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Japan Association for Language Teaching

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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 offers 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 32 JALT chapters and 27 special interest groups (SIGs). JALT is a founder of PAC (Pan-Asian Consortium), which is an association of language teacher organizations in Pacific Asia. PAC holds annual 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 a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language). JALT is also affiliated with many other international and domestic organizations.

JALT publishes *JALT Journal,* a semiannual research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a bimonthly periodical containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and the annual *JALT Post Conference Publication*.

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.

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JALT Central Office

Urban Edge Building, 5F 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan
Tel.: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631; Email: jco@jalt.org;
Website: <www.jalt.org>

In This Issue

Articles

In this issue, attitudes and motivation of both teachers and students are the focus—from a number of different perspectives. First, **Akihiro Omote** uses quantitative and qualitative methods to explore changes in teacher efficacy with respect to the language of instruction. Then, **Joshua Kidd** examines a phenomenon all educators in Japan are probably familiar with: peer collaboration in the classroom that is unsanctioned by the teacher. Next, **David Shea** uses qualitative data to examine the orientation of advanced level university students to English. Then, in a Japanese-language article, **Junya Fukuta**, **Yu Tamura**, and **Akari Kurita** investigate to what extent oral-communication-oriented activities in junior high school textbooks met task criteria for promoting authentic meaningful communication. Finally, in our Research Forum, **Mitsuko Tanaka** addresses the question of bias in student peer assessment of oral presentations.

Reviews

Seven book reviews, about texts that range across the four skills and beyond, are published in this issue. **Thomas Amundrud** opens with a look at spoken discourse, from a book of that very title. In the second review, **Robert Andrews** covers a workbook for academic writing based on investigations and models of the popularized research article genre. **John Eidswick** draws on personal and professional experience in his review of an edited volume on bilingual development. The fourth review, from **Peter Hourdequin**, features the cultural, ideological, and pedagogical transitions in Japan. Following that, **Harumi Kimura** examines *Positive Psychology in SLA*, an edited volume with contributions from several Japan-based researchers and practitioners. In the sixth review, **Branden Kirchmeyer** explores a text that includes Internet resources for how to teach pronunciation. Finally, **Adam Murray** looks at another specific skill in his review of a monograph on listening strategy instruction.

Editor's Message

This is my final issue as *JALT Journal* Editor, and there are so many things to be thankful for. First and mostly importantly I am grateful for all the people I met, mostly only in cyberspace but also in person. I had many enjoyable exchanges with members of the Publications Board, reviewers, and authors—and some became friends. This is what I will miss most of all when I step down. I also sincerely appreciated the chance to read a large variety of research, although taking advantage of this was not always easy or convenient. This has been a great opportunity for professional development, and I would like to encourage readers to avail themselves of similar opportunities by becoming involved in JALT publications.

My appreciation goes to the authors and reviewers who contributed to this issue, without whom the journal would not be possible. The review process is very long and requires a great deal of work on both sides. The reviewers deserve recognition for their effort and patience as well as my sincere gratitude. Aleda Krause and the proofreaders are also vital to the publication of the *JALT Journal*. I am indebted to Consulting Editors Melodie Cook and Greg Scholdt for all of their help as well. Melodie patiently helped me to learn the ropes and Greg was always available for consultation. Lastly, I leave the *JALT Journal* with Eric Hauser, who has collaborated with me for the past 2 years. I am grateful for his help and I am confident that he will be successful in the position of Editor.

Articles

Teacher Self-Efficacy and Instructional Speech: How Teachers Behave Efficaciously in the EFL Classroom

Akihiro Omote
Birkbeck, University of London

In this paper, I explore teachers' self-efficacy and their instructional speech (in Japanese and English) in EFL classrooms in Japan. Mixed methods provided the framework for a questionnaire to 108 teachers followed by interviews with 6 teachers. The survey revealed a common perception that Japanese instructional speech is overused and a perceived conflict between the use of English and Japanese speech, but the interviews found that self-efficacy played a central role in a complex sociocognitive process to optimize efficacy due to distinct qualities of English and Japanese speech. Teacher self-efficacy (TSE) had two functions: an embarrassment buffer and a motivation keeper. Although both functions were conditional in English, they were cognitive and compensatory in Japanese. Along with the converging impact of English and Japanese on TSE, this discrepancy seems to lead to the overuse of Japanese in the process of efficacy optimization. Implications are provided for future instructional speech with an attempt to alleviate the conflict between the use of English and Japanese.

