

JALT Journal

JALT Journal is the research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). It is published semiannually, in May and November. As a nonprofit organization dedicated to promoting excellence in language learning, teaching, and research, JALT has a rich tradition of publishing relevant material in its many publications.



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Japan Association for Language Teaching

A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of approximately 3,000 language teachers. There are 33 JALT chapters and one forming chapter, all in Japan, along with 24 special interest groups (SIGs) and three forming SIGs. JALT is one of the founders of PAC (Pan-Asian Consortium), which is an association of language teacher organizations in Pacific Asia. PAC holds regional conferences and exchanges information among its member organizations. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and is a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

JALT publishes *JALT Journal*, a semiannual research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a bi-monthly periodical containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and the annual *JALT International Conference Proceedings*.

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 600 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Each JALT chapter holds local meetings and JALT's SIGs provide information and newsletters on specific areas of interest. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes, and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning. Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes automatic assignment to the nearest chapter or the chapter you prefer to join, copies of JALT publications, and reduced admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥1,500 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office or visit the JALT website at <www.jalt.org>.

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In this Issue

Articles

In this autumn issue, we are pleased to present three full-length research articles. The first, by **Scott Aubrey**, is a report on changes in L2 motivation for tertiary-level Japanese learners of English over a one-semester period as they completed a communicative course. **Hiroshi Suzuki** and **Peter Roger**, authors of the second article, examine foreign language anxiety among Japanese teachers of English, explicate the sources of such anxiety, and offer recommendations for alleviating it. **Todd Tournat**, in the third article, reports on the adaptation of a measure for attribution theory, the Causal Dimension II Scale, into the Japanese second language acquisition context.

Reviews

This issue features seven book reviews. In the opening review, **Darío Luis Banegas** covers a title from the Routledge Introduction to Applied Linguistics series on both practical matters and research investigations in intercultural communication. The second review, by **Robert Croker**, introduces Rod Ellis's synthesis of empirical studies on language teaching and learning research. **Dominic G. Edsall** looks at language learning motivation in Japan from an edited collection. **Marlen Elliot Harrison** reviews a take on critical ELT from Graham Crookes. **Tim Murphey** lends his expertise to tease out how a book on learning and creativity research using Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) could be of interest to language teachers and graduate students. **Roger Palmer** examines a title looking back at 30 years of genre-based literacy and pedagogy. Closing out the reviews, **Cameron Romney** highlights the gap between applied linguistics theory and ELT materials development in practice as presented in a book edited by Brian Tomlinson.

From the Editor

Four years ago, I joined *JALT Journal* as Associate Editor. Under the guidance of **Darren Lingley**, I learned many editorial skills, and it's hard to believe that this is my last issue as Editor. I am honoured to have been part of the team at *JALT Journal* and grateful to have worked with many talented individuals. I have learned not only how to read others' work, but also how to write more effectively. Another wonderful side benefit is that I have extended my network of friends and contacts.

Health issues have cropped up for me in the last year. I was hoping to extend my tenure with *JJ*, but find I must step down. I am confident that

Anne Howard will continue to keep the standards of *JALT Journal* high. She has been a godsend since I became ill and I am very thankful that I was able to rely on her judgment, skill, and tact while recovering. I hope she will be, as I was, fortunate in receiving a fairly steady stream of high-quality work with which to fill *JJ*. If I could wave a magic wand and make it so for her, I would!

I would like, as always, to extend my thanks to the authors, reviewers, and members of the fabulous *JALT Journal* production team for giving me this valuable experience. I hope to continue serving JALT in other ways and will, at the very least, hang around the publications board table at JALT conferences to offer advice (requested or not) to anyone who will listen.

From everyone at *JALT Journal*, I would like to extend our gratitude to **Cynthia Quinn** for reviewing manuscripts for *JJ* over the last 10 years. We are sorry to lose her, but understand how busy life can get! We gratefully welcome **Marie Kjeldgaard** and **Gavin O'Neill**, who join as proofreaders this issue. Marie and Gavin have just finished contributing their impressive talents as copy editors for the *JALT2013 Proceedings* and have graciously agreed to try their hands at proofreading *JALT Journal*. We are always thrilled to add members to our team!

Sadly, JALT has lost two fine men who were integral members of the proofreading team. **Alan Stoke** passed away suddenly in August. Alan was active in JALT since 2005 and contributed in many different capacities, including 5 years as *The Language Teacher* proofreader and column editor, 2 years as *TLT* assistant editor, 3 years as conference publications editor, 3 years as *Conference Proceedings* editor, and 4 years as *JALT Journal* proofreader. He was truly a friend of JALT publications. Alan was also active in the West Tokyo chapter—treasurer since 2007 and website editor since 2012. He will be much missed by all who knew and depended on him.

Longtime JALT member **Jack Yohay** is also no longer with us. Jack passed away in late September. He was a JALT member since 1980 and had attended every JALT conference. Jack was an active Osaka Chapter member who served in various officer positions for 9 years between 1982 and 2000. He was a *JALT Newsletter* (which came before *TLT*) column editor and proofreader from 1984 to 1990 and conference publications editor in 1987. Jack has been the most reliable and dedicated member of the *JJ* proofreading team since 1995 and proofread this current issue from his hospital bed. His gentle wit, unassuming manner, and skill with words have been appreciated by 20 years of JALT Journal editors. Jack was also a member of the Journal Editorial Advisory Board since 2009. Jack will be missed by everyone who had the privilege of knowing and working with him.

Melodie Cook

Articles

Development of the L2 Motivational Self System: English at a University in Japan

Scott Aubrey
Kwansei Gakuin University

This paper reports on a study investigating changes in L2 motivation for Japanese learners of English as they completed their first communicative English language course at university. I aim to describe the strength and structure of students' motivation and the degree to which these changed over one semester. A 36-item questionnaire was used to measure components of the L2 Motivational Self System and International Posture. The questionnaire was administered twice to 202 second-year university students in Japan: during the first week of the semester and 11 weeks later. Structural equation models were created to describe the causal relationships between motivational variables for the two time periods. Paired *t* tests revealed that both motivated learning behavior and ought-to L2 self significantly increased over the semester. A comparison of the two models indicated that there was a change in the motivational structure from Week 1 to Week 12.

本研究は、英語学習者の動機づけの強さと構造、及びその変化に焦点をあて、日本人大学生の外国語（L2）に対する動機づけの変化を調査した。大学で最初に履修するコミュニケーション英語の授業を対象に、第2言語習得を動機づける自己システム（L2 Motivational Self System）と国際志向性の2側面を測定する36項目からなる質問紙を作成し、2年生202名に対して授業第1週目とその11週間後に調査を実施した。分析は、まず構造方程式モデリングで2回の調査間の動機づけの変化を分析し、それに基づき対応のある*t*検定を実施した。分析の結果、動機づけの高い学習行動と義務自己ought-to selfに関する数値が1学期を通して向上したことが明らかになった。

Although it has been shown that a significant predictor of foreign language learning success is motivation (Gardner, 1985), it is disconcerting to read the plethora of literature describing the motivational deficiencies of English learners at Japanese universities (e.g., Berwick & Ross, 1989; McVeigh, 2004; Nakata, 2006). Previous research has suggested that the motivational tendencies of learners of English in Japan are most vulnerable in the period soon after matriculation to university (Berwick & Ross, 1989; Carpenter, Falout, Fukuda, Trovela, & Murphey, 2009; Warrington & Jeffery, 2005). Although rigid institutional requirements have led to a focus on testing the noncommunicative elements of English at the pretertiary level, English teachers at Japanese universities tend to adopt more innovative communicative approaches (Matsuura, Chiba, & Hilderbrandt, 2001). Instead of “English for exams,” learners find themselves struggling with the notion of “English for communication.” Students entering university face a difficult challenge: They must derive their motivation not from the externally imposed needs of an examination-based system but from their desire to make their English studies personally meaningful for their future.

For some Japanese students, the study of English at university is fulfilling and can foster, for the first time, an intrinsic interest in using the language. However, other students may become confused and overwhelmed by contrasting approaches and loosely defined expectations, leading to passivity and demotivation (Holthouse, 2005; Sakui & Gaies, 1999; Warrington & Jeffery, 2005). Ushioda (2013) suggested that L2 motivation researchers in Japan should investigate this issue from the perspective of “how [students] see English as fitting into or not fitting into their personal system of values, goals, and identities” (p. 9). In other words, one goal of L2 motivation research should be to understand to what extent learners choose to integrate English into their future-oriented selves. Therefore, the primary purpose of this study was to explore the motivational strength and structure of Japanese learners of English from a *self-concept* perspective as they completed their first communicative English course at university. In doing so, I attempted to test and elaborate Dörnyei’s (2005) L2 Motivational Self System as an applicable framework in the Japanese university context for students taking university-level communicative language classes. The second purpose was to determine the ways in which the strength and structure of students’ motivations change over a semester-long course. Like recent studies (e.g., Munezane, 2013; Nitta & Asano, 2010), it is hoped that this investigation will deepen our understanding of the developmental nature of the L2 Motivational Self System, an area that remains underresearched (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012).

The L2 Motivational Self System

Identity has always been a distinguishing factor of L2 motivation. Since the first iteration of the socioeducational model of second language acquisition (Gardner & Smyth, 1975), *integrativeness* has been a key construct that explains L2 motivation in terms of learners' identification with another ethnolinguistic group. However, to account for the fluid nature of identities, L2 motivation has been reconceptualized in terms of internal self-identification (Dörnyei, 2005). The most prominent L2 motivation theory related to the concepts of self and identity is the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005). Based on self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) and the concept of possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986), the self system framework comprises three components that work together to regulate a learner's L2 motivation: *ideal L2 self*, *ought-to L2 self*, and *L2 learning experience*.

Ideal L2 Self

Ideal L2 self is the central *self-guide* in the model, which Dörnyei (2005) describes as a learner's idealized version of him- or herself in the future. It is what learners hope or aspire to be with regard to their L2. Motivation to learn an L2 is derived from the desire to reduce the gap between the actual and ideal selves. In the majority of studies that have served to validate Dörnyei's self system, ideal L2 self has been shown to be a significant predictor of motivation (e.g., Ryan, 2009; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009). However, there is empirical evidence to suggest that a vivid and robust ideal L2 self emerges over time and in particular social contexts. For example, Lamb (2012) found only a "partial endorsement" of the importance of the ideal L2 self in motivating young language learners, indicating that the connection between English and a future identity may emerge at a later age (p. 1014). In the context of Japan, Pigott (2011) found that 1st-year Japanese high school students in a compulsory English class lacked a "clearly envisioned ideal L2 self" (p. 547), and Ryan (2009) found evidence to suggest that ideal L2 self represents a better indicator of motivated learning behavior for university students than for high school students.

Ought-to L2 Self

The second self-guide in the model, ought-to L2 self, embodies the pressure to meet the language learning expectations of others, thus having a contrasting but complementary role to ideal L2 self. Empirical studies have indicated that ought-to L2 self contributes less than other components

in Dörnyei's model. In fact, several studies (e.g., Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006; Kormos & Csizér, 2008) found no significant relationship between the ought-to L2 self variable and motivated learning behavior. Lamb (2012), who failed to identify the factor with any satisfactory measure of reliability, went further, saying that there may be "a potential weakness either in the construct or current methods of elicitation" (p. 1014). Alternatively, the measure of ought-to L2 self may simply not be as relevant in some contexts as ideal L2 self. Taguchi et al. (2009) found that ought-to L2 self correlates strongly with instrumental measures (e.g., studying English to pass examinations). Their results indicated that for Japanese learners the influence of instrumental measures on ought-to L2 self is strong. This is in line with Pigott's (2011) findings, which showed that the motivation of Japanese high school students was strongly directed by their ought-to self, a psychological response that Pigott attributed to "the relentless pressure to secure university entrance" (p. 545). One might expect the intensity of ought-to L2 self to dissipate once Japanese students begin their university studies and the pressure of exams is in the past.

L2 Learning Experience

L2 learning experience, the third component of Dörnyei's model, is conceptualized on a different level. Rather than representing a self-guide, L2 learning experience reflects the impact that the immediate learning environment might have on a learner's motivation. As Dörnyei (2009) explained, the trigger for initial motivation commonly comes from an engagement in the learning processes rather than from the generation of internal or external self-guides. Previous studies indicated that L2 learning experience strongly contributes to a student's motivation (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Taguchi, 2013; Taguchi et al., 2009). However, the influence of learners' attitudes towards the classroom environment is contextually dependent. For example, Taguchi et al. (2009) observed that in China, attitudes towards learning English play a less important role than in Japan. He explained that "Chinese students will typically be able to control their negative attitudes for the sake of achieving their ultimate goal, a high level of proficiency in English" (p. 87). For Japanese students, situation-specific factors, such as the teacher, methods, and classroom atmosphere, seem to be powerful motivators. However, as Taguchi (2013) warned, a positive attitude towards the classroom environment that is not connected to a learner's ideal L2 self "does not trigger strong motivation" (p. 184). In previous studies, both strong (e.g., Papi, 2010; Taguchi et al., 2009) and weak (e.g., Csizér & Kormos, 2009) empirical

relationships between ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience have been found, which highlights the concern that an enjoyable classroom environment does not necessarily equate to learning that is personally relevant.

International Posture and Ideal L2 Self

In response to Japan-based L2 researchers who have questioned the relevance of integrativeness in the Japanese EFL context (e.g., Benson, 1991; Nakata, 1995; Sawaki, 1997), Yashima (2002) proposed the attitudinal construct, *international posture*, as a measure of how Japanese EFL learners can relate to the English-speaking world outside of Japan. Yashima described international posture as an “interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures.” (p. 57). Several studies have shown that Japanese who have high international posture tend to exhibit higher levels of motivated learning behavior (Yashima, 2002; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004). International posture, however, is not a stand-alone construct and relates very closely to ideal L2 self. In an attempt to revise the construct, Yashima (2009) tested the relationship of international posture and ideal L2 self and found a strong correlation, suggesting that Japanese learners derive their future selves from having a personal connection with the non-Japanese, English-using world. This result led Yashima to reason that international posture subsumes part of the ideal L2 self; that is, it represents a learners’ desired English-using self within an international community. Outside of the Japanese context, Csizér and Kormos (2009) had similar results, finding international posture to have a significant impact on ideal L2 self for Hungarian students at both the secondary school and university levels. These results indicated that a personal identification with the international community contributes to the formation of a mature ideal self-concept.

Research Objectives

The objective of this study was to examine changes in Japanese students’ motivation to learn English as they progressed through a semester-long university English course. Specifically, the study was set out to address the following research questions:

- RQ1. Does the strength of Japanese university students’ L2 motivation change as a result of their participation in a semester-long communicative language course?

RQ2. Is there any change in the structure of students' L2 Motivational Self System over one semester? If so, to what extent does the structure change?

In this study, L2 motivation was operationally defined as the variable *motivated learning behavior*, which examines the amount of effort and the intended choice of learning English (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei et al., 2006). In this case, the strength of L2 motivation is regulated by the components of the L2 Motivational Self System, which consist of the variables ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience. The variable *international posture* has been added to the system because of its relevance to the formation of the ideal L2 self of Japanese learners of English.

Method

Research Site

Perhaps the most ambitious action plan from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports and Technology (MEXT) for improving foreign language skills of Japanese university learners involves the implementation of the *Global 30* and the *Global 30 Plus* projects. Enacted in 2008, the Global 30 project is concerned mainly with creating English-medium programs at 30 top Japanese universities in order to attract degree-seeking international students, with the end goal of making Japan an international hub for education. Global 30 Plus (Project for the Promotion of Global Human Resource Development), on the other hand, focuses on the language education of Japanese students and the promotion of global awareness. Forty universities in Japan were selected to receive Global 30 Plus grants to support the objective of "improving students' foreign language proficiency, reforming faculty systems, and enhancing programs for sending students abroad" (JSPS, 2013, p. 55).

The research reported here was conducted at a private university in Hyogo prefecture, Japan—a recipient of a Global 30 Plus grant in 2012. Since receiving the grant, English education at the university has undergone considerable reform. At the center of this reform is the Intensive English Program (IEP). The IEP is a yearlong program consisting of two one-semester courses, aimed at developing students' communicative language skills. All teachers are native English speakers, have master's degrees in a language-related field, and employ a range of communicative methodologies in their classes. Unlike other English programs at the university, a portfolio assessment has been implemented that places emphasis on communicative performance in class. As a result, teachers in the program have adopted task-based and

project-based learning approaches. In addition, courses in the IEP program adopt a strict English-only classroom policy, with the intention of immersing students in an English-using environment. Students in the program meet 3 days a week, making it, in terms of classroom hours, the most demanding English language program at the university. Students enter the program in the second semester of their 1st year. Admittance into the program is competitive and contingent on a range of factors that include a minimum TOEFL or TOEIC score and an interview in which students must demonstrate a positive attitude towards learning English. For most students, it is their first course that focuses on English for communication.

Participants

A total of 202 Japanese students from the Departments of Humanities, Business, Economics, and Sociology participated in all components of this research. Participants were beginning the second-semester course in the IEP at the start of the study. Students belonged to 11 different classes ranging from intermediate to preadvanced. To qualify for placement in these classes, students needed to achieve a score of between 420 and 510 on the TOEFL PBT test.

The researcher gained permission from five teachers to administer the questionnaire in their classes. Of the 202 participants, 105 were female and 97 were male. At the start of the study, students rated their English proficiency for each language skill on a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (very poor) and 7 (very good). The mean of these self-reported scores indicated that participant ratings of their English proficiency were average for reading ($M = 4.31$, $SD = 1.19$), writing ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.13$), and listening ($M = 3.74$, $SD = 1.40$), and below average for speaking ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 1.40$).

Questionnaire data were collected from students twice—once at the start and once at the end of the semester. The first questionnaire was completed by 240 students. However, 10 students were eliminated from the sample because they reported that their nationality was not Japanese. A further 28 students were eliminated because they failed to complete the second questionnaire.

