quite eager to help the new students and took their presentations and role of experienced mentor seriously; many of the presentations were very well planned.

English Lunch takes place in a room where a teacher and an international conversation tutor meet and eat with students during lunch time, Monday through Friday, for most of the school year. The international conversation tutors (Maune, 2008) are from many parts of the world and are less authoritative than a teacher. Talking with a tutor offers the students a chance to experience the TL in an unscripted situation outside the classroom which can help prepare them for their SA experiences. SA students were required to attend at least one English Lunch per week. Students were obviously uneasy at first, but that changed quickly for all but a few. It is noteworthy that on most days there were former SA students who came on their own to share their knowledge, sometimes even forcefully, with the new SA students. English Lunch was rated well in the questionnaire so that mandatory attendance will continue. The average score was only a 4.55 on a 7-point Likert scale that ranges from 7 (*strongly agree*) to 1 (*strongly disagree*), but based on interview responses the score was negatively affected by the required weekly written English Lunch summaries.

Some Failures

Students complained strongly during the interviews about having to submit weekly summaries of what they talked about in English Lunch, so the written summary requirement was dropped, though they thought that English Lunch itself should continue.

Hokusei has a weekly English Chapel during lunch on Fridays. Last year's SA students had to attend one English Chapel time a month and write a paragraph about the lecture or sermon, depending on the speaker. The interviews revealed that English Chapel was vehemently despised by the students and very poorly rated in the questionnaire receiving a 3.15 on a 7-point Likert scale. Though many SA countries have large Christian populations, the students were not culturally interested at all. Mandatory attendance at English Chapel was stopped.

Another interesting finding, a failure of sorts, is that many of the students did not value time spent learning about their chosen school. Students were given some class time in order to look into the various schools, but many admitted on the anonymous questionnaires and during the interviews that they used the allotted class time for other pursuits. The common refrain was that they got enough information from the reports and talking with former SA students, and later at their initial orientation when they arrived at their SA school. Therefore, this year no class time was spent learning about the SA schools.

Discussion

Although SA student numbers have been decreasing in Japan ("Number of", 2014), our department has consistently had close to half of its first year students participate in either the one or four month (one semester) SA program. The one semester program is a challenge to run, but its ever increasing popularity makes maintaining its vitality imperative.

As done for all courses, small changes and attempts at improvement are constantly undertaken with some succeeding and some not. For many years students had written reports for the teacher describing their SA experience. Simply asking students to write reports useful for future SA students opened up a relevant untapped resource. This lead to making former students themselves available for discussion, and now this year, to having them come and share their knowledge in SA class. Having the former students in class allowed for easy interaction as it was face-to-face, in the classroom, as opposed to previous years in which SA students had to email the former students. The questionnaire this year will ask students to rate the in-class discussions with the former students, though based on the level of all-around involvement during the class, it would be surprising if it is not very highly rated.

Performing simple questionnaires about what SA classroom activities students found useful or not for having successful SA experiences seems exceedingly obvious, but the SA course was never evaluated by students, as almost all university courses are, because it was not a normal course. Teaching the course does feel like being an administrator, more than a teacher, as lots of class time is spent on mundane tasks such as paying tuition and preparing various documents, so having the former SA students input is useful for everyone.

This year's SA students spent extensive time reading reports written over the past five years. What constitutes useful information varies with each student, so reports from the same SA school can have completely different advice ranging from local attractions, what school clubs to join, effective study habits, cultural differences, to problems to prepare for. One thing that does not vary is the desire of former SA students to aid the new batch of SA students. The SA experienced students know how rewarding and challenging living abroad can be, and that their input can positively influence a program that was responsible for their own significant personal growth.

Students strongly agreed that input from former SA students helped prepare them for their own SA experiences. Here is where one interesting aspect of SA comes into play; there are many possible definitions of what the goals are for SA or what exactly constitutes a successful SA (Long, 2012). It is important to know that the students are satisfied with their SA experiences, but the next step will be to determine more concretely what satisfied them.

During the interviews some students did relate what, for them, were the high points of their SA experiences, and not one had anything to do with their English lessons or SLA. One student joined a badminton club which made her whole experience greatly rewarding, while another drew her satisfaction from clubbing -- an interesting avenue to ethnorelativism (Bennett, 2004). Last year more than half of the students extended their stays for an average of about two weeks. As happens every year, almost all of the students did not want to come back to Japan. This implies the program is successful, or rather SA just fulfills a general wanderlust or need for novel stimulation felt by all humans.

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Appendix

SA survey sample questions

Did you research about the different schools before you decided where you wanted to study?　どの学校に学びに行くのかを決める前に、他の違う学校についても調べてみましたか？

yes, all schools　はい、色々な学校について調べました

yes, at least five schools　はい、少なくとも５つの学校について調べました

yes, at least three schools　はい、少なくとも３つの学校について調べました

yes, two schools　はい、２つの学校について調べました

yes, one school　はい、１つの学校について調べました

no, I didn't　いいえ、調べませんでした

After you chose your study abroad school, did you research about that school?　留学先の学校を選んだ後、その学校について調べてみましたか？

yes, a lot　はい、たくさん調べました

yes, a little　はい、少し調べました

no　いいえ、調べませんでした

Do you think that English lunch was useful for preparing you for your study abroad experience? 7 is strongly agree, while 4 is don't know, and 1 is strongly disagree　イングリッシュ・ランチは、あなたの留学準備に役立ったと思いますか？７:強くそう思う、４:わからない、１:強くそう思わない。

7 strongly agree　強くそう思う

6 agree　そう思う

5 somewhat agree　少しそう思う

4 don't know　わからない

3 somewhat disagree　あまりそう思わない

2 disagree　そう思わない

1 strongly disagree　強くそう思わない

Do you think that English Chapel was useful for preparing you for your study abroad experience? 7 is strongly agree, while 4 is don't know, and 1 is strongly disagree　イングリッシュ・チャペルは、あなたの留学準備に役立ったと思いますか？７:強くそう思う、４:わからない、１:強くそう思わない。

7 strongly agree　強くそう思う

6 agree　そう思う

5 somewhat agree 少しそう思う

4 don't know　わからない

3 somewhat disagree あまりそう思わない

2 disagree そう思わない

1 strongly disagree 強くそう思わない

What did you find most useful in study abroad class?　海外留学のクラスの中で、もっとも役立った事は何でしたか？

conversations with previous study abroad students　以前に海外留学に行った学生との会話

conversations with the study abroad teacher　海外留学担当の先生との会話

my own research using the internet　インターネットを利用した自分自身の調査

reports from previous study abroad students　以前に海外留学に行った学生のレポート

none of the above　上記の中には無い

Real-Life Tasks in the Classroom as a Potential for Transfer

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Learning-by-doing is said to be one of the most effective ways of learning. By combining learning tasks with real-life goals, students can receive a more authentic and long-lasting learning experience. This paper describes a course designed for undergraduate students at a Japanese tertiary institution in mainly science and technology departments. Students were expected by the end of the course to give a presentation and practice answering questions in English about their research. Throughout the course, real-life activities were introduced at intervals to help students understand skills needed for participating in conferences, feel more confident when interacting with others through networking, and to encourage higher order thinking through reflection-on-learning.

実践的な学習は、最も効果的な学習法であると言われています。実践的な学習を、実生活での目標と結合することによって、学生はより実用的に、かつ長期にわたり学習経験を受けることができます。本紙は日本第三機関の、主に科学部と工学部の学部生のためのコースを記載しております。学生は、コースの終わりまでにポスター発表をし、研究について英語での質問応答をします。コース期間中、実生活での活動において学生が学会に参加する際に必要な技術を養い、ネットワークを通した他者とのコミュニケーションにも自信がつき、英語の上達にむけてより熟思する力が身に付きます。

One of the major challenges facing teachers in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) contexts is the lack of transferability of skills acquired in the classroom to new situations beyond the classroom environment (McKeough, 1995). That is, in order to enhance learning experiences for students in an EFL context and help them to understand how to apply new knowledge to new situations, it is important to make strong connections between curricula and the lives of the learner. Over the last two decades, curriculum reform in Japan by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) has seen several changes implemented in Japanese universities to meet the demands of the new globalized world. In this environment of changing educational paradigms, many teachers are seeking new methods which focus less on receptive skills found in most textbooks and more on a balanced curriculum in which students produce language based on real-world needs.

Learning-by-doing is said to be one of the most effective ways of learning (see Schank, Berman & Macperson, 1999). By combining language learning tasks based on real-life experiences, it was thought that students could receive a more authentic and long-lasting learning experience. This paper describes a course designed for undergraduate students at a Japanese tertiary institution in mainly Science and

McCarthy, T. (2015). Real-life tasks in the classroom as a potential for transfer. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 103-115). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

Technology departments. The questions around which the new curriculum was built were:

- How to raise awareness of the English needs required for specific fields?
- How to sustain motivation throughout a course focused on research English?
- How to design a real-world classroom setting which met specific English and real-world needs of students in different departments?

The immediate solution was to develop a balanced curriculum in which students were provided with a mix of form-focused (pedagogical tasks) and meaning-focused (target tasks) instruction. The end goal was to complete an authentic, real-world activity, using the language and skills acquired throughout the course. The aim ultimately, was that students could increase confidence in language skills through engaging in a more familiar, structured approach to lessons in which the teacher focused on specific language skills (see Appendix A). Students were then expected to engage in higher order thinking through awareness-raising reflection of how the language could be transferred to an authentic context (see Appendix B). Throughout the course, real-life activities were introduced at intervals to help students understand skills needed specifically for giving an academic presentation and networking. These tasks were based on suggestions from department heads in the different faculties.

Research participants

Approximately 60 students participated in this course. Students' language proficiency levels varied from basic A2 to intermediate B2 on the CEFR descriptor scale (Little, 2006). Students were currently in their fourth year of undergraduate study, and had completed two years of mandatory English courses in their first and second years as undergraduate students. This meant that many entered the course having experienced a gap in English learning for almost two years. Although coming from different departments, the common thread running through the departments was that students had to participate in academic presentations (either by watching their professors in seminar classes or by doing their own academic presentation of their research in domestic or international conferences). It was explained that the skills employed in presentations were not so much focused on language, but rather on presentation skills, using specific strategies. As such, students were asked to create an academic poster of their research, which would be presented at the end of the semester. All classes would join together for these presentations to create the full realistic effect of a conference setting.

Theoretical Perspectives

Constructivist views about the learning process essentially emphasize the context as being the central component in the construction of meaningful learning (Prenzel & Mandl, 1993; Spiro, Feltovich, Jacobson & Coulson, 1991). That is, acquisition and application of knowledge takes place in a context that has a clear meaning and the extent of transferability depends on how the context is presented. It was thus hypothesized that the more realistic the learning environment, the better the transfer of knowledge. A task-based approach leading to a big project was the pedagogical approach used to implement these constructivist ideas.

Dewey (1933) was one of the first advocates of the use of authentic tasks to bridge the gap between school life and the real world. Similar to constructivist views, Dewey believed that people learn best through meaningful activity. His central idea was that authentic tasks were ideal for developing useful real-world knowledge and skills. As students constructed tasks, through cognitive engagement, they would deepen subject matter knowledge, develop greater understanding, and enhance self-regulation skills. This engagement depended not only on the tasks at hand, but more importantly, the context in which they were situated. This idea of situated cognition emphasized the creation of a framework in which students engage cognitively with new materials within an authentic context, build on prior knowledge to connect new ideas and then consider ways of transferring the new ideas to a new situation (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989). As with all theoretical perspectives, the ideas are ideal; however, integration and implementation of theory in the classroom while making learning personally meaningful to students is more challenging.

Course design and development: Real-life tasks in the classroom

There were seven underlying principles in the development of the course (See Figure 1).

1. Authenticity

This involved creating personally meaningful learning opportunities which were relevant to the specific research discipline or domain. It was essential that the student was provided with sufficient opportunities to connect with real-life situations within each task.

2. Situatedness

This involved creating a real connection to the world in which students lived and providing a context in the classroom that reflected this world.

3. Multiple contexts

This involved introducing a variety of smaller tasks from multiple perspectives, which led to a final project.

4. Social context

This involved acknowledging that the student was part of an expert culture and as such needed to be exposed to specialized knowledge of the context. Being aware of the social context included being aware of the students' cultural background and prior learning experiences in order to make the tasks more relevant.

5. Reflexivity

This involved raising students' awareness of current knowledge of subject matter, and helping them to understand the purpose of each task and how it personally connected to a very practical world after graduation.

6. Transferability

This involved activating current knowledge schema and having students think critically about the various pedagogical tasks and how the knowledge could be applied to the wider real-world context.

7. Motivation for teacher and students

This involved carefully considering the various subject disciplines and consistently trying to ensure that connections were being made to see how each task fit into the whole, so that both teacher and student remained mindful of the overall aims of the course.

The course framework developed for a 15-week semester was designed as a step-by-step structure of various pedagogical and target tasks, starting from

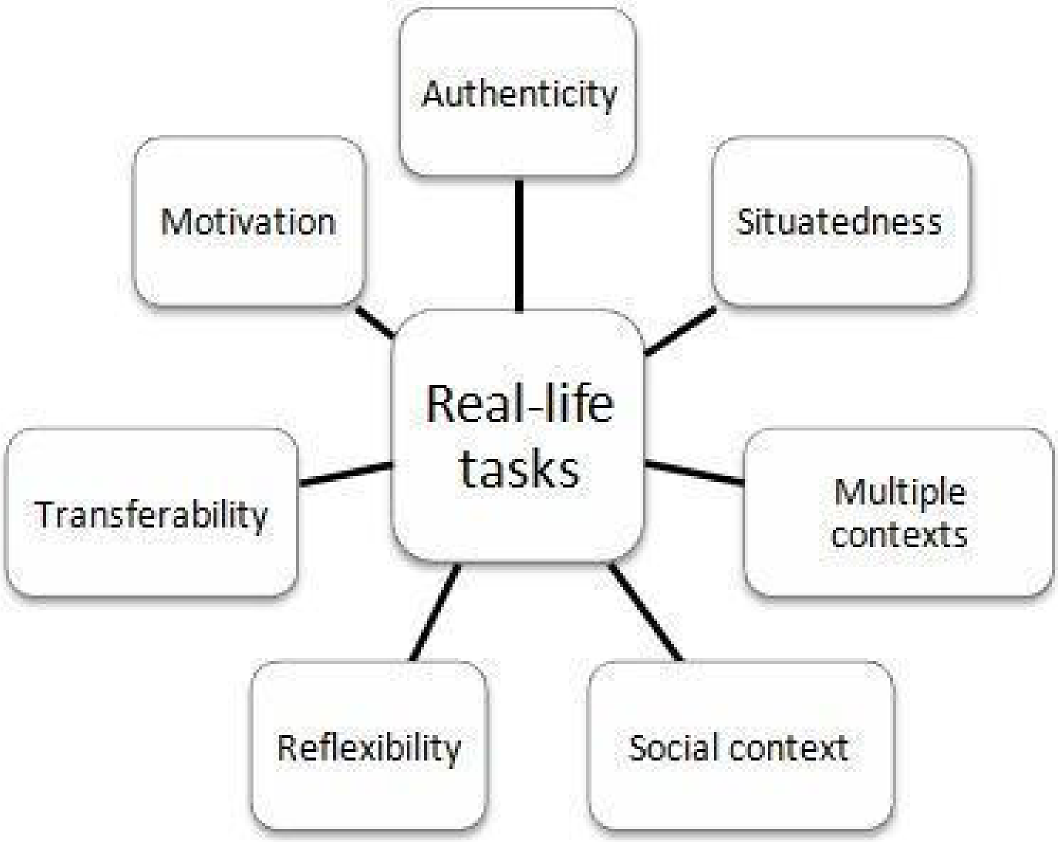

Figure 1. Seven underlying principles of the course

basic and advancing to higher level skills, then finally arriving at the final task of presenting a poster at a conference (Table 1). Pedagogical tasks referred to specifically designed classroom tasks that required the use of specific interactional strategies or specific language skills (Breen, 1987; Shavelson & Stern, 1981). This kind of task, which focused on accuracy and made language accessible to students, would not necessarily be encountered in the real world; however, the interactional processes it required provided useful input to language development (see Appendix A). The target tasks reflected real-world usage of language, which was considered as a rehearsal for real-world tasks (Long, 1985; Nunan, 2004). The focus was more on communicating meaning than form (see Appendix B). Individual feedback and self-reflection on smaller tasks were done throughout the course. No assessment was done for the final task in order to help students feel less anxious about their performance, as well as keep it connected more closely to a real-life situation in which any evaluation is usually carried out by the individual in reflecting on performance rather than being teacher-assessed. As such, for the final task, students were asked to complete a self-reflection after the poster sessions on perceived strengths and weaknesses in both language and presentation skills.

Impact on learning and motivation

Student reflections on the course (see Appendix C) were collected at the end of the semester to establish its effectiveness and to identify whether students had engaged in meaningful learning with regard to their future endeavours. The following are the salient points that emerged from the data (see Figures 2, 3 and 4):

Feedback on the course

- Students were able to better understand the aim of the course in its attempt to apply acquired knowledge and skills to the wider context of an international conference setting.
- Students made significant improvements in talking about their research in English as well as improving basic conversation skills.

Figure 2 illustrates students' perception of improvement in these three areas at an average value of 2.41 out of 3. This meant that the course met its aims of improving students' ability to talk about research and helping students to become more aware of the skills required to participate in an international conference.

After having experienced a simulated poster conference, students advancing to graduate study were also more aware of the various skills they would be

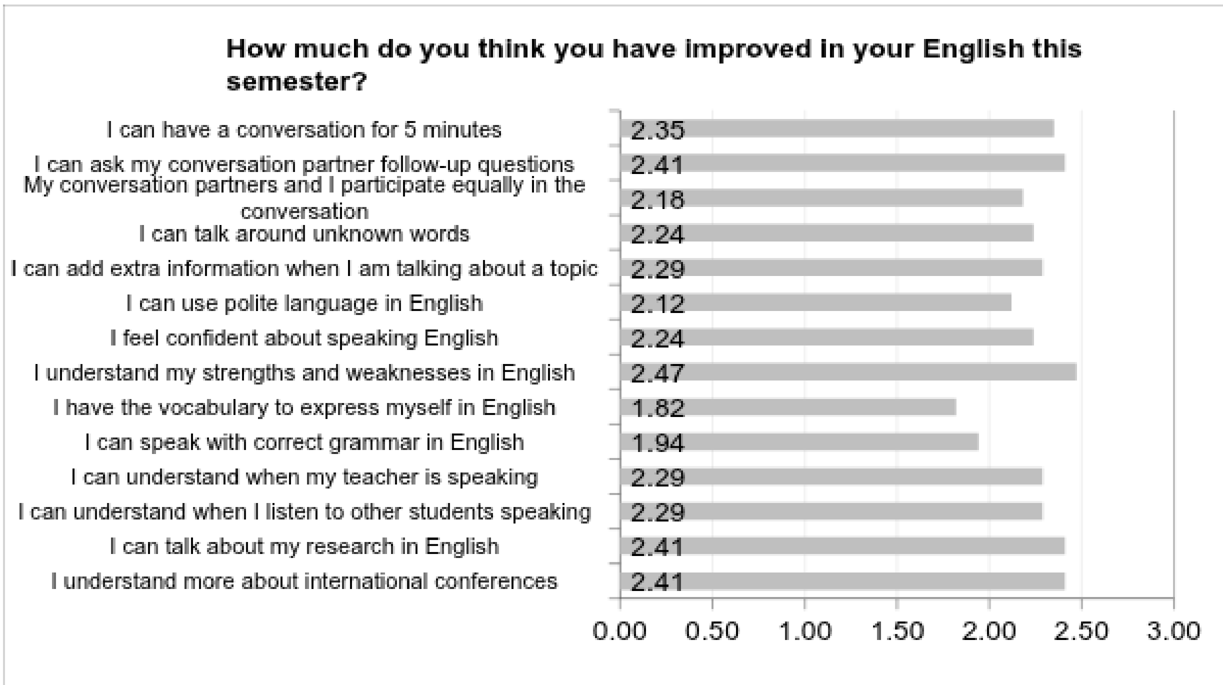

Figure 2. Students' perception of improvement in English skills

Table 1
Breakdown of Pedagogical and Target Tasks

Task	Skill	Pedagogical task	Target task	Purpose
Daily conversation	Speaking Listening Vocabulary	Conversation skills: Ask-Answer-Add	Conversation skills on "safe" topics	Build confidence
Networking	Speaking Listening Vocabulary	Modal usage; turn-taking	Building on safe topics to expanding on conversation	Understand pragmatics; connect classroom skills to a real-life context
Writing email	Writing Vocabulary	Casual vs. polite language	Send teacher a polite email with an attached document	Understand pragmatics in a written context
Writing abstract	Writing Vocabulary Grammar	Academic writing structure: Introduction-background-method-results-conclusion	Summarize research ideas into a paragraph of 5-10 sentences	Increase awareness of structure and organization of research papers; connect classroom skills to a real-life context
Research discussion	Speaking Listening Vocabulary	Language used for different audiences	Building on general networking conversation to discussing research	Learn how to change dialogue to suit the specific audience
Researching conferences	Reading Vocabulary	Scanning for specific information	Communicate with researchers in specific research domain about different types of conferences	Increase exposure to real-life research context; establish rapport with professors and seniors; connect classroom skills to a real-life context
Registering for a conference and sharing new information	Writing Vocabulary	Recognizing specific vocabulary for filling out a form	Find a conference connected to student's specific field; learn how to submit a proposal and fill out a form for the conference. Share information with other students in same field	Become accustomed to doing online research in English; connect classroom skills to a real-life context
Poster presentation	Speaking Listening Reading Vocabulary	Advanced question formation	Combination of conversation skills, networking and research discussion	Transfer skills to a "real-world" setting; connect classroom skills to a real-life context

required to improve in order to participate effectively in an academic setting. In particular, students reported that they needed to increase specific terminology connected to their field of study, improve basic grammar and listening skills to understand and respond to questions, practice more conversation in order to learn how to express themselves better, and practice presentation skills before doing the final presentation so they could be better at "adlibbing."

Feedback on performance

With regard to their performance, areas of improvement were as follows:

- Students had an increased awareness of their strengths in specific language and presentation skills in an academic English context.

Figure 3 shows how students ranked their overall performance at the end of the course. The areas which saw greatest improvement were students being able to speak in a clear voice (2.53), excuse themselves politely from a conversation during networking (2.44), and have a conversation in English (2.35). Students had been somewhat uncomfortable during networking classes as interrupting and excusing themselves from a conversation went against what they considered to be deep-rooted Japanese cultural values of politeness. Thus, this was a significant step forward for many of them.

Students also pinpointed specific areas they considered they did well as areas in which they would need improvement. The following are select comments from students:

I talk about future research

I used the gesture. I was particular about the poster.

I could say my idea in detail in English to use my poster.

In addition, some students' motivation for learning increased, as they were able to overcome fears and doubts about language ability and complete the tasks successfully:

I think I can speak in English. I haven't spoken in Japanese during my poster presentation. I could good communication with the person who I don't know.

Students also showed good self-assessment skills in recognizing areas for improvement in both language

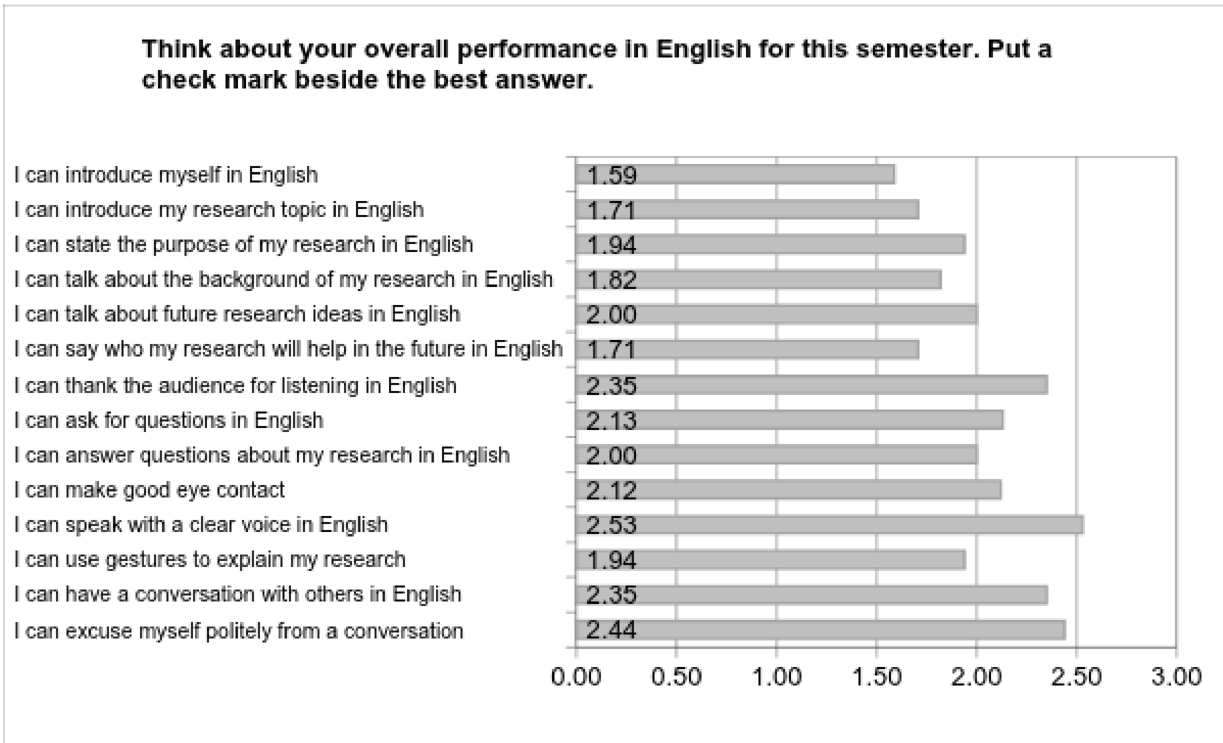

Figure 3. Students' perception of overall English performance after completing the course.

and presentation skills:

> *I need more vocabulary*
>
> *I need that I can speak with a clear voice in English*
>
> *I should use simple and powerful pictures to reduce sentences*
>
> *I need to speak adlib. I need to speak currently.*
>
> *I have to speak in English fluency. I have to explain easy to understand. I thought I should use more pictures*
>
> *I want to use more technical terms for next presentation. And I would like to reply to questions.*

What was most evident though, was that students realized that in order to communicate in a real-life setting, they could not depend on set phrases, but needed to learn how to quickly adapt to flowing conversations. Overall, students were satisfied with their performance (see Figure 4) with 41.2% of students reporting that they were satisfied and 17.6% reporting that they were very satisfied.

Limitations and solutions

There are many limitations and challenges to introducing an authentic, task-based style of teaching into the classroom. First of all, tasks can be viewed by students as a "one-off" experience with no further meaning. As such, it is essential that a connection be made to a future, meaningful purpose. There is also a certain complexity to designing and sequencing tasks for real-world situations as well as creating specific roles for the student and teacher. Logistically, introducing a new methodology within an existing curriculum, teacher workload and schedules can be challenging unless the teacher is given the opportunity to create an original curriculum and has the freedom to control the workload. In most educational settings, teachers are usually provided with a pre-set curriculum, guidelines to administer within their classes, specific workloads and resources. This limitation requires a delicate balance with and some negotiation between the teacher's goals and administrative goals. In this course, a balance was established by collaboration between professors of the various departments (some more successful than others). Collaboration was essential, so that students could feel that the tasks were relevant to their field of study. This was the most challenging aspect of this course, as most students entered the course without a clear picture of how English would be

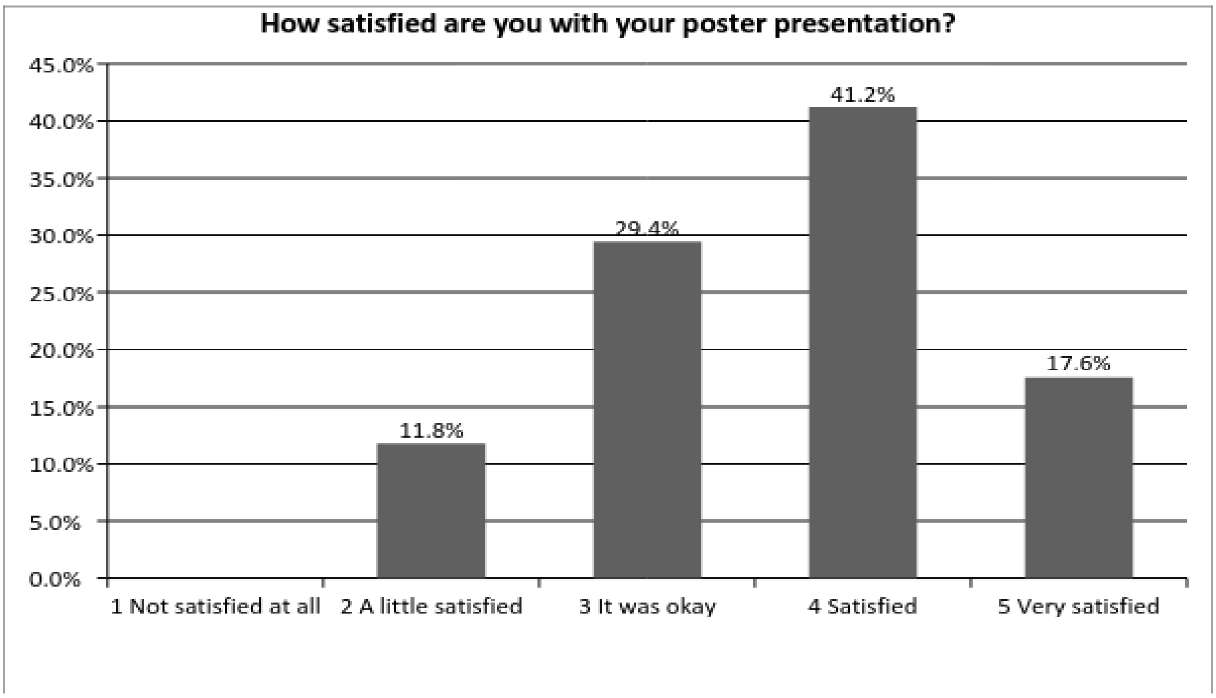

Figure 4. Students' satisfaction level with their poster presentation

used in their future.

Conclusion

The benefits of a task-based curriculum in which students are exposed to tasks that connect to real-life contexts are undisputable; however, it may require a major shift in the roles of all the stakeholders – the administration, teachers and students – as well as the structure of classes. Added to this is the difficulty in establishing contact with different departments to ensure that students receive appropriate subject content to complete tasks in a meaningful way. Though daunting, implementing the necessary curriculum changes to improve student learning can result in a transformation of classrooms to a context in which students can prepare better for graduate study and/or life beyond the classroom. By engaging in personally meaningful tasks that connect to real-life situations, it is possible to increase student motivation and confidence; help them to become aware of strengths and weaknesses; and create a situation in which students can understand how to transfer practical situations experienced in the classroom to a new context. The following excerpts extracted from student reflection sheets reveal an example of how students benefitted from the course:

> *I think I can speak in English. I haven't spoken in Japanese during my poster presentation. I could good communication with the person I don't know.*
>
> *It was the time of the very pleasant presentation! So the meaning which participated was large.*

Although there were some negative experiences due to perceived weaknesses in language skills, it was clear from the course feedback that most students found it beneficial in boosting their confidence when talking about their scientific research.

As students may not have a clear idea of their future, it is important that they are provided with opportunities in the classroom to develop real-world abilities. This can be done especially through collaboration with their professors in their respective fields of study as a way of helping them to understand what may be expected of them in their future academic or professional careers. Ultimately, exposing students to contrived dialogues in textbooks without a connection to a wider goal has little meaning or interest to students and teachers. Thus, creating authentic real-world tasks while maintaining a focus on form is one solution that can create a meaningful experience for students while being a realistic goal for teachers.

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Appendix A

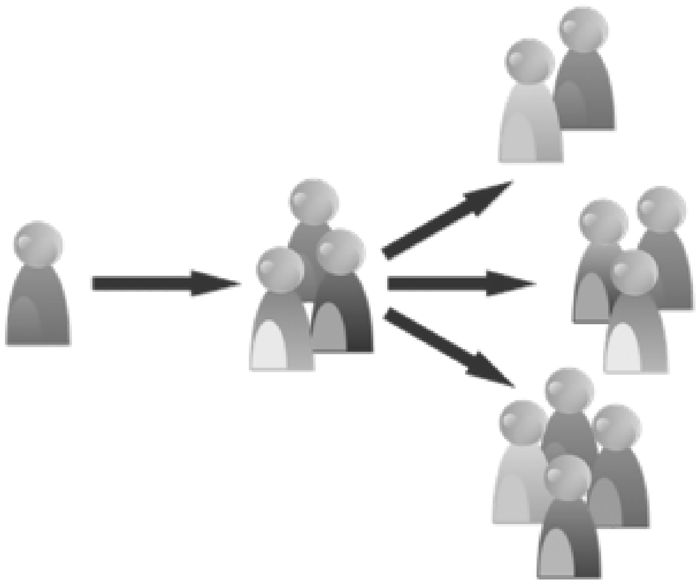
Pedagogical task: Improving conversation skills by asking and answering questions, and adding extra information

Real-life Situation

You are at an international conference at the welcome reception. There are drinks and food available. There are many people from the conference standing around that you do not know. Start networking using the language skills you learned.

Remember to:

1. Speak about 'safe' topics
2. Ask 'open' questions
3. Give longer answers
4. Change partners a few times
5. Introduce and excuse yourself politely



Appendix B

Target task: Using learned knowledge in a simulated real-life context

Who, what, when, where, why?

Listen to your partner's story and make notes on what they say. Talk to four people. Each time you practice, try to add a little more information.

	Partner 1	Partner 2	Partner 3	Partner 4
When?				
Where?				
Who?				
What?				
Why?				

Appendix C

End-of-course survey about course and performance

PART 1

4 = Yes, very well 3 = It's okay 2 = Only a little 1 = Not very well

		4	3	2	1
My Poster Presentation	I can introduce myself in English				
	I can introduce my research topic in English				
	I can state the purpose of my research in English				
	I can talk about the background of my research in English				
	I can talk about future research ideas in English				
	I can say who my research will help in the future in English				
	I can thank the audience for listening in English				
	I can ask for questions in English				
	I can answer questions about my research in English				
	I can make good eye contact				
	I can speak with a clear voice in English				
	I can use gestures to explain my research				
Net-work	I can have a conversation with others in English				
	I can excuse myself politely from a conversation				

PART 2

a. How satisfied are you with your performance for your poster presentation? Circle the number closest to your feeling

1 = Not satisfied at all -- 5 = Very satisfied

① ② ③ ④ ⑤

b. What do you think you did well during your poster presentation?

c. What do you think you need to improve for your next presentation?

PART 3

a. How much do you think **you have improved in your English** this semester?

3 = I have improved a lot   2 = I have improved just a little   1 = I have not improved much

	3	2	1
1. I can have a conversation for 5 minutes			
2. I can ask my conversation partner follow-up questions			
3. My conversation partners and I participate equally in the conversation			
4. I can talk around unknown words			
5. I can add extra information when I am talking about a topic			
6. I can use polite language in English			
7. I feel confident about speaking English			
8. I understand my strengths and weaknesses in English			
9. I have the vocabulary to express myself in English			
10. I can speak with correct grammar in English			
11. I can understand when my teacher is speaking			
12. I can understand when I listen to other students speaking			
13. I can talk about my research in English			
14. I understand more about international conferences			

b. Which of the skills that you have learned throughout the course do you think you will use in your future?

Vocatives as Mitigators and Upgraders in Speech Acts

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Vocatives, or forms of address, are often used in greetings or similar speech acts which involve requesting attention or identifying the addressee. However, their use in establishing or maintaining the relationship between interlocutors, particularly in the context of other types of speech acts, still remains to be examined. This exploratory study attempts to address this issue by examining the use of address forms in various types of speech acts, particularly face threatening ones such as disagreements and requests. The results indicate that address forms can be used to mitigate face threatening acts and upgrade other ones. A limited cross-cultural comparison of vocative use in speech acts among different nationalities was also carried out; there is evidence that participants' use of address forms in certain speech acts stems from pragmatic transfer.

呼格または呼びかけの形は、挨拶、あるいは注目要求や呼び掛け対象の確認といった発話行為で使用される。しかし、話者間の関係確立または関係維持における使用、特に発話行為の他のタイプの文脈での使用についてはまだ明らかにされていない。本予備的研究は、様々な種類の発話行為における呼びかけ、特に不同意と依頼のようなフェイスを脅かす発話行為での呼びかけを検証することによって明らかにしようとしたものである。その結果、呼び掛けはフェイスを脅かす行為を軽減し、他の発話行為を高めるために使用され得ることが示された。また、異国籍間での発話行為における呼格使用について、限られた範囲ではあるが、異文化間比較を行い、特定の発話行為での発話参加者の呼び掛けの使用は語用論的転移から生じていることを示した。

Vocatives, or forms of address, are indicative of the relationships between interlocutors in terms of factors such as age, gender, intimacy, politeness, and solidarity, as well as the values of a particular culture. Navigating interactions in that culture requires their appropriate use (Leech, 1999). Vocatives thus play an important role not only in the study of linguistics, but also in that of social structures and changes (Clyne, Norrby, & Warren, 2009; Joseph, 1989). However, little comparative and empirical research has been done on the use of address forms (Clyne et al., 2009; Leech, 1999).

The researcher of this exploratory study attempts to address this gap by examining vocative use in conjunction with various speech acts, or "actions performed via utterances" (Yule, 1996, p. 47) such as apologies, compliments, refusals, and requests. Leech (1999) states that English vocatives are utilized in conversation for three distinct purposes: (a) to summon attention, (b) to identify the addressee, and (c) to "establish or maintain a social relationship between the speaker (or writer) and the addressee" (p. 108). In the case of the first two functions, address forms are commonly used in speech acts which involve starting a dialogue, such as greetings. However, their

Mondejar, M. (2015). Vocatives as mitigators and upgraders in speech acts. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 116-121). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

use in a broader set of speech acts in fulfillment of purpose (c) above is the focus of this study.

Of particular interest is the potential role vocatives may play in "modifying" speech acts. For example, face threatening speech acts, or those which represent a threat to the hearer's expectations of their self-image (e.g., refusals) may be modified by 'mitigators'. Mitigators are linguistic devices which soften the impact of the speaker's imposition on the hearer's self-image (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Yule, 1996). Another example of a speech act modification is an 'upgrader', a device which increases the "compelling force" or strength of an act (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Such devices are common in face saving acts, which provide the speaker with the opportunity to reduce the level of perceived threat to the hearer's self-image, such as apologies (Yule, 1996).

This research thus aims to investigate the role address forms may play as speech act modifications, particularly as mitigators or upgraders. Data was collected at the researcher's teaching context, an international graduate school in rural Niigata, Japan with a culturally diverse student population. As a result, this study also aims to examine possible cultural differences in speech act usage between different ethnicities, e.g., different distributions of speech act usage or use of address forms as modifications. English as a Lingua Franca is the communication medium of choice between different ethnicities within the university community, given its significant cultural diversity. Thus, this study will examine the participants use of vocatives in their collective L2, English.

The researcher first became interested in this topic when he noticed that the students from select nationalities in his particular teaching context would insist on addressing him by his formal title, even after he requested that all students refer to him by his first name. Such use of first names between university faculty and their students is commonplace in native English-speaking contexts (Clyne et al., 2009). As more universities in Japan seek to diversify their student bodies through internationalization (Agawa, 2011; Shimomura, 2013; Yonezawa, 2011; Yonezawa, Akiba, & Hirouchi, 2009), more of the faculty and staff of these institutes will come into contact with learners from different parts of the world. It is hoped that this research will provide these educators with greater awareness and tolerance of the different linguistic and cultural practices that greater diversity brings to their college campuses.

Methods

The data for this research were collected from one-on-one tutorial sessions that the researcher conducted with each individual participant as an integral part of his or her academic writing courses. Non-scripted conversations were used in order to ensure that the data was as authentic and spontaneous as possible (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Tutorial sessions with six international students were recorded and transcribed. The students came from four different Asian countries; three came from Afghanistan, one from Kyrgyzstan, one from Laos, and one from Myanmar. The tutorials ranged from around 23 minutes to 63 minutes in length, and a total of 4.4 hours of conversation was recorded and transcribed. The transcriptions were then analyzed, and turns where students used a form of address aimed at the researcher (in all six cases, the formal title "professor" was used) were marked and categorized in terms of which speech acts they represented. The following types of speech acts were found to have been used by the participants: acceptance, apologies, disagreements, excuses, focusing, requests, statements, and thanking. Brief descriptions of these speech acts are provided below, along with an illustrative example taken from the research data set. Pseudonyms for participants' names were used in the examples to protect their identities.

Acceptance

In this type of speech act, one of the interlocutors accepts the opinion, suggestion, or advice of another interlocutor. An example of this speech act appears below involving the researcher and the participant from Myanmar:

John: Yeah, you absolutely need to cite those sources. You're gonna have to do that later on. And then also, I recommend using more cohesion here.

Thiri: Yes, **professor**.

Apology

In an apology, the speaker has recognized that he or she has violated a social norm and thereby caused the hearer to lose face. As a result, the speaker attempts to placate the hearer (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). Here is an example of an apology involving the participant from Laos:

Lari: Sorry, **professor**. This one, I don't have. I don't know what it is.

Disagreement

According to Sifianou (2012), disagreement is "the expression of a view that differs from that expressed by another speaker [and] is mostly seen as confrontational" (p. 1554). Disagreement is thus a strong face threatening act. An example of a disagreement involving one of the Afghan participants appears as follows:

John: So…your main idea should summarize all three points. Ok?

Babrak: Yes, **professor**, as you say that this indicates three points, I think these three points are included in my summary.

Excuse

Interlocutors engage in this speech act when they provide listeners with reasons in order to save face after violating a social norm. Here is an example where another participant from Afghanistan makes an excuse:

John: Ok, I think that's one thing you can do to improve your writing here, Zaid, is just add these transitions in order to connect ideas that are slightly different from each other.

Zaid: You know, **Professor**, my problem is just… before coming to this university, just we studied English, just speaking; not the essentials, for example, the grammar and something. And now in speaking, I am ok. In case of writing, it's really, I don't know… you are just writing something that you are speaking.

John: That I can completely understand. That is very true, and I can see that a lot of the students in our classes…they're very good at speaking. Reading, writing are areas they need to work on.

Focusing

In this type of speech act, the speaker draws the attention of the hearer to a particular point which the two interlocutors are discussing. This example involves the researcher and the participant from Myanmar:

Thiri: **Professor**, here…uh, this sentence I took from lecture notes. From here to here.

John: Ok.

Request

Requests involve the speaker infringing upon the recipient's freedom from imposition, and often involve the speaker exposing a need of theirs or potentially causing the recipient to lose face (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989). Two types of requests were found in the data set. The first type of request involved the speaker seeking information possessed by the recipient, as can be seen in this example involving the participant from Myanmar.

John: Ok, "was obtained from statistics bureau"…

Thiri: **Professor**, "is obtained" or "was obtained"?

John: "Was obtained".

The second type of request involved the speaker asking the hearer to perform some action on behalf of the speaker. In the following example, the participant from Kyrgyzstan makes such a request at the expense of the listener:

John: Ok, again this sentence is missing a subject – "Will soon be expanded database and other applications to use it to cash transfers." So…

Rustam: Yes. "Will soon be expanded database and other…to use it to cash transfers." What do you think, **Professor**? I don't know. Please help me.

Statement

Participants were found to occasionally use formal address forms when stating facts to the researcher. An example provided by the participant from Myanmar appears as follows:

Thiri: **Professor**, some sentence and some idea I took from lecture notes.

Thanking

The final speech act category to appear in this data set was thanking, where the speaker expresses appreciation for something the hearer has said or done on his or her behalf. Here is an example involving the third and final participant from Afghanistan:

John: Actually, you had one of the better summaries.
Aasif: Thank you, **professor**.

Results

The results of the analysis are summarized in Table 1. According to the results, participants utilized the formal address form 'professor' in a total of 98 speech acts. In the data set, vocatives were frequently used by participants in potentially face-threatening acts such as requests for information (29 tokens), requests for action (12), and disagreements (8). These results may lend credence to the notion that vocatives, particularly formal ones such as titles, are often used as mitigators (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Yule, 1996), or linguistic devices to soften the impact of the speaker's imposition on the hearer's face. This is in line with their primary function to maintain the relationship between two interlocutors, as noted by Leech (1999).