本研究は、教師の自己効力感（Teacher self-efficacy, TSE）を日本の英語教育における instructional speech（授業言語、授業での日本語使用と英語使用）との関係から探ることを目的としている。研究は、質問紙（108名の日本人教師対象）と、その後行われた6名の教師へのインタビューを統合する混合法（mixed methods）で行われた。前者では英語と比較した日本語の過大使用、及び日英両言語の使用上の対立を、また後者では複雑で社会認知的な授業の最適化プロセスにおいてTSEが中心的役割を担っていることが判明した。TSEには問題回避と動機維持の2つの機能が見られる。しかし、英語は条件限定的、日本語は

認知的または補償的にこれらの機能に関連しており、双方の関係性ははっきりと異なっていた。日本語の過大使用は、この日英言語のTSEへのそれぞれの対立的影響を元に生じていると考えられる。この対立を緩和するための授業言語のより良いあり方について考察し、いくつか提案を試みる。

A growing number of studies have discussed language teachers' self-efficacy (Chacón, 2005; Faez & Valeo, 2012; Ghonsooly & Ghanizadeh, 2013; Mak, 2011). Teacher efficacy refers to the extent to which teachers believe they can affect students' learning (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Although teachers' speech plays a major role in the success of students' language learning, teachers often face a dilemma when choosing between L1 use and target language (TL) use (Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Cook, 2001; Edstrom, 2006; Omote, 2012; Turnbull, 2001). Based on Bandura's social cognitive theory (1977, 1997), the aim of this paper is to identify the connection between the choice of the language of instructional speech (Japanese or English) and the source of teacher self-efficacy in an EFL classroom in Japan. I then suggest how teachers can alleviate the conflict between English (the TL) and Japanese (the L1) speech based on a sociocognitive perspective.

In an EFL setting such as Japan where there is no linguistic heterogeneity, the language chosen for instructional speech can be problematic due to the local linguistic environment in a classroom: A majority of learners and teachers share an L1. The situation is distinct from ESL classrooms where a common use of the L2 is indispensable for speakers of different L1s (Atkinson, 1993; Edstrom, 2006). Moreover, a theoretical basis for choosing the language of instructional speech remains elusive. No clear validation or agreement on whether L1 use enhances or hinders TL improvement has been presented (Auerbach, 1993; Macaro, 2005; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). However, researchers have generally agreed that there is evidence of social, cognitive, and motivational roles for L1 use that affect learning and are, therefore, espoused by learners and teachers (Alegría de la Colina & del Pilar García Mayo, 2009; Antón & DiCamilla, 1999; Brooks-Lewis, 2009).

Despite the recent reforms by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) stipulating that upper secondary (senior high) school English classes should be taught in English (MEXT, 2011) and the subsequent intensification of lower secondary (junior high) school English classes (as suggested in the *English Education Reform Plan Corresponding to Globalization*; MEXT, 2014), researchers have argued against the feasibility of so-called "English-only" classrooms at the local level (Glasgow & Paller, 2016; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009). A national survey of

self-reported instructional speech in Japan, for example, found a high ratio of self-reported L1 instructional speech: 47.6% of 9,726 upper secondary-school teachers reported that they used more Japanese than English in oral communication classes and 85.2% of 12,242 upper secondary-school teachers reported they did so in reading comprehension classes (MEXT, 2010).

As teachers' TL use in instructional speech plays a significant role in their self-efficacy (Chacón, 2005; Nishino, 2012), the high ratio of L1 choice by the teachers strongly suggests that teacher self-efficacy (TSE) in practice might fluctuate during instruction. Cook (2001) concluded that we should grant license to teachers to use the L1, although it is still considered problematic by many researchers. Auerbach (1993) pointed out more than 20 years ago that an English-only policy in instruction "rests on unexamined assumptions, and serves to reinforce inequities" (p. 9). However, little is known today about the link between TSE and instructional speech. Therefore, merely standardising classroom communication to "English only" is not necessarily appropriate in a local classroom environment.

Teacher Self-Efficacy and Instructional Speech

I began from the assumption that TSE and instructional speech may forge a closer link as learners become more successful in classroom tasks. The language teacher functions as a verbal and social aid for supporting learners' mastery of the TL, and teachers make choices of instructional speech based on their experience (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). However, a connection between TSE and instructional speech has not been explored adequately in terms of the beliefs of teachers (as agents) about efficacy and their instructional speech (behaviour). That is, the question of how the language of instruction can be linked to teacher efficacy is yet to be addressed.

Bandura (1977, 1997) posited self-efficacy as agentic beliefs that trigger new actions to conduct a particular task. An agentic belief is a belief of a classroom teacher who might be aware of the TSE that affects his or her practice. Self-efficacy, defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3), assumes a key role when a teacher reflects on his or her teaching and incorporates the reflection into ongoing regulatory practice that has an accumulating effect over time. Richards and Lockhart (1996) mentioned the importance of reflections on principles that are incorporated into practice. Given this, looking at a teacher's choice of English or Japanese would be a good way to investigate TSE and its relationship with practices that underlie instructional speech.