Instruments

The questionnaire comprised two parts: The first part elicited background information on participants (e.g., sex, nationality, native language, and perceptions of current foreign language ability) and the second part

consisted of 36 items that targeted motivational factors. The second administration consisted of the motivation portion only. The purpose of the motivation portion of the questionnaire was to measure the strength of the criterion variable, *motivated learning behavior*, as well as variables that predict motivation: ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, and international posture. Most items were adapted from Taguchi et al. (2009) and Yashima (2009) and had been extensively piloted in a previous research project (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013). However, some items were updated to reflect more recent research (e.g., Nakahira & Yashima, 2012). Items consisted of statements to which participants were asked to rate their agreement on a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (absolutely untrue) and 7 (absolutely true). (See Appendix for all items.)

Procedure

Once the English draft of the questionnaire (instructions and items) was composed, it was translated into Japanese and back-translated by a bilingual Japanese professor and a bilingual Japanese graduate student in order to ensure that no meaning was lost in the process. The final version of the questionnaire was administered online to all participants in April 2013, during the first week of the semester. Student participants completed the questionnaire while in a computer lab during class time. Before the first administration, the researcher was present to explain the purpose of the research and obtain informed consent. Eleven weeks later, in July 2013, the motivation portion of the questionnaire was administered again to the same students in the same manner. The researcher disregarded all data from students who were absent during the class when the second administration took place.

Analysis

To examine whether participants were utilizing all categories of the 7-point scale, responses to questionnaire items for both administrations underwent Rasch analysis (rating scale model) using WINSTEPS 3.81.0 (Linacre, 2011). A diagnostic assessment of item categories was carried out for the purpose of investigating whether response levels were being used effectively and consistently. Responses appeared to be underutilizing one category, which caused an uneven progression from one step calibration to the next. For this reason, it was decided to combine two different categories for each variable measured. In other words, the original 7-point scale was rescaled to a 6-point scale.

After rescaling, the data for each administration were entered into SPSS 22.0. To examine the changes in strength for each scale from Week 1 to Week 12, two measures were calculated. A paired t test was conducted on each scale to test for statistical significance followed by a calculation of effect size. As a total of five t tests were conducted, a level of $p < .01$ was used with Bonferroni's adjustment to control for the familywise error. The effect size value (Cohen's d) was included as it provides a measure of effect that, unlike tests for significance, does not depend on sample size.

To examine the causal relationships among the factors measured, the analytic objective was to create a structural equation model (SEM) for each time period. The goal of SEM is to test the extent to which a hypothesized theoretical model is consistent with the data collected (Hashimoto, 2002). In doing so, it allows researchers to examine "a series of dependence relationships simultaneously" (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998, p. 578). If the hypothesized model does not sufficiently fit the data, revised models can be tested until a causal structure reflects the data. For SEM, R. B. Kline (2005) recommends a sample size of over 200, which he deems to be large and sufficient for most models. Data for the analysis were from the administration of the questionnaire to 202 students at two points in time. Thus, we can conclude that the sample size is appropriate for this kind of analysis. Before the testing of the structural model, a measurement model must first be created (Kunnan, 1998). The measurement phase involves conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in order to test the validity of the specified relationships between the latent variables and the actual questionnaire items that assess them. AMOS 21.0 (Arbuckle, 2012) was used to conduct the CFA on both data sets. During the CFA process, the following four items with factor loading values less than .35 were removed:

OS1 (Item 1 for ought-to L2 self)—*It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't study English.*

OS3 (Item 3 for ought-to L2 self)—*I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.*

MB1 (Item 1 for motivated learning behavior)—*If an English course was offered at university or somewhere else in the future, I would like to take it.*

LE1 (Item 1 for L2 learning experience)—*I find English really interesting*

Table 1 shows the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients for each scale based on data from the 202 participants collected for each administration (Week 1 and Week 12) after the deletion of problematic items.

Table 1. Variables With Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients (N = 202)

Scales	Number of items	Cronbach's α	
		Week 1	Week 12
Motivated learning behavior	4	.83	.82
Ideal L2 self	5	.93	.93
Ought-to L2 self	3	.68	.69
L2 learning experience	4	.86	.83
International posture	16	.87	.87

According to P. Kline's (1999) criteria for describing internal consistency, an alpha greater than .9 constitutes an excellent fit, between .7 and .9 represents a good fit, and between .6 and .7 is an acceptable fit. All values reported met or exceeded the criteria for acceptable fit. However, similar to previous studies (e.g., Lamb, 2012; Taguchi et al., 2009), the measure of ought-to L2 self (.68 and .69) is considerably less reliable than the other scales. As noted in Lamb (2012), this may be due to the wording of frequently used questionnaire items. In this case, to capture the general notion of possessing an obligation towards others to learn English, items referred to "parental" disappointment, the importance "close friends" put on English, and the expectations of "people surrounding me." For Japanese, the expectations from each of these social groups may be different and possibly contradictory. Given that the Cronbach's alpha for ought-to L2 self was still an acceptable value, it was incorporated in further analyses.

The remaining items were used to construct an initial (hypothesized) model. Seven causal paths between the five latent variables were added to create the full structural model. The links proposed in these models are based on relationships found by Yashima (2002, 2009), Yashima et al. (2004), Csizér and Kormos (2009), and Taguchi et al. (2009). The hypothesized model is shown in Figure 1.

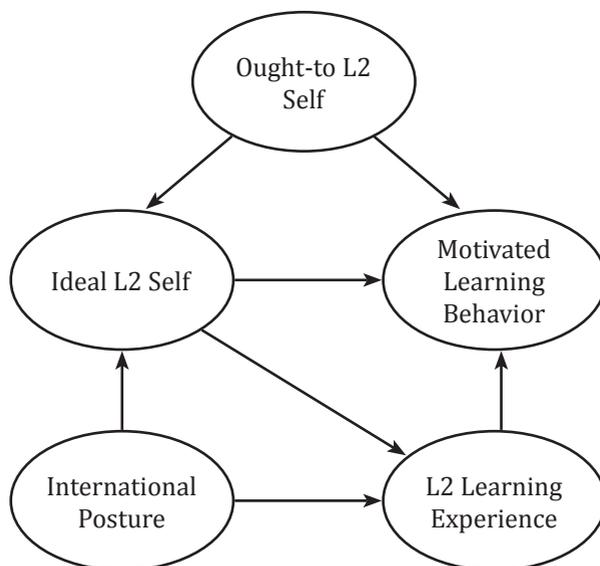


Figure 1. The hypothesized model to be tested.

Results

Comparative Analysis of Motivation Scales

A comparison of mean scores on each motivation scale for the two administrations is presented in Table 2. To demonstrate changes in strength for each variable, a paired samples *t* test was conducted on the first and second administration of the questionnaire. The effect size represents the total effect the one-semester English course had on the strength of each scale. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of each scale for administrations in Week 1 and Week 12, with paired *t* test results comparing scores.

For both administrations, the highest mean value was obtained for L2 learning experience, indicating that university students in the IEP have maintained a very favorable attitude towards the communicative approach of the program, their native English teachers, and the course content.

Looking at the differences between Week 1 and Week 12, statistically significant increases occurred for both ought-to L2 self ($p = .007$) and motivated learning behavior ($p = .005$). The effect size of ought-to L2 self ($d = .15$) and motivated learning behavior ($d = .17$) are between small and medium. Though a marginal increase, this result suggests that the IEP course

strengthens students' L2 motivation both in terms of actual effort expended to study English (motivated learning behavior) and obligation towards others to learn English (ought-to L2 self). In other words, for these two dimensions of motivation only, students finished the course more motivated than when they entered the course at the start of semester.

Table 2. Results of *t* Tests Comparing Mean Scores of Motivation Scales for Week 1 and Week 12 (*N* = 202)

Scales	Week	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Effect size (<i>d</i>)
Motivated behavior	1	3.14	1.13				
	12	3.33	1.10	201	2.868	.005	.17
Ideal L2 self	1	3.51	1.26				
	12	3.57	1.27	201	.990	.323	.05
Ought-to L2 self	1	3.36	1.05				
	12	3.52	1.10	201	2.707	.007	.15
L2 learning experience	1	4.17	1.11				
	12	4.12	1.08	201	-.889	.375	-.05
International posture	1	4.00	.80				
	12	3.99	.84	201	-.347	.729	-.01

Note. Conducting five separate *t* tests led to a Bonferroni adjusted threshold for significance of $p < .01$.

Structural Equation Model Comparison

Table 3 presents the fit indices for the initial (hypothesized) model for both Week 1 and Week 12 and the improved fit indices obtained by steps taken towards finalizing the model. To achieve a comprehensive evaluation of fit, a range of different fit indices are reported: chi-squared, comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), normed fit index (NFI), and root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA). The recommended value for model fit is .9 or above for TLI and NFI, .93 or above for CFI, and .8 or below for RMSEA (e.g., Byrne, 1998; Hu & Bentler, 1995).

For the initial model of Week 1, only the CFI value is an acceptable level for model fit. In an effort to find a model that was a better fit for the data

collected, modification indices provided by AMOS output were consulted in order to add new paths that may explain additional variance. The following five pairs of error terms were then correlated on three separate scales: IS2-IS5 (ideal self Items 2 and 5), LE2-LE4, MB2-MB5, MB4-MB5, and MB2-MB4. This was theoretically justified as items in each pair were measuring the same latent variable and were worded similarly. As shown in Table 3, these modifications resulted in a considerable improvement in model fit. Of the seven initial theoretical paths between latent variables (Figure 1), two were not significant ($p > .05$): *ought-to L2 self* → *motivated learning behavior* and *ideal L2 self* → *L2 learning experience*. The final modification involved removing these paths from the model. This resulted in a marginally better fit for the RMSEA index. From Table 3, it can be seen that most fit indices for the final model reflect an acceptable model fit for the data of Week 1.

The initial model for Week 12 was modified twice in a similar manner to the Week 1 model. Upon inspection of the modification indices, the following five pairs of error terms were correlated: IS2-IS3, LE2-LE4, MB3-MB5, MB2-MB3, and MB2-MB5. After the adjustments, it was found that one of the theoretical paths (*ought-to L2 self* → *motivated learning behavior*) was not significant ($p > .05$). Creation of the final model involved the removal of the nonsignificant path, which marginally improved model fit. The final Week 12 model is deemed an acceptable fit with CFI, TLI, NFI, and RMSEA values meeting minimum requirements.

Although the value for chi-squared is significant for both models, the fit requirement of $p > .05$ is notoriously difficult to meet, especially for sample sizes over 200 involving several factors (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004, p. 100).

Schematic representations of the final models are presented in Figure 2 (Week 1) and Figure 3 (Week 12) with standardized path coefficients. The figures show the causal structure of the models by visually indicating the directionality (arrows) and strength (standardized coefficient values) of the relationships between the five latent variables. For reference, nonsignificant paths removed from the initial hypothesized model are shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3 as broken lines; however, these were removed before final model testing. To increase visual clarity, error terms and residuals are not shown in the figures.

Table 3. Selected Fit Measures for SEMs (Week 1 and Week 12)

Models	χ^2	CFI	TLI	NFI	RMSEA
<i>Week 1</i>					
Initial (hypothesized) model	346.68	.91	.89	.86	.083 [.072, .094]
Adding error correlations	275.54	.94	.93	.89	.069 [.057, .081]
Final model (deleting nonsignificant paths)	270.57	.94	.93	.89	.069 [.056, .080]
<i>Week 12</i>					
Initial (hypothesized) model	342.84	.91	.89	.86	.082 [.071, .094]
Adding error correlations)	250.79	.95	.94	.90	.063 [.050, .075]
Final model (deleting nonsignificant paths)	249.84	.95	.94	.90	.063 [.050, .075]

Note. CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; NFI = normed fit index; RMSEA = root mean squared error of approximation. For RMSEA values, a 90% confidence interval is reported in brackets.

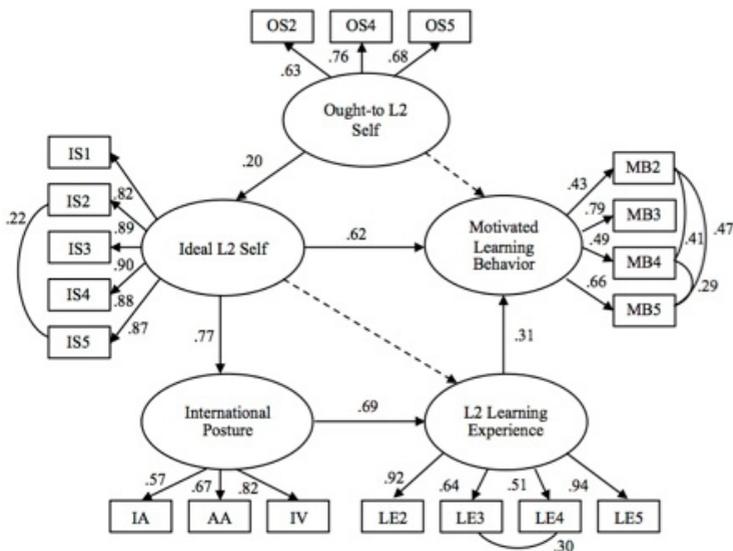


Figure 2. Structural equation model with standardized estimates for Week 1. Solid lines indicate coefficients were significant at $p < .01$. Dashed lines indicate two nonsignificant paths that were deleted from the model.

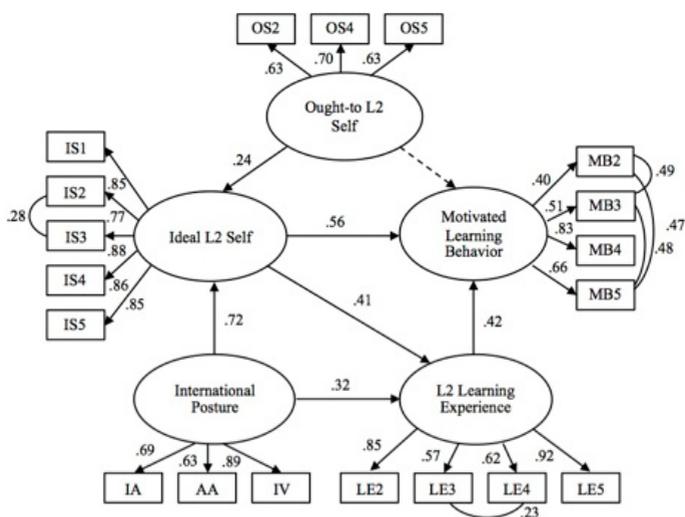


Figure 3. Structural equation model with standardized estimates for Week 12. Solid lines indicate coefficients were significant at $p < .01$. The dashed line indicates a nonsignificant path that was deleted from the model.

By comparing the two models, we can see that the overall causal structure of the motivational system has changed from Week 1 to Week 12. The structural change involves the emergence of the path from ideal L2 self to L2 learning experience in Week 12 that was not present in Week 1.

Discussion

In regards to the strength of L2 motivation, learners who participated in this research significantly increased in strength along two dimensions: motivated learning behavior and ought-to L2 self. The increase in motivated learning behavior indicates that one semester in an IEP course had a significantly positive effect on students' effort to study English. This result is encouraging, as it suggests that communicative English classes may be a source of motivation for students. The increase in ought-to self can be interpreted as an increase in students' obligation towards others to learn English. A communicative language course may trigger feelings of pressure to meet such social expectations. Additionally, the motivational structure of the learners has undergone a small but significant change, which may have facilitated the increase in motivation overall.

The two SEMs produced in this research show that the structure of the learners' motivation partially changed over the course of the semester: Specifically, the hypothesized path from ideal L2 self to L2 learning experience was supported in the Week 12 model but not in the Week 1 model. In fact, the influence of ideal L2 self on L2 learning experience was very strong during Week 12 ($p < .01$). This is a positive development in terms of motivational potential as it indicates that attitudes towards the classroom environment are in line with learners' future-self concept. It appears that classroom activities became more personally relevant for learners' futures towards the end of the semester, a prerequisite that Taguchi (2013) claimed is necessary for triggering long-lasting motivation. As L2 learning experience directly impacts motivational behavior, this structural change could account for the increase in strength of motivation overall.

Despite this structural change, some parts of the model remained stable over the course of the semester and share some similarities to previous research. Firstly, L2 learning experience and ideal L2 self both contribute significantly to motivated learning behavior, but to different degrees. As reported in several other studies (e.g., Munezane, 2013; Papi, 2010), ideal L2 self is the primary contributor to motivated learning behavior, which confirms the hypothesis that fostering a vivid future-oriented self is a very important motivator for learners. Moreover, L2 learning experience (4.17 and 4.12) maintained the highest mean scores among all variables measured. As reported by Csizér and Kormos (2009), the classroom experience is strongly connected to how much energy learners are willing to exert learning an L2. Secondly, similar to Yashima's (2009) finding, ideal L2 self for both models is closely related to international posture, indicating that students who imagine themselves as proficient English speakers in the future can do so because they have an internationally oriented disposition. Finally, the ought-to L2 self component appears not to predict motivation at all for these learners. Several studies (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Dörnyei et al., 2006; Kormos & Csizér, 2008) have reported that this component has no significant relationship with motivated learning behavior. The finding in this study reaffirms the questionable level of influence ought-to L2 self has on L2 motivation. Ought-to self does, however, significantly influence ideal L2 self. The fact that a learner's future-self concept is congruent with what others expect from him or her is a powerful motivational relationship that seems to have lasted throughout the semester. Therefore, the increase in ought-to L2 self may have indirectly contributed to a higher motivation overall through ideal L2 self.

Conclusion

In this study, I investigated the changes in strength and structure of L2 motivation from a self-concept perspective for Japanese learners of English over a one-semester university course. In doing so, the L2 Motivational Self System was applied successfully to describe the motivational structure of a specific group of participants in a specific context at two points in time. In addition to increasing the strength of motivated learning behavior and ought-to L2 self, one semester in a communication-oriented English course caused a change in the structure of learners' L2 motivation. The results confirmed several assertions made by previous researchers, most notably the tenuous impact of ought-to L2 self on motivation, the strong relationship between international posture and ideal L2 self, and the impact of ideal L2 self on motivated learning behavior. Results also shed some light on how motivation develops over a period of time. As the semester progressed, students seem to have connected classroom activities to their future-self concept, leading to a more well-rounded motivational structure. This study is perhaps limited by the selection of students who have gained entry to a program based on their strong desire to learn English; participants may have already had highly developed English-using selves before entering the university education system. Nevertheless, it is encouraging that students responded very positively to a course that focuses on English communication.