Address forms also seemed to be common in speech acts that indicate deference to the listener, namely thanking (14), acceptance (8), and apologies (6). Thus, formal address forms may also be used as upgraders (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010), in this case indicating a high level of respect for the hearer. Such upgraders could increase the positive potential impact of the speech act on the listener.

Finally, address forms also appeared to be frequent in statements (11) and focusing (6) speech acts. Their use here seems to be more indicative of their traditionally-noted use as a device for summoning attention, or "alerting somebody to the fact that he or she is being addressed" (Leech, 1999, p. 108).

Looking at the distribution of vocative use among the nationalities examined, the three Afghan participants had cumulatively used vocatives in 28

Table 1
Vocative Distribution by Nationality and Speech Act

Name	Country	Acceptance	Apology	Disagreement	Excuse	Focusing	Request (info)	Request (action)	Statement	Thanking	Total
Aasif	Afghanistan			3			4	2		3	12
Babrak	Afghanistan	1		2		1	1			2	7
Zaid	Afghanistan			2	2		2		1	2	9
Rustam	Kyrgyzstan	2					2	3		1	8
Lari	Laos	1	6	1	1	1	6	5	3	3	27
Thiri	Myanmar	4			1	4	14	2	7	3	35
Total		8	6	8	4	6	29	12	11	14	98

speech acts, the Kyrgyz participant 8 times, the Lao participant 27 times, and the Myanmar participant 35 times. Among the Afghan participants, the frequent use of address forms in potentially-contentious disagreements could be notable; seven out of the eight occurrences of disagreements with vocatives were performed by the Afghans. In follow-up interviews, one Afghan (Babrak) indicated that this phenomenon could be at least partially attributed to pragmatic transfer (Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, 1990) from Afghan culture:

> Whenever we are showing respect, especially for professors, never we call the name…or if he has PhD, 'doctor', something like that.
>
> We have argument a lot between each other… our discussion mostly is based on argument. We do not accept directly. If they disagree, until the person show the proof, [the other] will not accept it. So they needs more clarification in everything, so that's why they always have argument.

Thus, the Afghan cultural practices of showing respect to higher authorities through the persistent use of titles and engaging in argumentative conversation are possibly transferred from their first language practices to their use of English. This transfer may explain these participants' frequent use of formal address forms in potentially face threatening acts such as disagreements.

The two Southeast Asian participants (from Laos and Myanmar, respectively) also indicated that respect for people in positions of higher authorities is often shown through the use of titles or honorifics. For example, according to an interviewed student from Myanmar:

> In our culture we have to accept this…we never call [teachers by] name directly; we just put *oo* or *tou* and we give a respect to him or her. That's why we hesitate to call you [by your first name]. You give a permission to call you [by your first name] but we hesitate to call you [by your first name].

Thus, the Lao and Myanmar participants' use of titles may also be the result of pragmatic transfer (Beebe et al., 1990). This, combined with the Lao participant's use of titles in both types of requests (11) and apologies (6), and the Myanmar participant's in requests (16), could provide support for the notion that vocatives, particularly formal ones such as titles, can be used as mitigating devices in face-threatening acts.

Conclusion

This exploratory study examined the use of address forms, particularly formal ones such as titles, as modifications to speech acts. The results indicate that address forms may be used as mitigators in face-threatening acts such as disagreements or requests, and as upgraders in speech acts such as acceptance, apologies, and thanking. A comparison of speech act use among different nationalities was performed; while all six participants in the study seemed to universally favor utilizing address forms as mitigators in requests, the Afghans in particular also appeared to use address forms to mitigate disagreements in interactions. The usage of address forms in mitigating and upgrading speech acts seems to be at least partially based on transfer from the user's cultural and linguistic background.

The study has some limitations, in particular the small number of participants (6). With such a small number of participants, it would be hard to eliminate individual preferences in speaking patterns. Thus, it may be difficult to generalize the results to the larger cultural groups which the participants represent. Examining the patterns of vocative use among a larger number of participants from each of the aforementioned cultural groups could provide more generalizable results, which is a potential topic for future research.

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The Japanese Elementary School Foreign Language Program From an ALT's Perspective

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Japanese elementary school English teaching has been designed to provide external motivation to study a language other than Japanese in secondary school. Students in 5th/6th grade study English once a week with assistant language teachers (ALT) based on a textbook. This article will give an idea of what classes are like from the ALT's perspective. It will focus on good and bad points of the program and possible future directions.

日本の小学校で英語を教えることは小学校で言葉を学習するためによりやるきを持たせるように計画されりました。五年生と六年生は一週に一回に外国語指導助手（ALT）と教科書で英語を勉強をします。これからこのエッセイはALTの考えをもとに書きます。私は英語の授業の良い物と悪い物と将来を書きます。

The Ministry of Education, Sports and Technology (MEXT) introduced the compulsory foreign language program (FLP) for Japanese elementary schools in 2012. Students in grades five and six study about foreign languages and culture once a week. The class can be taught by a lone homeroom teacher or a homeroom teacher working with an assistant language teacher (ALT). The textbook *Hi Friends!* was designed by MEXT to be used in the classroom. It is not mandatory. In Kumamoto prefecture it is the favoured textbook. The subject is not graded and could be any language but is usually English. MEXT's (2011) goals for the subject are fourfold:

1. Serve as a foundation for communication abilities through foreign languages
2. Help students develop an understanding of languages and cultures through various experiences
3. Foster a positive attitude toward communication
4. Familiarize pupils with the sounds and basic expressions of foreign languages.

The subject as it is now is very different to what it was five years ago and will change again in 2020 to focus on proficiency rather than motivation. While three of the four seem to focus on proficiency the third goal is emphasised above all others in the schooling system.

This article will look at the FLP in Japanese elementary schools from the perspective of the ALTs, discussing merits of the programme as well as potential issues those involved in the programme face. As an ALT myself teaching in multiple Japanese elementary schools, I can articulate how the programme as proscribed by MEXT is working on the ground level.

At the time of the survey I was unaware of any plans to change the program. However, since then I have found that MEXT is planning to change the

Muller, S. E. (2015). The Japanese elementary school foreign language program from an ALT's perspective. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 122-133). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

program to focus on communication proficiency by 2020.

Participants and Method

A 4-part electronic survey (see Appendix A) about the FLP was created using Microsoft Excel and shared via email link with the nearly 200 ALTs in Kumamoto Prefecture on the Japanese Exchange and Teaching (JET) programme in January 2014. The JET programme gathers native English speakers from all around the world and places them with Boards of Education all over Japan. There they become ALTs assigned to elementary schools, middle schools and high schools. Seven ALTs responded and their biographical data is in Table 1. The respondents' educational background is typical of ALTs throughout Kumamoto. Typically an ALT will either stay for two years or do the full five years allowed them by their contracting organisation.

The survey investigated the following areas: purpose of the course, textbook, homeroom teacher, and future of the program. Participants were asked to respond to statements using a 5-point Likert scale where 5 indicated significant agreement, 4 agreement, 3 neither agree nor disagree, 2 disagreement, and 1 significant disagreement. Participants were also requested to write a comment about each of the statements on the survey. Once compiled I examined the data for points of consensus to build a general picture of their combined opinions while also checking for discrepancies.

Results and Discussion

The Curriculum

With one fifty minute lesson a week and no expectation to give homework the curriculum is fairly basic, covering a reasonably limited range of vocabulary and phrases. Over a two year span, students study sixteen phrases and around one hundred vocabulary items (see Appendix B and C for the Hi Friends! table of contents). The goal of fostering a positive attitude is addressed in the curriculum through activities and resources aimed at students enjoying themselves and becoming comfortable with foreign language lessons. The goals of increasing the students' grammar and vocabulary are addressed in the curriculum by having targeted phrases, vocabulary and chants.

The survey results regarding the purpose of the course can be seen in Table 2. Almost all of those surveyed strongly agreed that students had a positive view of *Gaikokugo*. Although, as one of the ALTs qualified: "It really depends on the student and the teacher. Some kids seem to love English class. Very few seem to hate it. But the kind of atmosphere created by the homeroom teacher and ALT is critical."

As mentioned in the introduction, the goals that is emphasised as the most important in the FLP is for the students to have a positive attitude towards foreign language learning. When asked if this was being achieved almost all of those surveyed agreed that the

Table 1
Participant Bio-Data

ALT	Assignment	Gender	Year as an ALT	Educational Background
A	Municipal	Male	5	Bachelor of Education
B	Municipal	Male	4	Bachelor of International Studies
C	Municipal	Female	2	Bachelor of Arts
D	Rural	Male	3	Bachelor of International Studies
E	Rural	Male	4	Bachelor of International Business
F	Rural	Male	4	Bachelor of Graphic Design
G	Rural	Female	2	Bachelor of International Studies

Table 2
Purpose of the Course

Item	SD	D	N	A	SA
Elementary school students have a positive view of foreign language study.			2	5	
Elementary school students enjoy *Gaikokugo*.				6	1
Elementary School students have a positive view of foreign cultures.		1	3	2	1
Elementary school students are able to have basic conversation after the course.		5	1	1	

students had positive feelings towards the FLP. Those that indicated neutrality on the subject commented that, while the goal was being achieved, the positivity is directed towards Western countries and students may not feel the same way towards other foreign countries. As one of the respondents explained,

> That depends on a lot of things. One being their parents, or significant influential figures. I often get the question, "What country do you hate?" And when I answer "I love them all; which country do you hate?" Students sometimes answer North Korea or China. Not at all because of their own opinions or experiences with said country; but based on bad news spread by their parents or others.

This casts doubt on one of the goals of the FLP. Little is done in the programme to foster positivity towards nations other than English speaking ones, unless the ALT's do so on their own initiative.

The *Hi Friends*! Textbook

The *Hi Friends!* textbook (Mext 2012a, 2012b) is the core of the curriculum in Kumamoto prefecture. Each chapter consists of new vocabulary, target question and answer sentences, one or two listening activities, a chant and a main activity. The main activity is usually an interview activity where students have to ask a large number of other students the target question. The textbook focuses solely on the macro skills speaking and listening. Included with the textbook is a DVD-ROM. This resource is designed to be used with the assumption that there is no ALT present. It includes a wide range of sound bites for students to repeat after and videos for students to learn more about foreign cultures. A teacher with no English ability could use this DVD-ROM to teach English pronunciation and phrases. However, within Kumamoto prefecture, there is limited homeroom teacher training regarding the textbook or the use of the DVD-ROM. Thus, while it is a good resource it often goes unused when the homeroom teacher is the main teacher.

The results of the survey in regards to the textbook can be seen in Table 3. Two points become clear from these results and the comments made about the textbook. The first was that while the textbook itself was generally considered to be easy to use, all of those surveyed supplemented the materials with their own activities. Secondly, although respondents had different opinions with regards to the statement "I enjoy using the textbook" the majority of those surveyed disagreed with the statement "I would prefer to teach without the textbook."

In regards to the first point, one ALT summed up the feeling saying, "The things printed in the Hi Friends text alone are by no means supposed to cover the whole class period. A typical class that follows the lesson plans recommended by MEXT is about 65% non-textbook activity." Those surveyed gave two reasons why the materials needed to be supplemented: pacing and interest. While a chapter can be done in one lesson it is not enough time for the students to internalise the content. For the students to reach that point the chapter needs to be broken down into at least three lessons: a new vocabulary lesson, a target sentence lesson, and the main activity lesson. It is too

Table 3
Hi Friends! Textbook.

Item	SD	D	N	A	SA
The textbook is easy to use.	1	1	1	4	
The textbook contains useful English expressions.			4	3	
The textbook is interesting.	1	1	1	4	
I need to add activities to the textbook.				1	6
I enjoy using the textbook.		3	1	3	
The textbook is grammatically correct			4	3	
I regularly use the multimedia features.		2		3	2
I would prefer to teach without the textbook.		4	2		1

difficult for the students to acquire all the knowledge and skills necessary to complete the final activity in less than three lessons. While it is clear where teachers can divide each lesson, there is not enough content to fill three full lessons. Thus there is a need to supplement the materials.

The second reason given for supplementing the textbook with their own materials was that the textbook by itself is not that interesting. The tasks in the textbook are based around interviews, listening, and chanting. In my own experience as an ALT, students do enjoy these activities, however, only if there are done with a variety of other activities. Something worth pointing out from the data is that those surveyed who disagreed with the statements "I enjoy using the textbook" and "The textbook is interesting" also indicated that they didn't use the DVD-ROM attached to the textbook. Suggesting that using the textbook alone, without the media attached to it, is difficult for the ALT.

The second point that becomes clear is that while there was a clear divide between those that found the textbook enjoyable to use and those that didn't the textbook is better than the alternative. The alternative being not have a textbook and for the ALTs to have to create the curriculum themselves, from the ground up. While some ALTs would be confident in such a situation due to a background in education, others indicated that they would find the task daunting. Given the divide amongst the respondents in regard to the popularity of the current textbook it is possible that those who disagreed with the statement "I would prefer not to use the textbook" chose so because they did not want to teach without any resources. A textbook offers stability. Given that many of the ALTs are untrained teachers the textbook is also a life-raft. One ALT mentioned that he had never taught before becoming an ALT and he was shocked when he was told that he had to be the main teacher of the class. Of the ALTs surveyed only one of them was a qualified teacher. Before he came to Japan he was an English and Spanish teacher in the USA. Ohtani (2010) explains the situation in her article:

> The ALT requires only a bachelor's degree in any field, and requires neither a degree in education, nor a degree in English. Teaching qualifications are treated as optional. Consequently, most ALT teachers do not have sufficient educational experience or content background to become teachers. (p. 39)

This is a problem that may need to be remedied in the future. This could be done by either hiring trained teachers as ALTs or offering intensive training before teachers enter the classroom here in Japan.

The Homeroom Teacher and Team Teaching

Those surveyed made many comments regarding the impact the homeroom teacher has on the success or failure of a foreign language class. A good homeroom teacher is a major presence in the classroom. Similarly a bad homeroom teacher's presence is absent or worse counter-productive. Classes that are consistently well behaved and engaged in the class materials are usually classes where there is good communication and teamwork between the homeroom teacher and the ALT. Similarly poor communication between the ALT and the homeroom teacher may lead to a class that consistently misbehaves and is unmotivated. The problems that can be caused by bad communication between ALTs and homeroom teachers can be divided into two categories: discipline and participation.

Discipline. ALTs are specifically told that discipline is the homeroom teacher's responsibility. This is fortunate since many ALTs are untrained teachers and would not know how to maintain good classroom management. Almost all of those surveyed indicated that order and discipline in their classroom was being maintained by the homeroom teacher. However, one of the major reasons given by the respondents for low motivation or lack of attention by students in the classroom was the inability of the homeroom teacher to control the class. An ALT's authority stems in part from the homeroom teacher. If a class does not respect the homeroom teacher it is that much harder for the ALT to teach effectively. Fortunately, these are rare cases and most of those surveyed indicated that order and discipline was maintained by their homeroom teacher. Another aspect of discipline which can have a negative effect on the classroom is when homeroom teachers give students more freedom than usual and ignore behaviour they would ordinarily discipline because the students are meant to have fun in the FLP. While not as bad as the first scenario, this situation can eventually lead to a similar situation in which students are unmotivated and uninterested.

Participation. A major part of classroom management is lesson facilitation. The best homeroom teachers I have worked with also helped facilitate the lesson. While ALTs may have great lesson plans, they may not know how to implement them effectively. In my experience a good homeroom teacher will step forward and say something when they see a better way to do something, or see that the ALT missed giving an instruction. Facilitation also comes in the form of participation. The homeroom teacher is the language learner role model for the students. Therefore, it is important for the homeroom teacher to be active in the class. As one respondent commented, "If the students see the teacher repeating with them it gives them confidence." While there are homeroom teachers who have a high level of English ability, it is more common for ALTs to be partnered with teachers who can only speak a little bit of English. The students know their teacher's English speaking proficiency, but if they see the teacher trying in the lesson they will also be more willing to participate themselves. On the other hand, when students hear their teacher saying they cannot do something in English or saying English is hard it saps their motivation.

All of those surveyed all made some mention

Table 4
Team Teaching

Item	SD%	D%	N%	A%	SA%
I plan and implement lessons.				3	4
The homeroom teacher team teaches with me	1	1	2	3	
My homeroom teacher maintains order in my classes.		1		4	2
My homeroom teacher teaches *Gaikokugo* when I'm not there.	2	4			1
I would appreciate ALT homeroom Teacher training outside of school.		1		4	2

of how important it is for the homeroom teacher and ALT to team teach. How well the class goes often depends on the homeroom teacher and ALT's relationship. Therefore, having a comfortable working relationship is an essential part of the success or failure of the program.

The Future of the Program

The findings of the survey seem to indicate that the foreign language program does at least an adequate job of building interest and promoting positivity towards learning foreign languages as well as laying a foundation for continued language education. The final section of the survey focused on how the respondents felt the program needed to improve in order to better develop students' actual ability to communicate in a foreign language. The results can be seen in Table 5. As part of the Japanese government's globalisation by 2020 plan this goal will be added to the FLP programme (Mext, 2014).

The most telling result here is that all those surveyed said the course would have to be changed to meet this new goal. From this we can see that the current program is considered inadequate by ALTs for building students' ability in the English language. Two reasons were given: time and content. There simply aren't enough classes a week for students to improve their English. If improving students' communicative abilities was added as a goal, more classes would need to be added. The second reason given was a problem with the content of the classes. Almost all those surveyed mentioned the need for more phrases and grammar. The one ALT who disagreed with the need to increase the amount of grammar being taught mentioned that he only disagreed because the word grammar has a negative connotation.

One of the aspects of the foreign language program that the ALTs universally agree is a good thing is its communicative approach. There is a fear that any change to the program will shift it towards something more like the Japanese middle school model of English education which has little to no focus on speaking and listening or communication activities. Yuka Amaki (2008) used online surveys distributed to current and former ALTs across Japan to investigate their perspectives on middle and high school English education in Japan and found that 47% of the 282 respondents felt that a weakness of the middle school system was the lack of focus on oral communication.

Another telling point is the response to the statement "Homeroom teachers and ALTs would need to have additional training." In Kumamoto prefecture there is only one day a year devoted to professional development in English as a foreign language for

Table 5
Shifting From Motivation to Ability

Item	SD	D	N	S	SA
The course would need more grammar focus		1		2	4
The course should maintain its communicative approach		1		3	3
The course would need more variety of phrases		2		5	
The course wouldn't need to be changed	3	4			
The course would need more lesson time			1	2	4
Homeroom teachers and ALTs would need to have additional training				3	3
They would need more ALTs		1	2	4	
They would need to hire Japanese teachers of English for Elementary School		1	3	1	2

homeroom teachers, ALTs, and Japanese English teachers. While this may be sufficient for the Japanese English teachers who have studied how to teach English as a foreign language, it is the opinion of those surveyed that it is inadequate to prepare elementary school homeroom teachers to teach English as a foreign language. With some exceptions, neither the homeroom teacher nor the ALTs are trained English teachers. This will have to change when the programme shifts to focus on communicative ability.

Conclusion

The conclusion of the survey was that the ALTs who participated felt that the foreign language program had more merits than difficulties. Generally speaking they felt that it was an enjoyable experience for the students and that their students come to look forward to their English language classes. Most felt that, while the program will not make the students proficient in English, it does build students' confidence in their communication abilities. Also, students do come out of the program knowing a few English phrases and being able to recognise the alphabet. Thus the program is meeting the goals set by the government that were outlined earlier in this article. However, all of those surveyed also agreed that the program also has some problems. These include lack of teacher training and the possibility of a communication breakdown in the classroom between the ALT and homeroom teacher means which could result in some of the programs goals not being met in that classroom.

With regards to the future of the FLP, I was pleased to see in the 2020 document that there are plans to increase the number of classes and make English language an official subject in Elementary School. That said there are concerns with these future plans. If the plan is to have ALTs attending every class there will either need to be a significant increase in ALTs otherwise. Alternatively there will need to be more homeroom teacher training.

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Sam Muller is an ALT in Yatsushiro city in Kumamoto prefecture. He has a diploma in middle years education; a Masters in Linguistics and TESOL; and a CELTA. He has been teaching at four elementary schools and one middle school for the past three years. Before teaching in Japan he taught adults from countries around the world English in Australia.

Appendix A

Japanese Elementary School *Gaikokugo* Program Survey

Mark either strongly disagree, disagree, neither, agree or strongly agree and make a comment where necessary.

Purpose of the Course	SD	Disagree	Neither	Agree	SA
Elementary school students have a positive view of foreign language study.					
Comments:					
Elementary school students enjoy *Gaikokugo*.					
Comments:					
Elementary School students have a positive view of foreign cultures.					
Comments:					
Elementary school students are able to have basic conversation after the course.					
Comments:					

Hi Friends Textbook	SD	Disagree	Neither	Agree	SA
The textbook is easy to use.					
Comments:					
The textbook contains useful English expressions.					
Comments:					
The textbook is interesting.					
Comments:					
I need to add activities to the textbook.					
Comments:					
I enjoy using the textbook.					

Comments:					
The textbook is grammatically correct					
Comments:					
I regularly use the multimedia features.					
Comments:					
I would prefer to teach without the textbook.					
Comments:					

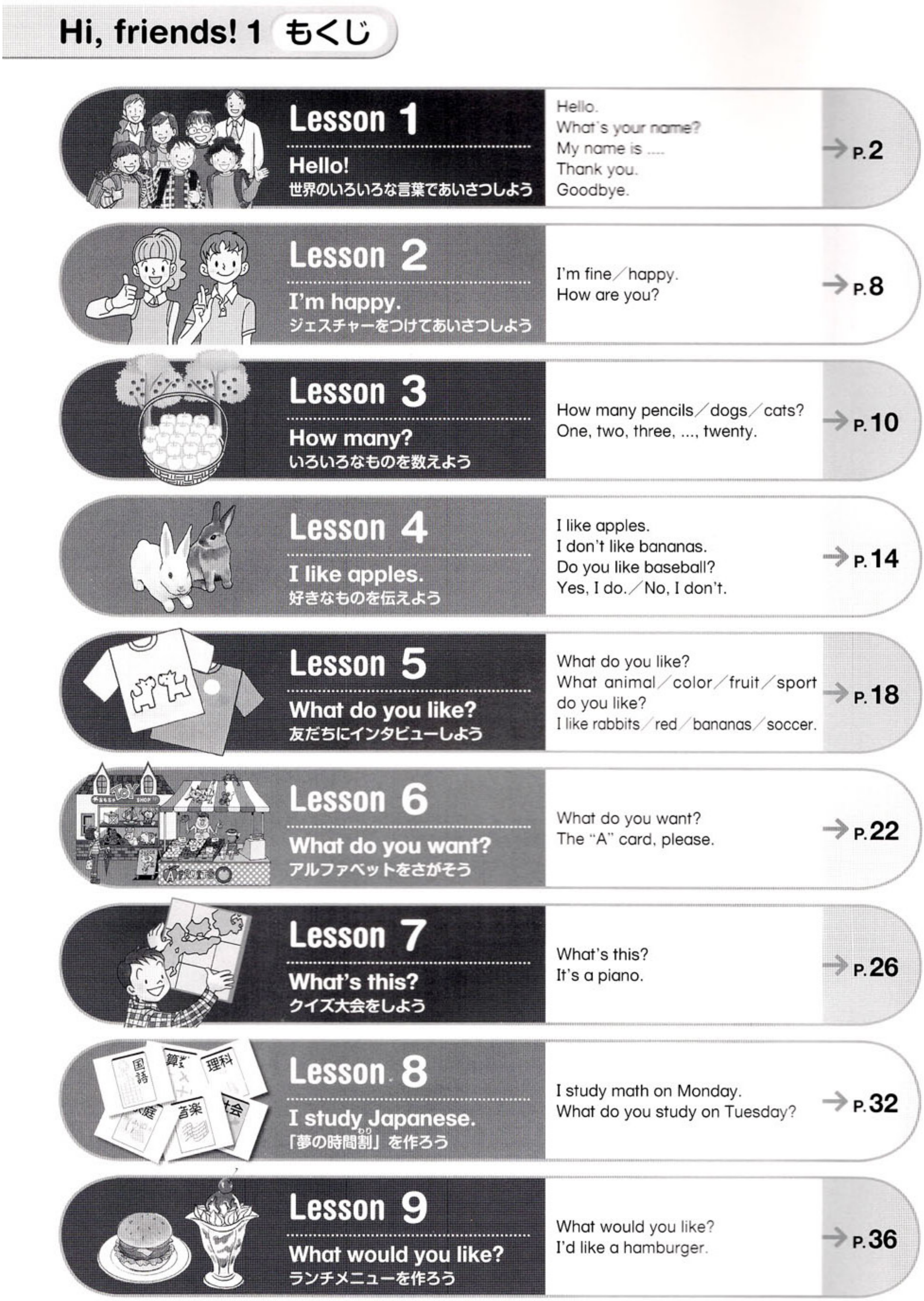
Working with Homeroom Teachers	SD	Disagree	Neither	Agree	SA
I plan and implement lessons.					
Comments:					
The homeroom teacher team teaches with me					
Comments:					
My homeroom teacher maintains order in my classes.					
Comments:					
My homeroom teacher teaches *Gaikokugo* when I'm not there.					
Comments:					
I would appreciate ALT HOMEROOM TEACHER training outside of school.					
Comments:					

Future of the Course

If the goal of the course was to shift from motivation to ability in English:

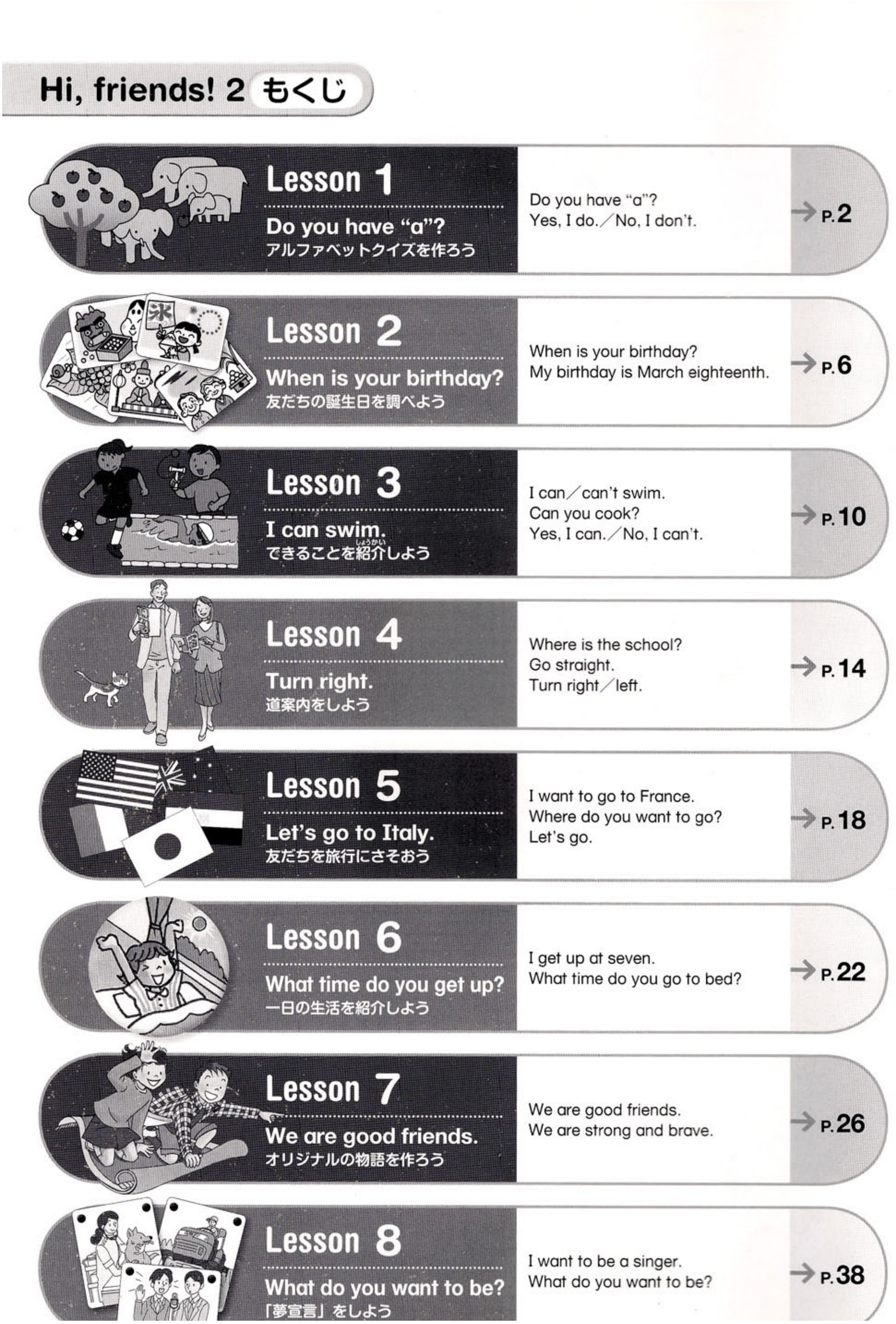
	SD	Disagree	Neither	Agree	SA
The course would need more grammar focus					
Comments:					
The course should maintain its communicative approach					
Comments:					
The course would need more variety of phrases					
Comments:					
The course wouldn't need to be changed					
Comments:					
The course would need more lesson time					
Comments:					
Homeroom teachers and ALTs would need to have additional training					
Comments:					
They would need more ALTs					
Comments:					
They would need to hire Japanese teachers of English for Elementary School					

Appendix B



Hi, friends! 1 もくじ

Appendix C



Hi, friends! 2 もくじ

Developing a Student-Planned Study Abroad Program

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This paper reports on a new study abroad program, "Investigating Diversity, Human Rights, and Civil Society in Japan and Australia", that is being developed by the Chuo University Faculty of Law in collaboration with the Centre for Peace and Conflict Studies (CPACS) at Sydney University. In the first section of the paper, a program coordinator at Chuo explains the principles of *agency*, *engagement* and *dialogue* informing the design of the program and then discusses some issues raised in a pilot program by this attempt to develop a student-directed, research-focused and fieldwork-based approach to study abroad. The four student participants in the pilot then discuss what they learned from their own individual research projects, as well as the process of arranging and conducting their own fieldwork in Sydney, on: the repatriation of Ainu and Aboriginal ancestral remains; health issues for asylum seekers; refugee resettlement; and LGBT activism and media coverage.

この論文は、中央大学と、シドニー大学平和紛争研究センター（CPACS）が共同で開発した新しいプログラム「日本とオーストラリアにおける、多文化主義・人権・市民社会の調査」について報告する。本稿の第一部では、中央大学のプログラムコーディネーターが、プログラムの企画について述べ、機関、取り組み、そして対話という論点について説明する。その後、学生主体、研究中心、フィールドワークを基礎とした留学へのアプローチという今回の試みによって、パイロットプログラムの中で提起された、いくつかの論点を検討する。次に、パイロットプログラムに参加した４人の学生が、各自のリサーチプロジェクトから学んだことを、シドニーのフィールドワークを手配し実施することから学んだことと併せて、考察する。

リサーチプロジェクト：アイヌとアボリジニの先祖の遺骨帰還、庇護希望者の健康問題、難民の再定住、LGBT活動とメディア報道

This paper reports on a new study abroad program, "Investigating Diversity, Human Rights, and Civil Society in Japan and Australia", being developed by the Chuo University Faculty of Law and the Centre for Peace and Conflict Studies (CPACS) at Sydney University. Reflecting on the pilot program in 2013/14, one of the coordinators at Chuo first outlines some issues raised by this attempt to create a student-directed, research-focused and fieldwork-based study abroad program. The four student participants

Nix, M., Kodama, H., Ito, R., So, Y, & Kawashima, N. (2015). Developing a student-planned study abroad program. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 134-140). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

then discuss what they learned from their individual research projects, and from arranging and conducting their own fieldwork in Sydney, on: repatriation of Ainu and Aboriginal ancestral remains; health issues for asylum seekers; refugee resettlement; and LGBT activism and media coverage. As well as indicating the challenges faced by students in doing fieldwork in English, these contributions show the importance for the students of developing comparative knowledge of their issues in Japan and Australia and focusing their research questions before going to Sydney, how their fieldwork interviews and meetings built on the Internet-based research they had done in Japan, and how they could also learn in a less structured way from just ‘being there’ in Sydney.

Mike Nix — Issues in Student-centred, Fieldwork-based Study Abroad

The “Investigating Diversity, Human Rights and Civil Society in Japan and Australia” program is designed to break with, “top-down, classroom-based templates for study abroad...explor[ing instead] a praxis for learning about and building peace with justice based on the principles of *agency*, *engagement* and *dialogue*” (Nix, M. & Blanchard L., with Ito, R., Kawashima, N., Kodama, S. and So, Y, 2014, p. 21). The pilot program consisted firstly of a semester of self-directed, mostly internet-based research, by the student participants at Chuo University on their research issues in both Japan and Australia. This was followed by a week of fieldwork research in Sydney, including interviews and visits to NGOs, human rights activists and academics, arranged and conducted by the students themselves. The pilot raised a number of important issues about the implementation of the principles of *agency*, *engagement* and *dialogue* in future programs that I will now overview briefly.

One important insight is that agency in fieldwork also requires substantial reflection if it is to produce significant development and transformation of knowledge through research. Students had up to five individual interviews, as well as group fieldwork activities, during the week and as a result not enough time to adequately review, discuss or make sense of their learning. We also found that preparing for fieldwork in Sydney in a way that enables students to really engage with their interviewees requires the integrated development of i) *knowledge* about their issue, the organizations they visit, and Australian society, ii) *relationships* with partners at CPACS and the organizations and activists we visit in fieldwork, and iii) *language and literacy* for doing fieldwork effectively in English (an under-emphasized component in the pilot). One other crucial realization is that developing dialogue with these various partners requires the Chuo students to develop expert knowledge about their issues in the Japanese context so that they can engage in an exchange of knowledge during fieldwork. Another lesson from the pilot is the extremely valuable role that graduate student mentors at CPACS can play in supporting the Chuo students, not just by providing local knowledge and help with conducting interviews, but also as near peer role models of becoming-expert researchers and as critical but non-judgmental discussants of the Chuo students’ research, roles that teachers cannot play so well. These principles and issues are illustrated in the accounts that follow by the four student participants of their own research projects and learning on the program.

Hisako Kodama — Repatriation of Ancestral Remains for Aboriginal and Ainu People

In this section, I look at some key differences that my research on the return of ancestral remains to indigenous people in Japan and Australia highlighted, relating to the overall awareness of indigenous people in society, to the contribution of museums and universities in repatriation, and to the role of indigenous people themselves in decision-making about repatriation. At the start of my research, I was interested in the legal aspects of the repatriation of ancestral remains, because in Japan, more than 1,600 Ainu remains are kept by universities, and, in one case, several Ainu people have taken legal action for the return of their ancestral remains from Hokkaido University (Scott, 2013). In Australia, by contrast, more than 7,200 indigenous remains are being or have been repatriated. I wanted to know why Aboriginal people have been able to negotiate with museums and universities without taking legal action and to learn from the Australian situation how Ainu people can also have their remains returned. During my fieldwork in Sydney, I met Philip Gordon, Aboriginal Heritage Project Officer at the Australian Museum, Denise Donlon, Curator of the J.L. Shellshear Museum and Matt Poll, Curator of the Indigenous Heritage and Repatriation Project, the latter two both located at the University of Sydney. I also visited La Perouse Aboriginal community in Botany Bay, where some ancestral remains have been repatriated with support from the Australian Museum and the Shellshear Museum.

The biggest contrast I found is the degree of recognition of differences between indigenous people and other people in Japan and Australia, which I had no idea about until I went to Sydney. In Japan, Ainu people seem distant and vague for most other people, or are thought to have already disappeared. But in Australia, Aboriginal people are a much closer, current issue. Visiting a Blue Mountains preschool, where children learn about indigenous issues, I understood how greater awareness of Aboriginal issues has developed in Australia. Philip Gordon said that most people in Sydney know about indigenous issues and have their own views on indigenous people and policy, whether for or against. However, most Japanese people, who have less opportunity to learn about Ainu people and other minorities who live in Japan, have not taken this step, which I think is a necessary preparation phase for repatriation based on negotiation.

I also learned in Sydney about the active role of museums and universities in the repatriation process. In the repatriation of remains to La Perouse, the Australian Museum helped locate keeping places in the community, and the Shellshear Museum helped identify whether the remains came from the La Perouse area. In Japan, direct cooperation between Ainu people and universities is difficult because, although the Ministry of Education has investigated the situation of Ainu remains at universities, policy decisions on Ainu issues, including repatriation, are made by a government council on Ainu issues.

A related point is the participation of indigenous people, like Philip Gordon and Matt Poll, who work in repatriation processes and organisations at different levels of society in Australia. The members of the Advisory Committee for Indigenous Repatriation in Australia are all Aboriginal or Torres Straits Islander people but the Government Council for Ainu Policy Promotion in Japan has few Ainu members, and until recently had none. The involvement in repatriation processes of indigenous people themselves is important in Japan too for finding a suitable approach for all interested parties.

Arranging interviews was challenging for me but I could exchange information with three repatriation experts about the Aboriginal and Ainu situations, and learn many points about repatriation in Australia, which I couldn't find from secondary research. I also learned a lot from conversations with Juliet Bennett, a PhD student at Sydney University, who supported me in all of my interviews. Fieldwork enabled me to learn in unexpected places as well, such as through an impromptu conversation with a group of young Aboriginal men on a bus.

Ryo Ito — Health Issues of Asylum Seekers in Japan and Australia

In this project, I researched the health situation of asylum seekers and the roles of government, NPOs and NGOs on this issue. I report here on differences and similarities in the situation in Japan and Australia, particularly the work of NGOs on this issue and media coverage of it, and on the impact that meeting refugees themselves had on my knowledge about asylum seekers and my sense of connection with them. From research in Japan, I learned that the biggest health issues for asylum seekers are mental health problems, caused mainly by persecution and torture in their home country, worries about family and the future, and detention in the destination country. Through my research, I became interested in how detention centres worsen health problems, especially in the area of mental health, because of the lack of freedom (detention is like prison), exercise and privacy, as well as poor medical care from centre staff, and the stress of indefinite detention (Ito, 2004).

My fieldwork in Sydney included meetings with Pam Blacker, a nurse at the Asylum Seekers Centre, Safdar Ahmed of the Refugee Art Project and Lesley Carnus of the Refugee Language Program. One expected similarity with Japan is that many asylum seekers in Australia suffer serious mental health problems which detention makes worse. One difference is that Japan only detains men but Australia detains women and children as well. Another contrast is that there is no financial support from the Australian government for asylum seekers' medical care in the community, until they receive some kind of protection visa, whereas there is some support in Japan although it is insufficient. As a result, perhaps, medical support from NPOs, like the Asylum Seekers Centre, is more important and widespread in Australia.

The Refugee Art Project provides art classes for detainees at the Villawood Detention Centre near Sydney, holds exhibitions of refugees' art, and publishes art "zines" by refugees. Its organizer, Safdar Ahmed, said that art is useful as therapy but cannot cure the problems of asylum seekers in detention, because the basic problem is detention itself. However, art can give asylum seekers a voice and raise public awareness of their stories, which are not generally reported in the media.

I also talked to asylum seekers themselves at the Language Program and Blue Mountains Refugee Support Group. Before this, I had seen refugees just as people in the news fleeing from poverty who had no connection to me. I had no knowledge of their individual histories so they seemed to live in a different world. I realized from talking with them that they are ordinary people not so different from me, and that many refugees are well-educated, something that I had not known because of the negative media coverage. Many people only know about refugees through hostile or inaccurate media coverage, and do not hear the actual voices and experiences of asylum seekers. So I have learned from my fieldwork that chances to actually talk to asylum seekers, and projects like Refugee Art Project that help them have a voice, are very important for changing the understanding of refugees and their situation.

Meeting refugees was more positive for me than doing formal fieldwork interviews with NPO staff. Interviews were very difficult to conduct in English because I lacked knowledge of technical terms, such as names of diseases, and basic knowledge about the organizations. I could learn from this experience, though, because I felt like an outsider in Australia and could sympathize with refugees who had language problems.

Yumi So — Resettlement Programs for Refugees in Australia and Japan

The launch of the Japanese refugee resettlement program in 2010 is significant both because Japan accepts so few other refugees and because it is the first Asian country to create a program of this kind (Simone, 2012). Australia, by contrast, has a refugee resettlement program with a long history, that accepts a large number of refugees, and is well-developed (as opposed to its harsh treatment of asylum seekers arriving without refugee status). The aim of my research was to find out what Japan can learn from Australia's resettlement system, particularly in terms of collaboration between government and civil society organizations, and language support, two aspects of the Japanese program that have been criticized. Following up on comparative research in Japan about the Australian and Japanese programs, my fieldwork in Sydney included visits to two resettlement organizations, Settlement Services International and Auburn Diversity Services, as well as the Asylum Seekers Centre, Refugee Art Project, Refugee Language Program and Blue Mountains Refugee Support Group. In this section, I focus on what I learned about the relationship between government and NGOs and the role of "former refugees" in refugee resettlement work, and on language support for refugees.

The most important insight from my fieldwork is the much stronger collaboration between government and civil society in Australia, and the much greater role given to NGOs in the resettlement process. The Japanese government has been criticized for trying to provide all resettlement support through a semi-governmental organization, the Refugee Headquarters, and for not providing sufficient support for refugees. As a result, Japanese civil society organizations have to support refugees without receiving government funding (Simone, 2012). The Australian government, however, funds and works closely with organizations such as Settlement Services International and Auburn Diversity Services. Staff at Settlement Services International explained, for example, that the government contacts them before refugees arrive in Australia, which allows them to arrange for somebody who can speak the refugees' mother tongue to meet them at the airport. I realized that this approach effectively combines government financial support with the skills of workers in civil society organizations.

In terms of language support, it is very important for newly arrived refugees to have assistance in their first language until they can learn the language of the country they settle in. From this perspective, employing so-called "former refugees" who are fluent in the language of their country of origin or ethnicity at refugee support organizations seems effective. In Australia, unlike Japan, many "former refugees" are employed to assist refugees. Even though this is hard to achieve in Japan, where the number of migrants and refugees accepted is much lower, I think that Japan could also aim at this. To learn English, refugees in Australia can join the Adult Migrant English Program, which provides up to 510 hours of free English training (Australian Government, Department of Immigration and Border Protection, 2014). The Japanese language training provided by the settlement program in Japan is less than this, even though refugees generally arrive knowing no Japanese, and there is no national language support program for migrants in Japan that refugees can benefit from.

It was daunting for me to interview people who are professionals in the field of helping refugees, but it turned out they were very interested in the situation of refugees in Japan. Thus, as well as gaining important information about Australia, I was able to share my knowledge about refugee resettlement in Japan, and I felt I could have interesting discussions with my interviewees, not just ask them questions about their work. Meeting people actually working in settlement support groups enabled me to learn about the details of their relationship with the government, and also made me see for the first time the role "former refugees" play in assisting more recent refugees.

Nozomu Kawashima — LGBT Activism and Media Coverage in Japan and Australia

In this section, I discuss the role of LGBT (lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender) parades, new forms of Internet-based media, and NGO activism in the promotion of LGBT rights, especially marriage equality. From my research before visiting Sydney, I learned that the situation for LGBT people in Japan is difficult. Japan does not allow gay marriage and there is little LGBT activism on this or other issues. The Tokyo Rainbow Pride LGBT parade is small, and not well known by people outside the LGBT community. In 2013, 2100 people participated and 12,000 people watched the parade (Japan Times, 2013), which was covered by web-based media, but not by NHK or the main Japanese newspapers.

In contrast, the Sydney Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras Parade is supported by the government of New South Wales, which tries to attract many tourists to Sydney from all over the world. In 2013, 10,000 people participated in the parade, hundreds of thousands of people watched it, and it was covered live by mainstream Australian television.