Therefore, it is crucial to seek the sources of TSE to predict the mastery or avoidance effects of instructional speech and the degree to which teachers' sense of efficacy plays an active role (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Morris and Usher (2011), for example, interviewed university teachers about the sources of teacher efficacy, adopting Bandura's (1977) four sources as criteria: (a) mastery experiences (achievement fulfilled by learner and teacher), (b) vicarious experiences (indirect experience through observed achievement), (c) social persuasions (verbal and nonverbal evaluations by others), and (d) physiological and affective states. Their results suggested that TSE relates to sociocognitive aspects more than to mastery; that is, it relates to social persuasion such as students' evaluations, followed by mastery experience—such as students' achievements—and then vicarious experience (e.g., the teacher's own former teachers). The results also implied that teachers' negative experiences were not necessarily likely to lower their sense of efficacy because successful and proficient teachers attributed failures not to internal factors, such as their own incapability, but to external ones, such as a lack of rapport with students leading to a suboptimal classroom atmosphere.

Chacón (2005) explored self-reported TSE of Venezuelan middle school teachers through a survey administered to 100 teachers. The survey revealed that grammar-based strategies, including translation into the L1, correlated positively with self-efficacy, showing a significantly higher mean than communicative strategies did. The data also showed positive correlations between teachers' efficacy and language proficiency, but did not show any correlation between classroom management and proficiency. According to the results, teacher efficacy fluctuated due to proficiency, but the role of instructional speech was unclear because teachers did not specifically mention it. The grammar-translation strategies had a positive effect on TSE, but the classroom-management strategies did not. Interestingly, Edstrom (2006) presented quite similar positive and negative learner feedback regarding teacher L1 use: The learners gave feedback about a teacher's L1 use in the classroom in terms of the teacher's (perceived) motivation.

Therefore, the aim of this paper is to identify the connection between instructional speech and the sources of TSE and to suggest how teachers can use Japanese, English, or both to maximise their self-efficacy. The hypothesis is that TSE positively associates with teachers' use of L1 Japanese. The research questions are

RQ1. Can teachers choose efficaciously when to use English and Japanese in the classroom?

RQ2. Is teachers' choice of the L1 or the TL for instructional speech associated with self-efficacy?

Method

A Mixed Methods Design

An explanatory sequential mixed methods design (Figure 1) with a participant selection model, based on the work of Creswell (2012), provided a common framework for two different phases: quantitative data analysis of survey questionnaire (Study 1), followed by a qualitative data analysis of data from interviews with participants selected based on the outcome of the first study (Study 2). The rationale for the methodology was that, because the survey results would provide only a general picture of the research question, interviews would provide more specific and contextual analysis and elaboration leading to deeper interpretation. Study 2 was a significant part of the framework in that it explored an in-depth, as well as complementary, dimension of the entire study.

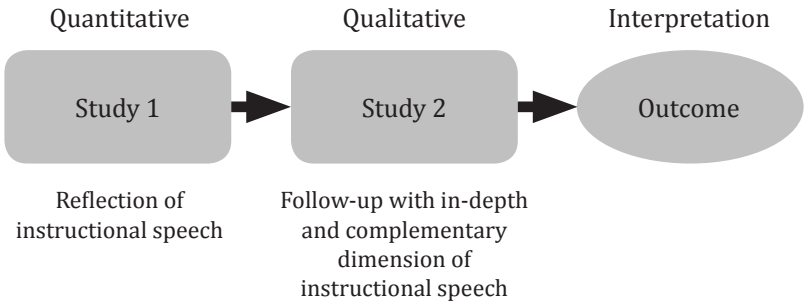

Figure 1. An explanatory sequential mixed methods design. Modified from Creswell (2012, p. 541).

Study 1

The author recruited participants for Study 1 by sending a questionnaire (see Appendix A) to 175 native Japanese teachers of English and collecting responses from 108 (46 males and 62 females) who taught solo English classes in lower and upper public and private secondary schools in the Shikoku, Kansai, and Kanto areas of Japan. All signed a consent form (a few consented anonymously). Their ages ranged from 20 to 60 years old and

their years of teaching experience ranged from 1 to 26 years. The answers to items in the questionnaire that were related to their classroom contexts showed that there was no significant association between schools and categories such as linguistic homogeneity, goal, class size, students' achievement, and teaching style.