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Appendix

Motivation Questionnaire (Responses on a 7-Point Likert Scale)

(*Absolutely untrue*) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (*Absolutely true*)

Motivated learning behavior (5 items)

- MB1 If an English course was offered at university or somewhere else in the future, I would like to take it.*
- MB2 I think I am doing my best to learn English.
- MB3 I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning English.
- MB4 Compared to my classmates, I think I study English relatively hard.
- MB5 I am working hard at learning English.

Ideal L2 self (5 items)

- IS1 In the future, I can imagine myself as a person who uses English in his or her daily life.*
- IS2 In the future, I can imagine myself as a person who understands English movies or music without Japanese subtitles.
- IS3 In the future, I can imagine myself as a person who has the ability to express his or her opinions or thoughts accurately in English.*
- IS4 In the future, I can imagine myself as a person who does not hesitate to speak English.*
- IS5 In the future, I can imagine myself as a person whose strength is being competent in English.

L2 learning experience (5 items)

- LE1 I find English really interesting.
- LE2 I would like to have more English classes at university.
- LE3 I really enjoy learning English.
- LE4 I always look forward to English classes.
- LE5 I think that time passes faster while studying English.

Ought-to L2 self (5 items)

- OS1 It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't study English.
- OS2 Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.
- OS3 I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.
- OS4 I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.
- OS5 My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.

International posture (16 items)

- IV1 I want to work in a foreign country.
- IV2 I want to work at an international organization such as the United Nations.
- IV3 I am interested in an international career.
- IV4 I'd rather avoid the type of work that sends me overseas frequently.
- IV5 I would rather stay in my hometown.
- IV6 I don't think what's happening overseas has much to do with my daily life.
- AA1 I want to participate in a volunteer activity to help foreigners living in the surrounding community.
- AA2 I wouldn't mind sharing an apartment or room with an international student.
- AA3 I want to make friends with international students studying in Japan.
- AA4 I would talk to an international student at university if I saw an opportunity.
- AA5 I try to avoid talking to foreigners if I can.
- AA6 I would feel somewhat uncomfortable if a foreigner moved in next door.
- IA1 I have a strong interest in international affairs.
- IA2 I often read and watch news about foreign countries.
- IA3 I often talk about situations and events in foreign countries with my family and / or friends.
- IA4 I am not much interested in overseas news.

Note. Items marked with an asterisk (*) were not included in the final analysis.

Foreign Language Anxiety in Teachers

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In the 2013 Course of Study for senior high schools, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) mandated that English should be taught, wherever possible, through the medium of English. Against this backdrop, we investigated the experiences of foreign language anxiety (FLA) among 15 Japanese teachers of English in relation to their teaching practices and beliefs. The findings, from interviews, questionnaires, and self-reflections, indicate that experiences of FLA among participants stem from two broad categories of factors. The first is the teachers' conceptualisation of their own role as teachers; the second concerns their perception of student needs and expectations. We examined the findings in the context of Borg's (2006) framework of Language Teacher Cognition and developed a preliminary model of FLA among this group of language teachers. Using this model, we outline ways in which anxiety related to English use in the classroom could be alleviated.

平成25年度施行の高校新学習指導要領において、文部科学省は「授業を実際のコミュニケーションの場面とするため、授業は英語で行なうことを基本とする」という文言を取り入れた。この背景を基に、本研究はBorg(2006)の「言語教師認知をめぐる枠組」を理論的モデルとして、15名の日本人高校英語教師の外国語使用不安 (foreign language anxiety) を教師の信条及び教育実践と関連付けて検証した。インタビュー、質問紙、自己内省に基づく質的データの分析結果として、調査協力者の外国語使用不安は、教師としての役割に関する自己認知、学習者のニーズ及び学習志向に関する教師認知に起因することが判明した。これらの結果に基づき、我々は教師の外国語使用不安研究におけるパイロットモデルを提示し、さらに教師の外国語使用不安の対処法略を提案した。

Historically speaking, English education in Japan can be characterized as “alternating between a focus on *English for practical purposes* and *English for entrance examination for higher education* [emphasis in original]” (Butler & Iino, 2005, p. 27). Over the last three decades, however, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has identified English for practical purposes as a priority and put in place policies that emphasise the use of English rather than knowledge about the language. MEXT has gradually foregrounded the “development of communication skills” as the main purpose of English education over the last three curriculum changes (MEXT, 1989, 1999, 2009). It is well known, however, that previous curriculum changes have not always been fully implemented, and there remains a gap between the stated objectives and actual teaching practices in high school English classrooms in Japan. Some researchers have attributed this gap to sociocultural factors such as the “culture of learning” (Tanaka, 2009) and “school (technical) culture” (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004), including the entrance examination system in Japan (e.g., Gorsuch, 2000). Others have attributed it to English teachers themselves, as summarised by Kikuchi and Browne’s (2009) conclusion that Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) are “either unwilling or unable to teach English in a communicative manner” (p. 189).

As part of significant steps to reform English education in Japan, the new Course of Study for high schools stipulated English to be used as the primary medium of instruction starting in 2013, along with the reorganisation of the English curriculum (MEXT, 2009). This approach, however, has already provoked heated discussion in educational circles (see Nakai, 2010; Tanabe, 2011). In response to this, a further, rather vague, explanation was added to the Course of Study Guidelines stating that as long as using English remains the focus of the lesson, teachers may consider using Japanese when conducting a class “if necessary” (MEXT, 2010, p. 51). Softened as the policy may be, English teachers at high schools are still expected to use English as the primary medium of instruction. In order for such a curriculum innovation to be effective, it would seem productive to explore the factors that make JTEs “unwilling” to conduct classes through the medium of English.

Teacher Cognition and Foreign Language Anxiety

Teacher cognition has been increasingly researched in the last 20 years in an attempt to understand its relationship to teachers’ classroom practices (Borg, 2006). In developing a conceptual framework for language-teacher-cognition research, Borg (2003, 2006) established four categories of factors

that may affect teacher cognition: *schooling* (prior language learning experience), *professional coursework* (preservice and in-service teacher training), *classroom practice*, and *contextual factors*. In his framework, teacher cognition—which is affected by previous learning experience and teacher training—interacts with contextual factors to determine classroom practice (see Figure 1).

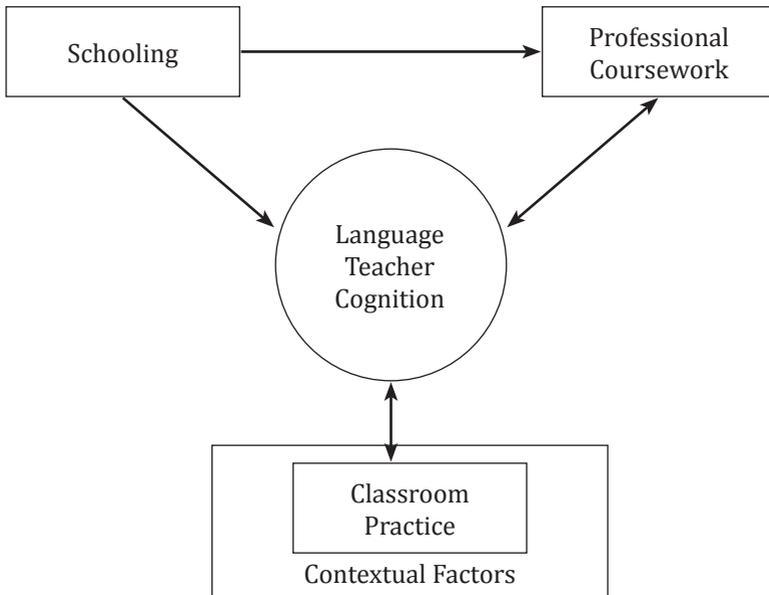


Figure 1. Borg's framework for language teacher cognition research (Borg, 2006, p. 283).

During a study into the context of high school curriculum change in Japan, Nishino (2012) constructed a path model of teacher beliefs and practices, based on Borg's framework. Nishino's model described the relationships between classroom practices and teacher beliefs, perceived teaching efficacy, and socioeducational factors, concluding that teachers' beliefs about Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)¹ alone cannot lead to their use of CLT in class. To unravel such complex relationships between teacher cognition and classroom practices, Nishino suggested that language cognition research also needs to shed light on a wide range of constructs, such as teacher cognition about language, learners, and self.

Given the conceptual ambiguity of teacher cognition as reported in the literature (e.g., Pajares, 1992), Borg (2006) defined the term *teacher cognition* as “an inclusive term to embrace the complexity of teachers’ mental lives” (p. 50). In line with this broad concept of teacher cognition, Borg suggested that previous research lacked a holistic approach that takes into account the role of affective, moral, and emotional factors in shaping teachers’ classroom practices. Indeed, the large body of previous research in this area has seldom focused on the emotional and affective aspects connected with teacher cognition in language teaching, the most notable of which is the phenomenon known as foreign language anxiety (FLA).

According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), FLA is “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning” (p. 284). Although FLA has been researched mainly among foreign language learners over the last three decades, it is not a phenomenon that is limited to learners. Horwitz (1996) pointed out that many nonnative foreign language teachers also experience FLA, which could affect their cognition about self (e.g., “feelings of self-confidence”) and teaching methods (e.g., “instructional choices”) as well as classroom practices (e.g., “use of the target language”; p. 365). FLA in learners can be predicted by factors such as their self-perception of language proficiency, self-worth, and scholastic competence (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999), all of which could equally apply to language teachers. However, key differences are their roles in the classroom as well as the purpose for which they use the target language in the classroom context. The classical elements of FLA in language learners are communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986), but such characterisations of FLA are not precisely applicable to language teachers, whose role involves testing and evaluating their students.

In the context of Japan, research in English and Japanese that focuses on anxiety among language teachers is very limited. Tanabe (2011), while exploring difficulties that teachers encountered when conducting classes in English, uncovered some evidence of FLA among JTEs, such as concern about their spontaneous or appropriate use of English in class. However, Tanabe did not set out specifically to explore JTEs’ experiences of FLA, and her paper called for further in-depth study through interviews or class observation to reveal the relationship between JTEs’ beliefs about teaching English through English and their own teaching practices in this respect. A deeper understanding of the origins of FLA among teachers in the Japanese context is particularly urgent given the 2013 curriculum changes that call

for English to be used as the primary medium of instruction. In this study, we aimed to explore this issue from the perspective of teacher cognition, as outlined in Borg's framework. In doing so, we explored the phenomenon of FLA from the viewpoint of "the interaction of the person in the situation producing that anxiety," as advocated by MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, p. 254).

Research Questions

In conducting this study, we set out to address the following research questions:

- RQ1: What are the causes or triggers of JTEs' experiences of FLA, and how do these relate to their cognition and teaching practices?
- RQ2: How might FLA among JTEs be alleviated or managed in the context of the new curriculum innovations?

In line with the abovementioned definition of FLA (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994), in this study we define FLA in teachers as a unique type of anxiety specific to foreign language learning and teaching.

Methodology

Data Collection

Our original aim was to collect qualitative data through a combination of two different methods: Skype (videoconferencing) interviews with JTEs working at public high schools, followed by question-prompted written self-reflections on one particular teaching day. After the necessary ethics clearances were obtained from the research ethics committee at our university, advertisements (including an outline of the study and the first researcher's contact information) to recruit study participants were placed on a subscription-based mailing list for *Shin-Eiken* (New English Teachers' Association) and distributed through personal networks. Despite multiple circulations of the recruitment advertisement, initially only two participants volunteered for the interviews. Feedback from some subscribers to the Shin-Eiken mailing list suggested that this low participation rate was due to the difficulty of scheduling a time for the interview as well as a general unfamiliarity with Skype. The study methodology was therefore revised so that participants were able to choose either a Skype interview or a written questionnaire. In

all, 15 teachers participated, four by Skype and 11 via email questionnaire, between July and October 2012. The information and consent forms were sent via email to the participants prior to the Skype interview or written questionnaire, and they had the opportunity to ask questions before deciding whether to participate. All participants provided their consent in written or oral form.

Participants

Table 1 provides demographic information about the participants, listed by format of participation: A to D via Skype interview and E to O via written questionnaire. Ten participants were female and five participants were male. The English teaching experience of participants varied: less than 5 years (one participant), 5-10 years (five participants), 11-20 years (three participants), 21-30 years (four participants) and more than 30 years (two participants), with an average of 16.6 years of teaching experience. In Japan, high schools are ranked by private educational institutes according to the students' academic achievements; although such rankings are unofficial, they figure prominently in parents' decisions about where to enrol their children. Three participants reported that they teach at high schools ranked high; seven at those ranked middle; and five at those ranked low in the academic hierarchy of the local area. This wide range of teaching experience and different high school teaching contexts allowed us to maximise the range of perspectives represented by the participants.

Table 1. Participant Demographics (N = 15)

Interview method	Participant	Sex	Experience of living overseas	Teaching experience	
				Years	School ranking
Skype	A	F	24 months	8	Middle
	B	M	15 months	4.5	High
	C	F	13 months	9	Low
	D	M	Never	9	High

Interview method	Participant	Sex	Experience of living overseas	Teaching experience	
				Years	School ranking
Written questionnaire	E	M	6 months	30	High
	F	F	Never	37	Low
	G	F	12 months	6	Low
	H	F	Never	24	Low
	I	F	Never	29.5	Low
	J	M	Never	19	Middle
	K	F	Never	19	Middle
	L	F	Yes*	22	Middle
	M	F	Never	7	Middle
	N	F	Never	15	Middle
O	M	Never	23	Middle	

Note. *as reported by participant.

Procedures

Skype Interviews

One-hour interviews via Skype were conducted with participants A-D in Japanese. The interviews were semi-structured and consisted of three parts. In the first part, we investigated the causes and triggers of FLA in JTEs under the current Course of Study. The participants were asked about their experiences related to teaching English (including studying and living overseas), their teaching beliefs and practices, the frequency of their use of English in and outside the classroom, as well as their experience of FLA. In the second part of the interview, we explored the ways in which participants anticipated the new curriculum would affect them, particularly from the perspective of FLA. The third part involved eliciting teachers' reactions to a videotaped interview with a language teacher and a demonstration lesson based on a section of the new prescribed textbook; data from the third part of the interviews is not reported here as the topic falls outside the scope of this paper. Each of the Skype interviews was audio recorded and manually transcribed. Verbatim transcription of responses was undertaken in a way that would allow a natural translation into English (see below) for coding purposes. Features deemed irrelevant to the focus of the analysis (e.g.,

written representations of idiosyncratic pronunciations and precise pause timings) were not included in the transcriptions. Interview questions are in Appendix A.

Questionnaires

To extract a similar kind of qualitative data to that which was collected via oral interviews, items in the questionnaires were structured to match the questions used in the Skype interviews, with slight adjustments to the wording where necessary. These questions were provided in Japanese so that in-depth responses (also in Japanese) could be ensured. The questionnaires were distributed to 11 participants via email between August and October 2012. The participants received each part of the questionnaire only after completing the preceding part in order to avoid overloading them and to prevent their responses to questions in Part 1 from being influenced by the nature of the questions in Part 2. Nine participants (81.8%) completed both the first and second part of the questionnaire, and two participants (18.2%) completed only the first part. The questions are in Appendix B.

Email Self-Reflection

To triangulate the data collected via Skype interviews and written questionnaires, participants were asked (via email) to answer a set of questions regarding their teaching experiences on one particular day of their choosing. The emails were sent in the middle of September to the participants who had completed the Skype interview or both parts of the written questionnaire; five participants responded to the emails by the end of October.

Data Analysis

The transcribed interviews, questionnaires, and self-reflection data were translated from Japanese into English and coded through the *cyclical* process for analysis (Saldaña, 2013). In first cycle coding, the causes and triggers of the participants' FLA were coded in three stages. First, the occasions in the data when the participants had experienced or expected to experience FLA were identified. Second, for each occasion, the causes and triggers were coded by referring to their beliefs and teaching practices, including their teaching context, and further categorised into "internal" and "external" dimensions of causality for causation coding (Saldaña, 2013, p. 164). Third, these coded factors were cross-referenced with the responses from other participants, including those who reported that they did not experience FLA. This cross-

referencing was to confirm how absence of these anxiety-inducing factors contributed to those participants' lack of FLA experience. In second cycle coding, the FLA causes and triggers were reframed through theoretical coding (Saldaña, 2013) to yield the themes discussed in the following section.

Findings and Discussion

Amount of English Used in Class

Table 2 shows the percentage of class time that participants reported teaching in English. As can be seen, 58.0% of classes were conducted using less than 10% English; more than 50% English was used in only 9.7% of classes. This indicates that most of the classes taught by these participants were still conducted mainly in Japanese, highlighting the gap between current practice and the *English as the medium of instruction* policy outlined in the new Course of Study. This result is consistent with results reported in other studies (MEXT, 2006; Tanabe, 2011).

Table 2. Percentage of the Class Conducted in English

Percentage of the class	No.	%
0-10%	18	58.0%
11-20%	3	9.7%
21-30%	3	9.7%
31-40%	1	3.2%
41-50%	3	9.7%
51%-100%	3	9.7%

Note. No. = the number of classes about which data was gathered; participants responded about more than one class.

With regard to the use of English in class, interview data revealed that participants use English mainly in the following situations: greeting students and giving basic instructions (known as *classroom English*), introducing a topic related to the lesson, reading passages aloud from a textbook, asking questions, paraphrasing what an English-speaking assistant language teacher (ALT) has said, or presenting a model summary of a reading passage. Out of these modes of English use in class, classroom English was most frequently reported—by 10 out of 15 participants.

Experience of FLA

The majority of participants (13 out of 15) reported experiencing some degree of anxiety on occasions when they used English in class. However, their experience of FLA appeared to vary depending on contextual factors such as mode of teaching (i.e., with or without an ALT). Ten participants reported that they experienced FLA while teaching their regular classes, but only five participants reported experiencing FLA while team-teaching with an ALT. Two participants reported that they had not experienced anxiety in their current teaching situation.