These differences raised questions for me about how Mardi Gras in Australia became a national event, and if it contributes to the advancement of gay rights. I plan to become a journalist so I was particularly interested in how the media contributed to the growth of Mardi Gras, and whether it had changed Mardi Gras from politics into entertainment, as some people have argued (Copland, n.d.). In my fieldwork in Sydney, I investigated Mardi Gras's influence on the marriage equality debate in Australia, and how new media coverage can support LGBT rights. As well as attending the Mardi Gras parade, I also interviewed two LGBT web-based media journalists, Andrew

Potts and Matt Akersten, the director of the NGO Australia Marriage Equality, Rodney Croome, and CPACS Director, Jake Lynch who specializes in Peace Journalism.

One interesting discovery is that Mardi Gras is still a political protest. In the parade, I saw many "marriage equality" placards or banners, and I could feel the passion for equality from many people there. According to Andrew Potts of Gay Star News, many school kids participate in the parade, which helps sweep away their stereotypes of LGBT people.

I also learned that the political situation for marriage equality in Australia is still difficult. Even though Australia is said to be a "gay friendly country", the law does not allow gay people to marry yet. According to Rodney Croome of Australian Marriage Equality, "understanding" gay people and "taking action" for them are different phenomena. Although 60% of Australians support marriage equality, it does not directly affect the majority of people (who are straight), so they focus on other problems. That is why Prime Minister Tony Abbott can avoid dialogue on marriage equality. However, journalists I interviewed said that we have to wait longer to see whether Abbott is going to take action on this issue.

My third finding is that web-based media can involve LGBT people in collective action for their rights. According to Matt Akersten from the Same Same website, the big advantage of this type of media is that people can comment easily online so journalists can get feedback and suggestions from many people. Ease of Internet access means more LGBT people, and supporters, can have a voice, learn about LGBT news around the world, connect among themselves, and keep advocating for equality in society.

The combination of book-based research in Japan and practical learning via fieldwork in Australia was really fruitful. The research in Japan is important, but experiencing the situation in Australia for myself was more important because I could make the interesting discoveries above. Thus, fieldwork research helped me understand the issues from diverse perspectives. Participating in the 2014 PanSIG conference was also valuable, and helped me arrange my ideas and discoveries. Explaining my research was a great opportunity to spread knowledge and get people thinking about these issues.

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Bilingualism in Children: Facts and Fictions

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The idea of raising bilingual children is both appealing and possible for more and more families these days (Rosenberg, 2006). Based on the author's experience, this paper explores attitudes toward each language, as expressed by both children and their parents. These attitudes are discussed in terms of the development of one or both of the languages. After briefly explaining two types of childhood bilingualism and Taeschner's bilingual development model, several myths regarding bilingual acquisition are discussed and opposing viewpoints are given. These include possible confusion from learning multiple languages at once, code-switching, the best time to start learning multiple languages, and the one parent-one language policy. This is followed by the author sharing the real-life hurdles he has encountered thus far while raising his 3-year-old son to become bilingual in Japanese and English, as well as some helpful ways to encourage bilingualism in young children.

子供をバイリンガルに育てるという考え方は、今日、ますます多くの家族にとって魅力的で現実的なものとなっている。確かに、バイリンガルに育つことは、今日のグローバル・ビレッジでは有利である。しかしながら、本人や周囲の人たちが取る取得中の言語への態度は、その両方または片方の言語の発達に大きな影響を与える可能性がある。本論では、幼児の二カ国語使用の二つのタイプとTaeschnerのバイリンガル開発モデルを概観した後、バイリンガル能力の習得にまつわる根拠のない社会通念を取り上げ、その誤りを指摘する。取り上げるのは、同時に多言語を学ぶことによる混乱の可能性、コードスイッチングの問題、多言語学習を始める時期の問題、及びone-parent-one language (OPOL)の取り組み方である。最後に筆者が3歳の息子を日本語と英語のバイリンガルに育てる中で直面した実生活での問題と、小さな子供のやる気を引き出しバイリンガルにするための有効な方法についても紹介する。

In the United States, according to the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (2009), 20% of school-age children between ages 5-17 spoke a language other than English at home as of 2007. In addition, there are as many bilingual children as there are monolingual children worldwide (Paradis, Genessee, & Crago, 2011). However, attitudes toward each language expressed by the parents, other family members, the school, the community and especially the children themselves can greatly affect the development of one or both of the languages being learned (Rosenberg, 1996). With this in mind, it is important to be able to call into question common concerns and deflate outright myths about bilingualism that are commonly expressed by those around children in bilingual environments when parents are considering whether or not to raise their children to become bilinguals. After briefly explaining two types of childhood bilingualism (sequential and

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concurrent) and Taeschner's bilingual development model, several myths regarding bilingual acquisition are addressed. This is then followed by the author sharing the real-life hurdles he has encountered thus far while raising his 3-year-old son to become bilingual in Japanese and English, as well as some helpful ways to encourage bilingualism in young children.

Two Types of Childhood Bilingualism

Although human beings are able to learn a second language at any time in their lives, it is generally accepted that children tend to develop more native-like pronunciation when learning a second language before the period of adolescence. This learning of a second language can be done either simultaneously with the first language, or sequentially with the second language being learnt after the first language has already been established (McLaughlin, 1984). Rosenberg suggests that many researchers use the age of three to separate simultaneous and sequential language learning (Rosenberg, 1996). De Houwer, however, looks at other researchers, asserting that simultaneous bilingualism takes place in children who are addressed in two spoken languages before the age of two and who continue to be regularly addressed in those languages up until the final stages of learning (De Houwer, 1996).

Sequential bilingualism usually involves learning a second language formally through school or language classes. This type of bilingualism occurs not just in young children, but is the quintessential way young adults and older people become proficient in a second language. However, achieving linguistic competence comparable to a native speaker is more difficult when the language is learned after the "critical period" (Johnson & Newport, 1989).

With simultaneous bilingualism, there are four main influential factors. The first is the parents' ability in one or more of the languages their child is trying to learn. Sometimes one or both of the parents can only speak the language of the home and not of the community, which can cause difficulties if the child tries to use the school/community language inside the home with that particular parent. The second factor is what language the parents actually use with the child. Even if one or both of the parents can speak both of the languages that their child is trying to learn, each parent decides which language to speak with their child and in what situations. Another important factor is the language(s) that other family members, especially siblings and grandparents, speak with the child. Even if one particular language has been decided as the "home" language by the parents, siblings can often be found conversing in the school/community language because that is what they are used to speaking and hearing most of the day. The final factor is the language(s) that the child uses in the community. This is not necessarily the same language as that used in either the home or at school. Children who want to build bonds with other local community members, especially children their own age, have special motivation to make sure they know the language of that community in order to feel like they fit in.

Taeschner's Bilingual Development Model

Many researchers have attempted to develop a model to explain the processes involved during the simultaneous acquisition of two languages during childhood. However, the most influential is considered to be the model proposed by Taeschner (summarized succinctly in Ford, 2001). Taeschner's model consists of three phases, with each phase including certain characteristics and varying ages of children. Some children may stay in one phase longer than other children, and some characteristics might overlap between phases.

In the first phase, the child has one lexical system which represents both languages. In other words, even if the child knows the same word for something in two different languages, the child has not made the distinction at that point in his learning. For instance, a child might use the English word "bread" for the bread he or she eats at breakfast, but the Japanese word *pan* (bread) for the rolls eaten during lunch time at nursery school. Also, in this phase, a child may blend words from two (or more) languages by saying such things as "bread, *kudasai*" or "*pan*, please" (both meaning "bread, please").

During the second phase, the child slowly begins to separate his vocabularies and use the appropriate language in the appropriate situation. For example, if each parent speaks their own native language to the child, usually a child in phase two will respond back using the same language as the interlocutor. However, the child's language still often reflects one grammar system, so several grammatical mistakes can often be heard, such as "There is book, mine" instead of "There is my book."

In the final phase of language development, the child has achieved almost complete separation of the two languages and will usually speak to others (not just the parents) in the appropriate language. The child is also able to more effectively differentiate between the grammar systems of the two languages he speaks and is more cognizant of the fact they have two distinct languages at their disposal. This process can sometimes take several years, depending on the child.

Facts and Fictions

When deciding whether to raise one's child to become a bilingual, there are of course many factors to consider. Although the advantages of bilingualism (knowing two cultures, better thinking skills, being able to converse with a wider variety of people, job opportunities, etc.) have been widely documented (see, for example, Harding-Esch & Riley, 2003) and seem to easily outweigh the negatives (possible language confusion, time/cost commitment, etc.), there are many outright myths that are being clung to even in today's information age.

Many parents worry that bilingualism may have a negative effect on their children's development and questions about the "side effects" of bilingualism are often raised (Arnberg, 1987, and Cunningham, 2011). Some parents assert that their child will get confused learning more than one language or that a child will get the languages mixed up, so it's better to wait until one language is firmly established before learning another. While it's true that code mixing often occurs in young children being raised bilingually, research suggests it can be a natural, harmless, and often temporary phenomenon. For example, children may use code mixing as a temporary relief strategy, especially with respect to the borrowing of lexical items known in only one of the languages (Gawlitzek-Maiwald & Tracy, 1996).

Some of those who are raising their child bilingually will insist that the *one parent-one language* method (OPOL) is best. Despite the fact that it is a very common method, used with children in families with parents of different nationalities, there is nothing wrong with parents speaking to their children in another language. Being natural should always come first and there is never just one right way to communicate with a child. Similarly, some would contend that if a person wants to raise their child to speak the majority language, then they should stop speaking the home language with their child. However, that should not be necessary because children who have a strong foundation in their home language can still easily learn a second or third language outside the home.

Many parents fret that bilingualism causes language delay or that the possibility of subtractive bilingualism (i.e., when learning a second language interferes with the learning of the first language; see Lambert, 1975) outweigh that of additive bilingualism (i.e., addition of L2 at no cost to L1 proficiency). While language delay is a distinct possibility with children who are being raised in a bilingual environment, it is nearly impossible to know if the delay is due to confusion with the two languages or if there is an underlying developmental issue that would have manifested with the child, even in a monolingual environment. Although there is always a possibility of interference from the L2 when learning the L1, the long-term benefits of becoming bilingual often outweigh any short-term risks.

Finally, another often-heard misconception is that an individual must learn a second language as a young child in order to become bilingual. It is true that children need a lot of exposure to a language to become actively bilingual, so it makes sense that the earlier you can expose your child to a language, the better. However, although obtaining fluency in a language is much easier during one's early years (critical period theory), it can still be done at any point in one's life. Famous figures such as Penelope Cruz or Arnold

Schwarzenegger, for example, are claimed to be adult learners of English. Some may contend that a person is not truly bilingual unless the person is equally proficient in both languages. However, according to Paradis (2010), it seems to be rare to find a person who is equally proficient in both of their spoken languages because most bilinguals have a dominant language, which is often influenced by the majority language of the society where the individual lives.

Real-life Hurdles Raising Bilingual Children

The most commonly touted benefits to being bilingual were mentioned in the previous section. There are, however, many real-life challenges to raising bilingual children that need to be carefully considered before anyone should make the final decision to embark on the path of raising their child bilingually. I have encountered four big hurdles thus far in raising my 3-year-old son to become simultaneously bilingual in English and Japanese.

First, both my parents and my wife's parents seem to be quite concerned with my son's acquisition of each respective native language. Since my family currently lives in Japan, my parents back in the U.S. seem especially worried that my son will not be able to "fit in" with American society if he ever decides to live in the U.S. in the future. Although I myself, as a researcher of bilingualism, have tried to assuage concerns on both sides, non-bilinguals often have trouble realizing that a child can easily learn two languages at the same time as long as there is sufficient exposure to both languages.

Second, although my wife and I made the decision to put our son into an international school for his pre-school/kindergarten years, we live in an area where there are very few foreigners and thus the number of children whose parents are both Japanese is quite overwhelming. This results in many of the children speaking in Japanese at the international school although the curriculum is English-based.

Third, it has been tough at times being able to give enough input in the minority language (English in my son's case, since my family lives in Japan). I often find that I have a lack of energy when it comes to reading books and doing other language-orientated activities before bedtime. I am usually able to overcome this problem by continually reminding myself that I am one of the only sources of real English input for my son. From my perspective, my son's future English ability will likely rely heavily on my own daily efforts to interact with him.

Finally, although I always speak to my son (and he to me) in English, my wife often code-mixes in the middle of utterances. We have different opinions about the pros and cons of code-mixing. My wife's ability in English is limited and because of this, she often uses her limited English vocabulary to try to communicate with my son by mixing English words with Japanese grammar. One such example of this is: "Get up suru no?" ("Are you going to get up?). As mentioned previously, code-mixing often occurs in children who are in the process of simultaneous bilingualism as a natural, harmless, and temporary thing. However, when adults code-switch with children, neither language is being modeled well, which may have consequences for linguistic development. The consensus of experts seems to be that while children being raised bilingually are learning both languages, it's better if they're exposed to each of them in a monolingual setting (Grosjean, 2010). Put more simply, children learn by example, so the less mixing you do, the less mixing your child will do until they become proficient in both languages.

Helpful Ways to Encourage Bilingualism in Young Children

Human beings learn languages in a variety of ways. Monolingual children can easily pick up their first language through the input of their parents and by playing and learning with other children. However, it is a much bigger challenge for young children to become bilingual because there is the matter of how much quality input the child is getting in each language. Having a native speaker of one or both of the languages in their immediate environment is certainly helpful, but not necessary to grow up bilingually. There are many things parents (or relatives, friends, etc.) can do to help raise a child bilingually.

First of all, kids learn best when doing things naturally, and playing with other kids in either language is fun and a great way to learn the art of communication. Organizing fun play dates is beneficial for all parties involved. Doing such things as singing and dancing during these get-togethers is rewarding because kids often do not feel inhibited the way many adults do and can learn good intonation and rhythm through songs. My own family strives to do at least one play date a month.

Utilizing the power of family living abroad is also very important. This is crucial not only for building relationships with other family members, but also for learning the culture behind the language. I make it a point to take my son back home to visit his relatives in the U.S. for three or four weeks during my summer vacation every year. If trips abroad seem cost-prohibitive, keeping connected by calling family overseas often works just as well. Using free methods such as Skype (which also has video capability) has made keeping in contact with friends and family easier than ever.

Reading books is also essential because there is probably no better way to pick up new vocabulary and expressions than with books. By making use of their child's interests, parents can try to find books that incorporate new language (especially the minority one) and at the same time hold their child's interest. Additionally, reading stories to young children and then having them play pretend (role-play) is also a great way to get language input. The stories used don't necessarily have to be ones written in books. Making up stories together, whether it is through writing them down or just saying them out loud, can be just as beneficial.

Although some parents might not be keen on taking advantage of technology such as video, TV shows, and games when raising their child, it cannot be denied that they are all great methods to obtain authentic language input. Quality one-on-one time should not be ignored, but all kids want their "alone" time once in a while. Educational shows such as *Sesame Street* are especially desirable. Since each parent likely has a different view on the use of technology for learning, it is essential to talk about it together, set realistic limits, and then stick to them. For example, my family's policy is to allow my son to watch TV or videos only during play time after school or while in the car.

Finally, enthusiasm does matter. Try to be encouraging and fight the urge to correct mistakes. Although the amount of language input is important, it's also just as important to have fun to keep the child interested and motivated to keep learning in both languages.

Concluding Remarks

This paper has attempted to address several common myths that detractors of bilingualism often cite during discussions on whether bilingualism is beneficial or not for young children. In my experience, these detractors often include close family members, but they can also be such people as counselors, medical professionals, or even educators. It can be difficult for parents raising their children bilingually to have others call into question what they are trying to accomplish (and parents may even have questions of their own), especially when there are already a plethora of other issues they are facing as parents.

Although the road to bilingualism can often seem to be a long and arduous one, full of obstacles that must be overcome, the resulting benefits to the child can often make such struggles seem trivial in the end. I myself am still early on in the journey of helping my son to become bilingual, which was an opportunity I was never afforded as a child. By staying positive and true to my mission, I believe my son will be able to accomplish things in his future both personally and professionally that I myself can only dream of.

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The Repair of Unintelligible Pronunciation to Intelligible Pronunciation between English as a Lingua Franca Speakers in Japan

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This is a qualitative study that examines the relationship between intelligibility and pronunciation in English as a Lingua Franca interactions (Jenkins, 2000; Matsumoto, 2011). This study claims that speakers of English as a Lingua Franca manifest which aspects of pronunciation are intelligible and unintelligible during interactions through the process by which they repair unintelligible pronunciations into intelligible pronunciations. Examining a corpus of repair sequences in Skype conversations between English as a Lingua Franca speakers in Japan, this study concludes that one communication strategy that speakers of English as a Lingua Franca perform when confronted with a miscommunication is to adjust their pronunciation in order to make their pronunciation more intelligible. This study concludes that vowel quality is the most common cause of unintelligible pronunciation and that its adjustment is the most common means to change unintelligible pronunciation into intelligible pronunciation.

この質的研究は国際通用語としての英語における明瞭性と発音の関係を検討する（Jenkins 2000; Matsumoto 2011）。本研究は、国際通用語としての英語の話者は不明瞭な発音を明瞭な発音に修復する過程で、発音のどの音素が不明瞭か、明瞭かということをを現すと主張する。スカイプでの国際通用語としての英語のコーパスにおける発音による誤解を特定し、発音による誤解はいかに克服されたかということを分析した。その結果、国際通用語としての英語の話者は発音による誤解に直面する際、不明瞭な発音を明瞭な発音に修復し、誤解を乗り越えることができることが分かった。発音による誤解を招く最も多い原因は母音の音質の間違いで、不明瞭な発音を明瞭な発音にするには、母音の音質の修復が必要だったと本研究は結論づける。

This qualitative study, based on conversation analysis (CA), examines the relationship between intelligibility and pronunciation in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). A study of intelligible pronunciation in ELF is warranted because ELF is the most common type of English in the world (Jenkins, 2000, 2014; Ostler, 2010). ELF is defined as an interaction conducted in English among people from different first language backgrounds for whom English is the communicative medium (Seidlhofer, 2011). Most English communication today is conducted among people from different first language backgrounds for whom English is simply a communicative tool, not a

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native language (Jenkins, 2014).

The fact that most people who use English are ELF speakers, not native speakers, has direct implications for the pedagogy of English pronunciation in Japan. Most Japanese will become ELF speakers and will likely use English with other ELF speakers, not native speakers. This fact problematizes the idea that native speaker standards of pronunciation are broadly applicable or even the most pedagogically utilitarian. This paper examines the repair of pronunciation among ELF speakers in Japan, which will elucidate which pronunciations students orient to as unintelligible, and how the students repaired pronunciations in order to make them intelligible. This study will answer the following research questions: 1) What is the most common cause of unintelligible pronunciation in ELF in Japan? 2) How do ELF speakers in Japan overcome miscommunications caused by unintelligible pronunciation?

Previous Studies

This section has two purposes. The first subsection will introduce the concept of intelligibility. Then, in the second subsection, how researchers have assessed intelligibility will be introduced. Because previous assessments are inadequate, a CA-based assessment of intelligibility will be offered.

Intelligibility

Intelligibility refers to the comprehension of words and utterances. If the interlocutor understands the pronunciation, then it was intelligible (Munro, Derwing, & Morton, 2006; Nelson, 2011). Intelligibility is not an index of how “pleasant” pronunciation sounds. As such, intelligibility is an assessment of how effective the pronunciation is at conveying information, not of how approximate to a standard of aural beauty it is. Intelligible speakers can be understood, but could still use pronunciation that is considered odd or strange.

Assessing Intelligibility

A common means to assess intelligibility is a dictation task (Munro et al., 2006; Osimk, 2009). The idea behind a dictation task assessment of intelligibility is that the extent to which someone can dictate a message equates to the extent of the intelligibility of the message. Unfortunately, dictation assessments do not elucidate what ELF speakers do once they have encountered a miscommunication; that is, they do not reveal the pragmatics through which ELF speakers resolve a miscommunication. Accordingly, dictation assessments will not be used in this study.

Fortunately, there is a method that both assesses intelligibility and demonstrates how ELF speakers overcome miscommunications. Matsumoto (2011) argues convincingly that examining repair sequences in which pronunciation is subject to repair reveals which pronunciations are unintelligible and intelligible. The grounds for such claims are the reactions of the interlocutors: once a word has been oriented to as unintelligible, one strategy with which ELF speakers can overcome miscommunications is to adjust the pronunciation. If the interlocutor that oriented to the previous version of the pronunciation as unintelligible orients to the new version of the pronunciation as intelligible, then it is permissible to claim that the former pronunciation was unintelligible and that the latter pronunciation was intelligible. Furthermore, a comparison of the phonemes in the two pronunciations can reveal which phonemes were the trouble sources and which phonemes restored intelligibility. This process is called segmental repair analysis, or the analysis of the repair of pronunciation, and it will be used in this study.

Methods

This study adopts the transcription conventions of CA (see the Appendix for transcription conventions). However, because the focus is on segmental repair analysis, this study amends the standard CA transcription conventions in two ways: 1) words that are subject to repair are transcribed into the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) to allow for phonetic analysis; 2) because IPA uses brackets to indicate phonetic transcription, and because CA also uses brackets but uses them to indicate simultaneous speech, this study amends the CA transcription symbols for simultaneous speech to braces. Simultaneous speech in IPA will be marked with braces and brackets.

The corpus is a collection of repair sequences gathered from Skype conversations between ELF speakers who were either Japanese university students or foreign exchange students at a large university in Japan, all of whom were taking general English communication classes. The Skype conversations were homework assignments. Although the topics of the conversations were specified, the teacher was not present during the recordings, and many students veered off topic during their interactions. As such, the data is replete with natural exchanges. The corpus contains 134 conversations among ELF speakers for a total of over forty-six hours of interaction.

All names used in the transcripts are pseudonyms. All recordings are used with the permission of both students. Although the nationality, gender, and academic specialty of each participant is listed in the introduction to each extract, this is not a tacit claim that the participants oriented to nationality, gender, or academic major as a relevant parameter of the interaction.

Results

In this section, we will examine three representative instances of miscommunication between ELF speakers. First, we will identify the words to which ELF speakers orient as unintelligible and subject to repair. Then, we will examine the progression of the repair sequences to assess what phonetic modifications the ELF speakers make in order to change unintelligible pronunciations into intelligible pronunciations.

In the first example, Kei, a male Japanese university student who majors in economics, is talking to Huang, a female Taiwanese exchange student whose majors in Japanese. They were talking about the Taiwanese winter, which in turn led to the exchange shown in Extract 1.

```
Extract 1:

 01  Kei:    whate:. (0.3) in winter ↑what is the  temperature?
 02  Huang:  hm::. (1.1) [tʃwʌnti:]. (0.2) {>something.<}
 03  Kei:                                  {[tʃwʌnti].  }
 04  Huang:  around [tʃwʌnti].
 05  Kei:    [θɛɹti]?
 06  Huang:  >[tʃwʌnti].< >[tʃwʌnti].<
 07  Kei:    [ˈpʌnti]?
 08  Huang:  hm.
 09          (0.9)
 10  Kei:    [pʌnti]. wha- what do you mean? [pʌnti]?
 11  Huang:  [pʌnti]?
 12  Kei:    [ˈpʌnti]?
 13  Huang:  [ˈtʃwʌ:nti:], (0.1) {°degrees°     }
 14  Kei:                        {[↑tʃwɛ]- ah.} [↑tʃwɛ]- [tʃwɛnti]?
 15  Huang:  hm
 16  Kei:    ah. [tʃwɛnti]. okay:. sorry:.=
 17  Huang:                                 =yeah.
```

In lines one and two, Kei asks a question, and Huang answers it, articulating "twenty" as [tʃwʌntiː]. But in line three Kei orients to [tʃwʌntiː] as unintelligible. In line four, Huang subjects [tʃwʌntiː] to self-repair. In line five, Kei subjects the previous utterance to other-repair. In line six, Huang does not affirm the candidate repair, and repeats [tʃwʌnti] twice. In line seven, Kei again offers a candidate repair pronunciation, [ˈpʌnti], which Huang affirms. Nominally, the repair sequence has been completed because Huang confirmed Kei's candidate repair pronunciation. However, in lines ten and twelve, Kei asks for explicit repair of [pʌnti] in spite of Huang's confirmation, and in line thirteen, Huang proffers the candidate repair pronunciation [ˈtʃwʌːntiː]. In line fourteen, Kei proffers the candidate repair pronunciation [tʃwɛnti]. In line fifteen, Huang again affirms the candidate repair pronunciation, and then in line sixteen, Kei deploys the discourse marker "ah," which displays a claim of moving from a state of not-understanding to a state of understanding (Heritage 1984), and shows that intelligibility has been reestablished.

This example demonstrates that ELF speakers can orient to pronunciations as unintelligible: Kei orients to Huang's pronunciation as unintelligible in lines three, five, seven, ten, and twelve. This example also shows that ELF speakers can adjust their pronunciation to change unintelligible pronunciations into intelligible pronunciations: Huang adjusts her pronunciation in lines four and six; Kei adjusts his pronunciation in lines seven and fourteen, and the candidate repair pronunciation in line fourteen leads to the restoration of intelligibility. Furthermore, the pronunciation oriented to as unintelligible, [tʃwʌnti], can be compared with the pronunciation that was oriented to as intelligible, [tʃwɛnti]. The difference between the pronunciations can be described as one of vowel quality; the difference between the vowel /ʌ/ and the vowel /ɛ/ is vowel quality. Accordingly, it can be said that the cause of unintelligibility was a vowel, and that the adjustment of a vowel restored intelligibility.

```
Extract 2:

 01  Mitsu:  °so°. (0.2) and you?
 02  Pan:    hn. [baɹbikjʊ] hhh.
 03          (0.2)
 04  Mitsu:  [pɑlpikjɯ]?
 05  Pan:    [baɹbiˈkjuː].
 06  Mitsu:  [pɑpikjɯ]?
 07  Pan:    hm:.
 08          (0.3)
 09  Mitsu:  ah [ˈbaɹbikjuː]?
 10  Pan:    hm:.
 11  Mitsu:  eh? but hhh. last week? you:: do:.=
 12  Pan:                                    =↑no. (0.1) the question is this week.
 13  Mitsu:  ah this week.
 14  Pan:    hn:.
 15  Mitsu:  oh.
 16  Pan:    yes.
```

Another example (Extract 2) will demonstrate the effectiveness of co-constructing intelligible pronunciation in ELF interactions. In this extract, Mitsu, a male Japanese university student who majors in pedagogy, and Pan, a Taiwanese exchange student who majors in Japanese, were discussing what activity each helped with at a party, which led to the following exchange.

In lines one and two, Mitsu asks a question, and Pan answers it, articulating "barbeque" as [baɹbikjʊ]. Next, in line four, Mitsu articulates [palpikjɯ], which subjects Pan's pronunciation to other-repair. Pan self-repairs in line five, articulating [baɹbiˈkjuː]. In line six, Mitsu again subjects Pan's pronunciation to other-repair. Then, in line seven, Pan affirms what she orients to as a candidate repair pronunciation. In line nine, Mitsu deploys the discourse marker "ah," which indicates that Mitsu has moved from a state of not-knowing to a state of knowing (Heritage 1984), and then proffers [ˈbaɹbikjuː] as a candidate repair pronunciation. In line ten, Pan again affirms the candidate repair pronunciation, which demonstrates that both Kei and Pan have accepted [ˈbaɹbikjuː] as an intelligible pronunciation. In lines eleven to sixteen, both Mitsu and Pan move to another sequence, which exhibits that the repair sequence and the superordinate question-answer sequence have been concluded.

The articulatory modifications made in this example accord with the changes made in the previous example. Pan self-repairs her pronunciation multiple times for Mitsu, and like the previous example, Pan adjusts vowel quality in order to make her pronunciation more intelligible. Pan also adjusts vowel quantity, or the length of the vowel, as well. Furthermore, Pan's repair of the /p/ phonemes in Mitsu's articulations back to /b/ phonemes is also significant. All of these changes contribute to the reestablishment of intelligibility.

The final example (Extract 3) further demonstrates that ELF speakers can adjust pronunciations to make them more intelligible. In the last example, Zhan, a male Chinese exchange student who majors in Japanese, and Isao, a male Japanese who majors in agriculture, were discussing Isao's computer, which led to the following exchange.

In line one, Zhan asks Isao what model his computer is, articulating "model" as [mʊdˡl̩]. In line two, however, Isao subjects [mʊdˡl̩] to repair, proffering [mɑdɛl] as a candidate repair pronunciation. Next, in line three, Zhan repeats [mʊdˡl̩] twice, but Isao does not orient to the repetition of [mʊdˡl̩] as an indication that intelligibility has been restored. In fact, Isao again

Extract 3:

```
01  Zhan:  what’s your [mʊ]- [mʊ]- [mʊdˡl̩]?
02  Isao:  [mɑdɛl]? hn.
03  Zhan:  hn. [mʊdˡl̩]. {hai}. [mʊdˡl̩].=
04  Iaso:              {P:-}          =PC [mɑdɛl]?
05  Zhan:  yes.
06  Isao:  [mɑdɛl]. hm:. hhh. [mɑdɛl]. (1.4) I don’t know:. (.) well. in
           terms of point.
07  Zhan:  ohw::.
08  Isao:  yes. uh. vio. andu (0.3) cowain five.
09  Zhan:  hn.
10  Isao:  and windows. hhh.
11  Zhan:  hhh.
```

proffers the candidate repair pronunciation [madɛl], but articulates it as part of a compound noun: PC [madɛl]. In line six, Zhan confirms the candidate repair, and then in line seven Isao finally begins to provide an answer to the question posed in line one. This demonstrates that the segmental repair sequence designed to clarify the meaning of [mʊdˡl̩], and the superordinate question-answer sequence, have been brought to a successful conclusion.

This example again demonstrates what ELF speakers often change in order to make unintelligible pronunciations more intelligible: the vowels. Isao orients to [mʊdˡl̩] as unintelligible, but he also proffers [madɛl] as a candidate repair pronunciation, which Zhan affirms. This shows that [madɛl] was an intelligible pronunciation. The main difference between the two pronunciations is vocalic. To be sure, the /d/ phoneme is also different in terms of degree of lateralization, but this is hardly surprising because there is an intervening vowel between the /d/ and the /l/ in the intelligible pronunciation. Accordingly, it is fair to claim that the vowels were the most important component in the restoration of intelligibility.

Discussion

Although this study is qualitative, and therefore of potentially limited generalizability, the three examples examined in this study are representative of a larger set of examples that manifest similar characteristics. Many examples of repaired pronunciation in this corpus involve a change of vowel quality. The corpus contains twenty three examples in which either vowel quality or quantity is adjusted to restore pronunciation intelligibility, sixteen in which consonants are elided or inserted in order to reestablish pronunciation intelligibility, and seven in which vowels are removed in order to repair pronunciation intelligibility. Furthermore, there are a five cases in which a combination of factors attenuated intelligibility and more than one phonological feature is adjusted to restore intelligibility. There are numerous other cases that are borderline, debatable cases. As one can see, most cases of repaired pronunciation involve a change in vowel quality. There are examples of other aspects of pronunciation that change in the course of co-constructing intelligible pronunciation, but aspects of vowel pronunciation are most common.

As with any research, this study has its weaknesses. Segmental repair analysis will only find unintelligible pronunciation if one of the interlocutors orients to it as such. But, of course, not all interlocutors react to unintelligible pronunciation as unintelligible. Some interlocutors could pretend to understand and hope that later utterances will clarify the meaning of the unintelligible words. Segmental repair analysis will not discover these unintelligible pronunciations. That being said, this study claims that segmental repair analysis is a valid methodology to determine which pronunciations are problematic enough to shut down the progression of a conversation and catalyze a repair sequence.

And this leads directly to an underemphasized part of pronunciation pedagogy. One aspect of pronunciation education that is often overlooked is the ability to adjust pronunciation. Every pronunciation syllabus should devote some time to the ability to adjust pronunciation rather than just inculcate the idea that citation form pronunciations are always the most relevant and intelligible. After all, the best pronunciation is one that changes with the intelligibility requirements of the interlocutor, not one that insists on a static pronunciation as applicable in all cases.

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Appendix

Transcription Symbols

Symbol	Represents
{	overlapping speech
[	speech in the phonetic transcription of the International Phonetic Alphabet
{[	overlapping speech in the phonetic transcription of the IPA
=	latched utterance (e.g., there is no salient pause between the utterances)
(.)	micro silence (e.g., less than one tenth of a second of silence)
(1.5)	a timed silence (e.g., a one and a half seconds of silence)
hhhhh.	laughter
>speech<	speech that is saliently faster than the surrounding speech
<speech>	speech that is saliently slower than the surrounding speech
-	sudden cut off of speech
:	elongated sound
.	falling intonation
↑	strong up-step in volume and prosody
,	slightly rising intonation

Japanese EFL Learners' Expressions of Thanks and Disagreement

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The purpose of this paper is to report the results of a small-scale study on the pragmalinguistic knowledge of a group of elementary level university EFL students. The research focused on two speech acts, thanking and disagreement. The study employed Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs). The DCTs involved two situations to examine participants' speech acts in terms of social distance and intensity. Before the actual study, participants' responses on pilot DCTs were discussed by a group of EFL teachers to confirm validity.

本稿では、大学の初級英語学習者の言語内語用論的知識について研究した結果について述べたものである。この研究は、「感謝」及び「不賛成」の発話行為に焦点をあてている。本研究では、「談話完成タスク」を用い、その中で、参加者の発話行為を「社会的距離」と「度合い」の観点から研究する。本研究で使用される談話完成タスクの妥当性を立証するために、パイロット研究が行われ、そこで参加者の解答について検証を行った。

Successful communication in a foreign language requires not only knowing the correct rules and forms of the target language but also understanding how to use language in socially appropriate ways, which constitutes the pragmatic aspect of the target language (Bachman, 1990). For foreign language teachers, one controversial issue is whether pragmatics can be taught in the language classroom to help students develop their grammatical competence. Learners' grammatical development does not guarantee a corresponding level of pragmatic development. Therefore, in cross-cultural communicative situations, it would be likely that learners who exhibit high levels of grammatical competence face misunderstanding or miscommunication between interlocutors. While linguistic competence is essential for developing proficiency, language instructors should also provide students with information, practice, and much of the experience required to achieve their communicative needs in the second language.

In order for teachers who desire to incorporate pragmatic aspects into their lessons to better understand students' needs, this presentation reports the results of a small-scale research study on the pragmalinguistic knowledge of a group of Japanese EFL students focusing on two speech acts: thanking and disagreement.

Otani, M. & Ogawa, Y. (2015). Japanese EFL learners' expressions of thanks and disagreement. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 155-164). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

Research Questions

1. How do Japanese EFL learners express their thanks or disagreement in relation to social status?
2. How do Japanese EFL learners express their thanks in relation to intensity?

3. How do Japanese EFL learners express their disagreement in terms of directness?

Methods

Description of Participants

A total of 33 Japanese university students enrolled in English-medium courses were asked to complete the DCT for thanking, while 41 learners answered the DCT for disagreement. These English-medium courses called "English Communication Elementary (ECE)" aim at improving students' communicative competence. The English proficiency levels of the students in the ECE courses were within the score range from 285 to 420 of TOEIC-IP, which is the institutional program of TOEIC usually conducted twice a year for numerous students in this university.

Measurement Instrument

For the purpose of a small-case study to serve as a students' needs assessment, a discourse completion task (DCT) was implemented. Although it is ideal for researchers to elicit naturally occurring data from field observation or recording of natural conversation, DCT has an advantage that the researcher can manipulate contextual factors like social status, distance, and intensity across items and analyze how they affect language use (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010). Since the purpose of this study is to elicit information about whether participants employ different expressions of thanking and disagreement, DCT was regarded as an appropriate instrument of the present study.

Apparatus and Procedure

Prior to the distribution of the DCT to the ECE students, the DCT employed for the study had been revised five times to ensure it would effectively elicit the information needed for the study. After several series of modification processes, the DCT was distributed to the ECE students.

DCT

There are two different situations focusing on expressions of gratitude. In order to measure whether social status between interlocutors might affect participants' responses or not, both a classmate and an English teacher are employed as interlocutors in each situation. The design of these two situations follows Searle's definition that a "gratitude situation" is a speech event in which a "speaker" responds to a "hearer" performing an "object of gratitude" (1969). One indebted situation is that the hearer (a classmate/English teacher) picked up the speaker's (= participant's) pen. The other is that the hearer found the speaker's USB. In both situations, the hearer's acts cause speakers to express their gratitude. On the other hand, DCT items regarding disagreement focus more on social status (see Appendix B).

Results and Discussion

Thanks

Comparison in terms of social status. In this section, students' responses related to social status, an extra-linguistic contextual factor, in the two situations are compared and contrasted. More specifically, how subjects expressed their gratitude differed depending on whether the interlocutor was their classmate or the English teacher in these two situations, as shown in Table 1. The term "social status" refers to the relative social status of the speaker/writer and the listener/reader (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010).

Comparing students' responses in terms of the level of social status (the comparison between students' expressing gratitude toward their classmate and toward their English teacher), there appear to be two significant differences common to the two situations. First of all, the category 'Thanking + intensifier' indicates that students added an intensifier such as "very much" or "so much" to "Thank you" only when they thanked their English teacher in both situations. Given the fact that the textbook mentions expressions such as "Thank you very/so much" are slightly more formal than "thank you/thanks" (Tillitt & Bruder, 1985), this may show that the greater the social status between interlocutors is, the more politely a beneficiary, a person who feels indebted, expresses their gratitude. Secondly, several apology expressions are found only toward an English teacher in both situations. These responses are "Yes, I'm sorry. Thank you very much"; "Sorry, it's mine.

TABLE 1
Frequency of Responses by Category and Interlocutor

Category type/Interlocutor	Teacher	Classmate
1. Thanking + alerters	11	16
2. Thanking as a single expression	5	11
3. Thanking + answering	8	28
4. Thanking + stating reason	15	11
5. No thanking	4	4
6. First language (L1) transfer	5	0
7. Thanking + intensifier	25	7
8. Other thanking expression	2	1
9. Thanking + complimenting interlocutors	0	2
10. Unknown due to grammatical error	1	1
11. No response	1	1

Thank you"; and "Yes, sorry. Thank you." in the "Pen" situation. Comparable apology expressions in the "USB" situation are; "Sorry, it's mine. Thank you" and "I'm sorry. It's mine. Thank you." These results correspond to findings by Long (2009) that apology expressions are employed more towards superiors and non-intimates. These apology expressions in English might be translated from the Japanese expression "*sumimasen*" by respondents and could be regarded as an example of first language (L1) pragmatic transfer. Ellis (1997) defines L1 transfer as the influence of the learner's L1 on the acquisition of a second language (L2). When the learner's L1 serves as a source of error in L2, this is described as negative transfer, whereas it is regarded as positive transfer when the learner's L1 can facilitate L2 acquisition.

It is well documented that Japanese speakers have particular difficulty in English with those expressions of gratitude that imply indebtedness (Wong, 2009). In fact, when a Japanese person wants to express sincere gratitude in English, she or he feels urged to say, "I'm sorry," which is actually better translated as "Thank you." According to Ide (1998), an expression of apology, *sumimasen* can function to encompass the feelings of both thanks and apology because the common link between apologies and expressions of gratitude is indebtedness. That is, expressions of thanking deliver the speaker's indebtedness as a recipient of a benefit, whereas apologies demonstrate the speaker's indebtedness to the interlocutor for performing an action detrimental to the hearer (as cited in Bardovi-Harlig, Rose & Nickels, 2008).

Comparison of Intensity across Situations. In this section, students' responses are analyzed in respect to Intensity, another extralinguistic contextual factor influencing interlocutors' language use. In other words, how subjects express their gratitude toward two hearers, their classmate and English teacher, in this situation may be different based on the level of intensity of "Hearer-Motivated Physical Acts" (as cited in Long, 2009). Table 2 shows the number of occurrences of responses by category in the two situations.

First, the category, 'Thanking + stating reason' appears to indicate that regardless of who the interlocutor is, students tend to employ "longer" phrases to express their appreciation more in the USB situation than in the Pen situation. Examples of subjects' thanking expressions in the USB situation categorized under 'Thanking + stating reason' include "Yes. I'm so happy. Thank you for looking for my USB" and "Thank you. I look for this" said to their classmate. In addition, they say to their English teacher, "Oh, I have been searched (it). Thank you for (your) kindness", "Thank you for your helping. It's mine. That's very important for me" or "Yes. I'm glad for your help." The reason why their thanking expressions are longer in the USB situation than those in the Pen situation might come from the fact that the instruction in the DCT explicitly mentions "You (= respondents) are in big trouble because of having lost your USB

Table 2

Frequency of Responses by Category and Situation

USB situation		Pen situation	Category type
1.	Thanking + alerters	10	17
2.	Thanking as a single expression	14	2
3.	Thanking + answering	25	11
4.	Thanking + stating reason	7	19
5.	No thanking	4	4
6.	L1 transfer	3	2
7.	Thanking + intensifier	12	20
8.	Thanking + complimenting interlocutor	0	2
9.	Other thanking expressions	1	2
10.	Incomprehensible due to grammatical error	0	2
11.	No response	0	2

which stores lots of notes for the class preparation and assignments." In other words, the higher the level of intensity is, the more a beneficiary "deeply" or "sincerely" tends to express their gratitude toward the benefactor by uttering longer phrases. They might also express thanking with extralinguistic behavior like facial expressions, gesture, and posture, though the latter factors cannot be explored by means of a written questionnaire like the DCT.

Second, two responses categorized under 'Thanking + complimenting interlocutor' are found only when students thanked their classmate in the USB situation. These answers are "Yes! Thank you very much! You are great person!" and "Yes! It's mine! You are my helper!" This formula, 'Thanking + complimenting interlocutor' is one of the thanking strategies which native English-speaking subjects regularly employ when they feel indebted (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986), although current researchers in the pragmatics field might no longer tend to investigate the extent to which ESL/EFL students are able to approximate native English-speaking norms. In addition, the fact that students complimented only their classmate not their English teacher in relation to their physical act of finding the respondent's USB also seems to need extended exploration.

Disagreement

In this section, ECE students' needs for pragmalinguistic instruction are analyzed based on the data elicited. Responses of the DCT conducted are categorized based on similar features (see Appendix C). When those categories are analyzed, three major aspects of the ECE students' responses are remarkable: limited basic English proficiency, inadequate pragmalinguistic knowledge, and L1 pragmatic transfer from Japanese.

Fundamentally, average ECE students' basic English proficiency is limited in terms of learning pragmatic aspects of English. To illustrate, several responses to the DCT were left blank. If the DCT's level of vocabulary or grammatical complexity had been more straightforward, those subjects who could not respond with anything might have answered the DCT. Therefore, the cause of the blank spaces can also be a deficiency of the DCT. Another example of those informants' lack of English proficiency is that numerous informants could not produce complete sentences. The incomplete sentences indicate not only the participants' limited English proficiency but also a possibility that those participants know how to behave in certain situations only non-verbally. In other words, if those ECE students more diligently learn basic aspects of English language, the result of the responses can be different. Thus, review of basic points of English language learning should be conducted to encourage those ECE students to achieve higher levels of English learning.

Another remarkable aspect of the DCT responses is the ECE students' limited pragmalinguistic knowledge, which can especially cause face-threatening acts (FTAs), such as inappropriately direct responses. One of the ECE students wrote "Be careful!" in the situation which a student disagrees with a professor's comment. Also, another ECE student's response was "I am warned you". Although the use of FTAs as a result of limited pragmalinguistic knowledge could be accepted, frequent use of impolite expressions is not socially preferred or a safe strategy. Therefore, those ECE students should at least be taught a few frequently employed expressions related to disagreement.

Finally, the most common challenge for the ECE students seems to be L1 pragmatic transfer from Japanese. Numerous advanced level L2 learners have also been found to experience the same challenge; therefore, modifying or decreasing L1 transfer errors is necessary for the ECE students. For example, those ECE students have frequently employed "sorry", "really", and "hmm". Although "sorry" and "hmm" could be accepted, "really" could be identified as a correction which could cause another FTA. In other words, if the listener is a professor and the speaker is a student, "really" will be perceived as extremely impolite. Consequently, teaching expressions which cause negative outcomes to the ECE students is essential to allow those students to express themselves politely in any contexts.