Polio and Duff (1994) used a qualitative analysis for eliciting categories from the functions of instructional speech. In the current survey, five questions (Items 13-17) were asked about the reflected ratio of instructional speech (Japanese to English) by a proportion (e.g., 4:6). The questions about instructional speech used categories adapted from Polio and Duff: teacher speech in tasks (Item 13), teacher speech in management (Item 14), learner speech in tasks (Item 15), learner speech in management (Item 16), and overall teacher to learner speech ratio (Item 17). A total of 14 six-point Likert-scale items were devised (1 = *I do not agree at all*; 6 = *I agree very much*) to measure the teachers' self-efficacy as it related to their choice of language for instruction (e.g., "I feel that Japanese/English in my class is efficacious because it is helpful to enhance understanding" [Items 22/29]). The items were created based on five major reasons and purposes that teachers have reported in previous studies: *goal*—how efficacious the instructional speech is for students' goal achievement (Items 18-20, 25-27); *understanding*—how efficacious the instructional speech is for students' understanding of the content of the class (Items 21 & 28); *enhancement*—how efficacious the instructional speech is for the enhancement of understanding of language features such as grammar (Items 22 & 29); *smoothness*—how efficacious the instructional speech is to make the learning activities go more smoothly, for example, in directions (Items 23 & 30); and *enrichment*—how efficacious the instructional speech is to enrich learning, for example, to encourage active participation in the class (Items 24 & 31). These items were adapted from De la Campa and Nassaji (2009); Liu, Ahn, Baek, and Han (2004); and Polio and Duff (1994), who determined speech (L1) functions in EFL instruction.

A principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted with oblique rotation (promax) on the efficacy items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .79. All figures for individual 14 items were > .70. Bartlett's test of sphericity, χ^2 (91) = 1239.09, $p < .001$, indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for the PCA. Cronbach's alpha was .84, which means the reliability of these items was robust.

Study 2

Drawing from the initial questionnaire respondents, the author recruited 11 teachers by email to participate in follow-up interviews. These teachers, aged 20 to 50, had between 1 and 23 years of teaching experience. Teachers asked to participate in this study were those whose ratio of Japanese to English in instructional use was 6:4 or higher based on the results of Study 1 (i.e., dominant L1 use, see below). Six teachers agreed to participate. Table 1 shows demographic details, including pseudonyms. The average reflected ratio of Japanese to English was 7:3. Preliminary interviews by email or telephone revealed that all the teachers spoke Japanese as a native language, taught solo comprehensive English classes to Japanese students, and identified no problematic teacher–student relationships. Most importantly, each represented different teacher characteristics (age, sex, grades taught, experience, etc.). Five of the six teachers had certified high-level English proficiency based on standardized tests.

Mie and Sakura were teachers at different lower secondary schools. Mie was younger, with only 3 years of teaching experience. Her TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) score was 880. Her Japanese to English reflection was 6:4. Sakura had 20 years of experience teaching in Japan. Her Japanese to English reflection was 9:1; she was not confident about using English; and she believed it was not possible to use more English because the students lacked the skills and experience to gain confidence in English.

Kei had 9 years of teaching experience with a variety of overseas experiences. Her TOEIC score was 935. Despite her preference to conduct classes using English, she felt that teaching grammar in English was pointless, considering the college entrance examinations. She believed that success in the examinations required the students to have more understanding of the TL in their L1 than would be possible by using the TL as is required by school policy. Kei's Japanese to English reflection was 8:2.

Ichiro was in his late 40s; he had 7 years of prior teaching experience in California and had been teaching at his current school for 14 years since then. Ichiro used Japanese to explain grammar because his goal was to prepare his students for their university entrance examinations. His reflection was 7:3.

Katz studied for a year in the United States before becoming a teacher. His IELTS (International English Language Test System) score was 7.0. His reflection ratio was 7:3. He was not completely convinced about the English-only policy declared by MEXT. He had once tried an English-only class, which

was not successful because he was not able to ensure good communication with his students.

Taro was the oldest with 10 years of teaching experience. Despite having a high English proficiency test score (TOEIC 985), Taro's reflection was 6:4.

Table 1. Study 2: Participants' Backgrounds

Pseudonym	Age	Sex	School	Grade taught	Years of teaching	Years in ES countries	Test score	Reflected J:E ratio	Interview length (min)
Mie	late 20s	F	LS	1	3	< 2	880 (T)	6:4	79
Katz	late 20s	M	US	5	4	1	870 (T) 7.0 (I)	7:3	74
Kei	late 30s	F	US	4	10	< 2	935 (T)	8:2	106
Sakura	early 40s	F	LS	3	20	< 2	2nd (S)	9:1	75
Ichiro	late 40s	M	US	6	23	7	1st (S)	7:3	66
Taro	early 50s	M	UNV	7	10	< 2	985 (T)	6:4	55

Note. LS = lower secondary (junior high) school; US = upper secondary (senior high) school; UNV = university; ES = English-speaking; T = TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication); I = IELTS (International English Language Test System); S = STEP (Standardized Test for English Proficiency); J/E = Japanese to English; grade taught = 1 (1st-year secondary) to 7 (1st year tertiary).