The first cycle coding of the data revealed that the participants' experience of FLA was affected by two broad categories: internal factors related to the teachers themselves (e.g., perceived lack of English proficiency) and external factors related to others (e.g., the presence of a particular cohort of students). Further analysis indicated that it was not necessarily external factors that caused teachers to experience FLA, but their *perception* of these external factors and the dynamic interaction between internal and external factors. This suggests that internal and external factors cannot be completely separated in explaining individual experiences of FLA. Rather, they can be effectively conceptualized by mapping them onto Borg's (2006) framework in order to capture the situation-specific characteristics of FLA.

Finally, two major themes were identified as causes of FLA: *teacher cognition about their role in relation to target language use* and *teacher cognition about learners*. Incorporated into Borg's framework, these themes are depicted in Figure 2 and discussed below with illustrative extracts from the data. However, these individual themes, including their subcategories, do not necessarily work in isolation to trigger an experience of FLA but are interconnected and affect each other. These interactive aspects will also be discussed when relevant.

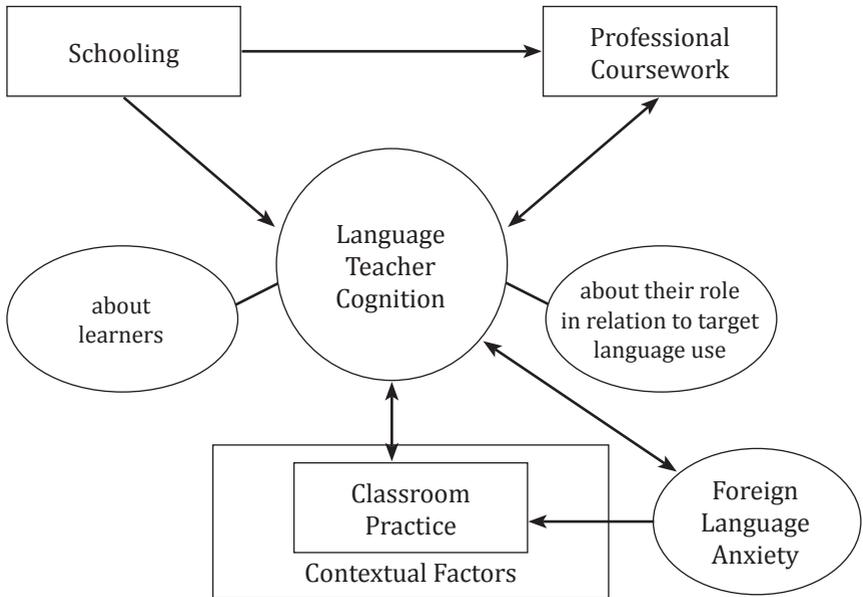


Figure 2: Preliminary model of foreign language anxiety (FLA) in teachers. The FLA component, which involves emotional aspects rather than cognitive aspects, is positioned outside of Language Teacher Cognition, in line with recent research on FLA that sheds light on stakeholders' awareness of (and attitudes towards) FLA with the view to alleviating learners' FLA (see, e.g., Tran, Baldauf, & Moni, 2013).

Teacher Cognition About Their Role in Relation to Target Language Use

Of the 13 participants who reported experiencing FLA, nine reported their perception of their use of the target language as a cause of FLA. Two anxiety-inducing factors were identified from the data: concerns over accuracy and perceived lack of English proficiency.

Concerns Over Accuracy

Four participants reported concern over the accuracy of their English as a cause of their experiencing FLA. Some, for example, reported feelings of anxiety when they were not sure if their English was correct while speaking English in class. Although this is in line with the findings of studies of FLA in learners (see, e.g., Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989),

there appeared to be an additional, critical element associated with these teacher-participants' concerns about accuracy that stemmed from their teacher beliefs about their role. As participant G noted:

I usually didn't care much about making mistakes as long as I could make myself understood, but I feel pressured when it comes to speaking English in class because I should not make mistakes in front of my students.

As was pointed out by participant G, it may not be a teacher's English proficiency itself that causes anxiety, but the belief that teachers should be always correct. This belief may be common among teaching professionals, but nonnative language teachers might be more susceptible to excessive preoccupation with the correctness of their target language use due to the ongoing feature of performance evaluation in most foreign language classes (Horwitz et al., 1986). Following Gregersen's (2003) argument that the fear of making mistakes could lead to avoidance of conveying authentic and personal messages due to a focus on form rather than content, the JTEs might limit their use of the target language in accordance with their unwillingness to make mistakes. Furthermore, the teacher's perceived role as "authoritative expert" (Tanaka, 2009) might place more pressure on JTEs not to make errors in front of their students. Participant B attributed his concern over accuracy to his perceived (and expected) role as a teaching expert:

I do not want my students to doubt my skills as an English teacher. I am not a native speaker of English, so I try to convince myself that I don't need to know everything. However, I think students expect me to know everything as a teaching expert.

As was pointed out by participant B, making mistakes could be a threat to the maintenance of a teacher's position as an authority figure, for such errors could be perceived as a sign of incompetence as a teacher. Importantly, this may be the case even if the students themselves do not notice the errors; teacher beliefs about their role and their own awareness of the errors that they may be making are sufficient to provoke anxiety. These teacher beliefs may be initially influenced by what Borg defines as "schooling" (2006, p. 283), that is, their own learning experience in the "teacher-centred" classroom culture in Japan (Tanaka, 2009). These beliefs could also be reinforced by contextual factors such as school cultures that place emphasis on dis-

ciplined classroom management (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004), as well as the prevalence of form-focused assessment tasks including university entrance examinations (Gorsuch, 2000; Kikuchi, 2006).

It is also worth noting that participants' concerns over accuracy were sometimes at odds with their beliefs about the processes of language learning and the advice that they reported giving to students. Participant B reported a gap between his beliefs and teaching practices:

I always tell my students not to hesitate to speak English, not to worry about making mistakes, but actually I do feel that way. I know my English is not perfect (so I cannot help making mistakes), but I do not want to feel ashamed (*haji*) by making mistakes in front of my students because of my position as a teacher.

Participant B repeatedly used the term *haji*² (shame) to describe his concern over making mistakes in front of students. It seems that the sense of *haji* causes him to be more self-conscious about the accuracy of his English and therefore could make him avoid using English to save face as a teacher. Participant B seems to have a dilemmatic perception of his teaching practice, due to the conflict between what he thinks is ideal language teaching and the pressure he feels to fulfill expectations of him as a teacher. This kind of discrepancy between beliefs and teaching practices has been reported in other studies of Japanese high schools (e.g., Nishino, 2008, 2011).

Perceived Lack of English Proficiency

Five participants also mentioned their perceived lack of English proficiency as a cause of their FLA. In this respect, contextual factors such as the presence or absence of a native English-speaking ALT³ in the classroom appeared to affect the cognition about their role in relation to their target language use.

When an ALT was not present, reported experiences of FLA were often attributed to a perceived lack of oral production skills. As Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) argued, the inability to fully express oneself can cause mature foreign-language users to feel frustrated and apprehensive due to the mismatch between their mature thoughts and immature foreign language proficiency. In the case of nonnative language teachers, frustration and apprehension seems to derive from their role in the classroom; that is, they are responsible for clearly explaining the subject matter and managing the

classroom while using the target language. Participant B, for instance, stated that he felt pressured when trying to explain grammar points in English because his explanations were not as smooth as they would have been in Japanese. Participant A also expressed her anxious feelings that she could not get students fully engaged in activities due to her “imperfectly controlled” second language. These anxiety-inducing factors could be perceived as threats to a JTE’s self-concept of competence, not only as a language user but also as a language teacher.

When team-teaching with an ALT, participants reported experiencing FLA when they could not make themselves understood in English, when they could not properly explain to an ALT what was happening in class or what students were asking, and when they did not understand something that an ALT had said. Participant B described one such incident:

Once an ALT said “Siberia” while talking with me in class, which I didn’t understand. I felt very anxious and went blank. I can’t forget that feeling even now, though it was 5 or 6 years ago. At that time, I thought he was talking about a family restaurant called “Saizeria.”

These experiences of FLA are a manifestation of communication apprehension (Horwitz et al., 1986) in the sense that they arise when a teacher has to communicate spontaneously with an ALT. Participant B reported that this spontaneity triggers anxiety because he cannot prepare in advance, nor can he avoid using English. Interestingly, however, half of the participants who did feel anxiety in regular classes reported that that was not the case when team-teaching. Some of them attributed their absence of FLA to their use of simpler English and easier textbooks, which were used with the aim of helping students become more familiar with the language. Others reported that they felt fewer burdens in terms of class management because the ALT mainly took charge in team-teaching. The latter confirms that it is not always perceived English proficiency alone that affects their FLA level, but also their sense of self-efficacy in fulfilling their class-manager role using the target language.

Teacher Cognition About Learners

As depicted in Figure 2, teachers’ experiences of FLA also seemed to be triggered by contextual factors mainly associated with students. However, teacher perception of these contextual factors varied. Seven participants

pointed out such factors as a cause of FLA, and three main student-related factors were identified from the data: students who fall behind in class, students who threaten the status of the teacher, and students' exam-related expectations.

Students Who Fall Behind in Class

It seems that for some JTEs, experiences of anxiety were induced by their concerns over students. For example, they reported that they experienced FLA when they were not sure how much their students understood, when they saw their students falling behind, and when they were not sure if they were helping students develop their English proficiency. Participant A reported her experience of FLA:

It is not my English proficiency itself that causes my anxiety, but my feeling that I may leave my students behind by speaking English This may be partly because I have seen my students actually falling behind in class due to their inexperience of taking a class conducted in English.

Her comment demonstrates that FLA is not simply limited to target language use but is the result of the interaction of multiple factors. Her previous teaching experience presented her with a dilemma regarding the use of English in the classroom. Her concern over "leaving students behind" might stem from perceived pressure from the "school's (technical) culture" (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004) to keep pace with other teachers within the set curriculum. In addition to these contextual factors, more affective and moral aspects of teacher cognition seem to be involved here. Participants C and E, for example, expressed their concerns that constant target language use could lead to a wider academic gap between students. Participants A, E, and F also commented that they did not want their students to "dislike" or "give up on" learning English through constantly being in a position where they did not understand what the teacher was saying. These affective and moral aspects of teacher cognition about learners cannot be overlooked because they play an important role in understanding the gap between the teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices (see Golombek, 1998).

For some teachers working at schools ranked lower in the academic hierarchy, the new Course of Study presents even more daunting challenges. Participant G reported that some of her students had trouble understanding explanations provided in their native language, much less in the target lan-

guage. Participant F commented that she could only realistically use English for greetings and “thank you” in her teaching context. It is obvious that these contextual factors can limit teachers’ target language use through their concern over their students’ ability to understand.

In contrast, however, participant A reported that she did not feel uncomfortable giving instructions in English when conducting routine activities, such as reading passages from textbooks. She stated that students seemed to “figure out” instructions, not just through verbal cues but also utilizing contextual cues such as the routines that she regularly follows when conducting her classes. Participant C also noted that she did not experience FLA when she used classroom English because her students had been accustomed to the use of English for routine instructions since junior high school.

In contrast to the first theme discussed (teacher cognition about their role in relation to the target language), these teacher concerns over students appeared to arise through interaction with students in their own teaching contexts rather than through their own language learning experiences and preservice or in-service training—schooling and professional coursework, respectively, in Borg’s (2006) framework. In fact, participant A reflected that teacher training tends to pursue an ideal teaching methodology that does not necessarily correspond with actual classroom environments.

Students Who Threaten the Status of the Teacher

Some teachers reported feeling that their status was open to challenge by students in their classrooms. Participant B, who teaches at a highly ranked school, described anxiety when students asked him difficult questions in an apparent attempt to test his knowledge of English. Participant F also expressed her apprehension that students might make fun of her “poor” English if she needs to conduct her class in English. The most notable example of such “threatening” students seems to be *kikokushijo*, students who have returned to Japan after living overseas. For example, participants B and D reported experiencing FLA when there were *kikokushijo* in the class, who they believed had high levels of English proficiency. Participant D reflected on his previous experience of FLA:

There are many students who used to live overseas because of their parents’ jobs and therefore speak English more fluently than I do. I’ve gotten used to it, but it was sometimes painful, to be honest, speaking English in front of those students . . .

In many language classes, foreign language learners are exposed to ongoing evaluation by “the only fluent speaker in the class, the teacher” (Horwitz et al. 1986, p. 128). The mere presence of *kikokushijo* may therefore threaten the status of the teacher, who is expected to be the most fluent speaker in the classroom. Participant B reported his experience of FLA in such a situation:

When I was team-teaching with an ALT, I felt intimidated because there was a *kikokushijo* in my class. Once, I did not know a word that the ALT said and I felt ashamed of myself because the *kikokushijo* might have realized that I did not know the word.

His comment suggests that multiple anxiety-inducing factors were interacting to cause his experience of FLA. The presence of *kikokushijo* in class created anxiety about losing face as a teacher, which seemed to be amplified by interaction with the ALT. This is clearly an example of the dynamic aspects of FLA in teachers, when teacher cognition and contextual factors interact.

Exam-Related Expectations

At schools where many students expect to advance to university for further education, teachers also seem to feel anxiety about using the target language due to exam-related expectations. Participants B and E discussed their reluctance to speak English in class due to their students' preference for studying “exam English.” Participant B remembered a teaching experience when conducting a class all in English:

It didn't go well. Students were like, “It has nothing to do with what we want to learn, so can you just explain it thoroughly in Japanese?” I believe that conducting class in English will be effective in several senses, but I am not going to go against their preference In addition, no matter how much I speak English in class, it's different from what is assessed in the test.

His comment suggests that contextual factors such as school assessment systems including entrance examinations may have a (negative) washback effect on learner preference for exam English, leading to the teacher's reluctance to use the target language in class. He also mentioned that he even avoided using “classroom English” because it sounds childish to those students whose academic ability is perceived to be high. Participant M also reported that she felt uncomfortable using the target language when her

students did not “take it seriously” because it was not directly linked to the assessments.

Nishino (2008) argued that teachers’ concern over university entrance examinations had a strong influence on their perception of the important skills and knowledge that students need to acquire. She implied that teachers’ perception that grammar, vocabulary, and *yakudoku* (grammar translation) are important for their students’ success in entrance examinations partly contributed to JTEs’ resistance to the implementation of communicative activities in class. Although MEXT has set out plans for reforming the university entrance examinations in the “Action Plan for University Reform” (MEXT, 2012), the responses of our participants suggest that an ability to use English for communicative purposes is still not seen as relevant to the goal of examination success.

Conclusions

The first research question was, “What are the causes or triggers of JTEs’ experiences of FLA, and how do these relate to their cognition and teaching practices?” This study revealed that the causes or triggers of JTEs’ experience of FLA can be traced to how JTEs perceive potentially anxiety-inducing factors in their own teaching context. This study also demonstrated how the various factors do not always operate in isolation but interact with each other to trigger experiences of FLA. These interactive (and dynamic) characteristics align with the “situation-specific” characteristic of FLA in learners (see, e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989) and were explained with reference to Borg’s (2006) framework of Language Teacher Cognition. Most of these FLA-inducing factors stem from threats to the status of the teacher, a particularly salient point in a country like Japan, where a traditional teacher-centred classroom culture still prevails. Our findings thus demonstrate that FLA among teachers cannot be understood simply as one form of language learner anxiety; teachers’ cognition about their role and status is at the core of the triggering factors that we identified from the data.

The second research question was, “How might FLA among JTEs be alleviated or managed in the context of the new curriculum innovation?” Our mapping of the elements of FLA in teachers onto Borg’s (2006) model (see Figure 2) suggests points at which the seeds of FLA could be targeted (professional coursework) as well as areas where ongoing systemic changes may lead to a natural decline in levels of FLA among teachers (classroom context).

First, through their preservice and ongoing professional training, JTEs could legitimately be challenged to adopt a broader view of their role as teachers of a global language in the 21st century. This does not mean ignoring the realities of examinations that are beyond their control, but rather seeing themselves as role-model bilingual speakers, who are able to use two languages adroitly to accomplish different classroom goals. In this way, individual teachers can develop a principled approach to decisions about when to use English and when to use Japanese in their classroom practice. As occupational role was at the core of much of the anxiety that our participants reported, targeting teachers' understanding of their role in this way seems a logical step.

Second, with new English language tests for university entrance that include speaking, listening, reading, and writing components becoming available in mid-2014 (*Mainichi Shimbun*, 2014), it appears that the classroom context will continue to evolve. As students begin to need listening and speaking skills for the examinations, anxiety stemming from tension between student expectations and the teacher's use of English in the classroom may well begin to ease.

Limitations and Implications for Further Research

This study represents a step in the process of unravelling the complex web of FLA-inducing factors in relation to JTEs' teaching practices and beliefs. The findings led us to propose a preliminary model (Figure 2) of FLA as it affects high school English teachers in Japan. Although the modest scale of this study means that the findings will not represent all JTEs' experiences of FLA, we hope that our model provides a starting point and that it will be further tested through larger scale studies. Such studies could include a classroom observation component. As Tanabe (2011) suggested, it is possible that JTEs' actual teaching practices and beliefs are not always precisely reflected in their responses in interviews and on questionnaires. Triangulation through classroom observation would thus strengthen the validity of the data in terms of JTEs' actual teaching practices, including codeswitching and the dynamics of their classroom interaction with students and ALTs. Given that this study of FLA in JTEs was conducted just months before the implementation of the new Course of Study, we intend to carry out further research in order to maintain a focus on teachers' experiences of FLA during the implementation of the new curriculum.

Notes

1. Even though MEXT does not actually use the exact term *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT) in its official policies, we can assume that the policies of MEXT (including English as the medium of instruction approach) are developed from a CLT approach.
2. Lebra (1971, 1983) acknowledged the pervasiveness of shame in Japanese culture and elaborated on the characteristics of *haji* as a status-contingent concept, commenting that one of the most shame-eliciting stimuli was related to occupational status.
3. It is also interesting to mention that some participants reported FLA when their colleague(s) observed their class. This presence of other teachers is not discussed in this paper because such occasions are limited to teacher training (excluding team-teaching) rather than teacher practice. Also, this kind of anxiety is outside the scope of FLA study because such anxiety may affect teachers of any subject.

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Appendix A

Interview Questions

Part 1

A. Background information

1. How long have you been teaching English?
2. What kind of classes are you teaching this year?
3. Have you ever studied (or lived) abroad?
If yes, please give me the details.
4. Do you have the chance to use English outside of the classroom?
If yes, please give me the details.