Conclusion

Learning speech acts including thanks or disagreement is one of the challenges for Japanese EFL learners. Those challenges are caused by L1 pragmatic transfer from Japanese language in many cases. When the social status of two interlocutors is different, those speakers, especially the interlocutor of lower status, tend to be selective about wording. However, due to limited pragmalinguistic knowledge, elementary level EFL learners frequently fail to select appropriate phrases or overgeneralize their L1 norm by uttering "I'm sorry" in thanking situations. When it comes to intensity, the different levels of ECE students' indebtedness toward the interlocutor caused them to produce various utterances such as 'Thanking + stating reason" or "Thanking + complimenting interlocutor". As for the aspect of directness, ECE students' attempts to select appropriate words were identified. However, most of those ECE students failed to select contextually appropriate phrases to avoid damaging the hearer's face. Thus, pragmalinguistic tips need to be incorporated in ECE courses.

Whereas this research elicited Japanese EFL students' pragmalinguistic knowledge of speech acts, thanking and disagreement, the research instrument should be reconsidered. That is, a DCT may allow respondents to provide more thoughtful or socially desirable responses, rather than representing their actual speech act behavior (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Whereas the DCT has an advantage that the researcher can manipulate contextual factors such as social status, distance and intensity, further research by employing oral role-play or introspective interview would be necessary to determine whether the responses elicited from DCT are representative of the participants' natural utterances.

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Appendix A

DCT Items (Thanking)

Instruction: Please complete the dialogues in the following situations. Your responses will be used only for research purposes. Nothing here affects your grade. Thank you for your cooperation.

すべて英語で答えて会話を完成させて下さい。皆さんの回答は英語教育リサーチのために使用します。授業の成績には一切関係ありませんので安心してください。

1. You had an English class today. During the class, you dropped your pen. Your classmate picked it up and said, "Is this yours?" あなたの落としたペンをクラスメートが見つけて「これあなたの？」と聞きました。あなたはなんと言いますか？
   You would say, "____."

2. You had an English class today. During working with your pairs in the class, you dropped your pen. Your English teacher who was walking around picked it up and said, "Is this yours?" あなたの落としたペンを英語の教授が見つけて「これあなたの？」と聞きました。あなたはなんと言いますか
   You would say, "____."

3. You have lost your USB which stores lots of notes you make for the class preparation & assignments since last week and you are in big trouble. In the beginning of the class, your friend speaks to you and says, "Is this your USB? I found this the other day in this classroom." That USB is yours . あなたは授業レポートなどを保存してある大切なUSBを失くしました。クラスメートが見つけて「これあなたの？教室で見つけたんだけど」と聞きました。それは間違いなく、あなたのものでした。あなたはなんと言いますか？）
   You would say, "____."

4. You have lost your USB which stores lots of notes you make for the class preparation & assignments since last week, and you are in big trouble. In the beginning of the English class, your English teacher speaks to you and says, "Is this your USB flash drive? I found this the other day in this classroom. " That USB is yours.　あなたは授業レポートなどを保存してある大切なUSBを失くしました。英語の教授が見つけて「これあなたの？教室で見つけたんだけど」と聞きました。それは間違いなく、あなたのものでした。あなたはなんと言いますか？
   You would say, "____."

   Extra question: Have you ever felt just saying "Thank you" is not enough to express your gratitude in English in the situation where you feel indebted?

   あなたは、これまでにあなた自身が英語で感謝を伝える場面において、ただ「ありがとう」と言うだけでは感謝を伝えきれないと感じたことがありますか？そのときの状況を詳しく書いてください（誰がどういう状況で何をしてくれたときなど、またこう言いたかったが英語が思いつかなかった、という状況だった場合も記入してください

   このセクションは日本語でも構いません

Appendix B

DCT Items (Disagreement)

状況を想像して会話を英語で完成してください。回答内容は英語教育研究のために使用します。成績には一切関係ありません。ご協力ありがとうございます。

25. You have just listened to a featured speech by a famous professor from a world top university at the auditorium with your friend. Your friend thought his speech was excellent. However, you thought that his lecture was so boring. What would you say after your friend's comment?

    世界的に有名な大学の教授が来学し、講堂で特別講義がありました。あなたと一緒にその講義を聞いた友人はとても素晴らしい講義だと思ったようですが、あなたはとてもつまらない講義だと思いました。「素晴らしい講義だったね。」という相手にあなたは、自分の感想をどう伝えますか？

    Your friend: "It was a wonderful lecture, wasn't it? "

    You:

26. You have just listened to a featured speech by a famous professor from a world top university at the auditorium with your professor. Your professor says thought his speech was excellent. However, you thought that his lecture was so boring. What would you say after your professor's comment?

    世界的に有名な大学の教授が来学し、講堂で特別講義がありました。あなたと一緒にその講義を聞いた教授はとても素晴らしい講義だと思ったようですが、あなたはとてもつまらない講義だと思いました。「素晴らしい講義だったね。」という相手にあなたは、自分の感想をどう伝えますか？

    Your professor: "It was a wonderful lecture, wasn't it? "

    You:

27. One of your friends is a heavy smoker. However, you have a negative image about smoking because you are usually annoyed by second hand smoking (breathing smoke from cigarette of other people). What do you say after your friend's comment?

    あなたにはヘビースモーカーの友人がいて、「ストレス解消はこれに限るね」と言っています。しかしながら、あなたは日常的に受動喫煙に悩まされていて、喫煙者にはうんざりしています。さて、友人の発言に対してどのように返答しますか。

    Your friend: "This is the best way to reduce my stress."

    You:

28. Your professor is a heavy smoker. He usually says, "This is the best way to reduce my stress from work." However, you have a negative image about smoking because you are usually annoyed by second hand smoking (breathing smoke from cigarette of other people). What do you say after your professor's comment?

    ヘビースモーカーの教授が「ストレス解消はこれに限るね」と言っています。しかしながら、あなたは日常的に受動喫煙に悩まされていて、喫煙者にはうんざりしています。さて、教授の発言に対してどのように返答しますか。

    Your professor: "This is the best way to reduce my stress."

    You:

Appendix C
Sample DCT Responses

I No responses

II. No modification in expressions despite different relative social status

A. It was a wonderful lecture. But, I'm not interested in this lecture. (Q25)

B. It was a wonderful lecture. But, I'm not interested in this lecture. I'm interested in other topic. I want to hear it. (Q26)

III. L1 (Japanese) transfer

A. Sorry,...

B. I'm sorry…

C. Really? / Oh, really? (Q25/26)

IV. Basic grammar/vocabulary mistakes

A. Me too. I have a very experience. (Q25)

B. No, I don't like area. (Q26)

C. But, it is by people. → "けれど、喫煙するしないは人それぞれです" と言いたかったです。(Q28)

D. The way isn't good. I want you to important your health. (Q27)

E. Other good thing. (Q28)

F. I hope your health. (Q28)

V. Direct responses

A. Cigarette is bad for your health. Be careful! (Q28)

B. I'm a stress. You stop smoking. (Q27)

C. I imaged you are professor, so you don't smoke in front of the student. (Q28)

D. Please don't smoke when you are with me. I really don't like smoking. (Q28)

E. However, it is the best way to increase my stress. (Q28)

F. Please don't smoke. (Q28)

G. Should be. But I don't like that lecture. (Q26)

H. I am warned you. (Q28)

VI. Possible correction/refusal/suggestion

A. Really?

B. I recommend… (Q28)

VII. Hesitation

A. Hmm,...

B. Um,...

C. Mmm,...

D. Aa,...

E. N,...

F. Oh, I see. (Q28)

VIII. Unnatural responses

A. I don't like eat. You stop smoking. (Q27)

B. I will so buying drink. (Q28)

C. Can I buy a juice? (Q28)

D. I'm honest. I don't think so. (Q26)

E. Today, excellent! (Q26)

IX. Limited additional comments

A. I don't think so.

B. Boring. (Q25)

C. I can't understand the speech. (Q26)

X. Alerter

A. Professor,... (Q28)

XI. Possible ritual responses

A. Yes. It was great. (Q28)

B. I think so. (Q28)

C. I think so too. That was good experience for me. (Q26)

D. Yeah, that is very nice! (Q26)

E. No, it was a wonderful lecture! (Q26)

XII. Mitigators

A. He is a good person. But that speech is little boring for me. (Q26)

Sorry,...

Revisiting Dictation: An Investigation of Gains in Students' Aural Decoding Skills

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Aural decoding skills are a vital component of listening proficiency that require conscious attention and focused practice. This paper examines the efficacy of a 12-week dictation program, administered online as part of a compulsory communicative English course at a Japanese university, on students' ability to decode spoken English. Two dictation tasks were constructed and administered to four groups of first-year students. Responses were analysed and mean scores calculated and compared using a correlated samples t-test to ascertain whether gains had occurred as a result of the dictation program, and to help inform the development of future remedial listening practice tasks.

音声解読能力は、リスニング能力の重要な要素であり、意識的な注意力と集中的な練習を必要とする。 本論文では、日本の大学において、必修科目である英語コミュニケーションコースの一環として12週間に渡り実施したオンライン上のディクテーションプログラムの有効性と学生の口語英語を解読する能力を考察する。2種のディクテーション活動を開発し、1年生4グループを対象に実施した。今後の矯正用リスニング実践活動の進展に貢献すべく、その反応を分析し、スキルの向上がプログラムの結果として生じたのかを確認するために、平均点を相関しているサンプルt-検定を用いて集計、比較した。

A dictation program was introduced to the English Communication curriculum in the Sojo International Learning Center (SILC) of Sojo University at the start of the 2012-13 academic year to address an apparent deficit in students' listening comprehension skills (LaClare, Roger & Rowberry, 2014). Since English instruction in the SILC is conducted primarily in English by native-speaker teachers, listening skills require conscious attention and focused practice both to expedite language acquisition, and to ensure that students are able to access course materials and methodologies. The SILC dictation program was used primarily as homework, and consisted of 26 texts each of approximately 40 words in length, covering various topics, closely related to the classroom content. In this study, two separate dictation tasks were developed and used pre- and post-program to investigate whether any gains had occurred in learners' aural decoding skills, and also to provide a bank of common errors that could be used to create remedial listening tasks aimed at teaching listening rather than simply testing it.

Despite its long history, dictation has been largely overlooked in more recent SLA research and has become marginalised in many second language curricula (Thorn, 2009). Although successful aural/oral communication requires equivalent competencies in both speaking and listening, speaking skills are often given far more explicit attention in the communicative

Pain, R. & Rowberry, J. (2015). Revisiting dictation: An investigation of gains in students' aural decoding skills. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 165-171). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

English classroom while listening skills are undervalued (Field, 2008). Even when conscious attention is dedicated to listening, meaning-building processes, focusing heavily on context, are often prioritized over sound recognition. However, as Field points out, it is "accurate and automatic decoding" that characterises a skilled listener (2008 p.136). He recommends the regular use of transcription tasks in order to train learners to decode aural input quickly and accurately, thereby freeing up working memory for thinking about the overall meaning of the text. Meanwhile, Nation and Newton (2009) consider dictation to be a valuable language-focused teaching and learning technique which can "help language learning by making learners focus on the language form of phrase and clause level constructions, and by providing feedback on the accuracy of their perception" (p. 59).

A number of studies have investigated the role of dictation as a tool for enhancing a range of language competencies. For example, Rahimi (2008) identified improvements in grammar and reading in addition to listening comprehension skills as a result of students' exposure to a dictation program. Meanwhile the affective benefits of using partial dictation to provide scaffolding for challenging audio texts were demonstrated by Kuo (2010), and the value of dictation as an assessment tool is highlighted by Buck who describes it as the most widely used integrative test of listening (2001).

The 12-week dictation program in the SILC was designed as an instructional mechanism with the intention of improving students' aural decoding skills. The pre- and post-program tasks were designed to measure any gains that may have occurred as a result of the program. The authors of the current study make no claims in regard to improvements in students' general language proficiency or even overall listening ability. Rather the focus is on whether the students show improvement in their ability to accurately decode aural input in the target language. This decoding refers to the ability to recognise words and parse the grammar of what is heard in real time (Rost & Wilson, 2013) and is an important, but by no means only, process involved in second language listening. While a balanced approach to listening instruction would ideally target a wide range of listening sub-skills, incorporating both decoding and meaning-building processes (Field, 2008), instructional priority was given to intensive listening, with a focus on phonology, syntax, and lexis. This was deemed to be of most benefit in the context of Sojo University given that SILC students are of generally low overall English proficiency, ranging from pre-A1 to B1 as defined by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001), with particularly underdeveloped listening skills as highlighted by the results from the Oxford Online Placement Test (OOPT) which all students take on entry to the program. Consequently, two research questions were proposed:

1. Is there a measurable gain in learners' performance in dictation-based listening tasks over the course of a first semester of English Communication classes in the SILC?
2. What errors occur frequently in learners' responses, and how can these be analysed to provide meaningful, remedial listening instruction in the future?

By collating and comparing a large bank of dictation transcripts, the researchers hoped to identify common areas of difficulty and subsequently to design a program of discrete listening tasks targeting these areas in order to focus learners' attention and provide opportunities for remedial practice.

Methods

Participants

The participants in the study were 99 first year students enrolled in four English Communication classes at the SILC. Their levels ranged from CEFR pre-A1 to A2, according to results generated from the OOPT. Although the total number of participants was 99, twelve were deleted due to technical issues or because they did not take both the pre and post-tests, giving a total sample of $N = 87$.

Test Instruments

The test instruments for the study were two comparable scripted texts, each of approximately 80 words in length. The texts were in the form of monologues and

Hi, my (name is) bob. Im come from / small town just (town size) London in Engrand. I move to Japan 3years ago with my family. Now I live in / old house near the station with / great view / / river.Its realy hot in / summer and freeze (29 omissions)

Exact word 39
Garbling 3
Wrong word 4
Omission 35

Figure 1. Example of a coded response (Text A)

composed of relatively simple concepts and syntactical structures. They were recorded by native speakers and at a slightly slower than natural speech rate, with slight pauses between intonation groups.

Consideration was given to the vocabulary used in the texts and their overall difficulty. For this purpose, the Frequency Level Checker (Maeda, 1999) was used to ensure that over 90% of the vocabulary used in both texts was from Levels 1 or 2 of the General Service List (West, 1953). The texts were checked for readability with an online tool using the 'Gunning Fog Index' (Gunning, 1952), which reports values as an estimate of the number of years of formal education needed to understand the text on a first reading. One text (Text A) had a rating of 6.79, while the other text (Text B) had a rating of 6.97, meaning both texts were broadly comparable in terms of readability.

Procedure

For the data collection, approximately half (N = 46) of the learners were given Text A at the beginning of the semester prior to the start of the dictation program (the pre-test), while the remaining learners (N = 41) were given Text B. The uneven group size was due to the decision to preserve existing teaching groups. The tasks were administered online during regular class time with students working on networked computers. Learners were given eight minutes in which to transcribe as much of the text as possible. They were allowed to pause the recording at any time, and listen as many times as they wished within the time limit. At the end of the eight minutes responses were locked and submitted. The same process was repeated at the end of the semester after all students had completed the dictation program (the post-test) but this time, the learners were tested on alternate texts.

Data Coding

The student responses were coded using four categories adapted from Kondo (2003) in which a correct word is considered a test item and assigned one point. However, while Kondo's study focused on accurate transcription, the present study is interested primarily in participants' ability to decode aural input and, therefore, the ability to spell words accurately was not seen as important. Consequently, words that were interpreted as being accurately decoded but had been misspelled were noted as 'garbles' but were scored. In summary, the categories employed were as follows:

1. **Correct word** - A word is given in the exact spelling. Assigned one point.
2. **Garble** - A word is given in the incorrect spelling but in a form which appears to indicate that it has been successfully decoded. Assigned one point.
3. **Wrong word** - A word is given but is not recognisable as the word in the recording. Assigned no point.
4. **Omission** - No word given. Assigned no point.

A colour coding system was employed in order to maintain a careful record of the coding process and to facilitate subsequent analysis of errors, as shown in Figure 1.

Results and Discussion

The percentage of accurately decoded words was calculated for test-takers in both the pre- and the post-test. Mean scores were generated for each group, as well as for all participants combined. Individual scores were then compared using a correlated samples *t*-test to establish significance. The results are shown in Table 1.

There was a significant difference in the scores for the pre-test (*M*=36.55) and post-test (*M*=51.24)

TABLE 1
Comparison of Pre- and Post-Test Scores

	N	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Change	
		Text	Mean % (SD)	Text	Mean % (SD)		
Group 1	23	A	34.01 (15.64)	B	55.09 (17.91)	+61%	P < .0001
Group 2	24	B	46.71 (13.31)	A	62.24 (13.18)	+33%	P < .0001
Group 3	23	A	36.05 (16.64)	B	53.55 (18.97)	+48%	P < .0001
Group 4	17	B	26.32 (14.11)	A	27.40 (14.44)	+4%	P < .3890
Total	87		36.55		51.24	+40%	P < .0001

conditions; $t(86) = 8.5, p < .0001$. Thus, in respect of the first research question, it is immediately apparent that there was a very large increase in overall mean scores between the pre- and post-test and the researchers can be confident that this increase represents a real increase in aural decoding ability.

In the case of Groups 1 to 3, the increase in scores was significant and very large with students scoring between 33% and 61% better on the post-test. In the case of the fourth group, however, the increase in scores did not turn out to be significant ($p > .388$). The researchers posited two likely explanations for this. Firstly, it appears both from the data and from the subjective experience of coding the responses, that text A may be somewhat more difficult than text B. Secondly, since the overall English proficiency level of Group 4 was considerably below that of the other three groups, according to the results from the OOPT, it is possible that these participants lacked the writing skills necessary to complete the task regardless of whether they had understood the text or not. This is clearly a weakness in the research design and for any future iterations of the study it would be very important either to exclude participants below a certain level of English writing proficiency or to substantially revise the task employed.

In order to address the second research question, the researchers attempted to identify commonly occurring errors in the students' responses. Some of the most common kinds of error identified are listed in Table 2, with examples. Note that the categories used are drawn from a taxonomy provided by Field (2008).

Of the errors listed in Table 2, the omission or confusion of articles or prepositions is not of immediate concern as it is unlikely that these errors hindered comprehension. Cases of incorrect inference are noteworthy insofar as guessing is an important strategy for effective listening comprehension, not

TABLE 2
Taxonomy of Common Errors

Level	Type	Examples
Phoneme	Minimal pair recognition / incorrect inference / Linked speech	'Bob' frequently recorded as 'Paul' (Also, 'Pawl', 'Poul', 'Pole', 'Polu', 'Book', 'Go') Now ereven (we live in an) old house ...just town size (outside) London in Engrand
Syntax	Omission / confusion of articles / prepositions Omission of infinitives	I come from small twon I move to Japan three years ago my family I also find time do my hobbies
Meaning-building	Incorrect inferences / associations	I also fun (find) time to do my hobbies

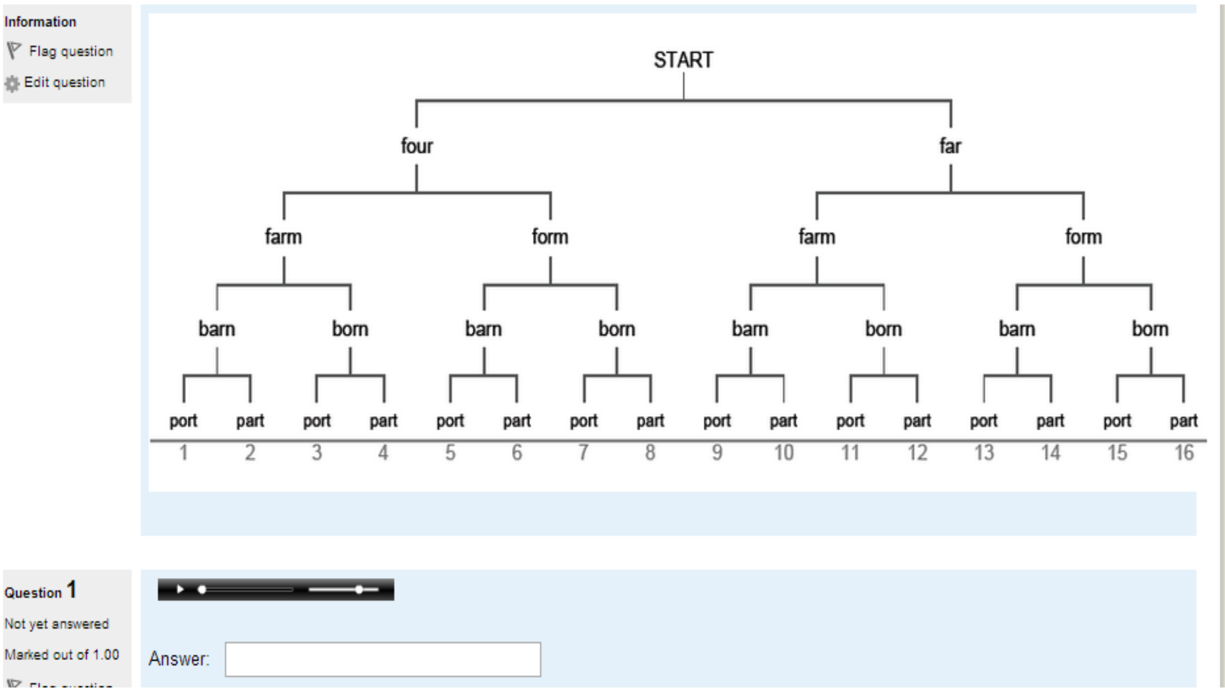

Figure 2. Screenshot of task designed to provide remedial practice in minimal pair recognition.

only for language learners but for native speakers given the inconsistency of the speech signal that listeners are required to process (see, for example, Rost 2011, Field 2008). Consequently, we would not want to discourage students from making informed guesses about content. Nonetheless, as Field pointed out (2008), even a single incorrect inference can rapidly lead listeners away from the intended meaning as they continue to form associations and make further inferences based on the initial misunderstanding.

Perhaps the most pertinent and rectifiable type of error identified from the study is in respect of linked speech. Typically, like many Japanese EFL learners, SILC students are more familiar with the written form of English than the spoken form. Thus, while most students would immediately understand 'we live in' when written down, many were unable to accurately decode this phrase aurally. One might posit that an overdependence on the written form has trained students to listen for the artificial construct of words rather than naturally occurring speech units. In order to address this it might be useful to produce a series of listening tasks focusing specifically on commonly occurring speech units thereby training learners to identify language as it actually occurs in speech rather than as it is represented in writing.

In the case of phoneme level errors, the most obvious intervention would be practice of minimal pairs and indeed a series of tasks has now been created in order to address this. These tasks are accessed online through the centre's Moodle site along with the dictation program itself and require learners to listen to a series of minimal pairs, identifying the correct sound at each step in order to arrive at the correct answer, as shown in Figure 2.

Limitations

Despite the increase in learners' scores between the pre- and post-tests, it is important to acknowledge a number of serious limitations in the study. Firstly, though we can be reasonably confident that students' aural decoding skills did improve, we cannot directly attribute this gain to the dictation program itself. During the 12 week period of the programme, students also received approximately 36 hours of classroom-based instruction in the target language. In addition, for homework students were encouraged to make extensive use of a commercial online vocabulary development service which, though focused on vocabulary acquisition rather than listening skills development, made extensive use of the aural channel for introducing and reinforcing vocabulary learning. Therefore, it would be entirely unreasonable to attribute improvements in learners' aural decoding skills during this period solely to the dictation program. All we can say is that students improved and it is highly likely that the dictations contributed to this improvement. In the absence of a control group, any attempt to quantify how much of the gain was due to the dictation program would, however, be pure speculation.

A second major limitation of the study relates to the type of task used. Although we can claim with some confidence that learners got better at the task, the texts used were not representative of natural spoken English samples so we cannot assume that the gain would be transferable to authentic target language listening situations. Nonetheless, the ability to decode aural input with a reasonable degree of automaticity is a necessary, if not sufficient, condition for success in real-world listening situations. It would certainly be interesting for future research to attempt to ascertain whether there is any evidence that improvements in students' performance in the dictation task correlate to gains beyond the classroom.

Finally, as we have noted above, students do not rely solely on their ability to process aural input when completing a dictation task but also draw extensively on their knowledge of syntax and lexis as well as on their familiarity with orthographic conventions such as those governing spelling. Therefore, while it is clear that the subjects of the study were scoring higher in the post-test (NOT TIME 2), it is less clear that they were improving specifically in listening, let alone in their ability to decode aural input.

Conclusion

Despite these limitations, it seems highly unlikely that gains of the magnitude recorded in the study could be accounted for by these construct irrelevant variables alone, and the curriculum developers have good reason to be confident that the dictation program is a viable component of the SILC's English Communication course. Moreover, the research findings are well supported by data from the end-of-semester course evaluation surveys in which 95% of students reported that their English listening skills had improved as a result of the dictation program.

However, acknowledging that the limitations of the study have implications for the validity of the research, it would be important to make refinements to the research design for any future iterations of the study. For example a wider range of tasks, including cloze dictation to target the lower level students, might result in a higher degree of confidence that improved scores did indeed correlate to improvements in aural decoding skills. Meanwhile, the use of texts containing more features of natural spoken language, as opposed to scripted texts read aloud, would allow us to make more confident claims about the transferability of gains to real world listening contexts.

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Encouraging Active Participation With Response Cards

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Response cards are cards that all students hold up simultaneously in response to a teacher's question. Response cards improve student concentration, and encourage a more active engagement with the material. Periodic and judicious use of response cards can help students to stay focused in the classroom. These cards also allow the teacher to quickly gauge the students' understanding of the material. In this paper, we outline some of the research done with response cards, and we provide examples of a variety of classroom activities.

レスポンスカード（応答カード）は、生徒全員が教師の問いに応答して同時に掲げるカードである。レスポンスカードは生徒の集中度を高め、より能動的な教材への関与を促す。レスポンスカードを適宜使用することにより、生徒が教室で集中力を維持することを助けることができる。これらのカードはまた、生徒が教材をどの程度理解できているかを、教師が短時間で推し測るのを可能にする。本稿はレスポンスカードを用いて行われた研究を概説し、さまざまなクラス活動の例を示す。

Too often, students' motivation to listen closely decreases after answering the teacher's question, confident of not being called on again soon. We teachers assume that we are talking to the entire class, thus providing them all with some valuable input, but input is only valuable to those who attend to it. One way to maintain student engagement is with a simple yet versatile tool for the classroom called response cards. Response cards are "simultaneously held up by all students in the class to display their responses to questions or problems presented by the teacher" (Heward et al., 1996, p. 5). These cards could be as simple as pieces of colored paper or "*batsu maru*" ("x and o") paddles available in Japan at 100 yen shops. At various points during the class, the teacher asks the students multiple-choice questions. The students are all required to answer by holding up one of their response cards.

A high-tech version of response cards are educational audience response systems. Instead of colored paper, the students have electronic clicker devices to send their answers electronically to the teacher's computer system (Banks, 2006; Pellowe, 2010; Pellowe & Shimizu, 2010; Steinberg, 2010; Wertheimer, 2009). In many cases, though, a simple, low-tech response card system can be more flexible than a high-tech one (Pellowe, 2011).

Woolf (1981) reported on using four-color response cards at a medical university in large lecture classes with hundreds of students. Woolf found that the cards helped hold students' attention, while students themselves reported that the response cards help them to stay awake. In an elementary mathematics class, Lambert, Cartledge, Heward, & Lo (2006) found that response cards helped students to participate more, and answer more questions correctly. They also found

Pellowe, W. R., Paton, S. M., & Shimizu, P. (2015). Encouraging active participation with response cards. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 172-177). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

a decrease in disruptive behavior (Lambert, Cartledge, Heward & Lo, 2006). Response cards have been found to increase test and quiz scores, increase participation, increase learning, and decrease off-task behavior such as chatting or sleeping (Randolph, 2007).

For the teacher, response cards provide a clear picture of how well the class as a whole understands particular concepts or details. In science course lectures, for example, if nearly every student answers correctly, the teacher knows that the students have understood the lecture so far, and the teacher can continue with the lecture. However, if many students answer incorrectly, the teacher knows that the students have not understood the lecture very well, and at that point, the teacher can try explaining that aspect of the lecture again.

Types of Activities

In our classes, we use a two-sided response card co-developed by two of the authors (Pellowe & Shimizu, 2010; Shimizu & Pellowe, 2010). Each side has two answer areas at either end (Figure 1). The answer area has a color, a shape and a letter, making it easy to see the students' answers. While this article discusses techniques and procedures used with this specific response card, similar cards or even electronic clickers would works equally well. Response cards are not intended to be used for the entire lesson time; rather, they are most effective when used periodically and judiciously during the lesson.

Figure 1. A two-sided response paddle

Listening Activities

Response cards improve listening comprehension activities. Before listening, students can be given some multiple-choice questions to answer. The students understand that they will all be asked to answer with the response cards, so, in our experience, they seem to pay much closer attention during the listening activity. An example question:

What time will they meet?
A: 2:15
B: 2:30
C: 2:45
D: 3:15

A more challenging alternative is to simply provide the questions:

Why did he have to walk to the gas station?

Afterwards, the teacher shows students the options, and they can choose the one that most closely resembles the information they wrote down:

A: His car ran out of gas.
B: His car got a flat tire.
C: His car crashed.
D: He forgot where his car was parked.

With every student showing their answers at the same time, teachers can see at a glance how easy or difficult the activity was, and whether or not the audio should be replayed. Also, the students know that they are accountable; if they're not holding up an answer, the teacher will be able to see that immediately. In our experience, the number of students who ignore or are distracted during listening activities decreased when response cards were introduced.

Some textbooks contain the following type of listening comprehension question:

Listen. One of these statements is false. Three are true.
A: They are cousins.
B: They work at the same company.
C: One of them is very tall.
D: They're eating lunch.

Checking this type of question can be tricky. The teacher can ask the whole class each option in turn (e.g., "Are they cousins?"). The vocal, outgoing students will probably chime in to answer, while reticent students as well as those simply not paying attention will remain silent. Or the teacher could ask for a show of hands (e.g., "Raise your hands if you think the first one is false"), but the slow responders might be just following what they see other people doing. These may not be the best way to go, especially if the first sentence is actually the false one. Alternatively, teachers could just ask the class, "Which one is false?" The outgoing students would all say what they thought the answer was. If answers are varied, though, we may not actually know who thought what. We will not know how many students were "voting" for each option. A four-option response card has an obvious advantage over any of these methods of eliciting students' answers.

Grammar

Response cards are also good ways to check students' understanding of grammatical points, either before explanation (to determine whether any explanation is needed) or afterwards (to see how well the general idea has been grasped). The teacher could put about ten problems on the board or on paper distributed to the students, such as:

The Mona Lisa [A: painted B: was painted by] Leonardo da Vinci.

Textbooks and workbooks often contain grammar problem sections. If these sections include choices, then assigning A-D values for each choice is straightforward. Otherwise, the teacher can assign letter values for the alternative answers.

Speaking Warm-Up

These response cards are also useful to elicit students' own answers as a warm-up to a speaking activity. The teacher writes a basic pattern on the board, and asks students a variety of questions.

Have you ever __________?
A: Yes, many times.
B: Yes, a few times.
C: Yes, but only once.
D: No, never.

Of course, if the responses can vary between students (such as in this example, or in an opinion survey), there is a possibility that some students will answer randomly, rather than actually considering the questions. To ensure that this is not the case, some of the teacher's questions should be easily verifiable. All students would be expected to hold up "A" to the question, "Have you ever eaten rice?" All would respond with a "D" to the question, "Have you ever flown to the moon?"

Class Applications

Presentation Software

As well as utilizing response cards with published textbooks, spoken questions and prompts, and items on the board, teachers can use presentation software such as PowerPoint or Keynote to come up with their own materials for checking comprehension of any aspect of any part of a lesson. In fact, using presentation software to display questions or prompts, with the answers or responses from which to choose, allows teachers to create engaging materials customized to the comprehension level of each particular class, and to check precise aspects of lesson content at any stage of a lesson.

For example, as a lead-in to a unit on asking information questions in the past simple tense, a series of slides featuring a base verb, and four options for its past conjugation can be produced and run through as a warm-up:

eat
A: eat
B: eats
C: ate
D: eight

These can be presented in any way the teacher prefers; either outside of any context, as in the previous example, or with accompanying graphics, or within short or long texts.

Given the ease of copy/pasting slide after slide and changing only the textual content on each copy, rather than needing to re-do formatting or layout on each one, the teacher is able to produce as many "checking" slides as he or she deems necessary, and has the flexibility in the classroom to use only as many slides as are needed. A single slide, featuring a text box at the top for a question or prompt, the four A, B, C, and D options down the left side, and a text box for giving a response for each one, is a perfect template that can be duplicated and edited as necessary for use at any stage of any kind of lesson.

For example, as a follow-up to the past simple verbs exercise above, the slide can be duplicated, the text boxes edited to easily come up with a more advanced, conceptual version of much the same thing:

What did he eat?
A: He ate an apple.
B: He is ate an apple.
C: He is eaten an apple.
D: He eats an apple.

Should all the students demonstrate an ability to select the correct answer, the lesson can progress.

A significant benefit of using presentation software for such instruction is the ability on the part of teachers to create professional-looking materials of their own, with engaging, interesting, or even amusing content. An image search with Google, for example, reveals a plethora of exciting and funny pictures that the teacher could select to use as the basis of otherwise potentially tiresome grammar instruction. Imagine, if you will, a photograph of Santa Claus riding a bicycle underwater with the aid of scuba gear, alongside a 15-foot shark, used in class to elicit and concept-check the present continuous, or prepositions of place, or indeed any language point; such "silly" content has the potential to engage the students a great deal better than, say, a textbook picture of a man eating an apple.

However, without any mechanism in place for students to engage actively, even the best and most interesting PowerPoint-based instruction cannot be said to be student-centered, and engagement cannot be guaranteed. Furthermore, teachers have no way of knowing how well their points are being understood. Response cards solve this problem, and go a long way towards turning presentation-software based sections of lessons into memorable, engaging, student-centered, and even communicative activities, despite being screen-based and teacher-controlled.

TOEIC Bridge Test Preparation

Preparation courses for the TOEIC test have long been an object of study in Japanese universities, and many Japanese universities now use the TOEIC Bridge test for placement and assessment. Teachers are therefore faced with the challenge of keeping large classes engaged whilst preparing them for the test. The combination of presentation software and response cards can be easily and effectively utilized in TOEIC preparation classes.

In a large class, with no practical means of checking each student's answers to, for example, a textbook's practice page of ten multiple-choice grammar questions (such as those found in part four of the TOEIC Bridge test), a teacher is left with little option other than to simply inform students of the answer to each item, and perhaps give a brief explanation of why it is the correct answer, before going on to the next item; all the while not knowing whether the explanation was necessary, or even understood. Calling upon individual students to give their answer to an item has the potential to cause embarrassment, and might result in reticence and a slackening of the pace of the class. Instead, by asking all of the students to simultaneously indicate their answers to each question using a response card, the teacher can instantly see which items students are getting wrong (and thus which items need to be explained), and which items are understood by all (and thus can be skipped past without explanation). This is an enormous boost to pace and efficiency.

The thematic content of TOEIC tests is neither engaging nor particularly fun, and most textbooks do, unfortunately, reflect this accurately. This adds to the difficulty of keeping students engaged. Using a combination of response cards and presentation software, teachers can produce TOEIC-format materials of their own that are unique, engaging, comprehensible, and appropriate for the level of the students in the class.

In part one of the test, for example, in which students see a picture, listen to four statements, and choose the one that best describes the picture, rather than using grainy black and white photographs of uninteresting daily life, teachers can use presentation software to create materials based around interesting, exciting, or funny pictures, to teach the mechanics and strategies of the test without boring students. Presentation software facilitates the production of abundant practice material, and the response cards keep students engaged throughout a lesson.

Part two of the test requires students to choose one of three responses to a question or statement as being appropriate. A common strategy for this section is for the students to listen particularly closely to the interrogative, if there is one, and to choose their answer based mainly on that. An effective exercise for practicing this strategy that is made possible by the combination of presentation software and response cards is to prepare numerous slides that feature the text of only an interrogative and three possible responses, only one of which matches, as in the following example:

Where_____?

A: At 10 o'clock.

B: It belongs to John.

C: They're in the kitchen.

Example after example can be easily made, student responses can be checked using cards, and the lesson can move on at an appropriate point.

The third listening section of the test has students read questions in their test booklet, and listen to short conversations or statements for the answers. Using presentation software for practice of this section, either including or alongside audio recordings, takes away the necessity of printing materials, by having all text displayed on screen, and allows the teacher to customize question items to the level of comprehension of the students. Once again, response cards allow teachers to rapidly gain an understanding of their students' comprehension question by question, and know when to go into further explanation of an item or to move on. Indeed, if response cards show the teacher that the students are consistently having trouble, then easier question items can be prepared for subsequent classes.

Conclusion

Response cards improve student concentration, and encourage a more active engagement with the material. Periodic and judicious use of response cards can help students to stay focused in the classroom. These cards also allow the teacher to quickly gauge the students' understanding of the material, allowing teachers to know when review is necessary and when it is not. Response cards are a simple and low-tech way to bring about significant changes in one's classes.

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Why Don’t Our Students Study Abroad? Seeking Data-Driven Changes to Administrative Challenges

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Market research was conducted to explore reasons why few students study abroad at a small private women’s university in Japan. Using a large-scale survey (n=450) of first- and second-year students, given in the students’ first language, current interest in studying abroad, awareness and interest in university programs, interest in non-university programs, and study abroad preferences were examined. Based on an analysis of the results, 11 actionable items were suggested to improve information and program management in order to increase participation and improve the visibility of study abroad on campus..

何故日本の小規模な私立女子大では、海外で勉強をする学生がほとんどいないのかという理由を求める為に市場調査が行われた。第一言語で行われた一年生、二年生の大規模調査（n＝450）を使用し、海外で勉強する興味、大学のカリキュラムに対する認知度や興味、大学のカリキュラムにはない物に対する興味、海外での勉強に対する好みなどが調査された。結果分析に基づいて、参加者を増やし、キャンパスで海外学習の認知度を高める為に、情報や、プログラム管理を充実させる11の実施可能な事項が提案された。

Teachers must, at times, fulfill other roles when they become part of a large organization such as a university. Many Japanese universities have yet to undergo massive specialization in their administrative staffing, which means that many facets of university life are still managed by a faculty committee. Of course, this might not be the situation at every university in Japan, but it is the case at mine, a small private women’s university of a few thousand students, where I am on the study abroad committee with three colleagues. The committee’s purpose is the administration of existing study abroad programs, and it is reluctant to take on the development and management of new programs because of existing responsibilities. It does not have any authority to decide substantial changes in the school’s approach towards study abroad (e.g., establishing an International Office), but it can submit proposals and advise the head of student affairs, under whose authority the committee operates.

Porter, M. (2015). Why don’t our students study abroad? Seeking data-driven changes to administrative challenges. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 178-189). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

Importance of Study Abroad

Study abroad is a key component in the Japanese approach to English language learning. In 2012, the Office of the Prime Minister released a revitalization plan for the country and announced Japan was determined to double the number of university students studying abroad from 60,000 students to 120,000 students by 2020 (Kantei, 2013). To reach that goal, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, and Technology (MEXT) is asking universities to clarify the purpose of study abroad programs, provide higher quality programs, and establish results by ensuring improvements in the communicative abilities of the students who participate in these programs, as a way of making them more attractive to potential employers (MEXT, 2014). They are also making money available to universities for investment in study abroad, e-learning, and improved English classes (Brown, 2014).

Having a robust offering of study abroad programs can help to satisfy students and enrich their university careers. Benesse, a Japan-based educational consulting company, has developed an annual assessment of student abilities and attitudes based on a survey of 90,000 first-year university students. In their 2012 assessment (Benesse, 2012), study abroad ranked very low on reasons why students chose their university. Students were given 24 reasons for choosing their university and were allowed to select three. Although active international exchange was chosen by only 6.1% of the respondents, 40% of the survey participants reported a desire to study abroad once in university. This is an encouraging number, but of the 24 selections it received the least responses. However this does not mean that improving study abroad programs should not be a priority as it shows there is a large number of students interested in studying abroad.

At the personal level, even short-term study abroad programs present students with a wealth of growth opportunities (Ludlum, Ice, & Nguyen, 2013). There are, of course, gains in language proficiency that students experience while studying overseas. It has also been shown that students experience an increase in cultural awareness, knowledge, and understanding, through participating in study abroad programs (Braskamp, Braskamp, & Merrill, 2009). Studying abroad has been shown to affect learner beliefs, particularly self-efficacy and beliefs about learner autonomy (Amuzie & Winke, 2009). Personality traits can be affected as well, with studies such as that by Dolby (2004) showing improvements in resiliency, flexibility, openness, and autonomy. Study abroad has also been linked to an increase in motivation and academic performance (Holoviak, Verney, Winter, & Holoviak, 2011).

Our Study Abroad Programs

For our university, the existence of a Global Communications Department suggests a strong focus on international exchange and study abroad; however, this is not the case. The school currently maintains three programs with two partner universities, Kent State University (KSU) in the USA and Queensland University of Technology (QUT) in Australia. Students can choose to go to KSU for three weeks during the summer or for about six months during the summer and fall. They can also choose to study for five weeks in the spring at QUT. A new, two-week long internship program managed by JTB that takes place in Melbourne, Australia has recently been added. The number of students participating in these programs numbers less than 25 each year, implying that study abroad may not be a priority or interest for most of our students. But is that really the case? An investigation into student attitudes towards study abroad in general and our programs in particular had never been undertaken before, which means current programs and practices are based more on intuition and institutional tradition rather than actual student data. The aim of this investigation is to explore reasons why few students study abroad, and to use the data to suggest strategies for improving our program offerings and methods, so we can provide more support for students who want to experience studying abroad while at Hiroshima Bunkyo Women's University (HBWU).

Methodology

This study was undertaken following basic principles of market research. A market research framework was chosen as the best approach for this study because it is concerned with "studying the market, segmenting it, targeting the groups you want to service, positioning yourself in the market, and creating a service that meets needs out there" (Kotler, in Drucker, 1995, p. 56). The problem examined in this study is one of understanding our market and evaluating whether our services meet our customers' needs. There are three steps in market research: data collection using a systematic and objective approach, interpretation of and inferences based on the collected data, and finally, actionable items recommended by the data (Hague, 2012). A survey was designed to investigate four areas: current interest in studying abroad, awareness and interest in university programs, interest in non-university programs, and study abroad preferences (see the Appendix). It was administered in Japanese and used branch logic, which displays different questions based on an individual's response. It was carried out during a two-week period at the end of the 2013-2014 school year (January 14-30) and delivered via Survey Monkey during required general English classes for first- and second-year students from all five of our university departments.

Participants

The survey was answered by 299 first- and 147 second-year students. Respondents account for nearly 90% of all first-year students and over 40% of all second-year students. Table 1 presents a breakdown of respondents by year and department.

Findings

Interest

The first question asked students if they were interested in studying abroad while at our university. This allowed us to divide respondents into two groups and ask them different questions. Less than half of all students (194 students) responded affirmatively. The results are in Table 2. The percentage of students

Table 1
Respondents by Year and Department

Department	*First-year students*	*Second-year students*
Early Childhood Education	114	56
Nutrition	72	36
Welfare	46	23
Psychology	36	10
Global Communication	31	22
Total	*299*	*147*

N=446

Table 2
Affirmative Respondents by Year and Department

Department	*First-year students*	*Second-year students*
Early Childhood Education	43	28
Nutrition	21	12
Welfare	14	6
Psychology	19	2
Global Communication	29	19
Total	*126*	*67*

N=194

interested in studying abroad was highest in the Global Communication Department, but students from the Early Childhood Education Department made up the largest number of affirmative respondents due to the large size of the department. The resulting 95% confidence interval for all first- and second-year students interested in studying abroad is 43% +/-5%, which shows consistency with the Benesse assessment done in 2012.

The 253 students not interested in studying abroad were asked to select a reason. Respondents were given five choices: lack of information, anxiety about going abroad, English ability, cost, and unrelated career path. Multiple responses were allowed and write-in answers were also accepted. Lack of English ability was chosen by 175 students. Cost, selected by 121 students, and anxiety about going abroad, chosen by 120 students, were also common responses.

The negative group was asked for write-in responses about what would increase their interest in studying abroad and comments were received from 135 students. Those comments were categorized into themes, with four themes being mentioned more than others: more information, English skills, cost, and accompaniment. Respondents wanted more information, including access to more program and country information, as well as wanting to hear directly from students who have previously studied abroad. They wanted more affordable program fees and financial aid opportunities. They also wanted to be able to go abroad as a class or with friends.