The author conducted six semistructured interview sessions ranging from 55 to 106 minutes in a closed and quiet meeting environment. The interviews were recorded using a digital recorder after confidentiality of personal information was assured and the interviewees had signed formal consent forms. The data were transcribed verbatim. After the initial coding of transcripts, the author invited the participants for follow-up interviews,

either in person or by email, to confirm and modify the transcription. All teacher comments were translated by the author.

The main goal of the interviews was to elicit how TSE had developed and changed over time in terms of Bandura's (1977) four sources of self-efficacy adapted as coding criteria by Morris and Usher (2011). To this end, the author developed an interview protocol (se Appendix B) by modifying that of Morris and Usher's study.

The transcripts were coded using ATLAS ti.7 (Friese & Ringmayr, 2015) through two steps. For the first step, 33 quotations from six participants were coded into four efficacy-source categories—*mastery experiences* (ME), *vicarious experiences* (VE), *social persuasions* (SP), *physiological and affective states* (PA)—and five linguistic codes—*Japanese* (JP), *nonchoice of English* (non-EN), *English* (EN), *nonchoice of Japanese* (non-JP), and *nonlanguage* (NL). This primary coding allowed for the two strands of efficacy and language to be coded simultaneously. For example, the author coded the comment "English is a tool to encourage myself to create the physiological rhythm inside of me" as PA as well as EN.

Next, the quotations coded as NL were eliminated because the purpose was to see the link between self-efficacy and language choice. The secondary coding was then carried out using an open coding approach in an attempt to explore linguistic functions in each coded paragraph. This was to identify and classify functional types in each source group (ME, VE, SP, or PA); functions of self-efficacy that were common across each type of speech (EN, JP, non-EN, non-JP) emerged in this process (see Table 2).

Table 2. Types of Self-Efficacy Sources and Functions of Each Coding

Source	Code	Types	Functions
ME	EN	1. Perceived former success in class (e.g., "The most fruitful class I ever had was one I taught from my 4th year for three consecutive years. I taught them from first to third grade." [Kei])	Conditionally motivational
	JP	2. Mastery of cognitive strategies (e.g., "They prefer to be convinced by the reliable L1 rather than to be made confused by the ambiguous English. They like to learn things through logical explanation." [Ichiro])	Cognitive tool

Source	Code	Types	Functions
VE	EN	3. Learning pedagogical skills by observing models (e.g., "I am working with native assistants, so I was convinced and encouraged to use the expressions they used. I mean I owe something to them." [Mie])	Motivational as a model
SP	EN	4. Students' informal comments and evaluations (e.g., "The room always afforded opportunities for the small number of students to share a virtual English life. In such a specialized condition, they were ready . . ." [Sakura])	Conditionally motivational
	JP	Same as 4 (e.g., "[I was] usually acting as an easy teacher using the L1. Then students would respond to me, being relaxed and open-minded to me, and my class." [Taro])	Compensatory behaviour
	Non-EN	5. Negative social responses (e.g., "I tried, for the discipline of the students but in vain, to make myself understood in English. Then I decided to use Japanese to do so. My goal was to manage my class, anyway." [Mie])	Embarrassment avoidance
PA	EN	6. Positive physiological and affective states (e.g., "We can make an English-only class with humour and laughter. Yes, I know it . . . Laughter was a key factor then." [Sakura])	Conditionally motivational
	JP	Same as 6 (e.g., "I use grammatical jargon, *maru sankaku shikaku* [circle, triangle, and square], in a hard-and-fast manner. It feels strange, but they are invincible and stabilizing tools of mine." [Katz])	Compensatory motivation
	Non-JP	7. Nervousness (e.g., "When I get annoyed, I avoid Japanese and use English instead. I am afraid that I would be insulting. I don't know, but English alleviates such a feeling inside me." [Taro])	Embarrassment avoidance

Note. ME = mastery experiences; VE = vicarious experiences; SP = social persuasions; PA = physiological and affective states; EN = English; JP = Japanese; Non-EN = nonchoice of English; Non-JP = nonchoice of Japanese.

Efforts to strengthen the validity of the coding were twofold. First, to detect data patterns, the author revisited cross-matrix codes, anomalies in the transcripts, all field notes, summaries, recorded videos, and the original interview recordings. As was the case with Morris and Usher (2011), various strands of these processes substantiated the relationships between sources and self-efficacy as well as confirmed the explicit acknowledgement of the relationships by each participant. Second, if necessary and possible, the author exchanged emails with participants, visited participants at their schools, or did both to either replicate or reconcile some controversial points of the transcripts.