B. Teaching practice and experience of FLA in the current teaching context

1. To what extent do you conduct your class in English?
2. When do you speak English in class?
3. Do you feel anxiety when you use English in class?

If yes . . .

- (1) When do you feel anxiety in class?
- (2) What do you think causes the anxiety?
- (3) Which part of your English skills do you worry about?
- (4) How do you deal with feelings of anxiety?

If no...

- (1) Why do you think you don't feel anxiety when using English in class?

Part 2. Perception of the new Course of Study and expected FLA under the new curriculum innovations

1. The new Course of Study states that classes, in principle, should be conducted in English. What do you think about that?

2. When you have to conduct the class all in English next year, how do you think you will feel about that?
3. This textbook is one of the textbooks that will be used under the new curriculum . . .
 - (1) How do you think you might teach 1st-year students using this textbook?
 - (2) When do you think you may feel anxiety?
 - (3) How would you deal with feelings of anxiety?

Appendix B

Questions in Written Questionnaires

Part 1

Section 1

- Q1. How long have you been teaching English?
- Q2. What kind of classes are you teaching this year?
- Q3. Have you ever studied (or lived) abroad?
- Q4. Could you share the details of your experience?
- Q5. Have your experiences of studying (living) abroad affected your current teaching beliefs and/or practice?
- Q6. How have your experiences of studying (living) abroad affected your current teaching beliefs and/or practice?
- Q7. Have your experiences of not studying (living) abroad affected your current teaching beliefs and/or practice?
- Q8. How have your experiences of not studying (living) abroad affected your current teaching beliefs and/or practice?
- Q9. Do you have the chance to use English outside of the classroom (including a chat with an ALT in the staff room)?
- Q10. Could you elaborate on the kinds of situations where you would use English?
- Q11. How many minutes or hours on average do you speak English in total per week?

Section 2

- Q1. To what extent do you conduct your class in English?
- Q2. When do you speak English in class?
- Q3. Do you feel anxiety when you use English in class?

- Q4. When do you feel anxiety in class?
- Q5. What do you think causes the anxiety?
- Q6. How do you deal with feelings of anxiety?
- Q7. Why do you think you don't feel anxiety when using English in class?
- Q8. Have you had the chance to team-teach with someone who is a native speaker of English?
- Q9. Could you share the details of your experience of team-teaching?
- Q10. Do you feel anxiety when you team-teach with someone who is a native speaker of English?
- Q11. When do you feel anxiety in team-teaching?
- Q12. What do you think causes the anxiety?
- Q13. How do you deal with feelings of anxiety?
- Q14. If there is any other specific situation in class that causes foreign language anxiety, please write it down.

Part 2

- Q1. The new Course of Study Guidelines state that classes, in principle, should be conducted in English. What do you think about that?
- Q2. When you have to conduct your classes entirely in English next year, how do you think you will feel about that?
- Q3. Attached is an excerpt from one of the textbook series (*Crown English Communication I*) that will be used under the new curriculum. How do you think you might teach 1st-year students using this material?
- Q4. Do you think you may feel anxiety in the course of teaching this material in English?
- Q5. When do you think you may feel anxiety?
- Q6. Why do you think you may feel anxiety?
- Q7. How would you deal with feelings of anxiety?
- Q8. Why do you think you may not feel anxiety?

Attribution Theory: Measurement Foundations for an Emerging Research Area Within Applied Linguistics

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This measurement study is a report on the adaptation of a measure for attribution theory, the Causal Dimension II Scale (CDS II), into the Japanese SLA context. The contribution of this study is three-fold. First, it partially addresses deployment of the instrument in the SLA domain for the first time without attention having been paid to evidence for its capacity to generate unidimensional scores in this domain. Second, it makes an initial contribution to putting use of the instrument in the Japanese context for both research and practice on an evidence-based footing. Third, it assists with resetting the initial research interest in attribution-theory constructs within SLA from their potential influence on learning in the classroom to the necessary and prior issue of their adequate measurement. Results from this study were interpreted as indicating that model fit for scores on the adapted instrument was satisfactory rather than meritorious, but not negative.

本研究は、帰属理論の心理測定用具Causal Dimension Scale II(CDS II)を日本の第二言語習得(SLA)環境に適合させる試みについて報告する。この研究では以下の3点の成果が得られた。第1に、この領域における一次元のスコアを生成するための能力に対する証拠に注意を払うことなく、本研究が日本において初めて SLA におけるこの測定用具を使用したことを指摘した。第2に、本研究が、証拠に基づく展開の基礎とすべく、この測定用具を研究及び実践の両方において日本の文脈で用いた初の貢献となることを述べた。第3に、本研究が、SLA における帰属理論研究において、教室内学習への影響の可能性から適切な測定ということまで、必要かつ重要な問題へのリセットにつながることを指摘した。本研究から、CDS IIが日本のSLA環境に十分適合することを示した。

Atribution theory, which represents an attempt to theorize the ascription of causes by individuals to their success or failure in educational settings, has been applied to a wide range of academic subjects (e.g., Grant & Dweck, 2003; McClure et al., 2010; Mueller & Dweck, 1998; Rees, Ingledew, & Hardy, 2005; Ryckman & Peckham, 1987; Yang & Montgomery, 2011). Contributions have come in the form of theoretical understandings of four hypothesized causal attributions for success and failure (ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck), which have been used to predict the outcome of an achievement-related event and to estimate the level of future motivation for a task, in the form of attempts to empirically confirm these theoretical understandings.

More recently, attribution theory has become an area of interest within SLA research. This interest is informed by the concern that outcomes in terms of proficiency in foreign languages vary, with successful acquisition not at all certain. In this context, attributions for success and failure have recently come to be seen as one potential area of theoretical explanation for such varied outcomes (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008).

Naturally, any emerging research trajectory requires appropriate instrumentation so that measurement for subsequent inferences related to the testing of theoretical claims can be put on a secure empirical footing. The research reported in this paper contributes to the endeavor of establishing adequate, evidence-based instrumentation for the research on attribution theory within SLA by examining the psychometric properties of scores for the Causal Dimensional Scale II (CDS II), which has recently migrated from mainstream educational research on attribution theory into the area of SLA (Hsieh & Schallert, 2008). This migration has occurred with insufficient attention to evidence-based measurement, and thus the guidance of Wilkinson (1999) and the Task Force on Statistical Inference (an influential document outlining recommended practices for research that was published by the Board of Scientific Affairs of the American Psychological Association), is pertinent here; in the absence of secure evidence-based measurement, subsequent causal inferences should be considered questionable even when appropriate inferential statistics are used to assist with these inferences.

Guidelines for test adaptation (whether this involves domain or population adaptation) offered by the International Test Commission (Hambleton, Merenda, & Spielberger, 2005) exemplify the requirements for adherence to the recommendations of Wilkinson and the Task Force on Statistical Inference (1999). The research reported in this paper was conducted with the goals of redressing, specifically but partially, the shortfall with respect to the

way in which the CDS II has migrated across domains into the area of SLA and across populations (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008), and, more generally and positively, of contributing to a more sound psychometric footing for attribution theory within SLA at this early stage in its emergence within the domain, through the provision of either positive or negative evidence.

The paper reports on the adaptation from the domains of sports and psychology to SLA and from the North American college population (the population for which the instrument was originally developed) to the Japanese college population, using the method of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) as the primary analytical procedure. CFA is the measurement component of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM; Byrne, 2001; Isemonger, 2012) and directly tests the dimensionality of scores produced by an instrument against a measurement model (i.e., the structural validity of the scores); the measurement model is invariably implied by the scoring regime for the instrument. If the measurement model is rejected in a direct test using CFA, then the practitioner should be wary, if not wholly skeptical, about using the instrument for classroom diagnostics as the dimensional properties of scores produced will not cohere with the scoring regime for the instrument. This can lead to false or mistaken counsel to students and inappropriate interventions by the teacher. Also, the researcher should be equally skeptical about using the instrument, as causal inferences based on data derived from the instrument will be questionable.

Literature Review

Attribution theory has a long lineage within educational research. Foundational work was conducted from the 1950s through the 1970s and the reader can refer to Weiner (1985, 2010) for a useful review of these origins and the place of his work in the research record during the late 1970s and early 1980s. The reviews conducted by Weiner cover the ultimate emergence of the four principal constructs—namely, locus of causality, stability, personal control, and external control—which are the pillars of his theory of causal attribution. Weiner also cites Kelley (1971, 1983) and Heider (1958) in his review, both of whom figure prominently in the early theorization of causal attributions.

Weiner (1985) initially explicated the perceived causes for success and failure in terms of three core constructs: locus of causality, stability, and controllability. The locus of causality construct represents the dependence of causal

attributions on two conditions: factors within the person (internal) and factors within the environment (external). The stability construct represents the theoretical notion that among the internal and external causes, some fluctuate and others remain relatively constant. Constant internal causes cited in attributions for success or failure include such things as ability and aptitude, and fluctuating internal causes include such things as effort and moods. The controllability construct represents causes that can be regulated by the individual, such as the amount of effort one is willing to give to a task.

A variety of findings relating to the above constructs have emerged in the general educational context with clear pedagogical implications, raising the prospects for this theoretical area within the domains of SLA and language pedagogy. For example, a number of authors (Elliot, 2005; Grant & Dweck, 2003; McClure et al., 2010; Mueller & Dweck, 1998) have provided evidence and argumentation for the identification of some learners as mastery oriented and others as performance oriented; this identification is associated with tendencies in the way causes are attributed to outcomes. Mastery-oriented learners tend to attribute outcomes to effort and are more likely to focus on learning new skills. Conversely, performance-oriented learners tend to attribute outcomes to stable causes, such as ability, and are more likely to be concerned with how their performance appears to others. Important gender-related findings have also emerged with respect to causal attributions (Andrews, 1987; Ryckman & Peckham, 1987; Stipek, 1984; Sweeney, Moreland, & Gruber, 1982).

Of course, all empirically related, inferential research of the above nature is premised on secure measurement, and within mainstream educational research, a significant part of the literature on attribution theory has been concerned with this issue. For example, Weiner's (1985) theoretical contribution was informed by previous findings in the area that used the following three mathematical techniques to analyze the underlying causal structure of responses given by participants in their research: factor analysis (Foersterling, 1980; Meyer, 1980; Meyer & Koelbi, 1982; Wimer & Kelley, 1982), multidimensional scaling (Falbo & Beck, 1979; Michela, Peplau, & Weeks, 1982; Passer, Kelley, & Michela, 1978), and correlations with a priori schemes (Stern, 1983). Weiner concluded that some of the research was questionable in that not all of the causes were adequately measured. Attention to psychometric adequacy of scores generated by a new line of instrumentation is important, and the research cited above indicates a significant concern with this issue within attribution theory in the past. However, attention to psychometric adequacy of scores is equally as important at points of migra-

tion for instrumentation either into new domains or into new populations (Hambleton et al., 2005). It is this issue that forms the rationale for the contribution of the research reported in this paper and further argumentation below will bring this into more precise focus.

One of the most important of the instruments that have drawn upon the theoretical work of Weiner is the Causal Dimension Scale (CDS) developed by Russell (1982). Russell developed the CDS as a measure of how individuals attribute causes to success or failure. Using the CDS, the respondent codes items operationalizing the causal attribution dimensions of locus of causality, stability, and control on a semantic differential scale. However, McAuley, Russell, and Gross (1983) and Russell, McAuley, and Tarico (1987) published research expressing concerns about the low internal consistency of the control dimension and its tendency to correlate highly with the locus of causality dimension. These findings were cited by McAuley, Duncan, & Russell (1992) as a rationale for their revision of the CDS. In the 1992 article, the controllability dimension of the CDS was modified to correct this perceived flaw and the CDS II was developed. In the CDS II, the control dimension was separated into the personal control and external control dimensions. The causality and stability dimensions were unchanged.

The CDS II, in the process of its revision (McAuley et al., 1992), had its scores generated from within the domains of sports and psychology. These scores were directly tested via a CFA for fit with the hypothesized model, which was the unidimensional model (also known as the common factor model). Unidimensionality refers to the property of a score indicating relatively exclusively the single construct that it is purported to indicate, and not indicating any other constructs (either constructs explicitly specified in the model for the instrument or other sources of nonrandom variance not specified in the model and perhaps unanalyzed in the error). The fact that the instrument was tested under the unidimensional model via a CFA is important because secure interpretation of derived scores is premised on this property being present in the scores. Thus, this study met a reasonably high threshold for evidence-based claims on the structural validity of scores generated by the CDS II. This high threshold has not been met, however, in subsequent migrations of the instrument into new domains and populations.

The instrument in its initial form (CDS) migrated to the domain of business, where it was used to measure causal attributions for employment success and failure (Schaufeli, 1988) without appropriate attention to the measurement properties of scores. The CDS II has also migrated to other academic domains. First, it migrated to the medical domain to measure causal

attributions made by nurses following an error (Meurier & Vincint, 1998). Second, and more recently, it migrated to the domains of applied linguistics and SLA to measure the causal attributions made by university students for success and failure in learning a second language (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008). In the first of these studies relating to SLA (Hsieh & Schallert, 2008), the migration was one of domain only, but in the second (Hsieh & Kang, 2010) the migration was one of both domain and population because a Korean translation of the instrument was administered to a sample of 9th-grade Korean students. In both studies, the domain migration is from sports and psychology, for which there is validity evidence from a psychometric study (McAuley et al., 1992), to SLA (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008), for which there is no validity evidence. Cronbach's alphas were reported in Hsieh and Kang, but this index is inadequate for demonstrating unidimensionality of scores (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988), which is critical to score interpretation.

Therefore, the rationale for this study was to provide a partial redress of these weaknesses by providing data on the psychometric properties of scores for the use of the instrument in the SLA domain, but in this case, on a sample of the Japanese university student population. The data reported in this study provide evidence for the structural validity of scores in a new domain (SLA) and evidence for the structural validity of scores in a new population (Japanese university students), but the data cannot provide evidence on the psychometrics of scores with respect to the Korean school population. This discrepancy will have to be addressed within the Korean population.

Under the above rationale, the research reported in this paper covers the adaptation of the CDS II into the Japanese SLA context through an appropriate process for translation and the use of measurement methods to provide initial evidence for the scores produced. Therefore, what is addressed in this study is the absence of evidence for structurally valid scores in the domain migration of the instrument from sports and psychology to SLA; furthermore, the study makes an initial contribution to what should be a cumulative process of gathering evidence for the plausibility of the subscales comprising the CDS II under the Japanese translation and in the Japanese population.

Methodology

Instrument

The CDS II (see Appendix) uses a 9-point semantic differential scale as the response format for each item making up the total instrument. There are 12

items in total, with three items measuring each of the four subscales that represent the theoretical constructs purportedly being measured. The items are, by design, presented at random to the respondents. Items 1, 6, and 9 measure the locus of causality construct; items 3, 7, and 11 measure the stability construct; items 2, 4, and 10 measure the personal control construct; and items 5, 8, and 12 measure the external control construct.

Because the original instrument was developed in English, forward and back translations were used as the first step in adapting it into the Japanese context, in accordance with the International Test Commission Guidelines (Hambleton et al., 2005). The forward translation was performed by a near-native speaker of English and the back translation was performed by a different near-native speaker of English. Both translators had some training in test construction. The back-translated version was then compared to the original English version and no notable contradictions emerged. It was then decided that the Japanese version was suitable in terms of both language equivalency and cultural context.

Participants and Administration

The participants for this study were freshmen students ($N = 213$) at a university in western Japan from the fields of engineering, science, medicine, and literature who were studying EFL in the General Education Program. Ages ranged from 18 years through 26 years with 96% of the sample between, and including, 18 years and 21 years. There were 125 males and 88 females. In order to reduce the number of independent variables and isolate each student's causal attributions for success and failure to the same achievement-related event, all participants went through the same basic EFL course and were taught by the same teacher. Therefore, a random sample of the general student population was not possible in this study's design; it will rarely be possible given the exigencies of having a learning or achievement event common to all participants as the object of the causal attributions. Meta-analyses of this study and studies that might follow may help to address this design constraint, facilitating more confident generalizations. The nonrandom sampling approach in this study is consistent with previous studies that have reported the psychometrics of scores for the population in which the instrument was developed (e.g., McAuley et al., 1992) and with studies that have used the instrument without such psychometric reporting (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008). The EFL course was 15 weeks long and all classes used the same English textbook. At Week 8 of the course, all students took the same midterm examination, the result of which functioned as the reference point

for making causal attributions for success and failure.

The exam was a written exam and comprised three sections: a listening section, a vocabulary section, and a grammar section. This exam was an achievement test, with all questions bound tightly to the material taught in the course. This was done so that the outcome was, as far as possible, an achievement-related event rather than a proficiency-related event.

The results of the exam were given back to students 1 week later, and they were then given an open-ended questionnaire asking them to consider and report explicitly the causes for the grade they had received. At the beginning of the following class a week later, they filled out a form asking for the following background information: age, major, academic year, and the date they filled out the questionnaire (informed consent was also included). They then filled out the Japanese version of the CDS II. The administration of the CDS II requires the researcher or practitioner to use it after explicit written reflection on an achievement-related event and when the outcome in terms of success or failure is known by the respondents (McAuley et al., 1992). In this timing of the administration of the CDS II, this study departs from those of Hsieh and Kang (2010) and Hsieh and Schallert (2008) but not from McAuley et al. (1992).

Analytical Procedure

The analytical procedure was to initially consider the data from the point of view of descriptive statistics. This involved a focus on score distribution, including both univariate normality (i.e., skew and kurtosis) and multivariate normality. Next, reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha) were calculated, including the 95% confidence intervals for alpha. This was followed by a CFA of the hypothesized model.

The procedure for evaluating skew and kurtosis was first to determine the critical ratio, which is calculated by dividing the values in the skew and kurtosis statistic columns by the respective standard error values, and then to compare the values for this computation against an interpretive criterion of both 2.0 and 3.0, stipulated in advance by the researcher. The value of 2.0 was taken as being a strict criterion and 3.0 was taken as being a more relaxed criterion.