Preferences

The aim of this section is to identify preferences for basic program attributes using responses from the 194 students in the affirmative group to look at destination, length, timing, and cost. Responses for destination showed little meaningful differentiation, except in the case of the Philippines. These responses are shown in Table 3.

Respondents were asked to choose from three program lengths—3-5 weeks, 3-4 months, and 6-8 months—that are typical of the programs usually found at Japanese universities. Multiple responses were possible. The most popular response was the short-term program, but there was considerable variation across departments. As a group, respondents from the Global Communication Department showed the most variation, with nearly equal numbers interested in the different lengths, but Psychology and Early Childhood Education students were least interested in long-term programs. This variation can be seen in Table 4.

Respondents were also asked when in their university career they wanted to study abroad. The most popular answer, selected by 142 students, was the second year. Multiple responses were permitted, and third year was selected by 76 students. The first year was only selected by four students, but considering this study was carried out at the end of the first year, it

Table 3
Preferred Destination

Destination	Not interested	Slightly Interested	Highly Interested	Total interested
USA	4	82	108	*190*
UK	10	63	121	*184*
Canada	10	71	113	*184*
New Zealand	20	90	84	*174*
Australia	3	72	119	*191*
The Philippines	104	68	22	*90*

N=194

Table 4
Preferred Program Length

Department	3-5 weeks	3-4 months	6-8 months
Early Childhood Education	48	23	5
Nutrition	20	8	7
Welfare	11	8	2
Psychology	18	4	0
Global Communication	23	23	20
Total	120	66	34

N=194

is surprising that any selected that response.

It was difficult to measure expected cost. The question did not ask students to identify program length or mention whether the entered amount included airfare. As a result, a wide variety of responses were received, ranging from free to three million yen. However, the two most common amounts given were 300,000 and 500,000 yen, entered by 24 students and 32 students respectively.

Current Programs

Awareness

Students in the affirmative group were asked if they knew what study programs were available. About two-thirds of the respondents were familiar with the programs being offered. These 121 students were asked to report how they had heard about our programs, and slightly more than half indicated that they had learned about the programs from their academic advisors. The second most common response, given by 54 students, was from the bulletin boards in front of the student services office. Only nine students responded they had seen information on the Internet and just one student reported attending an information session.

Interest

Students in the affirmative group were also asked to rate their interest in the four programs currently offered by HBWU. The KSU Summer Program only sees a handful of participants each year, while the Semester Program has not seen any participants since the 2011-2012 school year. The most popular program in the 2013-2014 school year was the Melbourne internship program, outsourced to JTB. In the previous year, the most popular program had been the QUT Program, with 13 participants. However, there was a marked drop in participation in the 2013-2014 school year, perhaps due to the popularity of the Melbourne Internship. The lack of participants in the KSU Summer Program suggested that our students were not interested in the program, but students reported the most overall interest in the KSU Summer Program, followed closely by the Melbourne Internship. These results are shown in Table 5.

Outside Programs

Our university has a Self-Access Language Center (SALC) with three Learning Advisors, who meet with students seeking advice related to English language learning. In recent years, there has been an increase in students seeking advice about studying abroad using a non-university program. The aim of this section is to identify how large this interest is and possible reasons for it.

A little less than half of the students in the affirmative group responded that they were interested in non-university programs. This number includes more than half of the respondents from the Global

Table 5
Program Interest

Destination	Not interested	Slightly Interested	Highly Interested	Total interested
KSU Summer	16	107	71	178
KSU Semester	61	88	45	133
QUT	32	91	71	162
Melbourne	21	101	72	173

N=194

Communication department and a little less than half of the respondents from the Early Childhood Education Department. The 84 respondents interested in non-university programs were asked to provide reasons for their interest and four major themes were identified: destination, programming variety, cost, and timing. Respondents desired more destination options, mentioning the UK and South Korea by name. They also expressed interest in internships and fieldwork.

Discussion

Cost is a significant barrier to study abroad. However, many of these costs are the result of fees outside the control of the university, so little can be done to lower them. In contrast, confidence, anxiety, and programming can all be addressed by the committee. Results of the survey revealed two main areas for improvement, namely information management and program management, and actionable items have been proposed for each area.

Information Management

The actionable items proposed in this section address the lack of program information, student anxiety, and student lack of confidence.

1. Establish a single central location for information about the programs and complement this with online resources that can be accessed from anywhere.

It should be in the form of an international office with designated staff to advise about study abroad, create promotional materials, run orientation and study abroad related classes, oversee programs for returning students, investigate the quality of our programs and satisfaction of students, and make changes based on those investigations.

2. Improve information sessions

Differentiate between information sessions for students interested in study abroad and procedural meetings for those already committed to participating. Use multimedia promotional materials and visits by past participants to introduce the destination, experience, and significance of studying abroad.

3. Improve study abroad pamphlets

Create high quality brochures with vivid photos and accounts from past participants. In addition to conveying program attributes, brochures should focus on themes that would reduce anxiety and suggest that even students with low English ability would benefit from, and enjoy, the program.

4. Improve pre-departure orientations

Staff and past program participants should work together to design a workshop to prepare students for traveling, studying, and staying abroad.

5. Create multimedia study abroad promotional materials

Manage digital materials, such as photos and accounts from past participants, and use them in multimedia materials for delivery over the Internet, via iPad, and on the TV in the English Center.

Program Management

The actionable items in this section address student preferences, our lack of flexibility, and creating more opportunities to connect the study abroad experience to future learning opportunities at our institution, thereby raising awareness and interest in study abroad.

6. Expand programming

Partner with a company like ELS (Benesse), giving students access to various programs at nearly 70 locations across the English-speaking world, rather than identifying and entering into partnerships with individual universities abroad.

7. Create a conversation class program for returning students to lead

Develop a curriculum with returning students and have them lead English conversation hours in the SALC. Students would be paid.

8. Accept credit from non-HBWU programs

Give students credit for having satisfactorily completed a certain number of contact hours at any recognized English language-learning center.

9. Change the leave of absence system/Create a "gap year"

Build a gap year into our programs allowing students to participate in international (and national) study and volunteer programs.

10. Offer an elective study abroad course open to all students

Offer a language and culture class to help students build confidence and interest in studying abroad. Students could receive support to design their own study abroad program.

11. Review scholarship requirements

Change the scholarship system and allow more students access to money for studying abroad.

Conclusion

Most information management suggestions can be quickly carried out within the current structure (except for the creation of an international office). However, changes to program management cannot be made without approval from people outside the committee, which, for organizational reasons, might prove to be very difficult. Yet, the university must take action to improve the visibility of our study abroad programs and offerings in order to maintain competitiveness in a crowded market with limited customers. Expanding our programming considerably could satisfy current students and increase the total number of students going abroad, helping to create more interest in study abroad programs. However, student needs and desires are not static. It would be impossible to create attractive programs for all students and keep on top of changes in the educational landscape by sticking with one partner. Our small, under-resourced university cannot invest time and effort in developing new programs as other universities do. Also, improving our programming by following the old model will not set us apart from our competition.

Is it possible for our university to offer more by working with less? Following from our university's mission to foster autonomy and help empower students so they can continue to meet their learning needs after leaving university, we could work with students to create personalized programs without relying on new partner universities. This would involve helping students identify their goals, manage their time, budget their money, and find suitable programs through international educational travel organizations such as JTB and ELS. Not only would this approach better meet student needs but it would place a greater emphasis on personalized programs, and the lifelong learning that would result from this is something that would give us an edge in promoting our school.

The results of this research are, of course, limited to the context in which the data was collected. However, the approach to developing or revising university programs using large-scale (in terms of percentage of study body) market research and the survey designed for this study can be put to use at other universities and by teachers who are in a similar situation on their first administrative committee assignment. Finally, this study can be combined with other studies that use the same tool to create a better picture of the kinds of study abroad experiences Japanese university students desire.

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Mathew Porter became Assistant Professor at Fukuoka Jo Gakuin Nursing College in 2015. He completed this study in his final year as a Learning Advisor at Hiroshima Bunkyo Women's University. He is interested in self-directed learning, study abroad, and educational technology.

Appendix

Study Abroad Survey (Translated)

Permissions

The purpose of this survey is to collect student opinions about studying abroad and study abroad opportunities at Bunkyo. Your input will help improve future planning and improvements to existing programs. Your responses are unrelated to any classroom activities or grades. It will only take a few minutes to complete the survey. We appreciate your time and input.

1. I give permission for my results to be used for research purposes. I understand that no identifiable information about me will be used in research reports.

   Yes (Question 2)
   No (end)

General Interest

Study Abroad

2. Are you interested in studying abroad while at Bunkyo?

   Yes (question 3)
   No (question 8)

Country, Length, Timing

3. Indicate your degree of interest in studying abroad in the following countries, checking the appropriate box: (1) not interested, (2) slightly interested, or (3) very interested.

   The United States of America
   The United Kingdom
   Canada
   New Zealand
   Australia
   The Philippines
   Other (Please enter a response)

4. How long would you like to stay? Check the appropriate box.

   3-5 weeks
   3-4 months
   8-10 months
   Other (Please enter a response)

5. In what year do you want to go abroad?

   First year
   Second year
   Third year
   Fourth year

6. Ideally, how much money would you expect to spend to join a study abroad program? Enter an amount in the space below.

Program Detail Preferences

7. Please indicate how important each of the following factors are in choosing a study abroad program by checking the appropriate box: (1) not important, (2) slightly important, or (3) very important.

   Taking non-ESL classes
   Taking ESL classes
   Internship
   Transferrable Credit
   Number of Japanese participants
   Social and extracurricular activities
   Staying with a host family
   Staying in a dormitory
   Your school year
   Destination
   Timing
   Length
   Cost
   Scholarship

No interest

8. Why aren't you interested in study abroad? Multiple selections possible.

   Financial reasons
   English ability
   Meaningless
   Worried about traveling abroad
   Not enough information about study abroad
   Other (please enter a response)

9. What (if anything) would increase your interest in studying abroad? Enter a response in the space below.

   (Go to question 17.)

Bunkyo Program Knowledge

10. Do you know what study abroad programs are offered at Bunkyo?

    Yes (question 11)
    No (question 12)

Sources of Information

11. Where do you get information about studying abroad? Multiple response possible.
    Advisor
    BECC instructor
    SALC Learning Advisor
    Student Affairs Office
    Bulletin board
    Other (please enter a response)

Current Bunkyo Programs

HBWU has the following study abroad programs.

(1) Kent State University (USA)

A. Summer Program
3-week course in August
General English classes (reading, writing, listening, speaking)
Social events, dormitory

B. Semester Program
August-March
General English classes (reading, writing, listening, speaking)
Social events, dormitory

(2) Queensland University of Technology (Australia)
5-week course from February until March
General English classes (reading, writing, listening, speaking)
Homestay

(3)Melbourne Internship (Australia)
3-week program in September
English study (grammar, reading, vocabulary, speaking)
Work at a business or school, homestay

12. Please indicate which Bunkyo study abroad program are you interested in by checking the appropriate box:
    (1) not interested (2) slightly interested, or (3) very interested.

Kent Summer Program
Kent Semester Program
QUT Program
Melbourne Internship

Other Study Abroad Possibilities

13. Have you considered going on a study abroad program not organised by Bunkyo?

Yes (Question 14)
No (Question 16)

Other Program Choices

14. What other kinds of study abroad programs are you interested in?

Study abroad programs offered by travel agents such as HIS or JTB
Study abroad programs arranged directly between you and a foreign school
Other (Please enter a response)

Other Program Reasons

15. What makes you interested in programs not offered by Bunkyo? Enter a response below.

Focus Group Participation

16. I would be willing to participate in an hour long focus group or interview related to Bunkyo's study abroad programs and am happy to be contacted regarding this matter.

Yes
No

Student Information

17. Please write your student ID number.
18. Select your major from the list below.

Global Communication
Early Childhood Education
Psychology
Nutrition
Welfare

Thank You

Thank you for participating in this survey. Your answers will help us improve Bunkyo's study abroad programs.

How Families can Collaborate on English Education

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In Japan, families wishing to foster Japanese/English bilingualism and biliteracy may be stymied by the lack of opportunities their children have to interact with English speakers besides their parents. This paper outlines several ways bilingual families can work with each other to address this problem. It first reviews literature indicating positive cognitive benefits of bilingualism as well as support for peer group interaction in fostering and maintaining bilingualism. It then describes options for collaboration among bilingual families, including parent-led playgroups and learning circles for bilingual children, participation in such groups through Skype, and pen or key pal exchanges. A discussion group that uses web video chat technology to bring together bilingual teenagers from all over Japan for bimonthly discussions is also described.

日本では、日本語と英語のバイリンガル及びバイリテラシー（二言語識字）能力を子供に習得させたいと願う家族にとって、両親以外の英語話者と交流する機会が少ないことがその弊害となっている。本稿ではバイリンガル・ファミリーがお互いに助け合うことで、この問題を解決するその方法についていくつか提案する。まず、バイリンガリズムの認知能力に及ぼす利点について、またバイリンガリズムを育て維持するグループ活動へのサポートに関する先行研究を概観する。そして、バイリンガルの子供たちのために親が主導する遊び場やラーニング・サークル、スカイプによるそのようなグループへの参加、ペンパルやメル友とのやりとりなど、バイリンガル・ファミリーが相互に協力する方法をいくつか紹介する。さらに、全国からバイリンガルの10代の子供たちが2週間に1度ウェブ上で集まり、ビデオチャットを利用してディスカッションするグループ活動について報告する。

As the number of families in Japan with at least one native English-speaking parent grows, more and more parents are looking for ways to foster Japanese/English bilingualism and biliteracy in their children. Although it is widely believed in Japan that children in bicultural families will effortlessly acquire both of their parents' languages, this simply does not happen in a large percentage of such families (Yamamoto, 2001). Heavy exposure to Japanese both at home and at school, social pressure to conform to majority language use, family language use patterns that favor Japanese, and a lack of an English-language peer group all work to inhibit children's acquisition of English (Baker, 2011; Bingham, 2007; Noguchi, 2001; Yamamoto, 2001). While parents can work to allay the effects of some of these problems, they are often stymied by the last, because it can be difficult to find opportunities for children to interact with people who are proficient in English besides their own parents.

This paper first reviews literature that suggests children who become bilingual and biliterate can benefit not only socially and linguistically, but also cognitively. It then explores the important role of

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peer group interaction in English, which can help both parents and children to maintain momentum and enthusiasm for building the minority language skills. Finally, the paper outlines several practical ways bilingual families can connect and work together to create a Japanese/English bilingual and biliterate community for themselves and their children. While establishing and maintaining these activities require no small amount of effort on the part of both parents and children, the payoff can be profound and long-lasting.

Bilingualism: A Blessing or a Curse?

In the past, bilingualism was seen by many researchers, educators and policy makers as something detrimental to both a child's development–resulting in language delay and confusion–and to social and political harmony, being an obstacle to national unity (Myers-Scotton, 2006). Many people believed (and still mistakenly believe) that having a second language interferes with a child's acquisition of the majority language. Code switching was considered a symptom of such confusion, because it was assumed that children used code switching when they were deficient in one or the other of their languages (Grosjean, 1984). Some parents feared that their children would suffer from incomplete acquisition, leaving them with inadequate proficiency in either of their languages (Myers-Scotton, 2006).

Having two languages is still viewed suspiciously by some here in Japan. Yamamoto (2001) recounts the reflections of a Japanese father of a bilingual child on a negative undercurrent he has noticed regarding bilingualism: "I detect that people perceive being bilingual as a profanity against the pure Japanese atmosphere and hold strong feelings of both repulsion and jealousy" (p. 74). This may be one reason why the outdated notion that fostering bilingualism in children will leave them confused lingers on here in Japan. Well-meaning pediatricians, teachers, caregivers and even family members often attribute difficulty at school or typical childhood behaviors such as nail biting to the "stress" of living in a bi- or multi-lingual environment (see, for example, Yue, 2008).

Recent research is debunking these myths. Studies have shown that being bilingual "can have a profound effect on [the] brain, improving cognitive skills not related to language and even shielding against dementia in old age" (Bhattacharjee, 2012, para. 1). Marian and Shook's (2012) review of research investigating the cognitive effects of bilingualism on the human brain highlights studies showing that bilinguals are very often better than monolinguals at paying attention in distracting environments, focusing on relevant information while inhibiting unnecessary input, and quickly adjusting to changes in mental tasks. These enhanced cognitive skills may help bilinguals learn not only language but all concepts faster and to retain them more deeply (Marian & Shook, 2012). These advantages can last a lifetime, with studies showing that elderly bilinguals exhibit signs of dementia much later than their monolingual counterparts (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Marian & Shook, 2012).

The continuing adherence to the idea that childhood bilingualism is confusing may well be rooted in the pressure that exists in Japanese society for people to conform to social norms, which currently do not include widespread bilingualism. Nevertheless, in the current age of globalization that attitude may be finally be changing. Parents who are fostering bilingualism and biliteracy in their children should, therefore, be encouraged by researchers such as Cummins (2001), who notes that children who enter school with a well-established minority language also tend to develop a more comprehensive view of the majority language because of the interplay between their two languages, and this wide view allows them to approach all of their learning in a more dynamic way. Indeed, such evidence may motivate parents to work even harder to establish strong minority language skills in their children.

Benefits of Peer Group Interaction

Although many parents in bicultural families hope that their children will be both bilingual and biliterate, they often find the road to developing and maintaining these skills to be a rocky one (Noguchi, 2001; Yamamoto, 2001), especially if their children are in a Japanese daycare, kindergarten, or school, with most of their day spent speaking, listening to, and later reading and writing Japanese. Even with concerted efforts to develop and maintain English language skills at home–

through, for example, approaches such as one parent, one language (OPOL) (Barron-Hauwaert, 2004)–many families fail to establish balanced bilingualism and biliteracy in their children (Yamamoto, 2001). Both Noguchi (2001) and Rankin (2011) note that respondents to their Japan-based surveys often find the lack of support for nurturing English proficiency in their children to be insurmountable. For instance, Rankin's (2011) survey of native English speaking parents raising children in the Japanese school system found that 25 percent of respondents had abandoned efforts to develop English writing skills in their children. Of these, the majority cited a lack of support as the reason for abandoning writing instruction.

The research indicates that being part of a language community that goes beyond the family is of great importance in developing balanced bilingualism and biliteracy. For example, Tse (2001) found that for children to avoid attrition in their heritage language, it is important to actively use it at home, but also to have opportunities to use and learn the language with peers. Respondents to the Japan-based surveys mentioned above also emphasized the support provided by minority language learning and literacy circles (Noguchi, 2001; Rankin, 2011). Connecting with other bilingual families can not only help to fill the peer interaction gap, but also support all members of the family in an inclusive community.

Collaboration

Collaboration between bilingual families can take various forms, limited only by the energy and imagination of the people who take part. For families who live in close proximity to others, face-to-face meetings are ideal, but even families living in far-flung locations can work together meaningfully thanks to modern technology.

Playgroups

For families with young children, forming a playgroup for preschool aged children is an effective way to build a long-term language community from the ground up and can lead children to form long-term friendships with English-speaking peers. Bilingual families can find each other through work and social connections, by advertising locally in online newsgroups or publications, or through social networking sites like Facebook. Experienced playgroup and learning circle leaders (Desrosiers, Provenzano, Rankin & Thompson, 2007; Rankin, 2011) recommend meeting with prospective member families to determine the shape and structure of the group in a mutually agreeable way.

Such groups can become places for parents to share child raising ideas and advice, to pool and share costly educational resources, and to provide valuable social support for each family's ongoing work at home to build strong minority language skills. For children, they offer the opportunity to play and explore with peers who share skills that their monolingual Japanese counterparts lack. This is an influential part of normalizing and expanding the scope of English language communication for these children, a point underscored by Tse's (2001) finding that being a part of this kind of language community greatly increases the likelihood that children will keep their minority language skills.

Learning Circles

Once children enter the Japanese school system, many families find that the balance of time their children spend in each of their languages becomes heavily weighted to Japanese. In many schools, even first and second grade elementary school students are given a substantial amount of homework. Children are often involved in a variety of extra-curricular activities as well, leaving little time for English study in the evening or on weekends. It is at this point that families need to set priorities for fostering bilingualism and biliteracy in their children. As Rankin (2011) cautions, "[t]eaching at home requires an extreme amount of discipline and effort from both the parents and the child" (p. 783).

Parents need to take the seriousness of this commitment into account when making decisions about how their children will spend their time outside of school. It may be daunting; however, if children develop strong ties to their learning circle friends, it will be less difficult to convince them to apply themselves to this extra-curricular study. One teenaged member of a long-term playgroup/learning circle writes that studying English on Saturdays has been enjoyable for her

> because there were other kids doing it with me and we got to play after the learning circle. That was the reward for going and studying! [...] Maybe if I had not studied English when I was really young and my parents suddenly wanted me to start I would [be] reluctant. However, I have been studying English on Saturday every week for as long as I can remember, so it is just something that I do. (Provenzano & Provenzano, 2013, p. 42)

The same family notes that having learning circle classmates is motivating for the children to do English homework, not wishing to be the only person to come to class with unfinished homework (Provenzano & Provenzano, 2013).

There are other benefits to this type of parent-led collaborative group. First, for working parents, planning lessons and teaching after school and on weekends can become a heavy burden. Many learning circles share teaching responsibilities among member parents, allowing not only a lesser teaching burden for each parent, but also the opportunity for children to be exposed to a variety of teaching styles and approaches. Second, when parents are making decisions about how and what to teach, they have the freedom to fill in any gaps that they may have observed in the majority-language education that their children are receiving in the school system. There is often a focus on critical thinking skills, hands-on projects and cross-cultural experiences in learning circle curriculums (Desrosiers, et al., 2007), which effectively enriches the children's overall educational experience. The teenaged author in Provenzano and Provenzano (2013) comments:

> Not only am I learning about reading and writing, I am also learning some computer skills such as typing, how to use Microsoft Word, and how to make a PowerPoint presentation. In my first year of junior high school, I didn't have even one computer class, so I am glad that I have the chance to learn about it outside of school. (p. 47)

Gathering a core group of like-minded families to collaborate on minority language education clearly has far-reaching effects.

Connecting on the Internet

After making the effort to form a learning circle and to establish a bond among the families, it can be discouraging to find that a member family is moving away. Many learning circles are very small arrangements, so losing a member or two can make a big difference in the dynamic of a group. Fortunately, modern technology can help to keep the group intact. Rankin and O'Sullivan (2013) discussed their use of Skype video conferencing to keep an established learning circle's members together even after O'Sullivan's family moved to another city. The remaining group members continued to meet face-to-face, with the remote member joining via Skype. This option is also useful for families living in rural areas or in an area with few bilingual peers. In addition, it provides members with an opportunity to further develop their computer and Internet skills.

In a similar vein, video conferencing can connect members from a much wider area. The author's family is involved in a recently formed online discussion group for bilingual teenagers based all over Japan. Members were recruited through social media and meet via Google Hangout video conferencing, which permits multiple participants. The first teenaged participants were based in Fukuoka, Kyoto, Kobe, Wakayama, and Tokyo. Parents take turns moderating the discussions, which take place approximately twice a month. Participants prepare in advance for discussions that have–so far–been based on current events or entire books. This collaborative format allows families access to a wider pool of potential members, and the technology involved makes it appealing to teens. Now, several months since the group's inception, members have become more relaxed and open with each other, and they look forward to meeting with their English Hangout friends every other week.

Pen / Key Pal

One more option for children without bilingual peers nearby is written communication, either by post with a pen pal or online with a key pal. Establishing ties with a peer who is also developing literacy skills in English gives children the opportunity to use the minority language for real communication rather than simply filling out pages in a workbook. Rankin (2011) describes a version of this activity that she calls a "Notebook Exchange", where the pen pals communicate with each other via a diary-like notebook, with each child adding a page or two before sending it back to her partner. Rankin notes that she specifically wanted her daughter to communicate with another bilingual child in Japan in a situation very similar to her own (2011). Indeed, in Japan's relatively monocultural society, it can be affirming for children to establish relationships with others who have similar bi- or multi-cultural backgrounds. Such relationships can lead to deeper friendships and interactions via video conferencing or, for enthusiastic families, face-to-face visits. These benefits are, of course, in addition to the basic literacy skills that are developed by taking part in such an exchange.

Conclusion

Even families who understand, value, and actively pursue the benefits of bilingualism and biliteracy for their children can find the path towards that goal littered with obstacles. In particular, lack of a minority language community can inhibit the full development of a child's bilingualism, but collaboration among bilingual families is an effective way to address this problem. The collaborative structures outlined in this paper include parent-led playgroups and learning circles, online video conference participation in those groups, and entirely web-based discussion groups. Written communication between key or pen pals is also suggested as a motivating way to develop literacy skills in the minority language.

No matter the medium of communication, it is clear that working together with other families can have a variety of positive effects. For children, these include expanding the minority language community, developing positive peer pressure to study and learn, and establishing relationships with other bicultural children. This last point can be a way to build confidence and strength of identity in children who do not otherwise have a chance to interact with children like themselves. For parents, collaboration can be a way to share planning and teaching responsibilities, to pool teaching resources, and to find moral support for the ongoing challenge of homeschooling in English. Especially in the Japanese context, where support for native-level Japanese/English bilingualism and biliteracy is still widely lacking, the effort to establish such connections is clearly worthwhile.

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What are They Doing Now?
Student Voices on Sustainable Learning

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This paper investigates student-directed contact with English after the completion of compulsory English classes at a Japanese university. In order to do so, the author obtained students' views on this matter through structured interviews of third-and fourth-year university students, who do not need to take English classes anymore. The interview results showed that the students tried to maintain their English ability after completing mandatory. Furthermore, the study reveals what the students did to sustain their English ability.

この論文は、日本の大学で英語の必修科目を修了した学生たちの、自発的な英語との接し方について調査するものである。そのために著者は、英語の授業をとる必要のない大学３、４年生へのインタビューを通して、学生らの考えを得た。インタビューの結果は、英語の必修科目を終えてからも、学生たちは英語とのふれあいを維持しようとしている、というものだった。調査ではさらに、学生たちが英語との関わりを保つために、どのように、何をしているのかについても明らかにした。

In an English language teaching context, teachers are often at a loss when it comes to the outcome of their teaching efforts as they do not usually have much contact with their former students after mandatory L2 classes have ended. As an English teacher, I often wondered what might have happened to the English that the students have learned in my classes and to what extent they managed to keep their English when it is not a compulsory school subject anymore. In other words, was their English learning sustainable? According to Schwanke (2009), sustainable learning "generates knowledge that is not easily forgotten" and "is long term or even lifelong learning."

Ray, D. (2015). What are they doing now? Student voices on sustainable learning. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 196-202). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

This paper used survey interviews to see what the students do with their English after the completion of compulsory English classes at the university. The purpose of this study is to determine whether the students did something to maintain their English ability or not, if they do something, what and how do they do it, and if the outcome shows that their L2 learning was sustainable.

Background

Sustainability in education is a relatively new concept; therefore, there is no agreed definition of it. Basically, sustainability creates a process of change and is dependent upon local contexts, needs, and interests (UNESCO, 2010). The implication is that learning is never ending but always reinvented, adapted, and optimized (Schwanke, 2009).

Learning in this paper refers to "learning with consequences;" following Schwanke's (2009) definition of learning which says, that learning occurs when students are able to apply the knowledge gained from learning to a meaningful context Furthermore, Schwanke believes that effective learning is not just memorizing and storing information but making connections and understanding consequences with gained new information. According to Wenger (2010) learning is "a journey through landscapes of practices" and "through engagement" (p. 184). Engagement in learning is extremely vital as it enforces student motivation (Schilling & Schilling, 1999) and leads to a "direct experience of regimes of competence" (Wenger, 2010, p. 183).

One of the most efficient student-centered learning approaches is active learning where students are engaged in activities that help them learn and apply what they learned before (Felder & Brent, 2008). Active learning is also helpful in self-directed and life-long learning (Prince, 2004). Even when a country such as Japan lacks a prominent L2 community to integrate with, active learning is still possible if students are motivated as in Dornyei's research in Hungary (Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006) and the three different contexts, including Japan, explained in Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009). Here the definition of motivation has been taken from Gardner (1985) where the four components of motivation are intensity of motivation, the effort to do something, the desire to learn and the student's attitude towards learning the L2.

Sustainable learning is also called Life-Long Learning (LLL) (Schwanke, 2011). Pachen described LLL as a "rubber" concept that could be stretched to take any necessary shape. Candy, Crebert, O'Leary, (1994); Wenger, (2010); Knapper & Cropely, (2000); Knapper, (2006) have similar vision on the characteristics of an ideal life long learner. LLL essentially requires an "inquiring mind, love of learning, curiosity, critical spirit" (Candy, Crebert, & O'Leary, 1994, as cited in Knapper & Cropley 2000, p. 47) and "involves an attitude that comprises learning as a kind of lifestyle." (Schwanke, 2009, p. 1). By definition, LLL is self-motivated and voluntary, so it directly connects to willingness to learn and self-directed learning. Crebert and O'Leary (1994) characterized LLL as the ability to learn and the willingness to do it. Schwanke (2009) reinforces LLL by saying that in the modern world where change is fast, people cannot stop learning when school finishes or a career ends. Knapper (2006) adds a different dimension to LLL as life-wide learning in which real-life problems are tackled. Schwanke (2009) adds that through learning, people's identity constantly changes by organizing and reorganizing thoughts and actions as people acquire new knowledge. This inventing and reinventing of oneself, this "making of oneself" or autopoiesis, directly connects with the concept of sustainability in learning.

Method

Participants

I approached 45 former students of the Engineering Department over a ten-week period in the beginning of the 2014-2015 academic year. These students constituted a convenience sample. Of these students, 32 were third-year students, 6 were fourth-year students, and 7 were recent graduates. These students had finished and passed the first two years of compulsory English classes and were no longer taking English as a school subject anymore. Their English ability was of intermediate level.

Procedure

Interviews were conducted at different times and at various locations on campus, including the student cafeteria and in different classrooms. I attempted to videotape or record the students, but most of them felt embarrassed to be videotaped or recorded and some of them did not feel comfortable to be videotaped or taped without any scripts or without any prior memorizing or practicing. I took notes throughout the interviews and afterwards I wrote down everything neatly from the field notes. Only three students agreed to be videotaped, which was done in the meeting room adjacent to my office. Only two of the graduates returned the questionnaire.

Instrument

The interview consisted of seven questions (see the

Appendix for a complete list of the questions). The questions focused on what activities in the L2, if any, students were pursuing to maintain their L2 skills. The questions sought out what activities in the L2, if any, students were pursuing to maintain their English ability. The last question asked for advice for present students on maintaining English skills after finishing compulsory English classes. The questionnaire was a paper version of the interview questions.

Results

I used Constant Comparison (Grounded Theory) to examine the data. I looked for indicators of categories and went through naming and coding. Then I started to document and compare codes for consistencies and differences. Through the process of examination of the collected data, patterns emerged. They seemed to cluster around three main themes. They were not specifically what I expected to find but they shed light in areas important in themselves.

Exposure to English

Data collected from the interviews suggest that students tried to maintain exposure to English. All students said they were studying English; however, they did not differentiate between studying and exposing themselves to English. Popular activities were listening to music, watching video clips, traveling abroad, emailing/texting and communicating in some form with exchange students at school, encountering tourists and customers at their part-time jobs. These results can be seen in Table 1.

Technology

Students' responses suggested that technology played a large role in the their self-study activities. The Internet was the most common form of technology used by students, and they used it for various activities, eg. listening to music/speeches, watching movies/video-clips/news, emailing/texting, or reading. In addition to the Internet, students used cell phones, smart phones, and audio books to stay engaged with English.

Table 1
Activities for Maintaining Exposure to English

Activities	Student	
	Number	Percentage
Listening to music	28	73.7%
Watching movies	19	50.0%
Traveling abroad	13	34.2%
Emailing/texting	11	28.9%
Communicating with exchange students/tourists/ customers	9	23.7%
Talking with friends/relatives abroad via Skype	7	18.4%
Watching news (NHK, BBC etc.)	6	15.8%
Listening to speeches/lectures online	5	13.1%
Reading books/listening to audio-books	4	10.5%
Reading science papers/journals	4	10.5%
Attending international conference	3	7.9%
Taking standardized tests (TOEIC/TOEFL etc.)	2	5.3%

Self-study

All of the students interviewed thought that students need to study English on their own . All of them felt that one skill needed emphasis, but the results differed as to which skill should be emphasized. Overall, most students (34) thought listening was the most important, out of that 29 suggested listening and speaking and 5 suggested listening and reading. These results can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2
Skill Focus

Skills	Student's response	
	Number	Percentage
Listening	34	89.5%
Listening and Speaking	29	76.3%
Listening and Reading	5	13.2%
Grammar and Reading	2	5.3%

*Students were able to choose more than one skill.

Discussion

Despite the fact that there are no compulsory English classes for third- and fourth-year university students, the students interviewed still actively try to maintain exposure to English somehow through different activities focusing on various skills. Students in their final two years of university have a higher level of English compared to their earlier years. According to Wenger (2010), the higher the level of the student is, the greater the repertoire of ways to learn English.

The answers to the interview questions show what type of self-study or other activities were popular among my former students. The results can be interpreted in two different ways. One interpretation is that the senior students try to maintain their English ability without the help of classes. Although they maintain a connection to English in this way, it would be difficult to define it as self-study. Again they did not describe how they would use songs and movies to continue to study. Another interpretation is that the students are choosing these activities depending on what they like to do in their free time. This poses an interesting question that will lead to further research to determine how the chosen activities might actually be of some help to sustain their English ability.

The students often listen to music, so choosing music for English listening practice is understandable. The question here would be whether they listen to the song and focus on the language or just listen to it as a form of entertainment. Watching movies, at home or at the theatre, is another popular activity, but whether the students watch the movies/video clips with sub-titles, how many times they need to see it to understand it, and if they are patient (or motivated) to watch it over and over until they really understand it needs to be examined. The same can be said about listening to or watching news and documentaries, listening to audio books, and listening to lectures and speeches.

Reading books and science journals might have positive influence on students' reading practice, as Doyle and Parrish (2012) found when examining students' ways to learn English outside class. They noted that outside exposure to English depends on students' "personal choice and enjoyment" which may "show that students have preferences for certain ways of learning" and to do so "they develop a repertoire of strategies and activities that work for them" (p. 201). Here the results show the influence and use of technology in learning out of the classroom as Mueller, Wood, Pasquale, and Archer (2011) have also noted.

Students often send email or text-messages to foreign friends/key-pals in other countries and depending on the frequency of the activity, some practice might occur. Communicating with foreign-based relatives and friends via Skype is common now and often real-life communication takes place this way. These activities might suit the concept of practice of the individual students which may or may not help in retaining English. In other words, the students might see these activities as a form of practice, and, these obviously are practice, but it is hard to judge if these practices are actually effective. Technology supports their learning endeavor and that was consistent with the "self-regulated learner" model (Mueller, Wood, Pasquale & Archer, 2011, p. 44).

Students do have many opportunities for authentic, face-to-face communication in English, through chance encounters in their daily lives and traveling abroad. However, trying to give directions to foreign tourists or taking orders from foreign customers might just consist of memorized set phrases. Using fragments of travel English dialogue that they might have learnt before might make them feel proud of using English, but could language use in these situations be considered as studying English? Course requirements, such as attending international conferences and extra-curricular activities with foreign students also present Japanese students with opportunities for authentic, face-to-face communication in English. Often Japanese students might stay with their Japanese peers, but they still might get a lot of exposure to foreign culture and language. However, it would be difficult to call this English study as well.

Interestingly enough, taking standardized tests (TOEIC/TOEFL etc.) was not a very common activity reported by these students. Except for going abroad to study, they rarely need to take the TOEFL and taking the TOEIC might only be important when looking for employment. The third-year students, who made up the majority of the sample here, often go on to higher education in their home country, Japan, so they do not need to take TOEFL and the TOEIC can be taken after becoming employed.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the students actually do something to maintain their English. The results lead to the interpretation that the students do try to keep their English as they try various activities in English that are interesting to them. The list containing a variety of self-study activities show some common trends among this particular group of students. Further research can be conducted on whether, as Wenger (2010) described, preferred ways of learning English correlate with "experience, motivation, maturity, or aptitude" (p. 200).

The activities are basically ways to stay involved with English and that might help maintain their current English abilities. Whether these were effective means of contributing to their learning or could be called self-study is debatable. Nonetheless, this may lead to further research on how the activities might or might not be helpful in sustaining English ability. Again, another survey could be done to clarify how students conceive 'studying' English outside of class. It is obvious from the data from the interviews that the important factors for choosing an activity were based on individual preferences (Doyle & Parrish, 2012).

Another important outcome was that students depended heavily on modern technologies for the reported activities. In each of the replies there was some kind of technology involved to help the students maintain exposure to English. They were inquisitive and enjoyed learning with technology. As the results show, further large scale studies can be done at the university level and at other educational institutions to investigate students' cognitive behavior, their intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, their criteria for choosing the study material, their method/s of practice/study, and their strategies for learning outside the classroom. The outcome of the research might help understand their learning situations and could help support the students to become better autonomous learners who can learn outside the classroom facilitating sustainable learning.

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Appendix

The Interview Questions:

1. Please give a short self-introduction (with name, university year, major etc.)

2. There are no compulsory English classes for you anymore, do you still study English? If yes, please elaborate. (What, How, When, How often, How long)

3. Do you get to use English sometime? If yes, please tell when, where and how.

4. Do you think your environment encourages the use of your English?

5. Was learning English rewarding/frustrating for you?

6. Can you tell any anecdotes regarding learning English?

7. How do you think one can keep their English after finishing their compulsory English classes?

Expand Your Handouts With QR Codes

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Teachers who write handouts face a dilemma: how to maximize the information presented in the limited space of a page or two. One possible solution is to encode extra information into a Quick Response (QR) code, which has the additional benefit of adding multimedia to handouts. The author has been creating handouts with QR codes for the last 10 years. This paper describes some of these materials and has examples of QR codes that reduce the amount of space needed for text and add media to in-class worksheets, homework assignments, and administrative documents.

課題の印刷物を作成する教師は、「1ないし2ページという限られたスペースで最大限の情報を提供するにはどうすれば良いか」というジレンマに直面する。1つの解決策として、補足情報をQR(Quick Response) コードに変換するという方法がある。こうすることにより、マルチメディアを課題に追加できるという利点もある。著者は過去10年にわたりQRコード付の印刷物を作成してきた。本論文では、これまでに作成した課題とQRコードの例をについて述べ、QRコードがいかにテキストに必要なスペースを縮小し、どのように授業内で使用するワークシートや宿題、および授業遂行に必要なその他の文書類にメディアを加えるかについて説明する。

Teachers who write handouts face a dilemma: how to maximize the information presented in the limited space of a page or two. Many teacher-writers resolve this dilemma by decreasing the margins, the type size, or by using a "space-economical font" (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012, p. 78). However, these solutions often have an unintended consequence of making the document less user friendly, if not confusing for students (Romney, 2011). One possible solution is to encode minor or unessential information into a Quick Response (QR) code. QR codes also provide an additional benefit of allowing teacher-writers to incorporate reference data, such as a Wikipedia entry, and/or multi-media elements, such as MP3 sound files, into the learning activity. While there has been an increasing number of articles and presentations on how to use QR codes for language learning, many either offer generic solutions (for example see Dudenay, 2013) or focus on ways to use them in activities as stand-alone materials, e.g. codes posted around campus as scavenger hunt clues (Hogg, 2012). This paper will focus on integrating QR codes into the types of handouts that teacher-writers traditionally make for students.

Romney, C. (2015). Expand your handouts with QR codes. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 203-209). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

Quick Response Code Background

A Quick Response (QR) code is a matrix barcode of dots arranged in a square that can contain various kinds of data. Specifically, these codes can contain text, URLs, contact information (vCards), calendar events (vCalendar), email, SMS, phone numbers, GEO location coordinates, and WiFi network passwords (Gallizzi, 2011). These codes can be scanned with a standard cell phone, a smartphone, an iPad or tablet computer, an iPod touch, Nintendo DS, and even a laptop or desktop computer with a webcam, as well as a dedicated QR code scanning device.

Uses for QR Codes in Language Learning Materials

Encoding Text

By far the simplest use of this technology is to put text into a student's device. In fact, I have been using text based QR codes with my students since 2004, before the advent of what we think of today as a smartphone.

According to Denso Wave, the originator of the QR Code, the maximum number of alphanumeric characters that can be encoded in a single code is 4,296 (Denso Wave, n.d.a), but as the amount of data increases, so does the number of internal modules and therefore the physical size of the code (Denso Wave, n.d.b). The minimum physical size of a version 40 code (the version containing the most amount of data) is approximately 3 cm, but a code that small and dense would require a high-definition printer and high-quality scanning device, i.e. a smartphone with a high-resolution camera, in order to decode the information. Denso Wave recommends the code be printed as large as possible because larger codes are easier for the scanner, e.g. a student's smartphone, to read and less prone to errors (Denso Wave, n.d.c). In practice, again depending on how it will be printed and copied, teacher-writers should try to encode no more than 300-500 characters, and try to print the code at a size of at least 3-5 cm.

Answers for Homework. The first time that I ever used a QR code was as a way to provide the students with the answers to their homework assignments. At the time, in 2004, I was required to give students homework and not wanting to grade hundreds of papers per week, nor wanting to waste class time by writing the answers on the board, I began to encode the answers to the previous week's homework and include it on the homework handout. As part of their homework, students would scan the code and correct their answers from the previous week. Figure 1 is an example of encoded text that students can use to check their homework.

Figure 1. An example of a QR code containing answers to a homework assignment.

Information Gap. A mainstay learning activity of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is the information gap activity (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Basically the students have different information and have to work together to complete the activity. In a commercially available textbook, this typically works as student A turns to page X and student B turns to page Y. For handout writers this usually entails writing multiple worksheets, one for student A another for student B, and handing them out separately. Teacher-writers might also copy them on the front and back of a single paper, or have the students fold the handout so only one set of information is visible. The multiple worksheet solution can be problematic for teachers, because as students pair off and move around the classroom, it can be difficult to keep track of which students have which papers. With the last two solutions, students are prone to flip the paper over and see what their partners' information is, thus circumventing the information gap. A single handout with the gap information encoded in a QR code solves many of these issues. If the students are reading the information directly from their devices when engaged in the activity, they will only be able to see one set of information at a time, and not be able to 'cheat' and see their partner's information. That is to say, if they were to scan the code for their partner after scanning their own code, their information will no longer appear on their screen.

In my experience, these types of activities work better when the students scan the code and fill in the handout first with their information, put their device away, and then fill in the handout with the information from their partner via the activity because they are better able to see the gaps and how they relate to their own information. When reading directly from the screen it can be confusing to understand the relationship of all the information.

An additional benefit of using a text QR code for information gap activities is that they no longer need to be limited to pair work, but can be expanded to multi partner group activities, such as 'find someone who' activities. Figure 2 is an example of a multi-student information gap activity.

Encoding URIs

A Uniform Resource Identifier (URI) is a method used by a computer or smartphone to identify a point of content on the World Wide Web and to provide instructions to the device on how to access it. URIs use various different schemes; the most common scheme is a Uniform Resource Locator (URL), otherwise known as a web address, which is a link to a web resource on the Internet. URIs, including URLs, can be easily encoded into a QR code. Most smartphones/

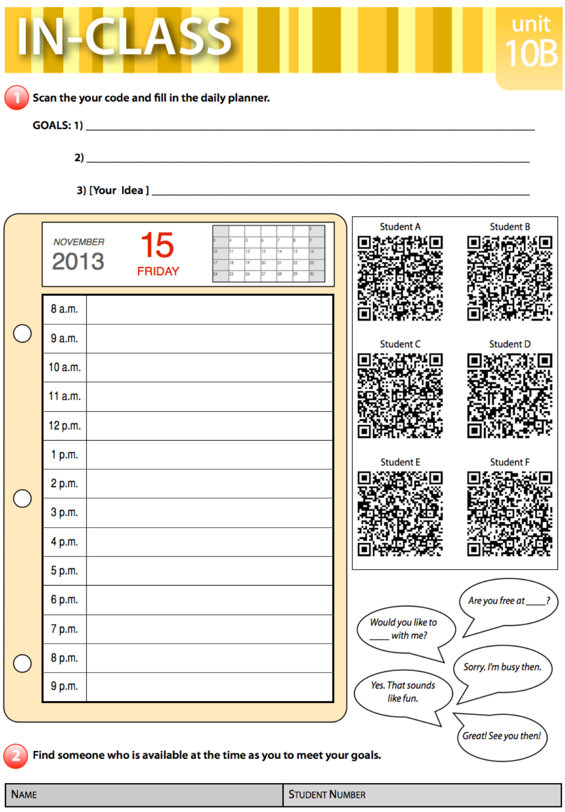

Figure 2. An example of an information gap activity using QR codes.

tablets, and some feature phones, are capable of accessing most resources using the URL scheme via an Internet browser. Additionally, most devices are able to access other resources via different URI schemes such as the 'geo' or 'mailto' schemes. Some devices may even be able to also launch IM clients, e.g. Skype, or other apps, e.g. YouTube (Dawson, 2012). Exactly how an individual device will react to any given URI will depend first on the QR code reading software, i.e. the QR code app, the device's operating system, and additional applications on the individual device. For example, scanning a code for a YouTube video may show the video directly in the QR code app, or it may launch the web browser, which may in turn launch a dedicated YouTube app on the device. While it is impossible for teacher-writers to know exactly how each individual student's device will react to any given QR code, teacher-writers can assume that all QR code reader applications are generally capable of accessing resources on the World Wide Web via the URL scheme.