After several coding-training sessions, two raters (including the author) calculated an intercoder reliability based on a random selection of approximately 15% of the transcriptions. The obtained Kappa statistic from this early assessment was .909, revealing a very good or high degree of agreement. Disagreements between the raters were resolved prior to the actual coding process through mutual understanding by the raters.

Results

Results of Study 1

Table 3 summarises the comparison between two categorical variables: schools and ratio of Japanese to English use in the classroom. Ratios of 6:4 and over were tallied in the *high* category, 5:5 and under in the *low* category. Fisher's exact test revealed that there were no significant associations, except *teacher's L1 in task*, χ^2 (1) = 9.48, p = .003, φ = .296. This showed that the odds of upper secondary school teachers' L1 use being over 50% were 13.57 times higher than those of the lower secondary school teachers. However, the overall outcome was a greater use of L1 regardless of school or agent (i.e., teacher or learner).

Table 4 presents the mean degree of agreement on the efficacious functions of the two languages. Independent-samples t tests with Bonferroni correction compared the means of each paired item (e.g., Items 18 and 25, see Appendix A) and found no significant differences on the three pairs in *goal* (student's achievement). However, teachers assumed *understanding*, *enhancement*, and *smoothness* as efficacious functions of Japanese significantly more than they did so for English: *understanding*, t (214) = 11.45, p < .01, d = 1.56; *enhancement*, t (214) = 10.56, p < .01, d = 1.44; *smoothness*, t (214) = 7.89, p < .01, d = 1.08. However, teachers agreed on *enrichment* as an efficacious function, not of Japanese but of English, and this too was significant, t (214) = -3.10, p < .01, d = 0.42.

Table 3. Summary of Frequency in L1 (Japanese) Ratios

L1 (Japanese) use	LS (n = 59)		US (n = 49)		χ^2	p^a	φ
	Low	High	Low	High			
Teacher's L1 (task)	13	46	1	48	9.484	.003**	.296
Teacher's L1 (management)	3	56	2	47	.061	1.000**	.024
Students' L1 (task)	17	42	7	42	3.269	.103**	.174
Students' L1 (management)	0	59	2	47	2.454	.204**	-.151
Teacher to student ratio	14	45	6	43	2.340	.143**	.147

Note. LS = lower secondary school; US = upper secondary school.
[a]Fisher's exact test. ** p < .01. Bonferroni correction was applied.

Table 4. Mean Degree of Agreement on the Efficacious Functions of Japanese and English (N = 108)

Item no.	Efficacious functions	Japanese		English		t	d
		M	SD	M	SD		
18, 25	Goal (effectiveness)	4.56	0.99	4.49	1.06	0.464**	0.47
19, 26	Goal (necessity)	4.87	0.84	4.53	1.07	2.610**	0.35
20, 27	Goal (significance)	4.69	0.88	4.52	1.05	1.331**	0.18
21, 28	Understanding	5.23	0.71	3.72	1.18	11.447**	1.56
22, 29	Enhancement	5.10	0.79	3.67	1.17	10.559**	1.44
23, 30	Smoothness	4.81	0.92	3.60	1.29	7.892**	1.08
24, 31	Enrichment	4.30	1.14	4.74	0.96	-3.102**	0.42

Note. Chronbach's alpha = .90 (Japanese) and .91 (English). Bonferroni correction was applied. Item no. = number of item on questionnaire in Appendix A.
** $p < .01$.

Results of Study 2

Table 2 presents a summary of the relationship between the sources of TSE and language revealed in the interview data. Two features, embarrassment avoidance and motivation, emerged as the most common functions across source types. The functions of the four self-efficacy sources (ME, VE, SP, and PA) are presented below.

ME was the most influential source, revealing two types: *perceived former success in class* (EN) and *mastery of cognitive strategies* (JP). These source types exemplify different aspects of TSE depending on the language type. English acts as an incentive for students to learn and Japanese enhances students' understanding; both of which serve to increase TSE. For example, because she had a good relationship with students in her previous school, Kei used both English and Japanese and was able to share a bond with students through teaching strategies that motivated students to produce output. In other words, Kei believed that her deliberate alternation of language of instruction not only facilitated students' mastery of communication in English but also helped increase her self-efficacy. Ichiro, in contrast, renounced the communicative teaching method and instead espoused a target of mastering English by focusing on learners' higher cognitive abilities such as logical thinking and inferential strategies. Ichiro's efficacy stemmed from emphasising the students' preference for Japanese as a resource and their success studying in Japanese rather than the unfamiliar and artificial English. Ichiro articulated his belief by saying, "They prefer to be convinced by the reliable L1 rather than to be made confused by the unclear foreign language. They like to learn things through logical explanation."