Mardia's coefficient (Mardia, 1985) was calculated as an indication of multivariate nonnormality. This is important because maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), which was used as the method of estimation for the CFA in this study, assumes that the data has multivariate normal properties. Mar-

dia's coefficient gives an indication of the extent to which this assumption is satisfied.

With respect to calculating the reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha), and consistent with Fan and Thompson's (2001) recommendations, the confidence intervals (95%) for alpha, using the central F distribution, are also reported. Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) criterion of .70 for scale reliability was adopted, tentatively and critically, as the first point of reference for interpreting the derived values for alpha and the derived confidence intervals.

CFA was performed using AMOS 5.0.1 (Arbuckle, 2003). A CFA was conducted using the common factor model. When the common factor model is directly tested using the method of CFA (in other words, with items hypothesized to load on only one factor and with the error uncorrelated), the unidimensionality of subscales can be determined. This cannot be established using Cronbach's alpha (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988), which was the only index reported in Hsieh and Schallert (2008) and Hsieh and Kang (2010). The Bollen-Stine bootstrap procedure (Byrne, 2001) was also used in order to cope with the multivariate nonnormality of the data, and this was interpreted via the p value for the associated process of comparing the chi-square for multiple bootstrapped samples to the chi-square for the observed data.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 shows the values for item mean, standard deviation, skew, and kurtosis. The results for skew and kurtosis are discussed below.

Skew & Kurtosis

The calculated values for comparison against the stipulated criteria of 2.0 and 3.0 (referred to above in the methods section) are presented in Table 2. The values marked with a single asterisk indicate skew and kurtosis values that fell on, or exceeded, the more stringent threshold of 2.0, and the values marked with double asterisks indicate skew and kurtosis values that fell on, or exceeded, the more relaxed threshold of 3.0 adopted in this study. The values that exceeded the threshold of 3.0 were not acceptable according to either criterion set by the researcher.

Table 1. Item Means, Standard Deviations (SD), Skew and Kurtosis for Scores Derived on Items Comprising the CDS II (N = 213)

Test items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skew		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	<i>SE</i>	Statistic	<i>SE</i>
CDS II 01	5.65	2.19	-.43	.17	-.61	.33
CDS II 02	6.20	2.15	-.64	.17	-.40	.33
CDS II 03	4.10	1.93	.51	.17	-.15	.33
CDS II 04	6.03	1.96	-.47	.17	-.43	.33
CDS II 05	3.92	1.76	.13	.17	-.49	.33
CDS II 06	6.66	1.65	-.60	.17	.03	.33
CDS II 07	4.06	2.12	.54	.17	-.42	.33
CDS II 08	4.07	1.83	.14	.17	-.50	.33
CDS II 09	6.77	1.54	-.39	.17	-.25	.33
CDS II 10	6.24	1.74	-.29	.17	-.24	.33
CDS II 11	4.86	2.24	.13	.17	-.95	.33
CDS II 12	4.12	1.79	.09	.17	-.45	.33

Table 2. Calculated Values for Skew and Kurtosis

Test items	Calculated values	
	Skewness	Kurtosis
CDS II 01	*2.6	1.8
CDS II 02	**3.8	1.2
CDS II 03	**3.0	0.5
CDS II 04	*2.8	1.3
CDS II 05	0.8	1.5
CDS II 06	**3.6	0.1
CDS II 07	**3.3	1.3
CDS II 08	0.8	1.5
CDS II 09	*2.3	0.7
CDS II 10	1.7	0.7
CDS II 11	0.7	*2.8
CDS II 12	0.5	1.4

Note. * Test item is skewed at a threshold of 2.0. ** Test item is skewed at a threshold of 3.0.

With respect to skew, three items presented values that fell on or above the 2.0 threshold, and four items presented values that fell on or above the 3.0 threshold (for a total of seven items with questionable skew). With respect to kurtosis, only one of the items fell above the 2.0 threshold and none of the items fell above the 3.0 threshold.

However, McAuley et al. (1992), the original authors of the CDS II, did not report the normality of distribution for scores generated by the instrument; therefore, it is difficult to determine whether scores on these items might have been skewed or kurtotic in the original as well. In other words, it is difficult to determine whether nonnormal properties for scores for some of the items are native to the instrument or an outcome of the adaptation undertaken in this study. Therefore, in an effort to remain faithful to the original instrument and to directly test the inherited model from the literature, all items were entered into the model specification hypothesized by McAuley et al. The subsequent analytical procedure, therefore, and the associated results reported below were sensitive to distortions as a result of this. For example, by adopting the Bollen-Stine bootstrap procedure, the researcher attempted to accommodate for nonnormality in the analysis and the uncorrected chi-square was not interpreted; this is consistent with recommendations offered by Kline (2011).

Finally, Mardia's coefficient (Mardia, 1985) indicated multivariate non-normality. The critical ratio was 11.37, and thus the Bollen-Stine bootstrap procedure was adopted to cope with this form of nonnormality and to assist with adjudicating model fit in the CFA (for an explanation of this procedure, refer to Byrne, 2001, pp. 267-271). McAuley et al. (1992) did not address multivariate nonnormality in their study, nor did they adopt the bootstrapping procedure. Normality was also not reported by Hsieh and Schallert (2008) nor by Hsieh and Kang (2010). The nonnormality of some items enters into the interpretation of the CFA later in this paper.

Reliability Estimates

Reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha) for scores on the four subscales hypothesized for the CDS II by the original authors (McAuley et al., 1992) are presented in Table 3. For all four hypothesized subscales, the lower bound for the 95% confidence level fell below the interpretive threshold of .70 (referred to above in the methods section). The derived value for alpha fell below the threshold on all hypothesized subscales except personal control, which produced a value for alpha of .74. However, Cortina (1993) and Green,

Lissitz, and Muliak (1977) pointed out that alpha is biased by the number of items on a scale, with larger numbers of items producing higher alphas. This property of alpha, and the propensity for some research areas to neglect this when interpreting alpha, has been explained by Isemonger (2012) in a recent and approachable critical review. Only three items comprise each subscale on the CDS II, which is a comparatively low number of items for a subscale and, in fact, close to the minimum for measurement of a latent. Therefore, there is compelling argument for Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) criterion of .70 to be relaxed in the interpretation of values for alpha in the case of the CDS II. This will be further addressed in the discussion section.

Table 3. Reliability Estimates, Confidence Intervals for Alpha (95%), Means and Standard Deviations for Scores on Subscales of the CDS II

Subscale	Cronbach's α		Subscale	
	Value	95% CI	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Locus of causality	.66	[.57, .73]	19.08	4.20
Stability	.66	[.57, .73]	13.02	4.87
Personal control	.74	[.68, .80]	18.47	4.77
External control	.66	[.57, .73]	12.10	4.16

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

A CFA was conducted to directly test the researcher-hypothesized (McAuley et al., 1992) four-factor structure of the CDS II. MLE was employed to evaluate the fit of the four-factor oblique model to the data in this study, which directly simulated the model tested by McAuley et al. in the original population for which the instrument was designed. The model comprised 78 sample moments—30 free parameters and 48 degrees of freedom—meeting the criterion for overidentification.

Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended a number of cutoff values for important fit indexes used in adjudicating model fit to the data matrix. The purpose of these fit indexes and the appropriate use of cutoff values is to overcome the sensitivity of the chi-square statistic to sample size. This sensitivity can mean that trivial departures from the hypothesized model in the data lead to unwarranted model rejection or Type I error. Hu and Bentler's cutoffs were empirically derived to ensure that the probability of both Type I and Type II error was low. The following indexes were used in this study:

the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA), the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMSR), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and the comparative fit index (CFI). These indexes were selected in advance and are consistent with recommendations by Hu and Bentler. The RMSEA was also selected because it rewards model parsimony (Byrne, 2001), which means that simpler models are rewarded above more complex models. The SRMSR represents the average of all standardized residuals derived from the fitting of the hypothesized model to the sample data. In other words, it rejects based on the difference between the observed and predicted correlations. The TLI and CFI are incremental-fit indexes that evaluate the hypothesized model against the baseline model (the independence model).

The values derived in this study for the above-cited indexes were as follows (Hu and Bentler's cutoffs are in parentheses): RMSEA .057 ($< .06$), SRMSR .06 ($< .08$), TLI .92 ($> .95$), and CFI .94 ($> .95$). In the case of the RMSEA, the lower bound of the 90% confidence interval was .03 and the upper bound was .07.

As stated above, multivariate nonnormality was a property of the scores, and thus the Bollen-Stine bootstrap procedure (Byrne, 2001) was adopted as a further analytical tool in dealing with this problem. One thousand samples were extracted in the bootstrap procedure. The model fit better in 941 of these samples and worse in 59. The resulting Bollen-Stine bootstrap p value was $p = .06$. This result was not significant at either the .01 or .05 level. In terms of the logic of CFA (the reverse of traditional inferential statistics), this means the model is accepted. In other words, the structure of the data and scores is not significantly different from the model being hypothesized to explain the scores.

Discussion

As mentioned above, the conventional criterion of 3.0 was decided on in advance as an acceptable threshold for skew and kurtosis, but results under a more stringent threshold of 2.0 were also inspected. The distribution of scores for some of the items on the CDS II was slightly skewed, and this property of some of the scores provides a departure point for improvement of the instrument in the future. Bollen-Stine bootstrapping (Byrne, 2001) was also adopted to overcome the limitations associated with the multivariate nonnormality of the data, and it is important to note the associated positive result from this procedure, which is discussed further below.

Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) criterion of .70 was initially set as the threshold to evaluate the reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha) for each

of the subscales, but this criterion should be adopted critically (Isemonger, 2012). The number of items, which was low for each construct, was also considered in the application of the criterion. Also, it is important to recognize that given the shortcomings of alpha, the results for alpha in this study are subservient to the results of the CFA, which is the more powerful method.

The reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha) for three of the four hypothesized subscales produced alphas that fell below Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) criterion of .70. Only the personal control subscale produced an alpha (.74) that was above this criterion. However, as stated earlier, Cortina (1993) and Green et al. (1977) demonstrated that alpha is biased by the number of items on a scale, with larger numbers of items producing higher alphas. Cortina directly counseled the consideration of the number of items in a scale when interpreting the alpha value, stating that "alpha is very much a function of the number of items in a scale, and although alpha is also a function of item intercorrelation, it must be interpreted with number of items in mind" (p. 102).

The CDS II is a relatively small instrument with only three items for each of the four constructs (12 items in total). The alpha values derived in this study are also relatively consistent with McAuley et al.'s (1992) results in the original population for which the instrument was designed. Therefore, Nunnally and Bernstein's criterion of .70, as a rule of thumb, is not suitable for determining the reliability estimates for subscales on the CDS II. It is arguable that the values for alpha derived on the scores for this instrument, under the adaptation, are acceptable. One notable point is that the alpha Hsieh and Kang (2010) obtained for the stability subscale (.26) was extremely low even for instruments with only three items per construct and is inconsistent with the findings in this study and in McAuley et al. If items on this subscale are not consistent with one another, it raises the question of whether they might be consistent with items on a subscale for which they should not be consistent given the model and scoring regime for the instrument. This low value for alpha on the stability subscale could be a result of Hsieh and Kang's translation; this possibility reinforces the necessity for attention to be paid to measurement in the future with respect to the Korean version of the instrument.

Finally, it should also be noted that Cronbach's alpha was not the most crucial analytical tool used in this study; the CFA was, and Cronbach's alpha has rather severe limitations. The most important of these is that the index does not demonstrate unidimensionality of scores (Bentler, 2009; Cortina, 1993; Green et al., 1977; Green & Yang, 2009a, 2009b; Nunnally & Bernstein,

1994; Revelle & Zinbarg, 2009; Sijtsma, 2009a, 2009b). This provided the rationale for the CFA, which was the main part of the study.

Therefore, in order to avoid Type I and Type II error, two absolute fit indexes (RMSEA & SRMSR) and two incremental fit indexes (TLI & CFI) associated with CFA were used. Empirically derived cutoffs were used for interpreting the values produced for these indexes (Hu & Bentler, 1999), and this assisted with triangulating the decision on model fit, both among these indexes themselves and with the bootstrap procedure, which uses a test statistic and which is not an approximate fit index. It is important to note in interpreting these cutoffs or thresholds for the indexes selected that they are just that; that is, they are “approximate fit indexes” and not “test statistics,” and interpretation occurs along a continuum (see Hu & Bentler, 1999). The sign is principally there to indicate directionality of interpretation and not as an absolute and precise threshold for accepting or rejecting, as is the case with the statistical levels associated with a test statistic.

In terms of the abovementioned combination of indexes and the bootstrap p value, the adaption process for the CDS II did not produce an instrument, and associated scores, with exemplary results, but the results were arguably satisfactory and not negative. The Bollen-Stine bootstrap procedure (Byrne, 2001) produced a nonsignificant value of .06, indicating evidence for the model. The p value for the bootstrap is based on repeated comparisons of the chi-square (for each of the 1000 bootstrap samples) to the chi-square for the observed data (81.0). In the spirit of criticism of the interpretation taken here of the p value (which was .06) as evidence for the model, it bears saying that although this interpretation is consistent with common practice and precedent in the literature, there are important critics within the area of CFA who argue that the statistical level can potentially be set to be more strict (Hayduk, 1996), that is, to thresholds above .05 (which again, it must be reiterated, is the reverse logic from that of traditional inferential statistics, where a stricter threshold would be represented by a statistical level less than .01).

The values produced for the RMSEA and SRMSR indexes on the CFA were within Hu and Bentler's (1999) recommended thresholds. Some sources offer a threshold of $< .05$ for the RMSEA (see Byrne, 2001; Kline, 2011), but it is important to emphasize that these authors also specifically identified this as the threshold for a meritorious result, and a zone of interpretation exists above .05, which is for a satisfactory result. Byrne characterizes the threshold as “ $< .05$ to .08” (p. 152). In other words, below .05 is the meritorious result, and between .05 and .08 is the range for interpretation of a satisfactory result. The threshold adopted in this study was set in advance

as .06, because this was recommended by Hu and Bentler in one of the most important pieces of primary literature in the area, and because their research indicates that in small samples (< 250) the RMSEA will be moderately underestimated. The values produced for the TLI and CFI were only slightly below, although the case for the TLI is more problematic. In her highly influential book, Byrne (2001) used her own data to simulate the inferential process that uses these indexes and interpreted a CFI of .94 (which is .01 short of the threshold) as “relatively well-fitting” (p. 152). A value of .94 was also obtained on this same index for scores on the CDS II reported in the current study and the same interpretation is taken. On the TLI, the departure in the wrong direction from the cutoff is only slightly more significant. Byrne characterized a value of .90 for the goodness-of-fit index (GFI)—which has the same threshold of .95 as the CFI—as “marginally adequate” (p. 152). Therefore, the value of .92 derived for the CFI in this study was interpreted as adequate. In addition, the *p* value under the Bollen-Stine bootstrap procedure indicated model fit, so there is a defensible case that this result is positive evidence for the model.

Overall, this means that the scores in this study reasonably fit the four-factor oblique model hypothesized by McAuley et al. (the original authors of the CDS II). Thus, these results also mean that researchers and practitioners who use this adaptation in the Japanese college population and the SLA domain have some evidence-based grounds to proceed with interpreting their scores on the assumption that they are indeed unidimensional and therefore interpretable. The instrument therefore holds good prospects for use within applied linguistics and within the Japanese population because there is initial evidence for the structural validity of scores generated by the instrument. Evidence for the structural validity of scores generated by an instrument is critical to being able to interpret scores for both pedagogy and research. Thus, preliminary evidence for structural validity represents a contribution to the literature. However, it should be emphasized that it is only an initial contribution. Validity evidence is typically seen as a cumulative process; further studies are required to extend the evidence. Also, the evidence for model fit, characterized in this study as satisfactory rather than meritorious (but not negative), should not preclude the possibility of further refinement of this instrument.

It is worth drawing these findings back to the more grounded issue of how research using instruments in the area of attribution theory might contribute to applied linguistics. On one level, it would seem fairly self-evident that understanding how students ascribe responsibility for success and failure

will have an impact on success and failure; this means that this area is of interest by itself. However, on another level, it is important to note that the area of learner autonomy is attracting greater and greater interest within applied linguistics, and one of the concerns has been that despite this interest, it remains an undertheorized construct (Benson, 2007, 2009; Stewart & Irie, 2011). There is a clear notional relationship between autonomy and the relative behaviors of ascribing causes for success or failure as either from within oneself or from outside oneself. In this context, it is arguable that the area of causal attribution has potential for the theoretical elaboration of the construct of autonomy. However, before this elaboration can occur and be tested, the measurement of causal attributions needs the benefit of evidence, and that is where this paper makes an initial and partial contribution.

Conclusion

There were two important limitations to this study. First, the way in which the sample was selected for this study had limitations with respect to the representativeness of the specified population (Japanese students in tertiary education). However, it was explicitly argued that this is a design constraint that is difficult to avoid given that all respondents in a particular analysis need to be responding to the same achievement-related event, and that this restraint is evident in previous research as well. It was also argued that meta-analyses and secondary research of this and subsequent studies will assist with providing more secure grounds for generalization. Second, there was no access to data from the original instrument and from the original population for which the instrument was designed, limiting the potential for the study to address measurement invariance across populations. The original population was not highly specified by McAuley et al. (1992) but could be described as the English-speaking North American college population. Future research should also be focused on addressing this limitation by gathering data from different populations and examining these sets of data using the methods of measurement invariance to establish equivalency of measurement across populations. This kind of work would also significantly assist with cross-cultural research because results across the populations could be compared once equivalence of measurement was demonstrated. This would also add to the potential that attribution theory has for theoretical elaboration of the construct of autonomy, because there has been significant interest in how autonomy varies and expresses itself across cultures.

On a final note, with respect to future research, an additional and important future direction would include examining how well the CDS II instru-

ment works at the high school level (a younger and different target population). If the results indicated limitations in this regard, additional research and development could be undertaken to further adapt the instrument for this younger population.

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Appendix

Causal Dimension Scale (CDS II)

Instructions: Think about the reason or reasons you have written above. The items below concern your impressions or opinions of this cause or causes of your performance. Circle one number for each of the following questions.