Topic Introductions, Background Information and/or Reference Materials, e.g. Wikipedia

Another mainstay of CLT is an integrated skills approach (Celce-Murcia, 2014), which has tasks that require students to read/write and speak/listen. In commercially available textbooks this often is accomplished by having the students read a passage before having a "topic-centered discussion" (Ur, 1981, p. 5). Where a commercially available textbook may be able to introduce the topic over several pages, for handout teacher-writers a lengthy reading to provide background information on the topic is usually not feasible. For example, for a speaking activity that requires the students to plan an itinerary for international visitors to Japan, it can be helpful for students to have access to a list of, and descriptions of, common tourist attractions. By creating a QR code with a link to the Wikipedia entry of major tourist destinations in Japan, students are able to view over 100 destinations and find out detailed information about them as needed. Printing such information on a handout would take well over ten pages, and most teacher-writers would most likely edit it down to one page, but by accessing it on their device, students are able to have a fuller and more enriched discussion, while at the same time being exposed to authentic language.

Textbook Recordings

As a homework extension/review exercise, students can listen to the textbook recordings again and complete a number of bottom-up listening tasks, as opposed to the typical top-down listening tasks done in class. A textbook that I have been using recently, *World Link 2* (Stempleski, Douglas, & Morgan, 2011), includes a CD of the listening materials in the textbook. However, a number of my students have reported that they don't own a CD player and can't access the recordings. Fortunately, the publisher has made all of the textbook recordings available on the Internet as MP3 files. By making a QR code with a link to the MP3 files, students are able to scan the code and listen to the MP3 file in their device's browser or download the file to their device. Figure 3 is an example of a QR code that links to a MP3 file of a textbook recording on the Internet. Of course teachers can make their own MP3 files and post them to the Internet, but care should be taken not to violate the copyright laws of their respective countries.

YouTube Videos

One of the largest databases of authentic video in the world is YouTube. There are a number of ways to use these videos for language learning (see Sherman, 2003, for a lengthy list of possibilities), but accessing specific videos can be an issue for students. For example, if given the link to a video on a handout, which is usually just a string of seemingly random numbers and letters, students often make mistakes when typing the URL into their device; furthermore, in my experience many students report that the process of doing so is tedious. Creating a QR code that the students can scan circumvents this issue. This is especially valuable for homework activities, where the teacher is not available to help students input the URL, but also has the advantage of allowing the students to watch and/or listen to the video at their own pace for a classroom activities including being able to stop, rewind, watch and/or listen multiple times as needed. Figure 4 is an example of a homework assignment using a QR code that links to a YouTube video.

Figure 3. A QR code linking to textbook recordings on the Internet.

Online Quizzes, e.g. SurveyMonkey

Teacher-writers who use short quizzes for attendance and or participation marks often have to deal with a large volume of small slips of paper, one for each student. However, a QR code can be created that links to an online survey program, e.g. SurveyMonkey, which allows teachers to collect the attendance/

Figure 4. A homework handout using a YouTube video.

Figure 5. A QR code used to access an online survey.

participation information without the paper. A QR code linking to an online survey can also be used as a feedback mechanism allowing the students to provide the teacher with input about the course, assignments, etc. Figure 5 is an example of a QR code that links to an online survey used as a mid-semester feedback questionnaire. The QR code can be printed on handouts, posted on the wall, or displayed on the screen as students enter the classroom.

Administrative uses

In addition to ELT materials, teachers give handouts to students for administrative purposes. These handouts include things like the class syllabus, calendar, attendance and/or grade information, etc. QR Codes can also be use with these handouts to facilitate communication between the teacher and students.

Teacher Contact Information, e.g. vCards

vCards are a type of electronic business card that contains names, addresses, phone numbers, etc. This information can be encoded into a QR code and printed on the class syllabus, etc. In my experience, students often lose their syllabus or don't always have it handy when they need to contact me. By creating a vCard QR code and having the students create a contact in their phone, which includes my email, office location, office hour, office phone number, etc., students are better able to get in touch with me if they need to. It should be noted, however, that while almost all QR code reader apps are capable of reading a vCard, not all of them have the ability to add the contact information directly to the device's contacts application (O'Reilly, 2011) and students may have to add it manually.

Email Links

If a teacher requires students to regularly contact them via email, for example for submitting homework, informing the teacher of absences, etc., it may be useful to create a QR code specifically for the task. QR codes using the mailto URI scheme will input not only the email address into the native email application on the student's device, but will also create a subject line and text. For example, teachers could create an email QR code with the subject line, "inquiry from a student in class 333 (WED 2nd period)" and the first line of the message, "my name is" so that they are better able to track messages. Again, if teachers are requiring students to email them regularly, the QR code could be printed on a label that students could affix to the cover of their textbooks or another conspicuous place for easy access.

Calendar Events

Again, as part of the administrative paperwork, teachers could create QR codes containing vCalendar events for important dates during the year. This could include things like assignment deadlines, exam dates, appointment times, etc. These could be printed on the syllabus, class calendar, assignment sheets, etc. Please note that individual appointment times would require an individual QR code for each appointment.

Creating a QR Code

Creating a QR code is a relatively easy and free process. Some reader applications also have a creation function, but by far the easiest method is to use an online generator, such as the one found at http://goqr.me. Teacher-writers first select the type of QR code needed and then input the information. The QR code will be generated in real time. The teacher-writer then downloads the image (either a PNG or JPEG file) or selects the image and right clicks to copy it. The teacher-writer then inserts the QR code image into their word-processor, desktop publishing program, etc. and can resize, move and adjust the image as needed.

What to Do If a Student Doesn't Have a QR Code Reading Device

Informal surveying of my students at the beginning of the school year for the last several years has revealed that nearly all of my students had at least a feature phone capable of reading a text QR code, and the number of students with a smartphone capable of accessing multimedia web resources has increased to nearly 100% (see Table 1 for more details). The more common problem faced with using QR codes in class is not that the students do not have a QR code enabled device, but that either the students have forgotten to bring their device or that the battery has died.

Teacher-writers facing these problems have several solutions. First, he or she can bring an extra device with him or her to class that the students can use. I personally have an old iPod touch and an old iPhone 3GS that I will bring to class on days when I know we will be using materials with QR codes. Additionally, at the beginning of class, teacher-writers can announce to the students that they will be using their smartphones in class later, so be sure to make sure they are charged. For QR codes that contain text only, teacher-writers can bring a hard copy of the text that students can use. Finally, teacher-writers can ask students to share their device with a friend.

Conclusion

By moving unnecessary text, e.g. exercise answers, to a QR code, teacher-writers can free up space on their handouts or reduce the amount of handouts altogether. Additionally, teacher-writers can bring audio/video or other multimedia resources into the classroom via a student's mobile device through a QR code, thus making QR codes one of the most adaptable, versatile, and open-ended resources available to teacher-writers to expand their handouts beyond the confines of the printed page.

Table 1

Percentage of Students With QR Code Enabled Devices

Year	No phone	Feature Phone	Smartphone
2010	2%	97%	<1%
2011	1%	82%	18%
2012	<1%	50%	49%
2013	--	14%	86%
2014	--	<1%	99%

Note. All percentages are rounded off and approximate.

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Meeting Teacher Goals Through Collaborative Lesson Study: Improvements in Classroom English Usage

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Lesson Study (LS) is a cyclical teacher development model in which the LS team members collaborate in the planning, execution, revision, and re-teaching of a lesson. In this paper I will highlight one of the outcomes that emerged from the introduction of an LS cycle into the preservice teacher-training program at a Japanese junior high school. The LS team included the author, a Japanese teacher of English, and two Japanese preservice teachers. The study focused on the teaching of one of these teachers. LS was shown to have numerous benefits including increased teacher awareness, membership in the community of practice of professional teachers, professional knowledge transfer among teachers, and finally increases in ability to meet personal and professional development goals.

授業研究 (LS) は，参加するメンバー（教師）が授業の計画・実施・修正，また再授業を協力して行う一連のサイクルであり，それにより参加者が教師としての成長を目指す営為である。本稿は，日本の中学校において，LS サイクルを基盤とする教員育成プログラムを導入したことにより得られた成果を報告する。本プロジェクトにおいて LS の対象としたのは，2人の教育実習生（大学生）であった。LS により，二人の教師としての意識，またプロの教師の一員であるという自覚は高まった。さらに，メンバー間の専門知識の共有が促進され，プロの教師として伸長させるべき目標達成に関する能力が確実に向上した。

The impetus for this study came from discussions with K-sensei, a Japanese teacher of English at the junior high school attached to a national Japanese university. K-sensei was a typically busy teacher responsible for getting the graduating third year students into good high schools, training the preservice teachers from the faculty of education at the university, teaching a heavy load of classes, managing club activities, attending endless meetings, visiting students' homes, and generally dealing with the responsibilities of fulfilling the role of being the *de facto* parent that Japanese society expected her to be. Our discussions revealed that she was not satisfied with the quality of pedagogical guidance she had been able to provide to the preservice teachers who visit the school for two weeks of teaching practice several times throughout each school year.

Based on my observations and interviews with the teachers working at my school, I have found that the actual process of preservice training appears to lack a consistent formal structure, leaving much of the implementation details to be decided by the in-service teachers. Perhaps overly specific guidance from the university was deemed unnecessary, with

Rupp, M. J. (2015). Meeting teacher goals through collaborative lesson study: Improvements in classroom English usage. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 210-216). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

university professors preferring to defer such details to the experienced junior high school teachers who work daily on the front lines of secondary education.

I became aware of a potential remedy to K-sensei's dilemma in the form of collaborative lesson study through consultations with a university professor specializing in teacher development. The professor informed me of this cyclical teacher development model, similar to an action research cycle, which leverages the wide variety of experience and knowledge held by a group of professionals in order to collaboratively tackle teacher training and development. After explaining the model and gaining consent from the participants and permission from the school, I was able to conduct a collaborative lesson study cycle at the school in an effort to investigate and improve the quality of preservice teacher training. The lesson study team focused on the lessons conducted by one teacher, Y-san, who was tasked with teaching third year students under the guidance of K-sensei. The research questions posed for the study were:

1. What effects does the process of going through a collaborative lesson study have on pedagogical environment and teacher learning in a Japanese junior high school?
2. Could the secondary education curriculums in Japan benefit from a more structured implementation of collaborative lesson study?

What is Lesson Study?

Lesson study originated in Japan about 100 years ago and became well known in the United States by 1999, through the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (Lewis, Perry, & Friedkin, 2009). The term *lesson study* comes from a Japanese translation of the practice known as *jugyō kenkyū* (授業研究), which is widely used as a teacher development process, mainly for Japanese elementary education. In lesson study, a small team of teachers collaborates in the setting of personal and professional development goals (PPDs) as well as specific lesson goals, followed by collaborative planning of a research lesson. One member of the group teaches this lesson while the other members observe and record observations to be used in follow-up group revisions of the lesson. The revised lesson is retaught to another class of students by the same or another member of the lesson study team and the lesson study cycle concludes with a final reflection meeting, the results of which are reported on for the benefit of other teachers.

Although there has been a surge of interest in lesson study outside of Japan, especially in mathematics education, it appears to be neglected in its country of origin in secondary and tertiary education. In place of collaboratively planned and executed lesson study, what we see in junior high schools is more akin to mere demonstration lessons. These lack the crucial element of collaborative planning and revision. This may be due to the fact that elementary school teachers must teach a wide variety of subjects, making the benefits of collaboration due to differences of expertise more tangible, whereas at the junior high school level, teachers are considered specialists in their fields.

Figure 1 shows the six stages of the lesson study cycle used for this study.

Differences Between Lesson Study and Action Research

The main difference between lesson study and action research is the focus (Lewis, Perry, & Friedkin, 2009). They both share a cyclical nature involving observation, reflection, and revision, but lesson study focuses on a collaboratively constructed lesson, whereas action research focuses on solving a problem. In lesson study, the lesson is seen as underpinning all of the important elements of teaching and as an implementation of the methodologies applied by the teacher. Finally, in lesson study the entire group shares responsibility for effort, taking some of the pressure off of the teacher who happens to teach the lesson (Laskowski, 2009; Laskowski, 2011; Prahbu, 1992). This contrasts with traditional teacher development models, which follow a top-down transmission model approach.

Contrasting Traditional Teacher Development With Lesson Study

Lesson study, taking a bottom-up approach to teacher learning, differs greatly from traditional models. Table

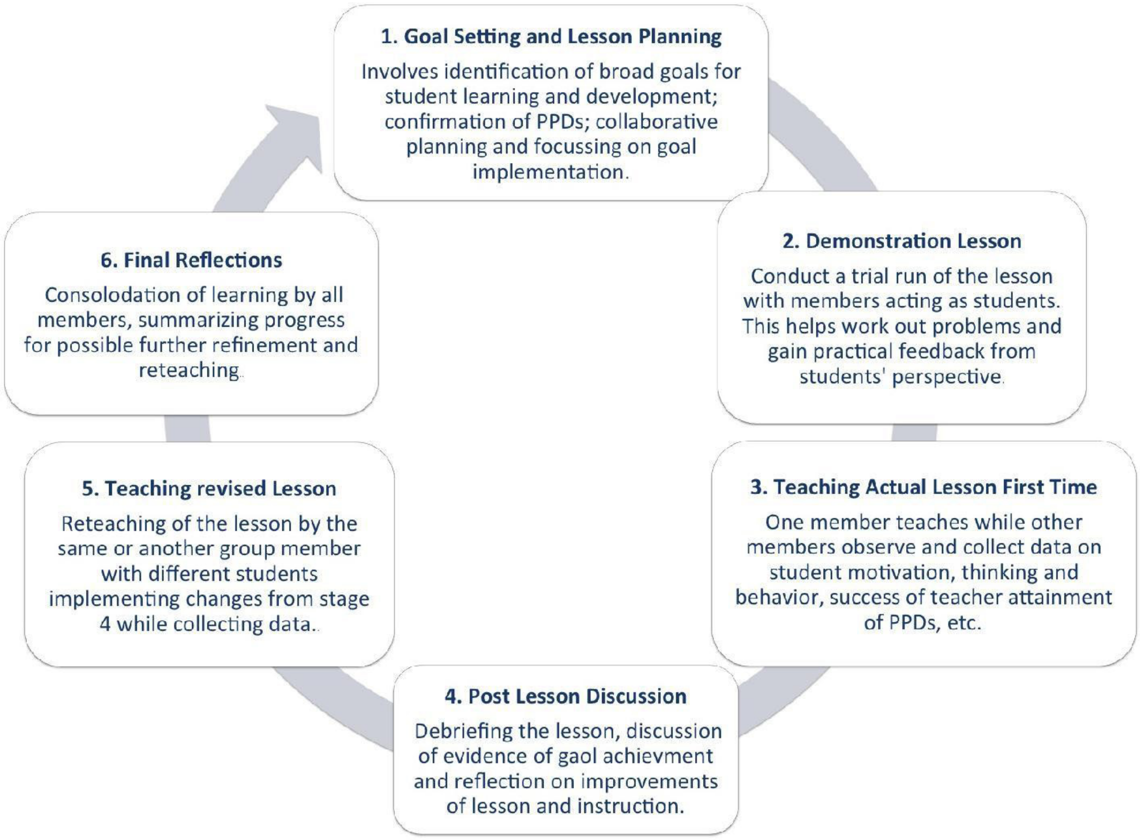

Figure 1. The six stages of the lesson study cycle used in this study, adapted from Lewis (2011).

1 summarizes the differences between traditional transmission model approaches and the lesson study approach (Lewis, 2011). The bottom-up lesson study approach provides a grounded, teacher-centered, autonomy-enhancing alternative.

Lewis (2008) points out that in lesson study, instructional improvement does not come from the improvement in lesson plans per se, but rather it is the collaborative nature of the planning, peer observation, reflection, data collection, revisions, and group discussions that leads to improvement. She points out that teacher development benefits of lesson study occur in the following areas (Lewis, 2008):

- increased knowledge of subject matter and instruction,
- increased knowledge of students and student thinking,
- stronger collegial networks,
- stronger connection of daily practice to long-term goals,
- stronger motivation to learn and belief that changes make a difference, and
- improved materials.

Table 1
Summarizing Differences Between Traditional Teacher Development and the Lesson Study Approach (Lewis, 2011, p. 7)

Traditional teacher development	Lesson study
Begins with answers	Begins with questions
Driven by outside “expert”	Driven by participants
Communication: trainer --> teachers	Communication: among teachers
Hierarchical relations between trainer and teachers	Reciprocal relations among learners
Research informs practice	Practice is research
	Lesson study is process oriented

The Importance of Collaboration in Teacher Development

Despite the fact that collaboration is shown to have many benefits, including increased levels of trust, creative problem solving, positive attitudes towards teaching, and improved efficacy, it is not emphasized in university coursework and receives little support for those who try to engage in it (Goddard, Goddard, & Tschannen-Moran, 2007; Tschannen-Moran, 2001). The dialogic construction of knowledge as seen in collaborative lesson study allows a cross pollination of ideas among members of the shared community of practice (CoP; see Wenger, 1998), which can allow newcomers, such as young preservice teachers, to go from outsiders to full-fledged members through their interactions as peers with the expert in-service teachers (Wells, 1999). It is important also to point out that the interaction between newcomers and experts is not a one-way street. Newcomers and experts can interact and learn from each other despite vast differences in knowledge and experience. While it is usually the case that the experienced teacher will have more to offer the newcomer, sometimes newcomers can come up with fresh ideas or think more creatively, unconstrained by years of tradition and habit. Figure 2 illustrates how members can collaboratively share knowledge and experience in lesson study regardless of their age or experience.

Methodology

This study took place at a local junior high school attached to the university and was approached using a qualitative research paradigm with data gathered from each stage of the lesson study cycle through video and audio recordings of all meetings and lessons, lesson observation logs, meeting notes, reflections notes, questionnaires, teacher learning plans, and interview notes. The members included the author, a university teacher development advisor, a Japanese teacher of English, and two preservice teachers (juniors in the Faculty of Education at the university).

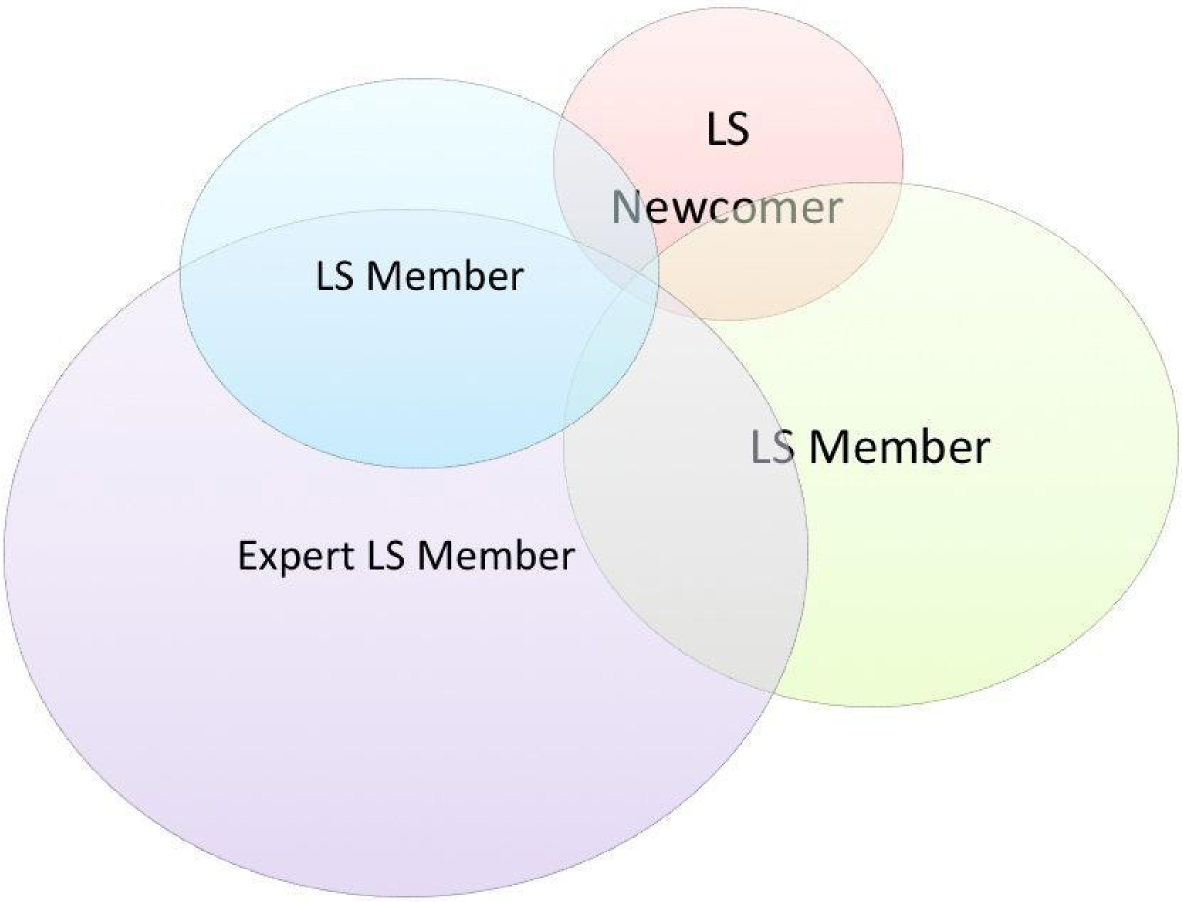

Figure 2. Sharing of knowledge among various members of a lesson study.

Table 2
The Six Stages Used in This Lesson Study

Stage	Purpose of stage
1	Establish PPDs, collaboratively choose lesson, plan lesson collaboratively
2	Conduct a practice demonstration lesson in the group, refine teaching points
3	Teach lesson first time with lesson study members observing and gathering data
4	Reflect on and revise lesson with input from all members
5	Reteach the lesson to another group of students; may change teacher
6	Engage in final reflections and consolidation of learning; report on results of lesson study

Method of Data Analysis

Analysis of data was conducted by engaging in a thorough cataloguing of the sources of data at each of the stages of the lesson study cycle (as described in Figure 2). The emergent categories were then holistically analyzed using comparative analysis and triangulated for validity using multiple data sources. For this study, it was extremely helpful to have the video and transcripts and translations of the video, as it allowed for deep analysis.

The Six Stages of this Lesson Study

The six stages of this lesson study are summarized in Table 2. Stage 1 began with questionnaires given to the two preservice teachers in order to ascertain their personal and professional development goals. The two preservice teachers, Y-san and A-san, were to teach for two weeks, sharing four classes (40 students per class) of third year junior high students. Thus, each lesson would be taught twice by each teacher. We decided to focus our lesson study on the teaching and re-teaching of a particular lesson of Y-san, which would be re-taught on a following day, allowing enough time for a reflection session between teaching episodes. One of the constraints that arose during our lesson study cycle was the difficulty of arranging the schedules of the team members to be present at each stage. In the lesson study framework, it would have been as possible to have A-san teach the revised lesson, but scheduling demands on the group made this problematic.

The entire cycle took three days to complete, as we needed ample time between stage 3, the first actual teaching stage, and stage 5, the teaching of the revised lesson. This time was required for collaborative reflection and revision of the lesson. We conducted stages 1 and 2 on the first day, stages 3 and 4 on the second day, and stages 5 and 6 on the third day.

In stage 1, the team determined the personal and professional goals of Y-san and A-san as including having good time management, having a fun class, using a naturalistic and humanistic approach to teaching, understanding the students' abilities and actual English levels, and finally being able to use classroom English (CRE). The outcome of this study in regards to the professional goal of CRE usage is the focus of this paper.

- CRE refers to incidental use of English in classroom management and student-teacher interactions as opposed to the target English of the lesson. It is also used in "teacher talk" or casual teacher chatting in English to open a lesson.

Table 3 shows a summary of the categorization of Y-san's personal and professional development goals (PPDs).

Emergent Categories

Four major categories emerged after a thorough analysis of the data from multiple sources taken at each of the six stages of the study, including a detailed analysis of transcripts and translations of the meeting notes, planning sessions, and lesson videos. The categories were "Significant Personal and Professional Goal Attainment", "Professional Knowledge Transfer", "Teacher Awareness Changes" and "Increased CoP Membership Identification".

From the category *Significant Personal and*

Table 3
Categorizing Y-san's Personal and Professional Development Goals (PPDs)

Category	Features
PPD-1	Timing: maintaining a natural flow of lesson transitions
PPD-2	Atmosphere: having a fun class, engagement, energetic pacing, body language
PPD-3	English: CRE usage, speaking lots of English, avoiding mistakes in CRE
PPD-4	Grammar: Lesson goal of past-participle grammar introduction and usage
PPD-5	Content: Lesson goal of teaching about discrimination against minorities

Professional (PPD) Goal Attainment, a major subcategory labeled *Classroom English Usage (CRE) Gains* emerged and is highlighted below.

Looking at PPD3 — Classroom English (CRE) Usage Gains

CRE usage gains emerged as a major subcategory and was also frequently pointed out by the members of the study as being very important to their teaching. CRE usage also has a cross influence on other goals such as PPD-2 (Class Atmosphere) in that the natural use of English during the lesson promotes both implicit learning and the creation of a fun atmosphere. The ability to produce CRE can also be affected by the level of anxiety the teacher is experiencing. Preservice teachers are typically very nervous when they first start teaching, and this often impacts negatively on their CRE production ability. I have observed cases where failures to smoothly produce CRE has led to a downward spiral in confidence with the teacher abandoning CRE altogether and switching to Japanese only.

In stage 3, the first actual teaching of the lesson, the team observed that Y-san's CRE at the beginning of the lesson (some teacher talk about trips overseas) had gone very smoothly, but her CRE usage severely declined after a computer mishap occurred. The stress of having a major activity fail during the lesson seemed to cause Y-san to falter in her CRE usage. This was confirmed in the stage 4 postlesson discussion during which Y-san admitted she was unable to produce even simple CRE sentences such as, "I want you to say your answer," getting stuck at "I want..."

In stage 4, we worked on ways of phrasing English questions to get desired responses from students, gave advice on CRE usage mistakes, and provided and practiced a number of alternative expressions.

In stage 5, the teaching of the revised lesson, the team noticed that Y-san's teacher talk and CRE had become much better than in stage 3, and her confidence level also appeared to be higher. In my observation logs I had noted "using good teacher talk and CRE," and in stage 6, the final reflections, K-sensei remarked that she too was impressed with Y-san's increased use of CRE. Y-san confirmed that she had taken to heart the advice from stage 4.

Quantifying CRE Improvement

In order to get a more objective view of the perceived changes in CRE, I decided to operationalize the variables of quantity and quality. This was achieved through the creation and analysis of raw transcripts of the CRE usage from the two actual lesson teaching stages, stage 3 and stage 5. I decided to define quantity as the number of tokens (the total running word count) and quality as the number of word types (unique instances of each word, or the size of the vocabulary used). For example, the sentence "Everyone, I want you to pass your papers forward after you finish writing your reflections." would have 15 tokens and 13 word types, as *you* and *your* are each repeated.

The results of analysis confirmed the perceived improvement, with about a 30% increase in both metrics. Quantity (token count) increased from 604 to 787 words, and quality (number of unique word instances) increased from 176 to 231. It was encouraging to see that not only the total amount of CRE had increased, but that the quality had also increased.

Conclusion

In answer to research question 1, it appears that going through a collaborative lesson study at a Japanese junior high school can improve the pedagogical environment and increase teacher learning, as illustrated in this paper, by helping teachers meet their personal and professional development goals.

For research question 2, the positive outcomes shown above indicate that the secondary education curriculums in Japan should benefit from a structured implementation of collaborative lesson study, which is currently mostly occurring in elementary school. The benefits of lesson study do come at a cost, and the most vexing limitation is time. Teachers who wish to conduct collaborative lesson study cycles will have to deal with the scheduling hassles required to get a group of busy members together for each of the stages of the cycle. I believe the case can be made that this sacrifice would be worthwhile, but these benefits will have to be made clear to the stakeholders in education in order to allow lesson study to become fully institutionalized.

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Student Preference in Teacher Nationality

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University English departments in Japan usually differentiate between native English speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs, usually natives of Japan). While this division is linguistically questionable, there is no doubt that it has significant personal and political consequences for "both" types of teachers (Holliday, 2013). Beginning with the seminal study by Medgyes (1992), various projects have tried to measure what "value", qualities, and effects NEST and NNEST teachers bring to the ESL/EFL classroom. The present project seeks to add to this discussion by examining whether or not students in Japanese universities hold different opinions about their foreign and Japanese teachers. Through student surveys, it was found that the subjects found some benefits to each type of teacher, though in many measurements they showed no preference for either.

日本の大学英語教育部門は通常、外国人英語教師と日本人英語教師を区別している。言語学的な観点から見て、これらを厳密に線引きすることは困難であるし、その一方で、これら2種類の教師区分は重大な個人的、そして政治的な結果である（Holliday　2013）とする論もある。後に足跡を残すMedgyes （1992） の論考をはじめ、様々な研究が外国人英語教師と日本人英語教師がESL/EFLの教育現場にもたらした貢献、効果について論証を重ねてきた。本論では日本の大学生が、外国人英語教師と日本人英語教師について異なる見解を持つのか、を検証することにより、先行研究の論を発展させることを試みる。調査の結果、外国人英語教師と日本人英語教師に差が出なかった項目も多かったが、学生は両タイプの教師にそれぞれの利点を見出していることがわかった。

Over the last several decades, a significant amount of TESOL research has been conducted on the differences between native English speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs). Medgyes' 1992 article in ELT Journal is often noted as one of the seminal papers in this genre. Medgyes set out to measure the relative "worth" of NEST and NNEST, implicitly arguing against the "commonsense" idea that native teachers are "better" than non-native teachers.

Since Medgyes' publication the issue has been significantly complicated by subsequent research as well as shifts in geopolitical forces to which the teaching and use of English are linked. On the one hand, numerous studies have shown that there is no consistent objectively identifiable difference, linguistically speaking, between native and non-native speakers (Holliday, 2013). Nonetheless, Holliday notes that not only is the division still used as a governing principle in both "English-speaking" and "non-English speaking" countries, its very existence is both a cause of and caused by ideological forces seeking to preserve special status for vested interests.

Shimai, Y., & Hahn, A. (2015). Student preference in teacher nationality. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 217-222). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

Holliday uses a postmodern framework to show how the problem is not only a deliberate construction designed to promote the economic interests of "inner circle countries" as Phillipson (1992) argued, but that it is also deeply embedded in the discourse of TESOL. This division can be fought against, but doing so requires a deliberate, conscious effort, what Holliday calls a cultural belief in the value of all language users.

In the case of Japan, Hayes (2013) found that while the NEST/NNEST division exists, it is often articulated differently. Rather than teachers being categorized based on their native language, there is often an explicitly racialized/nationalized division between foreign (gaikokujin) and Japanese (nihonjin) teachers. While Hayes mainly focuses on how these hiring practices "ghettoize foreign teachers into nonstandard employment" (p. 132), she also points out that foreign teachers can gain benefit from their status, such as how some universities excuse them from normally mandatory administrative work due to a perceived or actual lack of Japanese fluency. While we stand with Holliday and Hayes in believing that the division between NEST/NNEST and foreign/Japanese teachers is harmful to teachers and students alike, like Hayes we have chosen to use this terminology in our research, to investigate the consequences of these administratively mandated divisions and then hopefully find ways in which they can be appropriated and/or undermined.

An extensive review of research on possible differences in teaching between NEST and NNEST can be found in Braine's (2005) book chapter, "A history of research on non-native speaker English teachers." Braine reports on studies done on language program administrators, teachers (self perceptions), and students. Results varied; some, such as Mahboob (2003, cited in Braine) found a definite preference for NESTs—a finding that Mahboob clarified in a later work demonstrating this was a case of deliberate discrimination (rather than a question of availability), since even programs which offered TESOL training to non-native speakers underemployed NNESTs (Mahboob et al., 2004). Other research, such as Cheung (2002, cited in Braine) found that teachers and students in Hong Kong felt that there were benefits to exposure to both types of teachers.

The present study sought to continue in this vein of analysis by examining how the foreign/Japanese dynamic plays out in the minds of students in university English classrooms in Japan.

Background

A pilot study (Shimai, 2013) was conducted at a private university in southern Japan (hereafter referred to as University A). In that study, 78 students were surveyed about their opinions of their foreign and Japanese teachers. University A students take the TOEIC Bridge as part of their coursework, and are leveled based on their test results into "Beginner", "Intermediate", and "Advanced" courses. Also, at the time of the pilot study, students always received one foreign and one Japanese teacher for their compulsory English courses. Japanese teachers were supposed to focus on grammar and the reading portion of TOEIC Bridge, while foreign teachers were supposed to focus on daily conversation and the listening portion of the TOEIC Bridge. The survey was given to students in two Beginner first-year classes and two Advanced second-year classes. It asked the students to evaluate how much their English teachers from that year used their non-native language, rate how useful, enjoyable, and comfortable they felt the classes were on a 5 point Likert scale, and allowed them to give free responses about good and bad experiences they had, as well their opinion about why their classes were or were not useful.

The results, containing data on six different instructors, demonstrated several significant differences in students' perceptions of their native and non-native teachers, consistently favoring the Japanese teachers. Table 1 lists each of the measurements for which statistically significant differences were found. In addition, the results showed that Beginner level students were more likely to prefer Japanese to foreign teachers.

Given that the pilot study represented only a small number of students and teachers at a single school, it was not clear if the results would hold true for a wider population. The present study sought to answer this question by surveying more students and adding a second university (University B).

Table 1
Significant Results From Pilot Study

Measurement	Foreign teacher M (out of 5)	Japanese teacher M (out of 5)
No difficulty to answer questions	3.7	4.2
Fun in class	3.0	4.0
Able to ask questions to teacher	2.8	4.1
Able to consult teacher	2.5	3.8
Understandability of teacher	2.6	4.2

Note: All results significant to $p<0.0001$

Methods

Setting

University A and B are private four-year universities located in southern Japan of approximately equal size. University A is generally regarded as a very low level university, while University B is usually regarded as a mid-level university. Both universities offer a wide range of majors, and the students in the present study included those from business-related fields, science, sports, and other fields, though no English majors were surveyed. Except for one class of third year students at University B, all students surveyed were in their second year, and were responding about teachers from their first year.

In addition to the difference in levels, Universities A and B also have a difference in the way they allocate teachers to classes and students. As explained above, each student had one foreign teacher and one Japanese teacher at University A. At University B, however, classes are not strictly divided this way. Rather, the university tends to assign foreigners to communicative and oral skills courses, and Japanese to reading/writing and test preparation courses, though teachers in either group can teach any course. While this leads to teachers having a mix of courses, it is common for students to get one or more of each during their time at the university. In the present survey, only one group of students reported having only a Japanese teacher in the prior year and none reported having only a foreign teacher.

Research Questions

The survey instrument was similar to the pilot survey so that broad trends could be compared; however, additional elements were added to provide a better picture of student perceptions. In looking to see if the results were replicable, we were specifically concerned with the following two questions:

Do students rate the enjoyableness and usefulness of foreign and Japanese teachers differently?

Do students find classes with either foreign or Japanese teachers easier to manage, in terms of being able to ask and answer questions?

Survey

The survey consisted of two pages of identical questions (all in Japanese), one page for each type of teacher. The survey contained seven 5-point Likert scale questions and four free response questions. Of the Likert scale questions, one asked about enjoyableness of the class, three about how difficult the courses were (ease of understanding the teacher, ease of answering questions posed by the teacher, and ease of asking the teacher questions), and two about usefulness (general usefulness and to what degree the class had helped them become better at English). The open-ended questions asked for a memorable experience from the class, the reason the class was or was not useful, what they liked about the teacher's teaching style, and, for those who said they got better at English, what aspect of English they improved at. The survey also contained a set of questions about the frequency that their instructors had used various activities (e.g., speaking aloud, essay writing, translation) and how much they enjoyed those activities, but that data was not analyzed for this project or reported on in this paper.

A complete questionnaire (in Japanese) can be found at http://ahahnenglish.weebly.com/shimai-hahn-2014-jalt-pansig-presentation.html.

Procedures

The surveys were conducted during the first and second weeks of the Spring, 2014 term. 248 students completed the survey—106 from University A, and 142 from University B. However, not all students completed all sections, and thus had their results partially excluded—for example, students who did not provide data about both foreign and Japanese teachers could not be used for comparison measurements. Since both a Shapiro-Wilk test and a visual inspection of the data indicated that it was not normally distributed, Mann-Whitney tests were used to measure whether there were significant differences between students' perceptions of their teachers. All Mann-Whitney tests were calculated with the Social Science Statistics website (Stangroom, 2014).

Results

For University A, there were no significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in student responses for Japanese and foreign teachers for any questions. That is, for every quantitative question, students did not significantly endorse one side over the other, a fundamentally different result from the pilot study.

For University B, however, students did show statistically significant differences for four of the survey questions, as summarized in Table 2. First, the students felt that Japanese teachers used more English than foreign teachers used Japanese. Second, the students rated the classes with foreign teachers as more enjoyable. Third, students rated the classes with foreign teachers as more useful than classes with Japanese teachers. Finally, the students found it easier to answer questions in Japanese teachers' classes—note that the wording of the survey question implies all course questions, including those in the textbook, from the teacher, on exams, etc. Since another question asking about the difficulty of understanding their teacher showed no statistically significant difference between Japanese and foreign teachers, it seems likely that this fourth statistical difference indicates that the students found classes with foreign teachers to have an overall higher level of difficulty.

When data from the two universities was combined, two distinctions remained statistically significant: students found foreign teachers' classes to be more enjoyable (foreign = 3.60, Japanese = 3.12, $p = 0.0001$), and they found it easier to answer questions in Japanese teachers' classes (foreign = 3.46, Japanese = 3.72, $p = 0.0179$).

With regards to the open-ended questions on class activities, students strongly distinguished between foreign and native teachers. Students who said that the class improved their English skills were asked what skill they most improved at. Looking at the combined results, for foreign teachers, the top four responses were conversation skill, listening, vocabulary, and communication skill (9, 8, 6, and 5 responses, respectively). With Japanese teachers, the top response was grammar, receiving 15 responses, while the next

Table 2

Questions With Significant Differences Between Foreign and Japanese Teachers at University B

Question	Foreign teacher M (out of 5)	Japanese teacher M (out of 5)	p
Non-native language use	1.70	1.99	0.041
Enjoyment of class	3.78	3.09	0.001
Usefulness of class	3.92	3.55	0.006
Difficulty in answering questions	3.40	3.71	0.043

3 closest—vocabulary, pronunciation, and reading—received only 4 responses each. While the nature of the results makes it difficult to determine how much of this was related to what the students thought was valuable and how much emphasis the teachers placed on the activities, there is a clear difference here.

Complete survey results for each question, along with examples of the original Japanese surveys can be found at http://ahahnenglish.weebly.com/shimai-hahn-2014-jalt-pansig-presentation.html.

Discussion

The first notable point is that the present results did not match those of the pilot study. While the total amount of data acquired is still too low to say with certainty whether or not University A students actually have no preference with respect to their teachers' nationality, anecdotal evidence suggests that the pilot study may have suffered from some methodological problems that make the present study more reliable. First, in the pilot study, one foreign teacher and one Japanese teacher accounted for more than half of the evaluations; thus student feelings about those specific teachers may have skewed the results. The present study covered a much wider range of teachers, with no teacher accounting for more than 12% of the total of named teachers. Second, in the pilot study, a number of teachers that the students evaluated were the ones administering the survey, and thus students may have felt pressure to be sensitive in their responses. In the present study, however, there was almost no overlap between survey administrators and teachers named in the survey.

If we take the present survey as reliable, we have to consider why University A showed no significant differences in responses while University B had several. While a more certain response would require additional research, we theorize two possible factors that explain this difference. First, University A requires all teachers to follow a fixed curriculum, while University B teachers are given almost complete freedom to choose their teaching methods, subjects, and resources. Thus, it may be that University A teachers have less ability to influence student attitudes than University B teachers, so students at University A may be responding more to the program than to the teachers themselves. Second, University A students are lower level, and may see less value in English overall. Thus, they may simply be indifferent to all English teachers/classes, regardless of nationality/native language.

With respect to the research questions, when looking at the combined data, students found foreign teachers' classes more enjoyable, but found Japanese teachers' classes easier to answer questions in. This seems to imply that maintaining a curriculum in which students are exposed to both is beneficial, at least as far as student opinions are concerned. The study does not, of course, speak to the relative effectiveness of teachers and/or methodologies, but does speak to students' beliefs and desires.

As for class activities, the same message applies. Responses seemed to indicate that students strongly felt that the most important thing that foreign teachers could offer was conversation/communication practice, as well as exposure to native speech. Japanese teachers, on the other hand, were overwhelmingly valued for their grammatical knowledge. This, along with the finding that Japanese teachers' questions were easier to answer, verifies in part Medgyes' (1992) study which argued that while native speakers are helpful as a model communicative resource, one of the specific benefits of NNEST teachers was their better understanding of the rules of English and the students' difficulties in learning English.

The next necessary step is to acquire qualitative information from students and teachers about why they hold the opinions they do via interviews and classroom observations. Student interviews would allow us the opportunity to get detailed feedback from students on what specifically concerns them about their teachers, along with what they want out of English courses. Teacher interviews would provide a chance to get their responses to their students' preferences, and determine whether or not they had been intending to provoke the reactions they received. Direct classroom observation, especially correlated with interviews, would help find out what students are reacting to that leads to their judgments.

As to the more general question raised in earlier research as well as the daily lives of university teachers in Japan about the "value" of NEST vs. NNEST, the survey points tentatively to the idea that students believe that the two categories each have value, but that the value is not the same. This indicates that we must not only be concerned with administrative perceptions as we negotiate and seek to alter this categorization, but that we must also account for and possibly seek to alter student perceptions.

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Designing Authentic Audience in Project Based Learning

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This paper examines the rationale for designing projects with consideration given to authentic output. Typically, in an attempt to make project work authentic, the focus has been to use authentic sources of information as input. This paper argues that when possible, projects can be more effectively designed with a focus on an authentic audience in an attempt to increase learners' motivation to use the target language to complete the project. This is particularly useful when a project group consists of members with the same first language. Three examples of projects that were designed with an authentic audience and a sense of permanence are highlighted.

本稿では正しいアウトプットを考慮し、考案されたプロジェクトの理論的根拠を吟味することを目的とする。　一般的に、プロジェクトが機能するには、正しい情報をつかうことに焦点が置かれてきた。プロジェクトを完了するにあたり、可能な限り対象言語を学習する者の動機づけのために、聞き手側に焦点を置きつつ考案されればプロジェクトはより効果的になると本稿で主張する。このメソッドは学習者のグループが同じ第一言語を話す場合は特に効果的である。正しい聞き手の存在と永続性を考慮された、3つのプロジェクトの例を取り上げる。

Project Based Learning (PBL) has been a widely used pedagogical approach for language learning. Many teachers intuitively know that students' motivation increases when they have their heads up, using English with their peers compared to being facedown drudgingly drilling through textbook activities. The benefits of PBL are well established (Blumenfeld et al, 1991). On the other hand, there are those lingering concerns that learners are not using the optimal level of target language in the process of completing project work. The concerns are compounded when the project class is made up of the same first language community, which is the norm in most Japanese universities. This paper will examine the rationale for focusing attention on the ultimate audience of a project and how this could potentially lead to an increase in motivation to use English while collaborating on project work. Discussion follows on how project work can be modified to provide students with more opportunities for meaningful and authentic output that will help promote the use of English throughout the project cycle. Finally three projects designed with an authentic audience and a sense of permanence will be introduced.