VE was the least powerful source of the four: The coder assigned only English (no Japanese) for *learning pedagogical skills by observing models* (EN). Mie's awareness of the practices of native English-speaking teachers occasionally motivated her to imitate them to gain efficacy in her classroom. However, she and the other teachers never developed similar strategies to gain efficacy from their instructional speech in Japanese. Thus, VE contributed little to TSE via Japanese.

SP was the second most influential source with the most diverse functions. Three features were predominant: *Students' informal comments and evaluations* (both EN and JP) and *negative social responses* (non-EN). Teachers spoke of students' comments and evaluations as a strong source for efficacy building. Some teachers emphasised the importance of the motivational classroom environment, and others emphasised their own compensatory behaviour. One example is Sakura's experience of the motivational

classroom environment (EN). She believed that the extra measures that she had created for the enhancement of students' learning motivation—room preparation, interior decoration—motivated the students to refrain from using Japanese:

> The room always afforded opportunities for the small number of students to share a virtual English life. In this particular condition, they were ready . . . it didn't matter if they could speak well . . . . but they felt like using English within the space from beginning to end! (Sakura)

By using Japanese, Taro obtained similar efficacious control via the students' responses. Despite his highly proficient English, the social persuasion of his students seemed to have affected Taro's natural inclination to use Japanese and made him more aware of his capability:

> Many other teachers spoke strictly in English in the school. Nonetheless, I was, at times, a very kind teacher. I knew it . . . . [I was] usually acting as an easy teacher, using Japanese. Then students would respond to me and my class, being relaxed and open minded. All of us enjoyed the circumstances, you know. (Taro)

The third type of SP was *negative social responses* (non-EN). SP was notably associated with embarrassment avoidance by nonchoice of English, suggesting that teachers quite a few times felt they had no other choice but to use Japanese because of reservations about English, similar to the results found by Polio & Duff (1994). This type, therefore, functioned as *embarrassment avoidance*. Mie described one of her past experiences in which poor discipline made having the class in English too much of a challenge. She explained the situation as follows:

> I was at a loss what to do the moment I first became a teacher . . . . My English worked all right, however, sometimes it didn't do any good at all. I tried my best for the discipline of the students to make myself understood in English [for management], but to no avail. Then I decided to use Japanese to do so. My goal was to manage my class, anyway. (Mie)

PA was the third most influential source. Three features emerged: *positive physiological and affective states* (EN) and (JP) and *nervousness* (non-JP).

Sakura represented PA (EN) when she said, "I once successfully motivated my students to make an English-only class with humour and laughter. Yes, I know it . . . Laughter was a key factor then."

Katz used a unique vocabulary (JP) when he explained grammar to his learners; it included Japanese terms such as *maru sankaku shikaku* [circle, triangle, and square] to highlight important grammatical points. He used this particular language in every instance in the classroom. It had become an active source of Katz's self-efficacy because he felt a steady student response that made him feel efficacious. Such a sense of efficacy seemed to have made him a more reliable teacher, and he believed that it would also make his students stronger.

The other type of PA was non-JP. Because this type functioned as an emotional problem-solving feature—that is, avoiding an uncomfortable emotional state (JP) by adopting a stable counterpart (EN)—it was coded *nervousness*. Taro refrained from using Japanese and instead used English in a moment of anger caused by students' bad and slothful manners. He explained that the students' behaviour fuelled his irritation and that, despite the predominance of Japanese for instruction in his class, he expressed his frustration in English. By using English, he believed he was capable of keeping his cognition virtually unaffected by his emotions, similar to the results in Keysar, Hayakawa, & An (2012).

In sum, TSE manifested itself as having two functions: embarrassment avoidance and motivational inclination. However, these features in English (the TL) were limited in certain conditions as seen in the case of Kei's sharing bonds, Sakura's special room, and Taro's irritation, while the functions in Japanese (the L1) were cognitive and compensatory, working to alleviate the problems of TL use for foreign language learning (see De la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Littlewood & Yu, 2009).

Discussion

Study 1

Study 1 verified that the L1 was the principal language of instruction regardless of school and agent, which suggested a disproportionate use of the L1 in overall instructional speech. Previous quantitative research has presented a similar pattern. For example, Kaneko (1992) observed the utterances in one class of each of 12 EFL secondary school teachers and revealed a 71.8% use of Japanese by the teachers, with time sampling applied to the protocol data. More recently, Liu, Ahn, Baek, and Han (2004) observed the utterances in

one class of each of 13 high school EFL teachers in South Korea and showed L1 (Korean) use to be 68%.