Is (are) the cause(s) something			
1	that reflects an aspect of yourself	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	that reflects an aspect of the situation
2	manageable by you	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	not manageable by you
3	permanent	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	temporary
4	you can regulate	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	you cannot regulate
5	over which others have control	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	over which others have no control
6	inside of you	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	outside of you
7	stable over time	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	variable over time
8	under the power of other people	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	not under the power of other people
9	about you	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	about others
19	over which you have power	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	over which you have no power
11	unchangeable	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	changeable
12	other people can regulate	9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	other people cannot regulate

Reviews

Exploring Intercultural Communication: Language in Action.

Zhu Hua. Abingdon/New York: Routledge, 2014. xvi + 280 pp.

Reviewed by

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Exploring Intercultural Communication: Language in Action is part of the Routledge Introduction to Applied Linguistics series. This new title confirms the growing interest in intercultural communication in language learning and applied linguistics across languages and beyond the classroom (see Holiday, 2013; Piller, 2011).

The book is divided into three parts and comprises 12 chapters. The book's organisation indicates the author's interest in moving from practical concerns of intercultural communication in different contexts into effective development of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) and then on to studying and researching intercultural communication (IC). Such progression from practice to development is supported by the inclusion of tasks and end-of-chapter summaries that review the key concepts and prepare the reader for the following chapter.

The five chapters in Part 1 offer introductory insights about the role of intercultural communication in five different dimensions: the language classroom, the workplace, business, family, and studying abroad and tourism.

In Chapter 1, from the perspective of multilingual classrooms, Hua makes the distinction between an *integrated approach* of teaching language and culture and an *intercultural approach* of teaching culture through language. This latter approach emphasises that languages do not own a culture or cultures, but cultures do have languages through which they are brought to life. Through her focus on the language classroom, the author promotes a critical understanding of culture and puts forward helpful views on learn-

ing styles and cultures. In addition she brings into the picture factors such as anxiety, language proficiency, ideology, and interactional patterns. In so doing, she succeeds in unpacking stereotypes and alerting readers of the risk of imposing Western or European teaching practices and approaches in other contexts.

In Chapter 2, which deals with the workplace, three macro aspects are foregrounded: business meetings, small talk, and humour. Hua successfully illustrates the sequential stages of business meetings, power distribution, gender, age, cohesion, and tension in business through numerous extracts. Overall, the most relevant conclusion for the reader is that intercultural communication is inherently dominated by interpersonal relationships. In other words, an effective workplace will be characterised by people's ability to get along with others.

Chapter 3 deals with business beyond the workplace. The reader is encouraged to understand the pervasive presence of globalisation and advertising. This chapter is rich in facts about advertising regulation and studies carried out in cross-cultural settings. Furthermore, the author examines language choice and manipulation, connotations, symbolic meanings, and the relationship between a business and its customers and the public in different cultural and first language contexts.

In relation to family (Chapter 4), Hua discusses concepts such as *transnational* to refer to migrants and *acculturation* to refer to the processes these migrants undergo to establish links in their new settings. In the author's view, understanding intercultural communication is vital in reducing possible tensions between diasporic communities and local communities or within the diaspora itself. Issues around language choice and ideology emerge through the discussion of intercultural couples and families.

Chapter 5 focuses on intercultural communication in travel and studying abroad. The main issues of this chapter are internationalisation, travelling, and the extent to which the tourism industry helps to maintain stereotypes and encourage tourists' observations of foreignness over real intercultural experiences.

Part 2 moves from general understanding of intercultural communication to ways of developing ICC. In this part, readers will find stronger links to pragmatics and conversational analysis. For example, such concepts as *face*, *politeness*, *context*, *turn-taking*, *solidarity*, and *space* are thoroughly discussed in Chapter 6. Based on how these notions are realised verbally and nonverbally in cross-cultural communication, Chapter 7 is organised around five causes of misunderstanding at various levels of interpersonal

engagement. Readers with a language teaching background will agree that problems such as inadequate linguistic proficiency and pragmatic mismatch are usually found in intercultural classrooms and in communication with colleagues across multilingual contexts. Chapter 8 offers strategies and practices that speakers may resort to in order to mitigate possible sources of misunderstanding. These strategies are the realisation of speakers' willingness to cooperate and negotiate, with the aim of constructing successful communication depending on the context and discourse type.

Chapter 9 can be seen as closely related to the ELT field. Readers will find an overview of communicative competence and how ICC has permeated our teaching practices. Hua offers a multidisciplinary summary of ICC that includes the works of Michael Byram and Claire Kramsch and suggests that the reader should approach different definitions of ICC with a critical eye. Although Hua's summary of ICC is a good feature of the chapter, readers may feel that the author does not advance any original conceptualisations in this regard, nor does she put forward a new model or approach to develop intercultural communication.

Part 3 is aimed more at researchers in the field of intercultural communication. Issues around the interrelatedness between language, thought, and culture are discussed in Chapter 10 through a review of studies that include speakers with different linguistic backgrounds. In Chapter 11, the author examines different approaches to culture and concludes that culture is a complex notion not only linked to language and thought but also to who we are or would like to become, that is, culture is linked to our identities in a dynamic and relational process. It is, thus, identity that Hua turns to in Chapter 12. She points out that interculturality may be understood through the complex process of enacting different cultural identities that are shaped by both personal and social historical forces.

In general, Hua's assertions about IC between multilingual speakers could also be true between speakers who share the same L1 but come from different contexts, even within the same country. Some readers may feel that although intercultural communication is examined from an international angle, English is still presented as the main medium of communication in the different contexts and situations. The author includes references that span over 40 years of research. Her review of recent work and her retrospective overview of varied studies have contributed to Hua's successful exploration of the multidisciplinary field of intercultural communication.

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***Language Teaching Research and Language Pedagogy*. Rod R. Ellis. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell, 2012. xi + 387 pp.**

Reviewed by

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In *Language Teaching Research and Language Pedagogy*, Rod Ellis once again demonstrates his superb capacity to comprehensively synthesize a broad array of empirical research on language teaching and learning. Ellis sensibly focuses this book on examining “how classrooms provide contexts in which learners can develop their interlanguages . . . [that is,] on the language classroom as a site where learners build their knowledge of language as a system” (p. 2). Ellis narrows his focus by excluding research that was not conducted in classrooms as well as research that investigated how classroom teaching helps learners develop particular language skills, such as writing or reading. His anticipated reader is also carefully defined:

It is a book intended for teachers, especially those . . . who are interested in theorizing about language teaching and who wish to base their enquiry not just on their own experience of language classrooms but also on what research has shown about language teaching and its contribution to language learning. (p. 4)

The book is organized into 11 chapters. In the first, Ellis outlines the scope of the book, providing a succinct introduction to the topics that follow and a clear rationale for the book’s focus. He also notes that although some research has been driven by theoretical issues, much, and perhaps most, SLA research has been done to help teachers gain a better understanding of the practice of language teaching and how it can be improved. The methods used for researching second language classrooms are examined in the

second chapter. Here, Ellis makes two broad distinctions. One is between *confirmatory* research and *descriptive* research; he prefers these terms to qualitative and quantitative research, which he reserves for data gathering and analysis procedures. The other distinction is between *formal* research and *practitioner* research.

The third chapter deals with comparative methods studies, which attempt to establish what method or approach to language teaching is more effective in terms of learning outcomes. In particular, Ellis compares well-known early studies that were global and experimental and conducted over relatively long periods of times with more modern process studies based primarily on theories of language learning and acquisition of specific language features (see the table on pp. 66-69 for a list of 16 studies). Disenchantment with those global methods studies led to growing interest in descriptions of actual L2 classroom teaching and learning behaviors, and these language classroom discourse studies are the subject of Chapter 4. According to Ellis, early studies of classroom discourse were mostly descriptive, focusing on the process features of language classrooms, but they employed a variety of research methods, ranging from interactional analysis, discourse analysis, and conversational analysis to research based on sociocultural theory. This chapter illustrates how language classroom discourse studies have been a very fruitful area of SLA study, providing many insights to teachers, such as the *initiate-respond-follow up* structure of teacher-student interaction, the different participant structures revealed by ethnographic studies, and how classroom interaction scaffolds learners' language production and acquisition.

Chapters 5 and 6 focus on the behavior of the teacher and the learner respectively. Ellis describes how such research has changed from descriptive, quantitative, and taxonomic studies to more sophisticated studies that see behavior as dynamic, contextual, and co-constructed. This is reflected in new theoretical concerns and the use of a broader array of research approaches and methods, such as conversational analysis and a greater use of multiple methods of gathering data. Ellis's crisp presentation of numerous studies in these two chapters identifies important characteristics of teacher-talk and learner-talk, which are concisely summarized in the conclusions of the chapters.

Turning from teachers and learners, the next three chapters present research investigations into three pedagogical processes: tasks, interaction, and form-focused instruction—all areas that Ellis has himself researched extensively. In Chapter 7, on tasks, the author looks more at the performance

of tasks rather than their learning outcomes. Ellis investigates different types of tasks and the dimensions of tasks, succinctly summarizing research into a construct that mediates between research and teaching. The chapter concludes with a thoughtful discussion of problems still facing the research and implementation of both tasks and task-based language learning (TBLT). In Chapter 8, he considers whether tasks actually result in language learning, drawing upon two very different theoretical perspectives: sociocultural theory and interactionist-cognitive theory. Ellis synthesizes the main findings of the two perspectives into nine points, and concludes that from both perspectives, tasks that get learners to focus on form do assist language development. Form-focused instruction (FFI), “planned instructional activity that is designed to induce intentional language learning” (p. 16), is the topic of Chapter 9. Ellis considers studies that explored both “focus on form” and “focus on forms,” as well as implicit and explicit instruction. Ellis concludes that FFI is effective but *facilitates* rather than *teaches*, and that although the effects of FFI are mostly durable, learners may regress in the future.

Chapter 10 acts as a bookend to these three chapters on pedagogical processes, as Ellis explores the mediating role that learners’ individual differences play in the learning process. He looks at research on three major sets of learner factors: cognitive, affective, and motivational. As adjusting instruction to cater for such individual differences is difficult, Ellis investigates an alternative, learner strategy training. Finally, he calls for research using rich case studies that explore how individual differences affect classroom interactional and learning processes.

Rather than attempting to summarize the comprehensive arguments made in the previous 10 chapters, in the final chapter Ellis considers the key methodological issues in language teaching research that Chaudron (1988) raised almost 25 years ago. Ellis concludes that there have been substantial advances in developing adequate descriptive categories of classroom behaviours and events, in the design of experimental studies, and in the reporting of statistical studies. However, the measurement of learning still faces issues with reliability and validity. Ellis also argues that although many theoretical constructs and relationships are now better defined and specified, other constructs, such as scaffolding, still need further clarification.

Throughout the book, Ellis eloquently argues that applied research does not solve pedagogical problems; rather, teachers themselves must become familiar with research and decide how to apply it in their teaching practice. To help teachers navigate the diversity of classroom research and theoretical perspectives, Ellis finishes with a practical set of eight principles that can

guide teachers to use research to better inform their teaching.

This book provides, in true Ellis fashion, a thorough overview of classroom-based research on how learners build their knowledge of language as a system. A glossary of terms used would be helpful, but the book is systematically organized and well written, and each chapter concludes with a useful summary of the key findings and implications of the studies presented. Before doing any research about classroom language learning and teaching, it would be wise to read this book—it should be on the bookshelf of every language researcher and language teacher.

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***Language Learning Motivation in Japan*. Matthew T. Apple, Dexter Da Silva, and Terry Fellner (Eds.). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters, 2013. xii + 325 pp.**

Reviewed by

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Learner motivation is one of the inescapable facets of the language classroom, not so much the elephant in the room as part of the very fabric of the room itself. A few teachers are blessed to have students who are motivated to learn. However, the vast majority of teachers struggle to maintain their students' motivation. Teachers are often left without a clear indication of a source from which to choose how they should respond to any lack of motivation.

Language Learning Motivation in Japan is a collection of research reports from 25 different researchers who either teach in Japan or have extensive knowledge of Japan. The editors claim the contents will bridge some of the gap between theory and practice. The book takes a situated approach, accounting for the highly contextual nature of motivation. Although this places some limits on the contents, the variety of contexts covered by the book help it to go some way toward its rather lofty goal by raising it above a simple

window into the experiences of the authors.

The first chapter opens with a general overview from Ema Ushioda. Ushioda is a well-known name in the world of SLA motivation (see for example Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), and she provides a useful view of developments in motivation and how they relate to the situation in Japan. She also sets the groundwork for understanding the rest of the book and its use of contextually grounded and locally produced insights.

Following this opening overview, each chapter pulls at a different thread of motivational theory. The following describes some of the chapters. In Chapter 2, Kimberly A. Noels makes the case for applying self-determination theory and its ideas of autonomy, competence, and relatedness to the Japanese EFL classroom.

Apple, Joseph Falout, and Glen Hill address motivation amongst science and engineering students in Japan in the fourth chapter. They apply the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009) in a small quantitative study to create a model of possible student selves. Although this chapter is dense in its use of acronyms and statistics, it does provide evidence supporting one important application of the L2 Motivational Self System—the use of English-speaking Japanese role models.

The fifth chapter addresses two opposing perspectives of language learning: how one learner sees language learning primarily as engagement in formal studies at the present time and how another learner sees it as a route to obtaining a future vision of himself or herself. Hideo Hayashi goes on to describe how these two orientations should be in dynamic equilibrium, with students taking a balanced posture combining the two. Thus, he suggests that teachers give large, socially relevant meanings to language study for learners focused on formal studies and help students focused on a vague future to implement more specific steps to achieving those goals.

Rieko Nishida demonstrates in Chapter 6 the motivational advantages of project-based learning in elementary school EFL classes. She also provides evidence showing that any gradual reduction in support and scaffolding from the beginning of the lesson to the end of the lesson increases students' perception of autonomy and feelings of competence. This, combined with a large amount of positive feedback, is asserted to be key in maintaining a good classroom atmosphere.

In Chapter 8, Scott Aubrey and Andrew G. P. Nowlan examine the effect of intercultural contact in L2 motivation. They demonstrate how increased intercultural contact increases student motivation in the form of an L2 ideal self, but they also conclude that this does not seem to have a connection with

a student L2 ought-to self, when despite increased contact, students do not feel obliged to learn an L2.

Michael P. Johnson (Chapter 11) presents an interesting longitudinal study on EFL learning motivation that reports on changes in motivation at university and the variable impact of different factors, such as the teacher and the learning environment. Students found some factors motivating in their 1st year, but demotivating in their 2nd year. Of particular interest is the evidence that a lack of motivation may be reversed with appropriate action by the teacher in making classes more interesting and varied.

A lot of work has been done in Japan on the topic of demotivation, and in Chapter 12 Keita Kikuchi provides a coherent summary of studies from both inside and outside Japan. Although this chapter is more of a review of research, it does offer a practical overview of how teacher behavior can result in negative attitudes or issues in the classroom that teachers should try to minimize in an attempt to reduce demotivation.

The possible demotivation of differences between students' perceptions of their actual ability and their ideal L2 selves is addressed by J. Lake in Chapter 13. Addressing this problem from a more positive take on educational psychology, the author examines which attributes can be used to boost L2 learning motivation through practices such as setting individual goals and building a positive student identity.

Lake focusses on the individual, but in Chapter 14, Falout, Yoshifumi Fukuda, Tim Murphey, and Tetsuya Fukuda take a look at the role of communities of practice and student interpretation of their own identities within an ever-changing classroom community. In the study, they took an interesting approach by incorporating the students themselves as researchers and giving opportunities for the students to critically reflect on their own progress in developing L2 learning motivation and a sense of identity in their L2.

Bringing the book to a close, Yoshiyuki Nakata gives an overview of why L2 motivation research relates to the day-to-day practicalities of teaching in the Japanese context and why it is important for researchers, teacher educators, and teachers. He calls on researchers to make L2 motivation research more accessible, on teacher educators to help interpret the research for teachers, and for teachers to try to interpret research findings in relation to their own teaching context. Although Nakata makes his case well, he falls short of providing an actual framework to bridge the gap between research and teaching, as he acknowledges in his conclusion.

Overall, this book makes a good contribution to addressing L2 motivation theory, including teaching practices through studies on language learning

motivation. It might be criticized in that it is written in a very academic style for an academic audience. Many of the chapters are so dense in statistics and acronyms as to create a barrier for most EFL teachers in Japan. However, with persistence and selective reading, the average teacher has much to learn from reading this book and the teacher educator even more. I do not doubt that this volume will be a valuable addition to university libraries and the bookshelves of researchers both in Japan and around the world.

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***Critical ELT in Action: Foundations, Promises, Praxis.* Graham V. Crookes. New York: Routledge. 2013. xiv + 268 pp.**

Reviewed by

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Independent Scholar

The purpose of this book is to address issues that might face those beginning to explore second language critical pedagogy . . . What are its elements, main points, primary concepts? How might a language teacher start doing critical pedagogy? Where does it come from? What underpins or supports it? Where is it going? And are there any dangers I face if I try it? (p. xiii)

The above quotation introduces what readers may find in *Critical ELT in Action: Foundations, Promises, Praxis* by Graham V. Crookes, Professor, Department of Second Language Studies, University of Hawai'i, Mauna Loa. The nine chapters offer a broad overview of critical language teaching including theory, historical antecedents, administration, and classroom implementation. Although Crookes sets his focus firmly in Asia as an educational and political context, instructors in Japan may find the contents somewhat unrelated to their own realities at first glance. However, as Crookes explains,

“any language that is potentially a tool of emancipation as well as a device of oppression, could draw from what is here” (p. xiii). These two concepts—emancipation and oppression—are largely what drive critical pedagogies and Crookes calls on all instructors, regardless of the level or setting, to question their curricula and academic interactions in light of these concepts.

What one first notices is the ease in which Crookes, writing in a number of registers besides typical academic language, both defines and illustrates how language teachers at almost any stage in their careers can more deeply examine their practices. Crookes offers,

Critical language pedagogy emerges from the interaction of theories and practices of language teaching that foster language learning, development, and action on the part of students, directed towards improving problematic aspects of their lives as seen from a critical perspective on society. (p. 8; italics in original)

As such, critical ELT is not only for scholars or university professors but for any individual existing in an environment in which emancipation and oppression are possible. To be *critical* is to question the machinations of power.