Stockwell, M. A. (2015). Designing authentic audience in project based learning. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 223-227). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

Literature Review

In this paper, Project-Based Learning (PBL) is defined as "an innovative approach to learning that teaches a multitude of strategies critical for success in the twenty-first century. Students drive their own learning through inquiry, as well as work collaboratively to research and create projects that reflect their knowledge" (Bell, 2010, p. 39). With this approach, learners have voice and choice in both the process and product aspect of the activity. Learners are also exposed to real-life skills by engaging in PBL through the designed necessity to collaborate and cooperate with their peers, audience, and instructor.

In general education literature, there are a plethora of studies supporting the use of PBL in general education. In language teaching literature, there are numerous case studies explaining the successful application of PBL in foreign language studies (Alan & Stoller, 2005). However, as Stoller (2006) points out, there are few empirical studies to evaluate the effects of project work for learning a foreign language. In addition, in a number of studies there is little distinction made between foreign language and second language contexts. In this paper, this difference in context is argued to be important and in need of further study.

In the context of general education, the medium of communication is in the first language; as a result, learners can concentrate on the content and the task. However, when PBL is used with the dual goal of learning content and a second language, the dynamics change considerably. With students comprising many different first languages, this might be satisfactory for the successful application of PBL, as the target language will be necessary for the group to communicate with each other. However, in situations where the learners are comprised of the same first language users, it might not be enough to guarantee that the process is carried out in the target language. There is a real concern that the focus might be to complete the task and to a lesser degree learn the target language. The use of the target language to complete the task might feel unauthentic and not natural. When instructors direct the final product towards an authentic audience, students will likely need to think critically not only on the content of the project, but more importantly on the form of the language and their ability to communicate their thoughts in the appropriate register.

In Stoller's (2006) influential study, an analysis of 16 publications on different aspects of PBL reported eight common benefits of project work. Stoller emphasizes that the most commonly cited benefit of PBL is the authenticity of experience and language. However, it does not elaborate on what authentic experience entails, and could be limited to only what is described as authentic sources of input. Allen and Stoller (2005), detailed key factors for successful project work which were: the need to focus on real-world issues, student collaboration, focus on form, focus on process as well as product, and an emphasis on integrated skills and end-of-project-reflection. In this and the majority of other studies, there is no direct discussion on the benefits of authentic audience. In most cases, it appears that projects are designed with the final product to be presented to an instructor or to a simulated audience. Learners are required to complete the task only to a level that satisfies the requirements of the teacher. With authentic audience, students are tasked with creating a product that could be used in a real-world context. It is argued that this can be motivating for students, as they need to think outside of the confines of the classroom.

Discussion

What is regarded as authentic is often limited to the selection of project themes or real-world items that form authentic input. The selected themes, which are often generated by the language instructor, thus act to frame the context of the project. Within PBL literature, a considerable amount has been written about authentic tasks that address real-world problems such as finding an apartment, deciding a study-abroad program, creating an advertisement to support a cause, or other tasks that may be of interest to learners. Authentic tasks are defined as pedagogical activities that allow learners to demonstrate their knowledge to solve real-world problems. Authentic tasks "create a bridge between what is learned in the classroom and why this knowledge is important to the world outside of the classroom" (Kolk, n.d.).

This focus of context with real-world themes or issues provides the authenticity that teachers strive for, and learners often appreciate. The problem with this approach is that authenticity is often limited to the initial stages of the project cycle as it is essentially derived from the input that provides the background content that learners need to process to complete the project. As Stoller (2006) writes, the vast majority of project work exposes learners to the target language through the use of authentic information sources. However, it is questionable whether this is sufficient to motivate learners to communicate in the target language throughout the project-cycle.

As Dornyei (1994) states, providing learners with authentic materials and tasks is believed to lead to an increase in foreign language study. There is a need to highlight that authentic tasks do not necessarily follow with authentic output or audience. Authentic tasks provide a simulation of real-world problems, but do not guarantee that the final product will go beyond the teacher's desk and the classroom. If the final product is going to be used by an authentic audience, students might be more likely to use the second language in carrying out the tasks in homogeneous classrooms. When learners submit work to their instructor, they likely believe that the instructor will be able to fill in the gaps in language and content. When they submit project work to peers, they are likely to believe their peers will forgive them for gaps in their knowledge of content or the target language. Learners are possibly motivated to work harder when their work has a sense of permanence and an authentic audience.

In classes with the same first language, it is essential that authenticity moves beyond providing elements of authentic inputs and contexts and considers the need for authentic output and audience. When applying PBL in foreign language study, we need to consider the level of authenticity of the project's target audience. If developing an authentic project is our objective, we need to go beyond realia and focus on the audience for the project.

From the language learning literature, it is clear that there are benefits for using PBL in the foreign language classroom. However, what is missing in the literature is research on the benefits of authentic audience for projects in EFL contexts.

The best place to start when attempting to design an authentic audience into a project is at the end or where the product will be presented or evaluated. If instructors design a project with an initial focus on authentic sources of information, it is potentially difficult to grow the audience beyond the classroom. Another factor, pointed out by Robb (1996), if you have an authentic audience in mind, is that the instructor might need to be more involved in the initial selection of project themes to ensure a sense of unity for the audience. If an authentic audience is the target, it may require more planning at the initial stages.

I propose the following criteria in determining the efficacy of an audience for an EFL project.

1. The target audience for the final product is apposite for the learners. Learners will judge if the audience is in a position to benefit from the content of the project.
2. The target language will be the natural mode of communication between the audience and the learners.
3. Learners will have access to relevant information and knowledge that the audience will value.
4. The product will have a sense of permanence and completeness.
5. The product for the audience will have significant content that will be useful for the learner as well as the audience.
6. Learners will have input on the direction and outcome of the project.
7. The audience for the project will likely provide feedback in the target language.

While the objective is to design projects that meet these criteria, clearly due to pedagogical constraints, not all will always be satisfied. However, in the EFL context, whenever possible, effort should be made to include some of these criteria during the initial designing stages. The following expands on a few of these points.

An important consideration in designing a project is to ensure the content will be useful for the learners. This content should be meaningful for the learners' present and future life and not just studied to obtain a favorable evaluation. When the learner interacts with the target audience, they are exposed or encouraged to learn new concepts and skills. Also, as reported by Brophy (1999), learners are likely to be more motivated when they view activities as having real life applications.

A sense of permanence can also provide content for other learners in a language program. According to Murphey (1998), this can be a highly effective way to increase student motivation. With Near Peer Role Modeling, as Murphey refers to it, learners motivation can be increased by providing role models who are from the same culture, similar ages and are successfully communicating in English. A sense of permanence, as well as authenticity of audience may lead to an increase in learner motivation.

The following are examples of projects that have been designed with consideration given to authentic output and audience. The first was carried out with third-year students at a women's university in Japan, the majority of whom had participated as conference interns at the JALT international conference held in Nagoya. Students formed groups of four and five members and were tasked with preparing a proposal to host a conference at their university. The project lasted for five weeks with a final written proposal as well as a short presentation on why the university and this team of interns should be selected to host an English teaching conference. Learners were given minimal information in regard to the organization other than their website. Learners then worked together to determine what kind of information was needed, the best method to present this information and carried out a needs analysis for both the host and the conference organization. The final product highlighted the services and facilities the group could offer to the conference organizers and comprised the basis for the final product, which was a proposal to host a conference for the English Teachers of Japan association.

The benefits of this task were that the skills required were all useful to learners after they graduated university and, as Haines (as cited in Beckett, 2006) stated, that it provided students with the opportunity to "recycle known language and skills" in a natural context. They included computer, photography, organizational, and management skills.

Another project consisted of building a Weebly website for the JALTCALL conference at the university. By following a simple drag and drop approach, Weebly gives users a high degree of freedom to design and add content without requiring HTML coding. Learners were given a wide variety of topics to choose from. One group of four students decided to build a website that would provide information concerning facilities nearby the venue for conference participants. After delegating responsibilities, students gathered information on the shops and restaurants nearby and provided access maps in a variety of mediums. Learners were also able to learn how to use new web 2.0 services that have made web design accessible to anyone with an Internet connection. This webpage can be accessed at http://sugiyamahoshigaoka.weebly.com/. Another benefit of this project is that it can be used and edited by future learners and help build a useful site for the program.

A third project also used Weebly to build pages for the programs survival manual. Students worked together to build a survival manual for new students entering the program. These third-year students, in the last year of the program, had a great deal of knowledge about many different aspects of the program and study abroad. The object of the project was to share this knowledge and help build a permanent base for future students. Students designed their homepage, which was linked to the programs' webpage.

Conclusion

To conclude, it will not always possible for pedagogical and practical reasons to design authentic audience in all project work. Nevertheless, it does make intuitive sense that there are potential benefits in making an attempt to add elements of authentic audience and permanence when feasible. This is particularly true, in teaching contexts where the makeup of a project class is comprised mainly of learners with the same first language. Further study is needed to see what impact authentic audience has on learner motivation and use of the target language in homogeneous classes.

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Test Re-Dos for Supporting Learner Reflection and Development

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This paper introduces the notion of test re-dos and argues that they are a powerful tool to support learner development. Test re-dos are theoretically based upon the disciplines of self-regulated learning and learning-oriented assessment, and their primary aim is to provide an opportunity for learners to reflect on their performance and to use both internal and external feedback to bridge the gap between their current performance and their desired performance. In this way, the test moves from being a device primarily used to measure student ability to a vehicle to help all students develop as learners. This paper will discuss self-regulated learning and learning-oriented assessment highlighting the interconnections between the two, and will introduce an example of the use of test re-dos in a university TOEFL iBT preparation course.

本論文はテストのやり直しという新しい試験の概念を紹介しそれが学習者の学習能力の発達に役立てることを主張する。テストのやり直しは自己調整学習および学習を重視する評価という二つの概念に基づいている。評価タスクにおける自らの実績に振り返り自らが出すフィードバックや教員および同級生からのフィードバックを活用して現在の能力を理想的な能力に近づけるための機会を学習者に与えることがテストのやり直しの主な目的である。試験をこのように利用すると、試験という評価方法が学習者の能力を測るものから学習者の学習能力の向上に役立つツールに生まれ変わる。本論文はまず自己調整学習および学習を重視する評価と、この二つの概念の関連性を説明した上で、大学でのTOEFL試験の準備講座におけるテストのやり直しの例を紹介する。

Testing is a common element of foreign language classes, but why do we do it? Tests are typically used to measure a learner's ability, to see how much he or she has learned or understood from a course; but is this the best use of tests from the perspective of helping all students to learn, improve and develop? In so many cases the results of tests are only used to inform student grades; and even if test results are made available to students, presuming that this is done in a form that actually promotes feedback, there is normally no official opportunity within the course curriculum for the student to reflect or act on this feedback, to bridge the gap between their current performance and their desired performance (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). Without this "closing of the gap" (Sadler, 1989) testing merely becomes another way of sorting the good students from the bad, instead of acting as a powerful device to help all students develop as learners.

Test re-dos, or allowing students to make another attempt at a test task after reflecting on their original

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in-class performance, aim to transform tests from a simple measurement tool to a chance to support learner development. The idea of test re-dos comes from two deeply intertwined disciplines: self-regulated learning (SRL) and learning-oriented assessment (LOA). This paper will firstly explain SRL and LOA, and the relation between the two. It will then introduce the use of test re-dos in the author's TOEFL iBT preparation courses and explain how test re-dos contribute to the development of SRL strategies. Other examples of re-do opportunities that the author is implementing in her courses will also be introduced, as well as alternative ideas for tweaking typical assessment procedures to build a closer connection between assessment and learning.

Theoretical Framework of Test Re-dos

Self-regulated Learning

Self-regulated learning is a concept which originates from educational psychology, and is typically referred to in school-based education as the strategies and skills students need to become lifelong learners. Self-regulation refers to the extent that learners are able to "regulate aspects of their thinking, motivation and behaviour during learning" (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006, p. 199). Inherent here is the idea that self-regulated learners are actively involved in the processes of their learning through constant monitoring and reflection, and that learning is targeted towards the achievement of the learner's goals.

Self-regulated learners are said to move through learning cycles which involve three main stages: a planning stage during which learners set learning goals, a performance stage when learners monitor their learning, and a final self-reflection stage. What is important here is that the results of learners' self-reflection inform future learning. It is this ability to monitor and reflect on learning which allows learners to identify why their learning was successful or not, and to adjust their strategies or approaches as necessary, which helps self-regulated learners maintain motivation.

For self-regulated learners moving through these stages is an automatic process. However, self-regulated learning strategies are said to be learnable skills and the incorporation of learning tasks to facilitate the development of these strategies is a point of interest for many foreign language teachers who believe that it is these fundamental learning skills that will help their learners be successful both in and out of the classroom, and ultimately become autonomous language learners.

Learning-oriented Assessment

There are many terms in use to refer to the use of assessment that prioritizes learning over the mere measurement of ability or learning, such as formative assessment, assessment for learning, and assessment as learning (Clark, 2012). David Carless (2007) suggests the term learning-oriented assessment to avoid conflicting understandings of formative assessment. Carless explains that "[t]he aim of LOA is strengthening the learning aspects of assessment" and he believes it "can be achieved through either formative or summative assessments as long as a central focus is on engineering appropriate student learning" (Carless, 2007, p. 59).

To achieve this aim LOA should consist of three interconnected strands or principles: assessment tasks are designed as learning tasks; students are actively involved in the assessment process; feedback is used to "feedforward" into future learning (Carless, 2007, p. 59). LOA and particularly the third principle of "feedforward" are crucial concepts for supporting learner development, and helping learners to see assessment not as the final stage of their learning, but as the next step; as an opportunity to monitor and reflect on their performance, and set future learning goals—i.e. it is the beginning of another learning cycle. It is in this respect that LOA bears similarities to SRL, and this is a specific point of interest for this paper.

Feedback in SRL and LOA

Feedback (both self-generated and external) is a crucial element of both SRL and LOA as it spurs the learner's monitoring and reflection practices; it is at once both a product of and a catalyst for monitoring and reflection. Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) argue that good feedback can facilitate self-regulation, and in their paper they outline seven principles of good feedback practices which they define as "anything that might strengthen the students' capacity to self-regulate their own performance" (p. 205). Below I replicate the list of seven principles from Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006, p. 205).

Good feedback practice:

1. helps clarify what good performance is (goals, criteria, expected standards);
2. facilitates the development of self-assessment (reflection) in learning;
3. delivers high quality information to students about their learning;
4. encourages teacher and peer dialogue around learning;
5. encourages positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem;
6. provides opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance;
7. provides information to teachers that can be used to help shape teaching.

Here, I would particularly like to focus on principle six, and on how this idea fits in with SRL and LOA. In so many cases tests are used purely to measure student ability and/or learning, and in the process students are labeled as good or bad, able or not, without being provided the chance to understand why they have been labeled in this way, or an opportunity to bridge the gap between their current performance and what has been delineated as desired performance in the course in question. In LOA the purpose of assessment is to help all learners to get closer to the realization of course goals—not just the students who get there first—and as such, the idea of giving learners the opportunity to improve their performance, based on self-generated and external feedback, is a natural progression.

There are typically few, if no, chances for learners to improve their performance on a particular assessment item or task within higher education. However, without the chance to "complete the feedback loop" (Sadler, 1989) we cannot confirm if feedback was effective, i.e. if it led to learning or not (Boud, 2000). Various types of "close the gap" opportunities have been suggested, including resubmissions and two-stage assignments (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). This type of LOA is also expected to enhance motivation and self-esteem, and to encourage "incremental views" of ability (the idea that ability is malleable) rather than "entity views" (the notion that ability is fixed), and this falls under Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick's (2006) fifth principle of good feedback.

Although this discussion of feedback focuses mainly on the role of external feedback (i.e. from teachers or peers) I argue that the ideas outlined above are intimately connected to SRL practices, and represent the incorporation of learning cycles into formal assessment practices. In the next section I will introduce the use of test re-dos in my TOEFL iBT preparation courses, and explain how I try to support learner reflection and development through this example of LOA in practice.

Test Re-dos in Practice

I have been using test re-dos in my TOEFL iBT preparation courses since 2008, and continue to refine procedures each semester. I started to experiment with this form of assessment as I believe learners get more out of the testing experience by thinking about their performance and trying to improve based on reflection, compared to just taking the test, going home, and forgetting all about it. Although the tests in this course are graded and feedback is provided to learners, I believe that having learners reflect upon their performance, and act on this reflection, within a relatively short time frame after taking the original in-class test, generates a deeper level of engagement with learning. This is especially important given the anxiety inevitably present when taking a test. In the sections to follow I will introduce the course, the assessment items, and how I actually use test re-dos.

The Course

The 15 week long TOEFL iBT preparation courses are taught at a university in regional Japan. The courses are credit-bearing non-compulsory courses open to students of all year levels, and they are taken by a variety of students for a variety of different purposes:

students who have returned from study abroad, students who will be participating in or who want to participate in study abroad, students who want to continue with their English study beyond compulsory courses or who want to study at an advanced level, and students who have failed other compulsory English courses and are taking this course to meet graduation requirements. The university in question is a single-faculty university offering study in three departments related to the fields of economics, commerce and public management. Thus, the students are all non-English majors.

In total there are two courses: one that focuses on the reading and writing sections of the TOEFL iBT in the first semester, and one concentrating on the speaking and listening sections in the second semester. Although there are slight differences in assessment type and schedule between the two courses, the assessment procedures generally follow a similar pattern:

1. Weekly TOEFL iBT reading or listening online quizzes for homework (20%)
2. Two vocabulary tests or project work (10%)
3. In-class summary test held in Week 7 (20%)
4. In-class essay (or independent speaking) test held in Week 13 (20%)
5. End of semester exam featuring a reading/listening comprehension task, a summary task, and an essay/independent speaking task (30%).

It is the in-class summary and in-class essay tests in which I carry out test re-dos. Students' final scores for this assessment task are based on their re-submitted work (scored out of 15). In addition, students are required to complete a guided reflection and self-evaluation sheet (scored out of 5).

Test Re-dos

As illustrated in Figure 1, learning cycles (with goal-setting, monitoring, and reflection stages) are incorporated into both class work and assessment practices to support students' learning and development throughout the course. For example, in the case of the semester one course which focuses on the reading and writing sections of the TOEFL iBT, in the first five weeks of the course students learn how to read texts to find the main points and how to construct summaries. The majority of the work done in class is pair- or group-based, in order to provide opportunities for peer scaffolding. At the end of each class students typically submit a summary that they have written as a pair or a group, and this is checked by the teacher and returned the following week with feedback. After repeating this process for five weeks, students take the in-class summary test, which uses a new reading passage. After the test, students are given a chance to discuss their performance with a peer, and then the re-do procedure is explained.

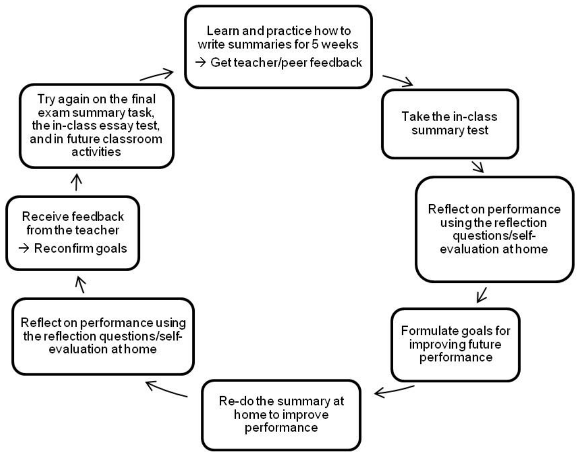

Figure 1. The learning and assessment cycle for summary test re-dos

Students are required to firstly reflect on their in-class performance, and then re-write their summary based on this reflection. They are also asked to answer a series of self-reflection questions (in either English or Japanese) and to complete a self-evaluation rubric. Students are given one week within which to complete both tasks. As stated above, while the original in-class summary is also reviewed, only the resubmission is graded.

Self-reflection

The self-reflection questions are specifically designed to cover various elements of SRL:

1. How did you feel when writing your summary in-class? How did you feel when re-writing your summary at home? What was difficult?

Self-Evaluation	5	4	3	2	1	0
(5=high score, 0=low score)						
My summary successfully covers the **main points**.						
My summary successfully covers the **sub points**.						
My summary is **easy to understand**.						
The structure of my summary is **logical**.						
I used the **introduction phrases**.						
Pronunciation & Intonation						
Grammar & Vocabulary						
Length (within 1 minute?)						

Figure 2. Self-evaluation rubric for the summary test re-do

What was easy?

2. What do you think is the strongest part of your summary?
3. What do you think is the weakest part of your summary?
4. What do you think you need to do to further improve your summary writing skills?
5. Do you have any questions/comments about this test/assignment or our class so far?

The first part of question 1 targets affective issues in particular, to help students reflect on their emotional state and how this influenced their behavior. The second part of the question aims to get students to monitor their progress (although post hoc). This then ties into questions 2 and 3 which attempt to plant seeds for the next learning cycle, and subsequently question 4 which encourages goal setting for the next learning cycle. Question 5 opens up opportunities for student initiated student-teacher communication, which is extremely important for helping learners to take charge of their learning.

Although care must be taken not to overwhelm students with too many questions to answer, I am also considering the inclusion of two additional questions based on the following suggestions from Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006, p. 215):

(i) having students request the feedback they would like
(ii) having students identify where they are having difficulties.

While the second point here perhaps overlaps somewhat with question 3 above, I feel that having students isolate a particular part of their summary or essay that they would like teacher advice on would be more beneficial when it comes to grading and formal teacher feedback.

My experience with student reflections on this course to date has made it very clear that when given a chance to reflect and talk about their performance, students are quite savvy and tend to have a good idea of what areas they need to work on to improve their performance. It is important to give students a chance to identify their own issues in their language learning. Not only does it contribute to the development of their monitoring and self-evaluation skills—i.e. their ability to self-regulate their learning—but it is also important from an equality perspective; teachers should recognize that students are not completely unaware of the issues they need to deal with in their learning.

Self-evaluation

The inclusion of the self-evaluation rubric (Figure 2) and the self-evaluation step is also important as it works to inform students of grading criteria, i.e. their goals for the task. This rubric is introduced to learners at an early stage to help them realize what makes a good summary, but reintroducing it here again is important for reinforcing these points.

Feeding-forward to the Next Learning/ Assessment Cycle

The week after the in-class summary test, students continue with their reading practice but also begin work on essay writing. As with the first-half of the course, over the next five to six weeks students analyze model essays and learn how to write their own essay. The process is slightly different given the differing skills involved in essay writing, but students experience brainstorming, planning, writing, and editing essays, again in pairs or small groups. There are two formal chances for feedback before the test—after the pairs and small groups write their first full essay in week 11 and after each student's first attempt at writing their own individual essay in week 12. Feedback on these essays is provided at a class and individual level. Finally, in week 13 students sit their in-class essay test, and then re-write their essay and conduct their reflection and self-evaluation by the next week of class.

As students are going through the same processes as they experienced when working with summary writing, they already know the points that they should be monitoring and reflecting on. The hope is that this allows for deeper reflection not just during the test (and at home re-write) but also in the five to six weeks of in-class instruction leading up to the essay test.

In light of the research on feedback and SRL, and the importance of providing feedback before resubmission (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006), in the current semester I have allocated class time after the in-class tests for students to start work on their re-write or reflection, or to discuss their work with peers (in the past I started the next unit of work immediately after the test). During this time I quickly read each student's summary or essay and give them oral feedback to support their re-write. I've found this to be effective, and will continue with this additional step in future courses.

Final Thoughts and Ideas for Alternative Practices

Test re-dos incorporate concepts from both SRL and LOA. They aim to develop learners' ability to self-regulate their learning by having them move through several learning cycles where they are encouraged to set goals, monitor, and reflect upon their performance. The incorporation of ideas from LOA ensures that there are multiple, continuous learning cycles connecting class work to assessment and assessment to class work, ensuring that learners' experiences during assessment tasks "feedforward" into their future learning. It is hoped that through participating in this kind of assessment task that students can aim to make the most of all of their assessment opportunities, even in those classes where the teacher does not incorporate LOA.

I have incorporated ideas from SRL and LOA into assessment practices in several of my courses. In a second-year composition course I take the ideas of "feedforward" and timely feedback to a higher level by conducting individual essay planning conferences and requiring that essays be re-written and re-submitted based on teacher feedback. In this course as well I have found that not only do students appreciate teacher feedback, but they also appreciate the chance to resubmit their work, and the associated idea that this means the teacher believes that all students are capable of improving their English skills.

Of course re-dos may not be appropriate in all contexts. Moreover, some teachers may have concerns about cheating (although I have never encountered this during my experience with re-dos). Even if re-dos are not possible in all teaching/learning contexts, at the very least the greater incorporation of reflections and self-evaluations and opportunities to try assessment tasks multiple times (for example having two graded presentations a semester instead of just one at the end of the semester) should be something that all teachers aim to incorporate into their curriculums to ensure good assessment practices and support learner development.

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Online Translation Sites: Problems and Possibilities

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An experiment was conducted with three groups of university students (English majors, Chinese and Korean majors, and medicine majors) from two universities, as part of a project to develop recommendations for effective use of online translation sites for multilingual signs. Following instructions based on a PDCA (plan-do-check-act) cycle, students used Google Translate and similar sites as aids to render Japanese sentences into English and a second foreign language of their choice (German, French, etc.). This poster presentation discusses the data obtained as well as student reactions to the task. Suggestions on effectively using online translation sites are also summarized.

実験は、多言語の兆候のためのオンライン翻訳サイトの効果的な使用のための勧告を開発するプロジェクトの一環として、2大学の大学生（英語専攻、中国語、韓国語専攻、医学専攻）の3つのグループで行った。PDCA（計画 - 実行 - 点検･処置）のサイクルに基づく指示に従って、学生は、Googleが翻訳し、英語に日本語文をレンダリングする助剤として同様のサイトと自分の好きな二外国語（ドイツ語、フランス語など）に使用される。このポスター発表では、得られたデータだけでなく、タスクに学生の反応を説明します。効果的にオンライン翻訳サイトを使用しての提案もまとめられている。

Our experience as teachers has shown us that if there is a tool that students can use to help them with their English assignments, they will use it. Bearing that in mind, we initiated a project which, while primarily designed for tourist businesses in destinations without easy access to native speaking proofreading or assistance, aims to develop recommendations for effective use of online translation sites for multilingual signs. In order to determine the efficacy of these recommendations, we created a framework to use online translation sites and then conducted an experiment with three groups of university students (English majors, Chinese and Korean majors, and medicine majors) from two universities to see if this framework was useful.

Tomei, J., & Yoneoka, J. (2015). Online translation sites: Problems and possibilities. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 235-239). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

MT and the Foreign Language Classroom

Machine translation (MT), long the province of science fiction, is fast becoming a reality that is easily accessible. Beginning with the advent of computer aided translation (CAT) on personal computers in the early 1980s, it has blossomed with the proliferation of the Internet. While little progress has been made in creating rule-based systems for translation, so-called “example-based” systems (Somers, 1999) that utilize massive amounts of computing power to access large numbers of example sentences that are then linked to the more traditional rule-based systems. These systems have, in the past decade, been made available through free web-based systems and these systems include Google Translate, Bing Translator, Babelfish, Excite, and several others. Niño (2009), in discussing the role of MT in the foreign language classroom, has proposed four different roles for MT: MT as a bad model, MT as a good model, MT as a vocational training tool, and MT as a "CALL tool." In this research, while we imagine that our use is firmly in the camp of MT as a vocational training tool, we felt that it would be useful to ask different groups of university students to work through the workflow that we had devised to determine the viability and potential problems with using MT in this way. Niño (2008) earlier has taken up the use of MT in post-editing, noting that it can energize translation activities by providing multiple sources of reference.

Williams (2008) notes the "pervasive concern" of foreign language teachers about the use of WBMT (Web-Based Machine Translation) and presents pedagogical recommendations to make such technology useful in the classroom, noting that such tools can increase students' electronic literacy. Despite, or perhaps because of this concern, a number of teachers and researchers are experimenting with different ways to harness WBMT in the classroom. As Garcia and Pena (2011) write, "MT for language learning is a theme that can no longer be ignored." (p. 472)

In light of the above research, we developed a task to help provide local businesses that may deal with foreigners on an irregular basis to use online translation resources to quickly make understandable signage for immediate purposes. As a preliminary study to that end, we conducted an experiment with three groups of university students to determine the feasibility of our recommendations. While the ideal would have been to work with businesses initially, issues of access had us choose this population. In addition, this provides an opportunity to support students in potential future careers, a key issue for Japanese universities.

We will first give a general introduction to the translation websites we used, followed by a discussion of the recommendations that we developed and the results of the experiment we conducted. We will conclude with some thoughts about both applying this to foreign language classes as well as possibilities for further research.

Untouched by Human Hands: The Translation Websites

While it is likely that most readers have a nodding acquaintance with translation websites, we'd like to discuss some of their basic characteristics to explain how the potential weak points in such sites inform our recommendations.

Our preliminary survey of translation site use by students in July 2013 revealed that the following sites were used most often: Google Translate, Excite, Yahoo and Weblio in this order. Google, by virtue of its ubiquity, sets the standard for these sorts of websites. Incorporating the minimalist Google interface, the user cuts and pastes the excerpt and after clicking on a button, gets a translation and other sites have a similar interface. However, underlying these sites are several translation engines, so pasting the same phrase will produce different results. The particular translation engine/software that a site uses is never made clear, but different sites that use the same type of interface can give radically different translations. These translations will show greater variation if the sentence or passage is longer, and these differences can result in translations that often completely miss the point or purpose. In fact, our impetus for this project came about when we noticed tourist locations often apparently relying on these websites to quickly put up English signs for the benefit of tourists.

Recommendations for Using MT: A Starting Point

In working with students and these websites, we identified several strategies for improving the quality of translation. The first was to utilize several translation sites and compare the translations. Oftentimes, this sort of comparison could identify where the translation algorithms had trouble.

A second recommendation was to back-translate the phrase or phrases. Taking the translated phrase and putting it back into Japanese often reveals flaws in the translation algorithm as well. Based on the results, the user then edits the Japanese, creating a sentence that may not be completely grammatical, but can result in a better translation output. This is because some of the characteristics of Japanese, such as adverbial usage and obligatory pronoun deletion, have to be filled in, otherwise resulting in awkward or incomprehensible translations.

However, our most important recommendation was to suggest that the user "cycle through" when doing this translation, using a PDCA (plan-do-check-act) cycle. While there are several other quality management systems that emphasize various aspects of quality, the PDCA cycle was chosen because it has clear-cut steps and is more amenable to the process of translation. The cycle was popularized by Edward Deming who is often considered to be the originator of the notion of quality control. Deming, for his part, referred to it as the "Shewhart cycle" after Walter Andrew Shewhart, but introduced the cycle to Japan, where it is often referred to as "the Deming cycle" (Walton, 1986). We feel that this workflow offers a framework for checking translation output as well as offering some engagement with the task, permitting users with weaker language skills to improve their output through repeated cycles. As Justice Brandeis pointed out, "There is no great writing, only great re-writing."

Methods

Utilizing a Google form, we conducted an initial survey in July 2013 to determine how and how often students used online translation services. This survey discovered that the great majority of students, both English majors and nonmajors, used services frequently for both English and their other second languages. It was also revealed that students most often used translation sites for understanding the target language, but also quite often did so for producing it as well.

We then conducted pilot studies in September 2013 and January 2014 to determine which sites students go to for a native language-foreign language translation task utilizing web-based machine translation and what sort of output they would be able to generate. For the first pilot study, we asked 111 students to translate three Japanese sentences into English or Chinese. These students also study an additional foreign language, and we asked them to translate the Japanese sentences into their second foreign language as well. The three sentences, chosen for the challenges they would present for a computer translation, were:

1. マナーを守ってご利用ください。 (a sign encouraging proper behavior in a computer room)
2. ダンスフロア内での喫煙は他のお客様への迷惑(やけど等)となりますのでご遠慮ください。(a sign asking people to not smoke on a dance floor)
3. 危険防止のため乗車中は必ず着席するか、手すりにおつかまり下さい。降車の際は足元にご注意ください。(a sign on a theme park ride asking passengers to hold on to the safety rail and to be careful when leaving the ride)

The form instructed students to translate to the best of their ability, using any online resources they wanted and reporting what they had used afterwards. After the students had completed the task, we asked them for their reaction to the task.

After the data was collected, the student output was analyzed by native speakers on a 5-point Likert scale according to intelligibility (1 being intelligible and 5 being incomprehensible) and then the responses were coded according to error types that we identified in order to group the responses, a process which was done by multiple raters for each language.

Based on this first pilot, the second study was run with a similar number of students (82 English majors, 24 Korean and Chinese majors and 24 students majoring in medicine). In this study, students were instructed to translate the first two of the above three sentences using specific PDCA cycle-based instructions as follows:

PLAN – identify the location, purpose and audience of the sign. Rewrite the original Japanese clarifying subjects, objects and reference words, and simplifying difficult or obscure vocabulary

DO – Use several translation sites (for English, Google, Excite and Weblio) in addition to spellcheckers. Construct a correct translation to the best of your ability.

CHECK – Check with spelling and grammar checkers, and back translate

ACT – If the back translation is inappropriate, go back to DO and repeat.

This cycle offers the benefit of providing a series of steps to follow to deal with translations as well as operationalizing several aspects of the process, allowing us to provide more specific recommendations for using WBMT.

Results

A number of interesting results were obtained. First of all, the most common errors were word choice, preposition or particle choice and verb form. We noted that English produced a large number of word choice errors that originated with the translation engine. For example, manner (in Japanese マナー) was translated as manor and students failed to realize that this homophone was incorrect. In addition, referential errors were a common mistake in the English translations. While Chinese and English translations recognized the problems with word order and idiomatic expressions, only those doing English translations, because of the presence of articles in the English grammar system, faced the challenge of appropriate article usage. Comparing the likert ratings for the comprehensibility of the translations pre and post PDCA cycle, we found that the introduction of the PDCA cycle slightly improved the English output, greatly improved the Chinese output and for phrase 1, worsened the Korean output, as judged by native speakers of each language as measured by the average change in the ratings given by the native speaker judges. Given that English and Chinese are quite different in grammatical structures and Korean grammar is highly similar to Japanese grammar, this may be attributed to the possibility that Japanese students relying on their L1 grammatical patterns have an impact in producing better initial Korean translations.

We also found that the utilization of Google forms made the process very smooth and we would highly recommend their use to other researchers. For those interested in developing their own protocol and would like a copy of the Google form, please feel free to contact us at our emails listed in the biography.

Analysis of student reactions to employing the PDCA process showed roughly half with positive reactions such as *surprising, educational* (19% each), *accurate* (14%) and *useful* (7%) while the other half had negative reactions such as *difficult* (33%), *hard in L2* (8%) and *time consuming* and *tiring* (7% each).

Conclusions and Future Research

In conclusion, based on the above results, the PCDA process seems to have potential in guiding and managing translation by nonexperts but is still too unwieldy for businesses to use. The positive reactions led us to believe that we were on the right path, but this translation process is not something that most nonexperts will immediately take to. In addition, because our primary goal is to employ this in business situations, we aim to develop supporting material that creates a procedure and scaffolding for such a task. With respect to the negative student reactions in particular, the process must be reviewed and simplified, leading to the development of a clear and concise training program. Of course, the second study was partially for information gathering purposes as to how the steps were being followed, thus information such as Japanese explanations and interim translation results that would be included in future version were omitted. Moreover, the varied results according to language revealed the fact that further analysis is needed to tailor the PCDA process to specific target languages.

Our next step is to further refine this process and trial it with businesses in the local community. To do this, the authors plan to create a website using the refined PDCA process, which will be made available to local business participants over an extended period. This will allow us to continue to gather data both on the process itself and on actual business needs, with respect to translation content and target languages. Our final goal is to offer the service in E-book/website form, in the hopes that even the smallest business will be able to avail itself of a cost effective and rapid solution to some of the challenges that globalization can bring.

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The Influence of Japanese Learners' Cultural Worldviews on Learning English Syntax

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A previous study (Trent, 2013) claimed that introductory-level Japanese colleges learners negatively transfer Japanese subject-free predicate-only sentence structures to English, resulting in common forms of ungrammatical sentences. Exercises comparing Japanese folk tales and their English translation were given to learners to raise awareness of structural differences between the languages. Given the results, it was hypothesized that learning about the cultural backgrounds of English and Japanese should further help learners. Studies of linguistic anthropology claim that the Japanese language is molded by its culture-specific worldview, which, unlike English, does not focus on "agents of actions," but on the "shared understanding of speech situation" among the participants. This study suggests that this unconscious worldview may hinder Japanese introductory-level learners' English acquisition, further qualitatively analyzes learners' self-reflection on their language culture, and discusses how their awareness encourages English acquisition.

大学の初心者レベルの英語学習者の英文は文主語（主格）が必要不可欠ではない日本語文の文型に影響され、共通の間違った英文型が頻出している。日本語で書かれた昔話とその英文訳を比較し日本語の原文には出てこない英文訳の主語を確認する練習を続けることによってこの問題は幾分か改善された。加えて日本語と英語の世界観を文化人類学的に比較する作業を共に行ったことにより学習者の英文の構造に対する理解が更に深まった。広く知られている文化人類言語学的な考察によると英語は客観性の高い言語で「誰が何をする」を客観的に表現する傾向があるため文主語が不可欠である。一方日本語は「皆に既に知られている状況」を主観的に表現する言語と分析され「誰が」に言及する必要性が低い言語文化である。この学習者との文化人類言語学的セッションは学習者の英文構造理解を助ける可能性が一定の範囲ではあるが確認できた。

After over six years of formal instruction of English, a large proportion of Japanese students enter college without a clear understanding of English sentence structures. Although introductory-level learners seem to face a variety of grammatical challenges, one of the problems seems to be that they do not have a clear idea about how to begin a sentence. An appropriate sentence subject is the most fundamental necessity in English sentences, so this study focuses on the sentence subject in particular. In English, the sentence subject controls the rest of the sentence, so problems with learning sentence subjects may impact the entire learning process. In order to see an overview of the reality, sentence data were collected from 56 introductory-

Trent, N. (2015). The influence of Japanese learners' cultural worldviews on learning English syntax. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 240-251). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

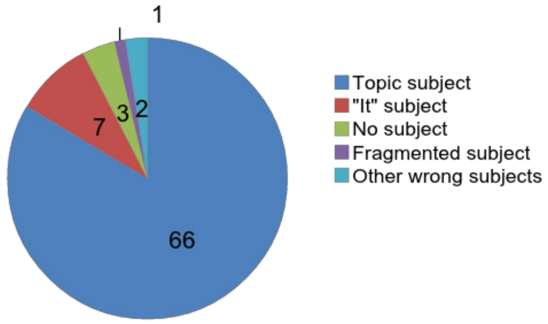

Figure 1. Frequency of different types of inappropriate subjects

level learners: They were asked to translate some Japanese sentences without clear sentence subjects (doer/actor), and sentences were also collected from their essay writing, altogether providing approximately 700 analyzable sentences. Out of these sentences, about 11 percent of them contained inappropriate sentence subjects, so the issue turned out to deserve educational attention. The data show that introductory-level college students commonly use several types of incorrect or inappropriate sentence subjects from the viewpoint of internationally acceptable English, as exemplified in Table 1 (Trent, 2013).

Japanese equivalents for sentences (1) to (6) in Table 1 are acceptable without clear sentence subjects. It can be assumed that the introductory-level learners' English sentences produced here were affected by the Japanese subject-free or topic-oriented sentences. Looking at the frequency of inappropriate-subjects sentences from the data, a majority of them (83.5 percent) used sentence topic as sentence subject as in "Beer is Kirin" (*Bi-ru wa Kirin da ne.)* (See Figure 1).

Although basic English sentence structures are far different from Japanese structures, learners are supposed to have learned them before college. Some introductory-level learners in my teaching context may have missed the opportunity to acquire basic English sentence structures, and so some remedial methods may be needed for their college-level English education.

Differences Between Japanese and English Structures

Whether or not the Japanese language has an SOV structure has been a controversial issue for the last several decades. Some mainstream Japanese linguists under the influence of western linguistics argue that Japanese is an SOV language. They claim Japanese sentences have a subject (S) in their deep structure even when there is no subject on the surface (e.g., Kuno 1973, 1983; Kuroda, 2005; Shibatani, 1990). On the other hand, the school of Japanese linguists represented by Mikami contends that Japanese has been a predicate language since the beginning of Japanese literature around the tenth century, in which

Table 1
Examples of Common Subject Errors Obtained From Classwork (Trent, 2013)

	Types of subject error		Examples
(1)	"It" subject	(ex.)	"Where are you from?" "*It is Japan." (日本です。*nihon desu*.)
(2)	"There" subject	(ex.)	*There is an experience of going to the U.S. (アメリカに行ったことがある。*amerika ni itta koto ga aru*.)
(3)	Topic subject	(ex.)	*Sunday is dating. (日曜日はデートだ。*nichiyobi wa deeto da.*)
(4)	Fragmented subject	(ex.)	*The problem, money doesn't exist. (問題はお金がない事だ。*mondai wa okane ga nai koto da.*)
(5)	No subject	(ex.)	*Can't think about anything. (何も考えられない。*nanimo kangae rare nai.*)
(6)	Mixed subject	(ex.)	*Oscar Wilde wants to say that if I do good things, we'll be repaid. (オスカーワイルドはいいことをすればその報いがあると言いたいのだ。*osukaa wairudo wa nanika ii koto o sure-ba sono mukui ga aru to ii tai no da.*)

shukaku (subjective-case, nominative) is "optional" along with other cases including objective, dative, locative, and instrumental cases (e.g., Mikami, 1960, 1975; Nakajima, 1987; Tsukimoto, 2009).

Kanaya (e.g., 2002, 2003, 2004) maintains that the basic structures of Japanese sentence are simple predicate-only structures of "verb sentence", "adjective sentence", or "noun sentence," exemplified in Table 2.

Kanaya (2003) also claimed that the necessity of a subject in formal English sentences is fundamentally different from Japanese sentences:

"English basic structures are all 'verb sentences' and three of those are transitive verb sentences that describe positive actions by 'agents' to other elements. Without a sentence subject, the form of verb of the sentence cannot be determined; thus, sentence subject and the main verb are essential elements of English sentences" (p. 50).

English native speakers may also use predicate-only expressions such as in "Coffee?" "Sure. Black please." However, these are not "sentences" but shortened expressions which have deep syntactic structure with S and V. This is different from Japanese. Following the above view, in Japanese a predicate by itself can constitute a sentence. According to Matsumoto (2006), predicate languages like Japanese are more common than languages with S + V structure like English. A syntactical subject is necessary in a short list of languages of English, French, German, Swiss Romance, Dutch, and Scandinavian languages while sentence subject is not required in many other languages such as Spanish, Italian, Croatian, Arabic, and Hebrew (Perimutter, 1971). For example, some sentences from Tamil show a fairly similar structure with Japanese.

(1) எனக்கு மடே தெரிகிறது
Eṉakku maṭē terikiṟatu
mountain see (I see the mountains.)

(2) பரீ என்றால் அசஹி
Parī eṉṟāl acahi
beer Asahi (The best beer is Asahi.)

Another example from Tagalog is a topic-subject sentence similar to what is found in Japanese.

(3) *Masarap ang Jollibee*
Yummy is Jollibee Restaurant

Tsukimoto (2009) argued that languages like Japanese in which vowels are dominant tend to be predicate languages. Other linguists support the idea of Japanese as a predicate language to different degrees, but they agree that Japanese sentence subjects have a weaker syntactical function, and thus are less important. Japanese may be best analyzed not by syntax, but by semantics and pragmatics (e.g., Nakajima, 1987; Tsunoda, 1978).

Anthropological Backgrounds of Japanese and English

Anthropological linguists say that language is a product of culture. Some anthropological studies claim that English speakers see the world objectively

Table 2
Examples of Japanese Predicate Only Sentences, Following Kanaya (2002, 2003, 2004)

	Type of sentence	Example	English translation
(1)	Verb sentence	*"waratta."* laughed	(I/You/We/He/Somebody laughed.)
(2)	Adjective sentence	*"tanoshii."* fun	(I am enjoying myself.)
(3)	Noun sentence	*"gakusei desu."* student COP	(I am a student.)

so that "who does what" should be clarified in each sentence while in Japanese speakers' worldview, the speaker is a part of a shared speech situation. The main issue is not "who does what" but "resulting situations shared by participants." As a result, the doer/actor is not important in Japanese sentences. For example, in the following sentences, Japanese speakers would never use "I"; using "I" is awkward and can even sound pragmatically ungrammatical.

山が見える。
Yama ga mieru. (I see the mountain.)
mountain NOM see POT

This Japanese view causes frequent use of sentences expressing "there is something (ある)", "somebody exists (いる)" or "something becomes something else (なる)" (See Kanaya 2003; Morita 1998). Some further examples include:

子供がいます。
kodomo ga imasu. (I have a child.)
child NOM exist

夢があります。
yume ga arimasu. (I have a dream.)
dream NOM exist

春になりました。
haru ni narimashita. (Spring has come.)
spring DAT became

It is understandable that the learners who grew up in this language culture write sentences such as "there is a dream" or "spring became". Without a clear understanding of how to build basic English sentences starting with S and V, further grammar study must have been increasingly confusing, as other structures build on this basic pattern.Thus, the study focused on teaching students about S and V.

Hypothesis of the Study

For some introductory-level students who seem confused about how to form English sentences, problems may persist even after using grammar exercises, teachers helping them writing essays, or correcting their sentences. After several years of teaching experience, the author hypothesized that since some students seem to be so deeply wrapped in their Japanese sentence structure, using comparative analysis of Japanese and English structures would be helpful for them to understand the differences between the two languages. It was also proposed that recognizing the cultural background of two languages, especially by seeing what the underlying culture of their native language is, would enable learners to see English structure objectively in comparison with Japanese.

Teaching English Sentence Subjects in Classroom

Exercises Using Literature

From April to July, 2013, in two reading classes, 56 introductory-level learners read several short Japanese folk tales which were related with the topics of their class textbook stories. These Japanese stories often contain subject-free sentences to a significant extent. The learners read the English translation of the same stories and were asked to fill in missing sentence subjects and main verbs. Appendix A gives an example of a Japanese and English translation exercise. This shows a sample exercise from the beginning part of the story "Red Ogre and Blue Ogre". The underlined parts in this activity are Japanese sentences without sentence subjects.

The introductory learners had this "literature exercise" every three or four weeks for five months from April to October 2013. Each exercise lasted 30 to 40 minutes. Those stories included "The men who became horses", "Marriage of Kappa", and "I am afraid of manju", which are popular tales. The focus was on deciding unseen agents/actors in Japanese sentences. For example, the Japanese sentence "*daietto cola wa futoranai*" (Diet cola TOP get fat NEG) does not mean "Diet cola does not get fat." The real agent is "people who drink cola", so learners need to interpret the meaning of subject-free Japanese sentences before translating into English.

At the beginning, the learners had some difficulties, but as the semester progressed, it seemed they dealt with the exercises more smoothly and appropriately. In addition, the students seemed to like the exercises partly because of their interests in old Japanese stories written in English.

Although it is difficult to see what educational effects the exercises had, after six months, students were asked to take a quiz translating some Japanese subject-free sentences into English (Appendix B). One hundred and ninety analyzable sentences were collected from their writing, and a 34.2% improvement was seen compared with the translation test before the semester (Appendix C). This might suggest possible benefits of the story-translation exercises.

Anthropological Approach on Learners' Understanding of English Structure

Doing literature exercises, it was recognized that students started becoming interested in the structural differences. Coincidentally, some students happened to be taking a Japanese sociology class and showed interest in the cultural elements of the Japanese language. Thus it seemed worthwhile for the learners to see the background culture of the two languages, so they could learn the target language better. In April 2014, 20 basic, 84 basic-intermediate, and 59 intermediate-level learners of English discussed Japanese language and English cultural worldviews with sample sentences quoting from anthropological studies (Appendix D: Kanaya 2003; Morita 1998)

The discussion was focused on the following points:

[Japanese "static worldview"] versus [English "dynamic worldview"]

[Japanese "subjective viewpoint" that looks at the world without showing agents] versus [English "objective viewpoint" that shows agents/doers clearly]

Discussing the background cultural worldviews for the two languages seemed to help learners notice different worldviews and how these differences affect their language use. A list of guiding questions can be found in Appendix E. Responding to the question of why Japanese speakers say "*yama ga mieru*" (lit. "The mountains can be seen") instead of "*watashi wa yama o miteimasu*" (lit. "I see the mountain") , the learners' comments were largely unanimous.

1. In Japanese, people just speak about the immediate situation around them. In English, the "who, what, where, why, when, and how" should be explained.
2. Japanese speakers may focus on "the mountains" whereas English speakers focus on the fact that "It is 'I' who sees the mountains."

   These observations indicate that learners are aware that speech situations are more important than the agents/doers of actions when they speak in Japanese. Also the following responses suggest that the Japanese speakers in the researcher's class were also aware of their pragmatic practice of sharing their information with their hearers.
3. Japanese speakers would like to involve others in the situation they are facing, while English speakers are more focused on the speaker themselves.
4. In a Japanese worldview, speakers always invite their listeners into the speakers' world.

The learners also commented that they feel that using "I" is impolite because it may give impression that the speaker dominates information that is accessible to all speech participants. This may explain the absence of agents when they speak or write in English. To the question of why Japanese speakers have no problem with sentences without doers/agents, most of them answered that in Japanese culture, people "sense" and "understand the hints" of other people's intentions from the situation. These learners' observations support the view of Japanese anthropologists and anthropological linguists (e.g., Ohno, 1989), and also support the claim that the Japanese case particle "*wa*", may introduce a "situation of speech" rather than the topic of the sentence (Morita, 1998). It may have been beneficial for learners to have an opportunity to recognize how their culture influences the structure of language as well as their language behaviors.

Discussion and Limitation of the Study

Japanese school grammar currently teaches that Japanese has an SOV structure, but in reality, a fairly large segment of Japanese sentences are subject-free. Folk-tale exercises seem to help learners see how they must communicate differently in English and Japanese. Focusing on subject-free Japanese sentences, then creating English sentences based on the learners' understanding of meanings of Japanese sentences possibly helped learners recognize structural differences. Second, a comparative analysis of worldviews of Japanese and English speakers' worldviews may have encouraged learners to realize that their background culture has fostered their native language structure. Anthropological linguists say that grammar reflects culture, value, mindset, and worldview of the speakers of each language (e.g., Morita, 1998; Kanaya, 2003; Ohno, 1989). When learning a foreign language, learners may acquire these cultural elements naturally along with the language itself. However, conscious teaching and learning about the background of language may be useful to help introductory-level learners.

However, there are some limitations to this study. Initially, the after-activity tests may have been compromised by the short period of time between the activity and the after-test since the material was still fresh in the learners' memory. With the folk-tale activities, the "before" and "after" tests were six months apart, but it is still short term considering the length of learners' entire experience of learning L2 since junior high school. Furthermore, since the study took place during the school year while the learners were attending other English classes, it is hard to show an exact correlation between this study and learners' final grades. In addition, since this is not a long-term study, it is impossible to state that either method gave the learners lasting benefits. At least during the six-month period of doing folk-tale exercises, practice at this task seemed to show gradual, identifiable progress towards the final exercises; exercises were carried out more smoothly toward the final exercise. It is desirable to investigate possible long-term effects, but this was also difficult to carry out as learners do not stay with the same class or same instructor longer than one year.

Another problematic issue with these methods is that they use Japanese texts in an English classroom. It is often believed that foreign language classes should be taught solely in the target language. For example, the Japanese government has described a future policy in which English classes are to be conducted entirely in English in high school, and partially in junior high school (Hayakawa, 2014). However, we may be able to utilize the Japanese language in certain classroom situations for learners' benefits. First, most EFL learners have not had enough opportunities to think in English, and introductory-level learners in college have not acquired the structure of language naturally in their earlier education. Thus, it is likely that they would benefit from help with their native language. For example, O'Brien (2014) claimed that depending on the real purpose of English class activity, it may be good to use learners' L1 as a means of helping the participants accomplish the purposes of teaching/learning. This might make the meaning of classroom activities clearer for the students, thus helping them enjoy activities more. With regard to teaching English writing, Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992) also claimed that EFL writers are likely to benefit from translation of native language text because learners may have better skills relating to developing ideas, planning, and organizing in their L1. For reasons such as this, many learners in who participated in this study supported the use of L1 in class. Responding to the final question of the second activity (Appendix E), some learners claimed that it is easier to understand the class content when Japanese is used, that English-only classes discourage learners, and that Japanese should be used when necessary. Other learners answered that using easy English slowly without Japanese helps students, that the two languages should be taught separately because they are different, and that translating from Japanese to English is not ideal.

This paper reports on two simple studies, and many counterarguments can be anticipated for the methods introduced here. Given the potential issues this paper reviewed here, further classroom-based studies are needed. A substantiation of these activities' effects with Japanese learners, however, would require a long-term organized study.

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Appendix A

Sample Japanese story with accompanying gap-fill exercise.

(Sample of Japanese text)

泣いた赤鬼

昔、昔、山を越え、峠を越え、人里離れた山の奥に、赤鬼と青鬼が住んでいました。赤鬼は人間の子供が大好きで、<u>いつもどうやったら友達になれるか考えていました</u>。

赤鬼「僕はやさしい赤鬼なのにどうしてみんな遊びに来ないのかな。<u>おいしいお菓子と飲み物を用意するのに</u>。」

青鬼「ねえ、赤鬼君、<u>そんなに子供たちと友達になりたいのかい</u>。」

赤鬼「うん、友達になりたいよ。」

青鬼「じゃあ、<u>いい考えがあるんだ。ちょっと耳を貸してごらん</u>。」

Source: 日本昔話　Old Stories of Japan http://nihongo-e-na.com/jpn/site/id464.html

(English translation for exercises)

The Crying Troll

Long, long ago, beyond the woods, through the forests and the pass, in the deep mountains of Japan, there lived an 'Aka-Oni', red Ogre and an 'Ao-Oni', blue Ogre. The red Ogre liked human children very much, and (　　) (　　) (　　) (　　) about how he could make friends with them everyday.

Red ogre: I'm a very kind and gentle person. Why don't they come to play with me at my house? If so, (　　　) (　　　) them nice sweets and tea or juice.

Blue ogre: Hey, Aka-Oni. Do (　　) (　　) to make any friends with human children so much?

R.O: Oh, yes. (　　　　) want to make friends with them.

B.O: If so, well, (　　　) (　　　) a good idea. Come here. (He whispers.)

Appendix B
The sentence translation tests

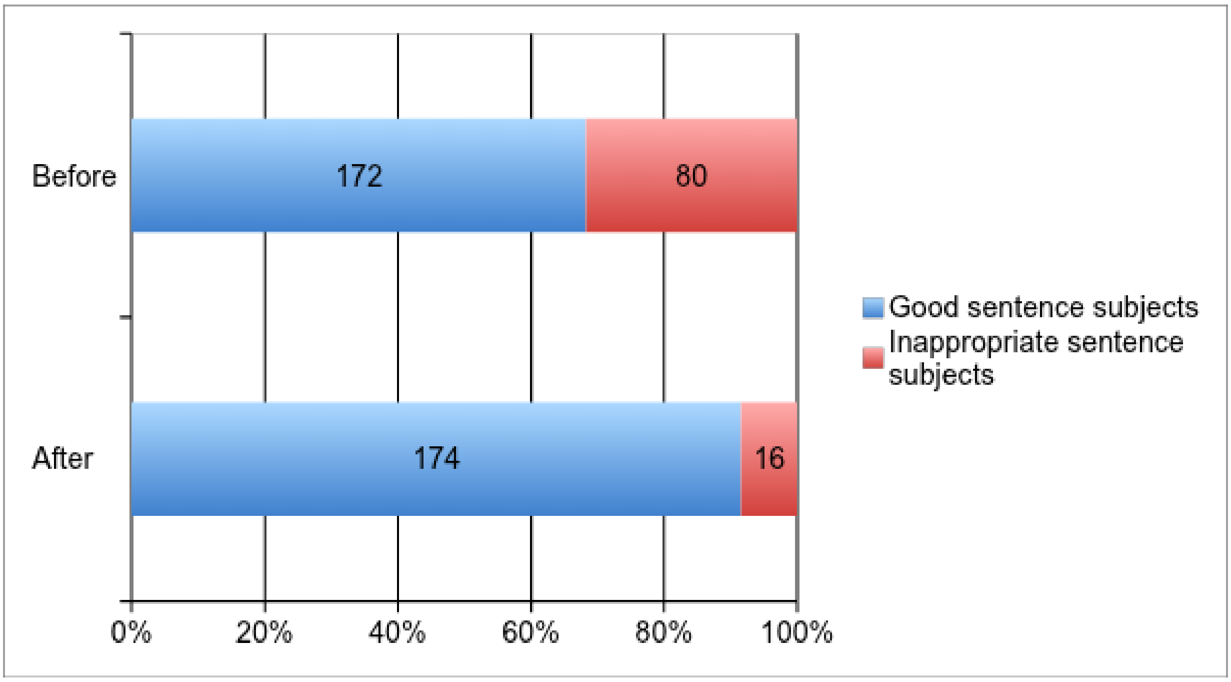
(Before the "literature" exercise)
(1) クリスマスはケーキだ！
(2) 日本は住みやすい。
(3) 多くの本を読めば多くのことを学べる。
(4) 長生きすると色々な経験ができる。
(5) 象は鼻が長い。

(After the exercise)
(1) ビールはキリンだね!
(2) 日曜日が忙しいです。
(3) 今日はたくさん宿題があります。
(4) 「あの女のひとをみて！」「きれいだね」
(5) 野菜を沢山食べると健康になるよ。
(6) 「私はお化けが怖い。」「私はこうもりだ。」

Appendix C

The sentence translation test results before and after "literature" exercises

(April, 2013 and October 2013)



Appendix D

Japanese worldview vs. English worldview demonstrated in both languages

Japanese worldview	English sentence with Japanese worldview	Worldview in English sentences
「ある」「いる」「なる」Static view		「する」 Dynamic view
子供がいます。	*There are children.	I have children.
約束があります。	*There is an appointment.	I have an appointment.
アメリカへ行ったことがあります。	*There is an experience of going to the U.S.	I have been to the U.S.
春になりました。	*It became spring.	Spring has come.
Subjective viewpoint. Looking at the world from only speaker's viewpoint. (Showing no agents)		Objective viewpoint. Showing agents/doers clearly.
京都が見たい。	*Kyoto wants to see.	I want to see Kyoto.
英語がわかります。	*English is understood.	I understand English.
もう少し時間がかかります。	*A little more time will take.	We need some more time.
新宿が好きです。	*Shinjuku likes	I like Shinjuku.
富士山が見えます。	*Mt. Fuji can be seen.	I see Mt. Fuji.
ここはどこ？	*Where is here?	Where am I?
Assuming the topic is shared and understood without mentioning it.		
こんにゃくは太らない。	**Konnyaku* doesn't get fat.	We won't get fat if we eat *konnyaku*.
桜なら京都だね。	*Sakura is Kyoto.	If you want to see the best Sakura, you should go to Kyoto.
今日はデートだ。	*Today is dating.	I have a date today.

Appendix E

Questionnaire given to students

(Q1) What Japanese worldview do you see with the expression「山が見える」in comparison with "I can see the mountains"?

(Q2) Do you think you have different worldviews when you are speaking in English and in Japanese?

(Q3) It seems Japanese speakers have no problem even if sentence subjects (agent/actor) are not clear. Why?

(Q4) What do you think about using L1 in L2 classroom.

Building a Sustainable Curriculum With Can-do Statements

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This paper describes the process of reforming the first-year English curriculum at a Japanese university. The project called for standardizing the learning objectives across the four departments: International Tourism, Social Work, Health and Nutrition, and Pharmacy. The authors begin by summarizing the problems with the previous curriculum that instigated this project. Next, they discuss the learning objectives (can-do statements) that underlie the new curriculum and how these objectives can be interpreted to deliver suitable content to each department. Finally, challenges and future directions in the process will be discussed.

本稿では，日本の一大学における初年次の英語カリキュラム改善へのプロセスについて述べる。その改善へのプロジェクトには，大学内の4学科（国際観光学科，社会福祉学科，健康栄養学科，薬学科）にわたって学習目標を統一化することが必要とされた。まず，このプロジェクトを行うきっかけとなった問題を要約する。次に，新しいカリキュラムの基礎となる学習目標（何ができるようになるのかを記述したもの）を考察するとともに，これらの目標が各学科に適した内容へと適用される方法について考察する。最後に，このプロセスにおける課題や今後の方向性について考察する。

This paper describes the process of standardizing the curriculum of first-year English classes at a Japanese university. The goal of the project was to create a curriculum guide that would be usable by all instructors teaching introductory English classes at the university. In doing so, we hoped to maintain pedagogical freedom within a standardized curriculum. A curriculum can be defined as a planned learning experience that connects instruction to learning objectives and learner growth (Parkay, Hass, & Anctil, 2010). Thus, we hoped to develop a curriculum that would be sustainable by satisfying the policy mandates of the university, would be willingly adopted by instructors, and would be relevant to students. Furthermore, from this process insights were gained about the importance of communication between teachers, students, administrative staff, and curriculum planners as an important factor in promoting curriculum implementation.

Van Deusen, B. & Owatari-Dorgan, J. P. (2015). Building a sustainable curriculum with can-do statements. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 252-257). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

Context

It is common for a teacher of first-year English classes at a Japanese university to be one of several who teach one section of the same course. In some cases, teachers are given explicit instruction on what content to teach or what textbook to use, whereas in other situations, teachers are not given guidance by the university but rather instructed to teach whatever and however they see fit. The latter was mainly the case at the authors' university until recently when a project to standardize the curriculum was begun.

At the authors' university, all students are required to take four English courses in their first year: Eigo Enshu 1A and 1B in the spring, and Eigo Enshu 2A and 2B in the fall. Each course is divided into sections (in other words a class with an average of 30 students) based on the university's four departments (International Tourism, Social Work, Health and Nutrition, or Pharmacy) and the results of a placement test (Table 1). Thus, one section of Eigo Enshu 1A is offered for upper-level International Tourism students, while another section is offered for basic-level Pharmacy students.

The university's system for grouping students resulted in 11 sections of each Eigo Enshu course being offered, or 44 sections in total across the four courses of Eigo Enshu 1A, 1B, 2A and 2B. These sections were taught by eight teachers (four full-time and four part-time). Teachers were not provided with guidelines on how to plan classes, but rather asked to teach as they saw fit. Teachers created the syllabi for their section independently of one another, often without knowledge of what teachers in other sections or other courses had planned.

One major problem arising from this arrangement was the disparate learning objectives contained in these syllabi. With no consistency among the sections of each course, students were subjected to different requirements to gain credit. For example, some sections of the same Eigo Enshu course were writing-focused while others were speaking-focused; some were grammar-based while others were communicative-based. Thus students who studied different content under different requirements received credit for the same course. Another consequence was that teachers could not be sure how their classes fit into the curriculum as a whole. In one particular semester, the same textbook was used in a third-year business English course and Eigo Enshu 1B. In this instance, students who studied the same content received credit for different courses.

The academic affairs division of the university decided that the curriculum needed to be standardized. In other words, the university wanted students in different sections of the same course to accomplish the same or similar learning objectives. Similarly, each course should support the overall curriculum. Two years prior, the English teaching faculty had, in fact, created a standardized set of learning objectives. These objectives were then printed onto the syllabus templates. However, problems with implementing the objectives arose. New part-time instructors, who had not been involved in the initial planning, and some full-time staff found the learning objectives were too vague to implement. From this feedback, a plan was made to revise the learning objectives and create a supplementary curriculum guide to promote adoption by all instructors.

Creating a Curriculum Guide

In order to create and maintain a sustainable curriculum that was applicable to students and instructors, the authors determined that a curriculum guide, consisting

Table 1

Breakdown of First-year English Courses

Department	International Tourism	Social Work	Health and Nutrition	Pharmacy
Courses	Eigo Enshu 1A, 1B, 2A and 2B			
Sections for each course by level	Upper Standard Basic 1 Basic 2	Standard Basic	Standard Basic	Upper Standard Basic

of learning objectives, sample activities, and sample rubrics would be ideal. This was in accordance with university policy, which mandates that all instructors provide learning objectives in the form of can-do statements. Furthermore, the university strongly promoted the idea of using rubrics to promote active evidence-based learning. In short, rubrics function as evidence by describing the level of mastery a student has achieved of a series of learning objectives via task performance (Stevens & Levi, 2005).

One topic that initially arose was whether or not to mandate the use of a single textbook or fully pre-formatted syllabus. A conscious decision was made to avoid such a prescriptive system in the belief that teachers should be allowed a greater amount of autonomy in the classroom. As described below, flexibility and choice were built into the curriculum guide to promote active adoption of the curriculum changes and create the conditions to evaluate and revise the guide in the future. On the other hand, teacher autonomy was balanced by a standardized set of learning objectives and sample activities rooted in the curriculum. This was our vision of a sustainable curriculum.

The second issue to address was the level of English which students should be expected to achieve. For the creation of the can-do statements (Table 2) to be included on the syllabus templates, an initial decision was made to set the level of the first and second semesters to be equivalent to EIKEN levels Pre-2 and 2 respectively. This decision was made with two factors in mind. First, this level was seen as challenging yet within reach of most students based on the results of the university's English language placement test. Currently, this is the CASEC test which provides an EIKEN equivalency score for each student. Second, the university was, at the time, pursuing an exchange program with another university for which EIKEN Level 2 was a requirement.

With the level of the courses set to EIKEN levels

Table 2
Learning Objectives for First Year Courses

Course	Learning objectives
All courses	• Students can communicate in English about topics that are relevant to their everyday life and future goals.
Eigo Enshu 1A	• Student can read and write texts for everyday events. • Students can fill out forms and write personal information. • Students can read and write about personal experiences. • Students can write a text on the computer with correct formatting
Eigo Enshu 1B	• Students can produce and respond to simple requests and offers. • Students can present a simple self-introduction. • Students can offer and follow simple instructions. • Students can discuss familiar topics such as people, places, and events
Eigo Enshu 2A	• Students can read and write about familiar events in greater detail. • Students can express and evaluate opinions. • Students can read and write about personal experiences in greater detail. • Students can use the Internet to collect information.
Eigo Enshu 2B	• Students can produce and respond to more complex requests and offers. • Students can present an extended self-introduction. • Students can offer and follow in-depth instructions. • Students can discuss in greater detail familiar topics such as people, places, and events

Pre-2 and 2, the next task was to create the list of can-do statements. We examined the EIKEN Foundation of Japan's (2008) can-do statements for levels Pre-2 and 2. From these, we attempted to find common elements present in the different sections of the different levels. This yielded a set of core can-do statements, but unfortunately the statements remained too numerous and specific to the tasks set forth by the EIKEN test. For example, level 2 consists of 23 can-do statements among the four skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. In order to make the can-do statements more manageable, we compared them with similar statements found in the CEFR-J (Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, 2012) materials. The comparison of these can-do statements yielded a more complete and generally applicable set of can-do statements. These were included with the syllabus templates as well as the curriculum guide that was provided to teachers.

As mentioned above, one issue, that arose two years prior, was that some teachers found the previous learning objectives to be unclear. As White (1991) points out, any innovation that is perceived as overly complex will likely face resistance. The new iteration of the curriculum guide included sample activities for achieving each of the learning objectives (Table 3). This added level of communication was meant to serve two purposes. First, by providing multiple example activities teachers were encouraged to use their strengths in planning their activities. Since no textbook was prescribed, teachers could apply, adapt, and supplement as necessary. It was hoped that this flexibility could allow teachers to account for students' different levels of proficiency and areas of study. Hence, the learning objective of "students can offer and follow instructions" could be achieved by International Tourism students through an activity in which they give directions to a destination; similarly, Health and Nutrition students could achieve the same objective by writing a recipe (see Table 3 for further details).

In order to assist teachers in meeting the rubric requirement as well as account for the discrepancy between the highest and lowest level students, a series of sample rubrics were included in the curriculum guide. By using rubrics, teachers could focus on the common learning objectives but at an appropriate level of difficulty for their students. Furthermore, teachers were encouraged to make the criteria for success known to the students prior to assessment. Marshall (2010) has argued that such criteria should not remain "locked up in each teacher's brain, with top grades going to students who are good mind readers" (p.284). The sample rubrics included in the curriculum guide were basic outlines of important elements connected to the individual can-do's listed for each section. In the body of the curriculum guide, instructors were encouraged to modify the rubrics to make them more directly suitable for their individual classes.

Implementation

In the spring term of 2014, the curriculum guide was provided for all introductory English classes. The actual implementation of the materials within the main curriculum guide was left primarily to the discretion of the individual teachers in their classes.

Table 3
Sample Activities for One Learning Objective

Learning objective	Department	Activity
Students can offer and follow instructions	International Tourism	Getting from A to B, preparing for a trip
	Social Work	Assisting someone with a disability, using special equipment
	Health and Nutrition	Preparing a dish, staying healthy
	Pharmacy	Taking certain medicine, staying healthy

While complete information on implementation is still being collected, we were able to collect preliminary feedback from some instructors through interviews. One of the instructors indicated that he was pleased that a curriculum guide exists. That being said, he also stated that he did not really use the curriculum guide very much in the planning of his classes. Instead, he simply verified that the materials he usually teaches for the introductory English classes matched with the can-do statements found in the curriculum guide. In this case, the instructor had his own previously-prepared activities and was well versed in the use of rubrics therefore he did not need to reference the example activities and rubrics. Furthermore, the instructor said that he would consider using the guide more in the future if he needed to develop new classes or class materials. On the other hand, another instructor explained that he was unaware of the curriculum guide. He stated that he used some of the can-do statements (not all) that were part of the default syllabus. Since he was not provided with a curriculum guide, he did not use any of the example activities or rubrics.

From teaching a full-time course load, the authors had ample opportunity to interact with the curriculum. In one particular introductory English class, the structure of the curriculum guide was invaluable in preparing both the syllabus and the curriculum. This was a writing class in which no textbook was used. Without a textbook, the curriculum guide provided a framework on which to build the class. The can-do statements provided a set of open educational goals that became the milestones of the class. The example activities, on the other hand, were valuable primarily as jumping-off points. During the creation of the curriculum, the activities illustrated the types of activities that could be used to promote the learning objectives. From there, other activities were added that suited the teacher's teaching style. Since the authors were already familiar with rubrics, they did not feel a need to consult the curriculum guide for further information.

Going Forward

Since this is the first iteration of the curriculum guide, the process has only begun. In the next version a few key elements need to be addressed to make the guide more useful for the English instructors at our university. First, further differentiation and clarification in the can-do statements should be a priority. While the current can-do statements are useful, they can still be somewhat unclear. For example, in Eigo Enshu 2A the following can-do statement is presented as a continuation from Eigo Enshu 1A: "students can read and write about familiar events in greater detail". Just what is meant by in greater detail is not clear. Removing the ambiguity of such statements should make them easier to use for teachers.

Second, it is paramount that the authors collect more input from other instructors. As it stands, two native English-speaking instructors developed the curriculum guide. Initially, one was full-time and one part-time (both are currently full-time). Due to staffing changes and changing responsibilities within the university, other instructors who provided input and approved the final product were not able participate fully in the planning stages. In particular, we seek more input from our Japanese colleagues.

Third, the curriculum guide must become a more prominent element in the syllabus creation process. Although this element is not under the direct control of the authors, the curriculum guide will only become truly useful when it gains widespread acceptance by the instructors teaching the introductory English classes. This goes hand-in-hand with the previous point as we hope that teachers who are invested in the planning process are more likely to implement the curriculum changes. Moreover, since the authors of the curriculum guide are not always in direct contact with new staff at the beginning of their term, one solution would be for the academic affairs division to provide the curriculum guide together with the syllabus templates.

In the future, it is necessary to expand the guide to include elective English courses in second- and third-years. The curriculum guide currently addresses only four required first-year English courses. The next step is to continue to build on the learning objectives of these first-year courses. By doing so, we hope to realize the potential of the guide as a curriculum guide, not merely a syllabus guide.

Finally, students need to be involved in the process.

We can begin by receiving their feedback on the curriculum and whether they feel the learning goals are appropriate. Another area to investigate is whether they (and the instructors) believe that the learning goals have been achieved.

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Supplementary Online Materials: Selection and Implementation

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Online materials, such as self-study programs and workbooks, are increasingly being made available for teachers who wish to adopt them as supplementary materials for their language programmes. While such materials can be usefully integrated into the class, as in blended learning programmes, or used for self-study, there are a number of issues that need to be considered before their adoption into a course of study. These issues will be examined, along with support from evidence of the benefits and challenges of supplementary online material usage in a Japanese university setting. This paper goes on to present practical suggestions on how to select the appropriate resources and successfully implement supplementary online materials into a programme of study.

自習用プログラムやワークブックなどのオンライン教材は、言語プログラムの補助教材として取り入れたいと思っている教師たちによって、ますます利用されるようになっている。そういった教材は、ブレンド型学習プログラムのような授業にうまく取り入れたり、自習に使ったりすることができる一方で、学習過程に取り入れる前に、よく考えなければならない問題が多い。このような諸問題は、日本の大学環境でオンライン教材を補助的に使用することについての利点と課題に関して裏付けを取りながら、今後詳しく調査されるだろう。この論文は、適切な資料を選び、学習プログラムにオンライン補助教材を上手く取り入れる方法について、実用的な提案をするものである。

Technological advances have allowed for online materials of increasingly high quality to be made available to teachers. Compared to even just a few years ago, we now have a much larger selection to choose from to enhance our students' learning outside of the classroom. This variety poses challenges for teachers developing programs of study for their students. Once they have stepped past the initial hurdle of deciding to adopt technology into their course, it is necessary, to aid in the selection process, to ask themselves some questions: Which material should I select? Will the students benefit from it? Will they actually get the work done? These must all be carefully considered to ensure a successful course. In this paper, I present some supplementary online materials selection criteria to make that decision a little easier, as well as providing some guidelines for successfully implementing the material in the course.

The initial impetus for this work stemmed from a desire to enhance and broaden the learning experience of the students in my classes. Using technology was another aim of providing an expanded learning environment. This was initially taken into consideration to make use of technology's pervasiveness in the lives

Zitzmann, A. (2015). Supplementary online materials: Selection and implementation. In G. Brooks, M. Grogan, & M. Porter (Eds.), *The 2014 PanSIG Conference Proceedings* (pp. 258-263). Miyazaki, Japan: JALT.

of the students. The advancement of technology has reached a point where most everyone in the student generation has experience with various technological tools in their daily lives. Also, there was the added benefit of increasing interest in the material by using its multimedia elements.

Research data reported in 2013 from the Yano Research Institute in a Mynavi news article on the e-learning market in Japan shows a steady increase in this field (MyNavi News, 2013). From FY2010 to FY2011, the e-learning market (which includes smartphones and tablets) grew 31.1% in combined business to business and business to consumer sales. The prospects for 2012 had the overall market growing 130%, and was predicted to increase another 57.8% in 2013. (Figure 1). This indicates that there is plenty of room for growth, and that the use of technology in the educational field will continue to develop and grow for some time yet, especially with the intention of making learning available anywhere, at any time. As the level of technological integration into the educational system is still quite low, there are many teachers who have not had experience with such materials. For those who are just starting out with online materials it can be a daunting process, especially if unprepared. There are some teachers who have initially chosen to use technology in their courses, but have reverted to more traditional materials due to the numerous challenges they and their students faced in successfully adapting it to their situation. I believe that this kind of negative experience can be avoided with proper preparation, guidance, and support. This paper examines supplementary online materials (SOMs) in order for teachers to make informed decisions on the kind of SOMs to adopt for their program and to present procedures that allow for more effective implementation.

Analysis

Advantages

The advantages of SOMs are numerous. For students there is the increased exposure to the target language. Increased exposure, or more specifically increased comprehensible input, will result in acquisition (Krashen, 2013). There is also the fact that the pace at which they work through the material is not externally controlled, neither by the teacher nor the other students in the class. The students can control the pace and also the time and place at which they do the work. This flexibility in doing the work allows them to optimise their learning, as well as the purpose—for example, when preparing for a test, or to review a lesson.

For the teacher, the SOMs are equally advantageous. Administrative work regarding assignments, or homework in particular, is reduced. Have the students done the work? The teacher site can generate various types of reports highlighting the amount of work done, the time spent on it, and how well it was done. There is no need to collect papers or books. Most significantly timesaving is the non-existence of physical marking. All this allows the teacher to spend more time on other aspects of teaching, such as the development and preparation of classes that rely less on teacher administration.

Disadvantages

The disadvantages of SOMs are similar for both teachers and students. The biggest hurdle for most people is the technological aspect. Even if we are technologically savvy, there is still the initial learning stage that is needed to familiarise ourselves with a new program. The time this requires depends on the complexity of the programme and the level of technological ability of the user. Therefore, this issue is something to take into consideration when selecting the SOMs.

On another technological note there is the fact that problems will arise, whether they be with the computer one is working on, with the program, or with the user. These sudden, inexplicable problems hinder progress and add frustration to both the students and the teachers. Being prepared for them and having a plan on how to deal with them can be helpful.

Another issue is that of time, which may seem incongruous with the advantages presented earlier. For the students finding time to do the actual assigned work can be problematic when the SOMs are only available on the computer network at school. The teacher can also be disadvantaged as they must administer the program and follow the students' progress. Depending on the system being used this may require the teacher to be at the computer for significant periods of time.

One final issue is financial. For students, this may result in a more expensive textbook, or in paying for the SOMs outright. Teachers themselves may not have to pay for online materials, but the time and effort to get the department or school to purchase it can take its toll.

These issues stress the importance of a pedagogically sound management system, so as not to jeopardise the implementation process and possibly result in resistance by teachers and students to e-learning (Govindasamy, 2002).

Types of SOMs

Let us assume that the teacher has already made the decision to adopt SOMs for their course, but finds himself or herself overwhelmed by the wide range of materials that are available on the market. It is not a mature market, which means that the choices and quality continue to improve every year. The choices have been separated into four types: blended learning course books, online workbooks, self-study programs, and teacher sourced materials. Each has its own particular purpose which the teacher needs to consider separately. The following is a brief description of each, which will help the teacher narrow down the field to the appropriate type of material for their particular course.

Blended Learning

First, let us look at blended learning which can broadly be defined as a marriage of proven learning principles with the influx of technology (Dunn, 2013). The amount and level of technology used in a blended learning programme can vary greatly, from the simple use of a DVD in class to intensive use of a computer-assisted language lab. For the purpose of selecting and implementing SOMs, blended learning refers to a programme of study that incorporates elements of traditional face-to-face instruction with an online e-learning framework that is independently accessed by students outside of the classroom (Singh, 2003; Swanson & Zitzmann, 2011). Blended learning coursebooks are a good entry point for language teachers looking for materials that are fully integrated, in which actual face time and communicative activities are of primary importance to the language teacher during class time. The online material either provides an introduction to the material in the text or leads off of the text to reinforce the work accomplished in class. iZone, published by Pearson Longman, is a good example of a text that uses online materials for students to both prepare for and review the material used in the classroom. As their website touts, it "creates more time for communicative practice in class" and "saves teachers valuable preparation and administration time".

CMS

Teacher sourced materials are without a doubt the most labour-intensive option for the individual teacher. This requires the use of a content management system (CMS), which also must be carefully chosen to meet the needs and abilities of the teacher (if the educational institution does not already have such a system available). The materials themselves must be either collected or produced by the teacher, then uploaded onto the CMS. In short, the teacher is responsible for providing and maintaining the material that is available online to the students through the CMS. The widely popular Moodle is a CMS that was initially designed by an educator as a method of online teaching.

Workbooks

The workbook is a staple product for additional intensive study. The introduction of online workbooks has also made the job of teachers much easier. These online workbooks can provide immediate feedback to the students and release the teacher from spending hours correcting and marking student workbooks. The added advantage of having online workbooks is that they can include multimedia elements, such as audio and video, to help students with their listening skills. These materials are a great way of providing content that is interesting to the students, increasing their attention and thereby improving their language acquisition. This increased interest is what Krashen (2013) refers to as "compelling input", in reference to literacy development, but which should be equally applicable to audio visual input. He explains that "the input is so interesting you forget that it is in another language" (p. 15). It is suggested that compelling input does away with the need for a conscious desire to improve, as the student's interest in the content drives the student forward for more input, pushing their language acquisition forward. National Geographic Learning follows Krashen's idea in the development of their materials. As they state on their homepage, they "believe that an engaged and motivated learner will be a successful one" (About National Geographic Learning, n.d., para. 1).

Self-study

The self-study program option is one that can be separated further into two types. One type is a skill specific program. The focus of these programs is on one particular linguistic skill, such as vocabulary (an example being WordEngine), or grammar. The programs offer intensive learning with claims of rapid progress. One problem that the author's students have had with these kinds of programs was sustaining their interest in the program over the course of the semester, let alone the year. The second type of self-study program is a fully integrated program (such as ALCnet), which uses various "courses" such as grammar, listening, test preparation, and so on, to improve the students' overall linguistic ability. This option would not be something for a teacher to adopt for a single course, but would be more appropriate for a department or school to consider adopting.

Selection Process

Now that we have seen the advantages and disadvantages of SOMs as well as the various types available to the teacher, it is time to make a decision. Let us now look at the process as outlined in Figure 1.

Firstly, we must know the purpose of having students work on SOMs. Is it to improve their skills independently of the course, or should the SOMs be integrated into classroom activities? In order to make a good decision about which SOMs to adopt, it is not only necessary to choose the appropriate type for the course and the teacher, but the students and their interests must also be taken into consideration. The increase in the variety of materials available now makes this easier to do.

Technological aspects of the decision should also be considered carefully. Incompatibility issues are always a possibility, especially with the large variety of platforms and software programs in use. Will the school's computers be able to deal with all the features of the SOMs? How accessible do you want the program to be? Should it just be accessible on the school computers, or from any location on any platform? The more accessible it is, the more flexible and advantageous it is for students to do the work when they want.

Another technological aspect is the complexity of the program itself, which may affect accessibility. How much technological prowess is necessary to use the SOMs? If it is complex or difficult to understand how to use, then there is a greater likelihood of students having problems doing the work. SOMs that are intuitive and easy to get accustomed to will make the experience much better for all involved.

One last consideration in the selection process should be the teacher page of the program. The results of the assignments, as well as various other data, should

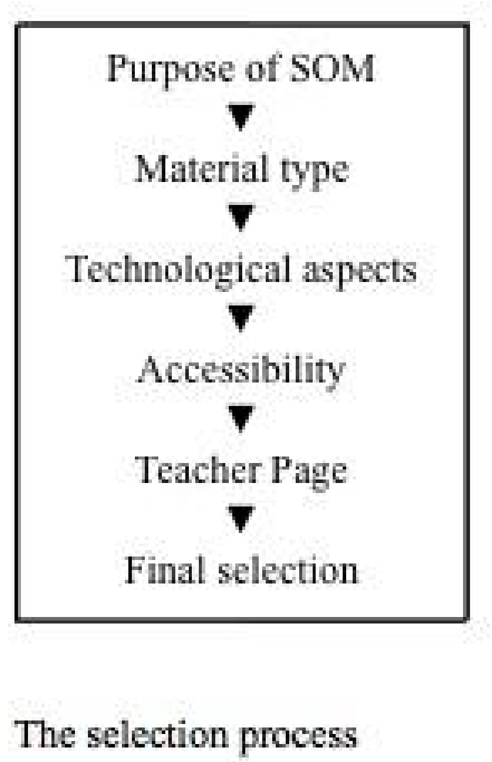

Figure 1. The selection process

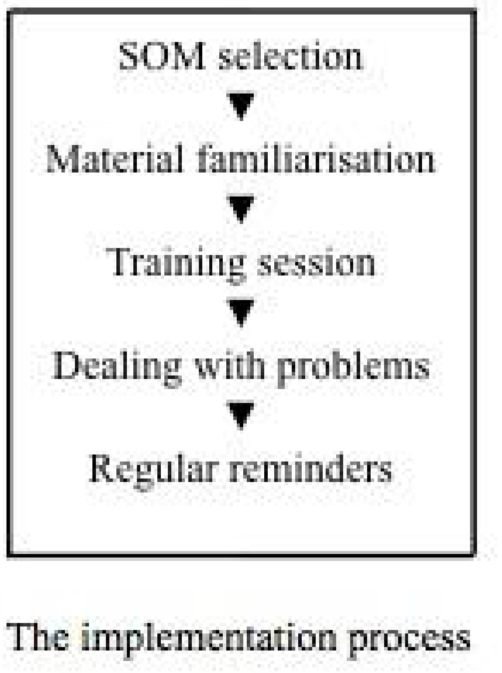

Figure 2. The implementation process

all be made available to the teacher via the teacher page. How intuitive is it? Does it provide you, the teacher, with the data that you require in a format that is useful to you? A poorly designed teacher page adds a lot of aggravation and discontent to the teacher, which may be a contributing factor in the rejection of using technology in their courses.

Implementation Process

Having taken into consideration the various advantages and disadvantages of using SOMs and the numerous types of materials, we have gone through the selection process and made our decision on which SOMs to use. Let us now look at the actual implementation process to ensure that the SOMs are a successful part of our course. Even after spending all that time and effort to make the right choice in materials, if the implementation is not done correctly the course will more than likely result in a negative experience for both the teacher and the students. So how should we proceed? Figure 2 presents the process graphically.

First, we need to familiarise ourselves with the material. Although we may have taken a cursory look and attempted to do the material ourselves before making the final selection, it is always a good idea to go through the registration process and a complete unit of material from the viewpoint of a student. This will bring to our attention any potential problems that may occur. Having gone through the process yourself will also help you in preparing the next stage of the implementation process—the training session.

For a smoother and less frustrating experience on the side of both the teacher and the students, it is highly recommended to put the time into a SOMs training session. Even though there are guides and help pages available with the online materials, there is no substitute for actually going through the process together with the students and explaining what and how things should be done. This training also helps to cut down on the number of problems you need to deal with later in the course. It is also very useful for those students who are not as computer literate as we would expect.

As with any technology, there are problems that happen. Students may forget or lose their log-in password. There may be glitches in the program that cause problems, or maybe just the fact that there is maintenance going on at the time the student tries to do the work. Incompatibility issues can still be a problem even after taking them into consideration in the selection process. Although we should not be expected to fix all these problems, we should make the students aware of the potential issues and the options and workarounds available to them to get things working again.

Finally, regular reminders are a simple and fairly effective way of encouraging students to complete the work. Also, letting them know, directly or indirectly, that you are monitoring them does increase the likelihood of them engaging with the SOMs (Millikan, Shimai, & Howarth, 2011).

Conclusion

A question that teachers may ask themselves about using SOMs is whether it is worth the time and effort to include them as part of their programme. Student feedback would suggest that the students realise the benefits of SOMs and therefore, it is in the students' interest to include SOMs in a program. How effective is using SOMs in improving the abilities of the students? Although the question goes well beyond the scope of this paper, it would be an interesting and worthwhile point to follow up on. In part, the effectiveness of the SOMs would depend on the content that is being presented. When the content is comprehensible to the student, and they are open to language acquisition, then SOMs will be effective for the students (Krashen, 2013). If the students find the content interesting, and do the SOMs willingly, rather than reluctantly, then, according to Krashen, effective language acquisition will occur.

Trying something new is a lot of work. It can lead to a lot of frustration and headaches. We would prefer to take the easy route, but the problems can be overcome. With regards to the inclusion of SOMs in a course of study, we can improve the learning situation for the students and the work situation for the teacher. This can be done by following a clear and well-prepared selection process, and then taking the time to implement it using the recommendations discussed. This is not to say that the ideas presented here are the definitive way to select and implement SOMs into your courses. Each situation will have its own particular needs. The materials being created are changing with the advancements in technology. New challenges will come up as these changes affect the way we teach, learn, and interact with each other in the learning environment we create. We need to be aware of what is happening, and be prepared to adapt.

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