Each chapter offers a wide range of scholarly sources, points for reflection, and discussion questions, making this book ideal for both preservice teachers and those who educate them. However, the concepts and illustrations are also applicable and useful in classrooms with younger learners who may be ready to examine the meaning of their language studies—historically, politically, and socially.

Topics covered across the nine chapters include a surprisingly innovative first chapter consisting of voices and dialogues about what has already been done in the field (e.g., Freire). In order to build something of a road map for those new to critical language pedagogies, Crookes, in Chapter 2, moves to an examination of materials and curricula. According to him, these are traditionally underrepresented in critical pedagogy scholarship. In Chapter 3, Crookes introduces and explores what he deems are nine of the key elements of critical language pedagogy practice, such as negotiated syllabi, adopting a critical stance (e.g., feminist) as instructor, and an action orientation. In Chapter 4, he traces the origins of these elements.

Crookes explores the relationship of critical pedagogies to language and learning theories in Chapter 5, and in Chapter 6 he looks at various domains

of critical pedagogy. Crookes explains, "There is a range of different things which need to be addressed if social justice . . . is to be fostered through our practice as language teachers" (p. xiv). These "different things" are explored in Chapter 6, where Crookes delves more deeply into the critical stances introduced in Chapter 3 including feminism, antiracism, sexuality, and peace and environmental education. Crookes includes examples not only from the educational context in Asia, his main focus, but also, as a point of comparison, from Iran as well.

Chapter 7 moves from theory and practice to look at the roles instructors play in the larger institutional and societal settings and how a critical stance may operate outside the classroom. In addition, Crookes discusses various nontraditional educational settings such as adult education, postsecondary institutions, and even the typically faceless interactions in online education.

In Chapter 8, Crookes asks some of the ethical questions about becoming a critical pedagogue. For example, "Are critical instructors imposing their personal view of right and wrong on their students?" and "When does critical pedagogy become the opposite of its intent?" Crookes then explores critical pedagogy as a form of political action; he suggests that instructors' materials, decisions, and behaviors both in and out of the classroom have more sociocultural implications than we could possibly imagine.

Crookes concludes the book (Chapter 9) by examining the future of critical language pedagogies and asks readers to "imagine alternatives" when examining the numerous political and social forces at work both in education and the larger society.

Truly, what sets this text apart from the numerous others currently on the market (see, e.g., Fairclough, 1992; Osborn, 2000) are the following:

1. a focus on Japan and east Asia as educational context;
2. a thorough discussion of ELT materials and curricula;
3. an easy-to-follow register that makes the book ideal for nonacademics and academics alike;
4. points and questions for reflection and discussion in each chapter, making the book ideal for a range of learner abilities and classrooms;
5. a focus on issues of compromise and resistance within both institutional and broader social contexts; and
6. a useful appendix of examples illustrating how critical approaches may be incorporated into classrooms with learners at various levels.

The publisher advocates the book for courses on methods and approaches in TESOL, but as a self-proclaimed critical pedagogue, I could easily see myself using the text in numerous other contexts such as with intermediate-level proficiency learners of almost any language in any setting as well as in sociolinguistics and applied linguistics courses.

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***Learning and Collective Creativity: Activity-Theoretical and Sociocultural Studies*. Annalisa Sannino and Viv Ellis (Eds.). New York: Routledge, 2014. xi +273 pp.**

Reviewed by

Tim Murphey

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I love this book. But it is not a book for all of us, although there are several chapters that JALT members may have a special interest in, especially graduate students. The main idea put forward is that learning and creating are overlapping co-constructing concepts done best collectively. All the research done in each chapter is described using CHAT, Cultural Historical Activity Theory, which was mainly developed by Vygotsky's student Leont'ev (1978) and then taken up more purposefully by the Finnish scholar Engeström (1987). It is worth noting that Vygotsky's first major work was entitled *The Psychology of Art* (1925/1971 MIT English version), and thus he was perpetually interested in the creation and learning processes.

Most of the time, the chapters in this volume are not about education, although three are (Chapter 3 by Katsuhiko Yamazumi on Japanese K-12 hybrid classes; Chapter 4 by Kai Hakkarainen, Kaisa Hytönen, Juho Makkonen, Pirita Seitamaa-Hakkarainen, and Hal White on European graduate school programs; and Chapter 11 by Ellis on teachers' professional development in England). The other chapters are about the creation of or a lack of *learning and collective creativity* in real life situations between and within different

groups: musical learning and improvisation (Chapter 1 by Karin Johansson); Simone de Beauvoir's expansive journey to become a writer (Chapter 2 by Sannino); resourceful leaders (Chapter 5 by Anne Edwards and Marc Thompson); nursing, software development, and accountancy (Chapter 6 by Sten Ludvigsen and Monika Nerland); aid resource groups for Hurricane Katrina and the Fukushima nuclear power plant crises (Chapter 7 by Harry Daniels and Peter Johnson); the different views on individual versus network collaborative agency (Chapter 8 by Reijo Miettinen); serious play using LEGO in concept formation for entrepreneurs (Chapter 9 by Klaus-Peter Schulz and Silke Geithner); and cultures of participation using metadesign (Chapter 10 by Gerhard Fischer).

For those not yet into CHAT, I advise first reading the intro, which gives an overview of the concepts, and then Chapter 12, which is by Engeström himself and very clearly shows two excellent examples of how activity theory can be used to elucidate our collective concept formation and how learning and creation go hand in hand. He uses simple diagrams to help readers grasp his meanings in multiple ways. Engeström also makes an argument that I think should have changed the title of the book: "This chapter deliberately uses the term creation instead of the term creativity. The notion of creation calls for attention to the actions of creating rather than to the possible psychological properties of the subject who creates" (p. 236). Thus, he is not describing an entity (creativity) in people but a process that people go through, creation. In his first case study, he shows how University of Helsinki librarians reconceptualize their work for modern research groups and appropriate the new concept of "knotworking" to describe their new understanding of how they can work with and help research groups work better. His second case study was with Helsinki home care for the elderly and how they reconceptualised "mobility agreements" to promote "sustainable mobility" as a concept that has powerfully energized the system and greatly helped those in need.

Of special note to graduate programs and graduate students is Chapter 4 (Kai Hakkarainen et al.), "Interagency, Collective Creativity, and Academic Knowledge Practices," which basically illustrates the two forms of graduate programs now popular in much of Europe, those that insist on individual work and others that are more collective and socialize new graduate students into research teams who publish as groups in internationally recognized scholarly journals:

The collective model . . . involves socializing doctoral students to academic practices by providing them with early oppor-

tunities to apprentice in research communities and, through intensive participation in solving collectively shared problems embedded in the supervisor's projects (Gruber, 1974), grow up to become members of a scholarly community. A well-established collective approach to doctoral education involves pursuing article-based theses consisting of a summary and three to five articles coauthored with the supervisor and other senior researchers and published in internationally refereed journals (Green & Powell, 2005). These students, in their production, act within the milieu of a strong research community, which provides access to sophisticated academic practices, the appropriation of which assists in reaching at least some peaks of knowledge creation. (p. 78)

Were I now a grad student doing an MA or PhD in any field, I would send a copy of this chapter, or the authors' journal article (available from *Studies in Continuing Education*) to my graduate school administrators asking if this could be a model to cultivate. Granted they most probably would not change in time for my own PhD, I might get their thoughts rolling so that my grandchildren could have better opportunities to do real collaborative research in graduate school and to join academia more quickly.

Another chapter that inspired me is Fischer, Chapter 10, talking about cultures of participation:

Our basic assumption is that collaborative design and social creativity are necessities rather than luxuries for most interesting and important design problems in today's world. But there is ample evidence that there should be an *and* and not a *versus* relationship between individual and social creativity as aptly expressed by Rudyard Kipling "The strength of the pack is in the wolf, and the strength of the wolf is in the pack." (p. 210)

Most creativity research in the past has put the talent of individuals on a pedestal and praised them as purportedly godlike entities. This book looks more at processes of collective creating and learning in groups and how we more often learn-to-create and create-to-learn together. This is not at all unrelated to our language classes where the individual studying and working alone is much more at a disadvantage compared to those in the social group who share, create, learn, and bond together, and use language as a social-creative-learning tool.

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***Learning to Write, Reading to Learn: Genre, Knowledge and Pedagogy in the Sydney School*. David Rose and J. R. Martin. Sheffield, UK: Equinox Publishing, 2012. x + 357 pp.**

Reviewed by

Roger Palmer

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Learning to Write, Reading to Learn highlights the research of the Sydney School in language and literacy pedagogy. The researchers and teachers set out with the modest aim “to design a writing pedagogy that could enable any student to succeed with the writing demands of the school” (p. 1). Ostensibly targeting an audience of language teachers, researchers, and postgraduate students, it seems that in Japan the book may best serve as an introduction to genre-based literacy pedagogy, given that even now few papers are presented or published domestically on whole texts, multiple literacies, and genre.

The book focuses on the historical development of genre-based literacy programs through three phases: the *Writing Project* and *Language and Social Power* project highlighting writing in primary schools in the 1980s; the *Write it Right* project dealing with the reading and writing of secondary school genres in the 1990s; and *Reading to Learn*, bringing together “reading and writing with learning the curriculum in primary, secondary, and tertiary education” (p. 2).

The authors take a novel approach by interweaving a prepare-task-elaborate structure throughout the chapters. Thus, the organisation of the

book mirrors the teaching of genre pedagogy, with an initial discussion of context, followed by a series of reading tasks. Shared knowledge between the reader and writer is built in spirals and reviewed later as contrasts in systems. Those new to the genre approach may take a while to adjust to it, but the authors certainly demonstrate the courage of their convictions as well as their formidable expertise, and the flow and pacing of the book render it highly readable.

At the heart of the book is a functional approach to language adhering to the “principle of embedded literacy” (p. 133). Teachers provide models of what is expected for their students. They make use of knowledge about language to prompt a discussion. They help students to read, deconstruct, and write a variety of text types to cover those the students will need in their social contexts and produce texts jointly with their students before individual writing construction (p. 35).

Chapter 1 outlines a model to integrate literacy teaching with curriculum goals, which may be particularly helpful to those teaching content-based courses. Chapter 2, which describes L1 primary school instruction, is easily transferable to L2 college-age instruction. Genre types are classified, such as the narrative and recount under stories, the report and explanation under factual texts, and the exposition and discussion under arguments (p. 56). Chapter 3 deals with the demands of L1 secondary school education and thus would relate to more advanced learners in our L2 contexts. The kinds of sophisticated, *uncommonsense* knowledge demanded of the developing learner are described as classification, cause-and-effect, and evaluation, realised in grammatical metaphor (p. 82). The authors also provide instructors with a roadmap of the tasks that students will need to succeed in school (p. 128). Chapter 4 presents both an instructional design for interactions in the classroom, as well as a strategic reading model, more fully realising the aim of an integrated curriculum involving reading and writing. Here readers will discover detailed, practical examples of how to apply the Reading to Learn model. Chapter 5, which deals with metalanguage to deepen knowledge about language, will be useful for educational researchers, and Chapter 6, which focuses on knowledge about pedagogy, will benefit teacher trainers and educators.

At this point, readers who are new to genre pedagogy may understandably wonder how it benefits their students in Japan. Rose and Martin confirm what many have observed in the Japanese school context, where traditional language teaching has tended to start with systems, specifically the traditional school grammar directed towards success in exams. For the

authors, however, the solution is not to abandon grammar. The system does have a place, but “learning a language system is the endpoint.” It should begin with “contrasts in texts,” not “by memorising contrasts in systems” (pp. 26-27). As Rose and Martin point out, a number of teachers have embraced constructivism as a solution to language learning, which runs counter to actual observations of language learning in our social contexts. Constructivist approaches—implicit, process, whole language—which oppose the explicit teaching of language systems, have failed to produce a generation of students who can function well in foreign languages. One of the successes of the book is to halt the destructive tendency towards breaking up reading and writing into isolated receptive and productive skills respectively, by refocusing pedagogy on meaning in whole texts. Not only that, but the need to teach meanings, whether ideational, interpersonal, or textual, requires that one of the central roles of the language teacher be to help learners develop an understanding of the way language is organised.

No doubt, every reader will have his or her personal bugbear. For this reviewer, the question was how to go from literacy education to embracing the concept of semiotics in multimodal texts or multiliteracies when the use of digital media, such as that discussed elsewhere by the New London Group (1996), is rarely foregrounded. A number of criticisms of genre pedagogy have come from feminist and poststructuralist analyses, though as Unsworth (2000) points out, those same analyses still adhere largely to the lexicogrammar of Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), the linguistic theory underlying genre. Other dissenting voices, those of the New Rhetoric approach to genre or those who remain devoted to the process approach, are neatly summed up, discussed, and fended off by Hyland (2007) as being off target: In the case of New Rhetoric, which rejects writing instruction in classrooms as lacking authenticity, it hardly helps those L2 writers forced to cope by themselves in challenging natural situations where they are precisely in need of support. As for process learning, the criticism that explicit instruction in genre is too prescriptive does not explain how it would be any more limiting than learning established formal descriptions of language such as the clause or, indeed, the steps of process writing.

Because the book introduces developments spanning over 30 years, it ranges outside the confines of language teaching to address “the potential for education of achieving social justice” (p. 332), which underpins genre pedagogy. This may not be a bad thing. Readers are given a reason to question the devotion to skills-based teaching and a compelling rationale for why as teachers we should help all learners, irrespective of background and

opportunity, to gain explicit knowledge of language features and text structure. Readers will not only learn a new approach to pedagogy, but may feel it resonates with some of the reasons they joined the teaching profession in the first place.

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***Applied Linguistics and Materials Development*. Brian Tomlinson (Ed.). New York: Bloomsbury Academic, 2013. vii + 335 pp.**

Reviewed by
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Few issues divide the field of language teaching more strongly than commercially published textbooks. There are those that want to chuck them all (see, e.g., Thornbury & Meddings, 2001), those who think that they are a necessary evil, and those who feel that textbooks are a must. One thing is certain, love them or hate them, textbooks are a major part of ELT. Some would even say they are a third participant in the classroom, the other two being the student and the teacher (Savova, 2009). Probably the most often cited complaint about commercially available coursebooks is that, because of their necessary genericness, they cannot meet all the needs of all the students and teachers all the time, and therefore they require careful evaluation, selection, adaptation, and supplementation (McDonough, Shaw, & Masuhara, 2013). A possible reason that some materials do not meet student and teacher needs is that somehow materials are disconnected from what teachers and researchers know about how people learn a language

and what is found in the textbook. This disconnect between theory and practice, although not a new issue (see, e.g., Sheldon, 1988), until now has been largely uninvestigated. This book, whose main aim is to “investigate the match between applied linguistics theory and materials development practice,” (p. 4) seeks to address this issue. Spoiler alert: Commercially available ELT materials and applied linguistics research don’t match very well.

The book consists of 19 chapters by various authors, divided into four parts. Part One of the book begins with a look at the issue of learning and teaching languages from a distance in a wide-ranging way. Of particular note are the two chapters by the editor, Tomlinson, the first that elucidates the issue and the second that summarizes SLA research and the theories derived from it and matches these to coursebooks. Tomlinson identifies 10 basic SLA theories and analyzes six intermediate level coursebooks to see how well they apply the theories, giving them a score between 0 and 5, with a 5 being a perfect match. It is striking to see that no textbook scores above a 3 for any of the 10 SLA theories and two of the theories, utilization of brain resources and nonlinguistic communication, are not drawn upon by any of the coursebooks in any way.

The next section of the book deals with aspects of language use, again with a broad view tackling issues like pragmatics and discourse analysis. It is in this section that writers find some “positive applications” (p. 161). Ivor Timmis in Chapter 6, for example, confirms that some coursebooks are including more naturalistic spoken language derived from corpus studies. In Chapter 10 on intercultural competence, Michael Byram and Hitomi Masaharu find two textbooks that provide an exposure to multiple cultures but still tend to focus on the language of native speakers.

The third section of the book, and probably the one of most interest to classroom teachers, specifically focuses on the four major language skills—reading, writing, speaking, and listening—in turn. It is in these areas that the book is most critical of current language teaching materials. As Tomlinson notes, there seems to be a “reluctance” to stray too far from “the classroom norm” (p. 250).

Finally, the last section of the book addresses the overarching area of curriculum development. It includes chapters on topics such as language policy, pedagogy, and testing washback. Although some positive areas of implementation are noted (for example in Chapter 16, Chris Kennedy and Tomlinson find that local publishers are more likely to create materials that implement local and national language policy and planning), there still seems to be a focus on materials for standardized test preparation.

Working through the book, one is constantly shocked by the glaring gaps between theory and practice, some of which can be quite jarring. For example, Alan Maley and Philip Prowse, in their chapter on reading skills, note that a recently published graded reading series now includes exercises in the middle of the text thereby turning “extensive reading into language-focused intensive reading” that “undermines all of the benefits” (p. 176). Another example can be found in Anne Burns and David A. Hill’s chapter on speaking. They observe that of the textbooks they surveyed, all “are still largely stuck in the behaviorist PPP way of working” and that textbooks “have not really moved on much in the last decade” (p. 245).

For readers in Japan, a minor point of criticism is that most of the authors are working in ESL environments. In the experience of this reviewer, the materials used in ESL environments can vary widely from those used in the EFL classrooms found in Japan. Furthermore, the number of textbooks reviewed is limited, admittedly by necessity, and many of the titles mentioned are not available or widely used in Japan. If there is a fault of this book it is that, although it is good at pointing out the gaps between theory and practice, it is light on advice for teachers using commercial materials on what to do about these gaps, leaving teachers to adapt and supplement coursebooks based on their own reading of applied-linguistic theories. On the whole, it seems to me that this is a book more oriented toward researchers than teachers.

Having said that, the chapters in this book are well written and serve as a good overview of applied linguistic theory as pertaining to materials design. They will be of interest not only to teachers using published coursebooks but also to any researcher working with commercially available textbooks, especially those trying to narrow the gap between research and materials. However, perhaps those who would most benefit from the book are authors and editors, as well as others involved in publishing commercial ELT materials. After all, they are the ones most able to change the way materials are written, designed, and published.

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