Teachers' self-reports in the current study, however, have given us a different overview of this landscape. Although the teachers agreed on the Japanese functions in *understanding*, *enhancement*, and *smoothness*, they presented a rather mixed view on *goal* with no significant differences between Japanese and English in helping students set goals in terms of *effectiveness*, *necessity*, and *significance*. They conversely acknowledged an efficacious function of English in *enrichment*; that is, teachers held a view that the TL was a valid means of encouraging students' participation. Thus, these findings reveal teachers' complex self-efficacy pertaining to instructional speech, specifically for goal setting.

The results of Study 1 (*understanding, enhancement, smoothness,* and *goal* in Table 4) highlight the fact that teachers' English-related strategic behaviour is complex in two ways: conflicting beliefs about the function of language in goal setting and the occasional compensatory use of L1 when there is a gap in conversation or when students reach a plateau of understanding. Through interviews, Omote (2012) revealed teachers' conflicts about an English-only class, demonstrating a variety of causes of teachers' use of Japanese, such as limited chances to use English in Japanese society, limited cognitive effect, and limited effects in terms of student motivation. Omote pointed out that these limitations might undermine teachers' support for education that has mastery of English as a goal, as they influence teachers' behaviour through their beliefs about their instruction.

Study 1 may also demonstrate a sociocognitive function of L1 (see Burden, 2000; McDowell, 2009). With teachers' misgivings compensated for in part by making use of Japanese in classrooms, their self-evaluation would pay a high price for excluding the L1, which might lead to a lack of understanding, enhancement, and smooth communication. From the perspective of sociocognitive classroom interactions, therefore, miscommunications and conflicts may be connected in some way to teacher self-evaluation and self-efficacy when teachers attempt to use only the TL to communicate (see Chacón, 2005; Mak, 2011).

Study 2

Figure 2 illustrates the outcomes of Study 2, focusing on two distinctive highlights categorised by the source of TSE (an *embarrassment avoidance* function) and three-way motivational functions: (a) a motivational function under specific conditions (conditional), (b) a motivational function for

activating cognition (cognitive), and (c) a motivational function by compensation (compensatory). These three functions can be collectively referred to as CCC-motivational functions. Specifically, we should note the different qualities between English and Japanese features: the conditional function of EN, and the cognitive and compensatory functions of JP. This means that Japanese and English may alternate in teacher talk following TSE-driven functions. TSE is, therefore, associated with a change in instructional speech between English and Japanese. The primary cause of this particular efficacy-behaviour connection was the effect of students' engagement for ME and SP, suggesting that TSE may undergo fluctuation with feedback from learners' mastery or response.

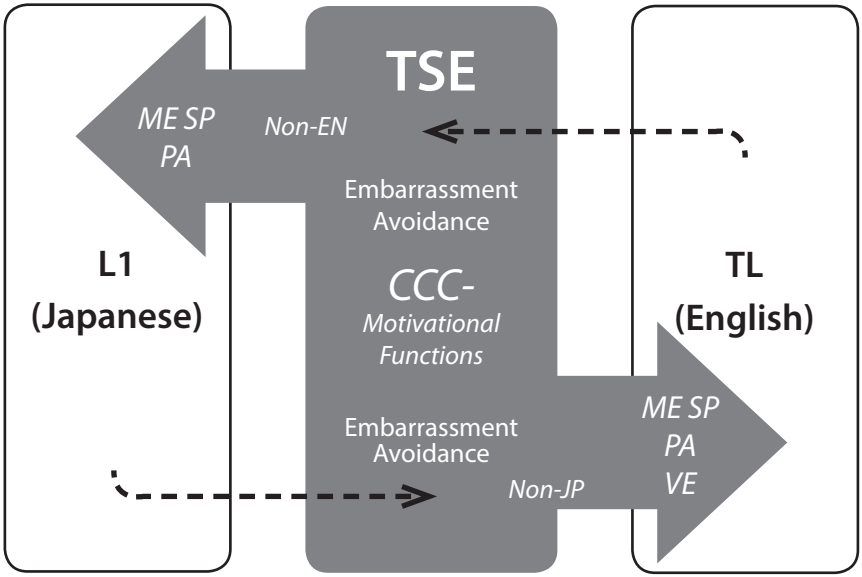

Figure 2. A conceptual scheme of the relationship between teacher self-efficacy (TSE) and language. TSE has two functions related to teachers' speech (embarrassment avoidance and conditional-, cognitive-, and compensatory-motivational functions [CCC-motivational functions]). The two large coloured arrows represent sources of self-efficacy and the direction, and the white squares (Japanese and English) represent behaviour (speech). Dotted arrows show a feedback circulation for teachers' speech optimisation in the classroom environment. ME = mastery experiences, VE = vicarious experiences, SP = social persuasions, PA = physiological and affective states; Non-EN = nonchoice of English, Non-JP = nonchoice of Japanese.

From a sociocognitive perspective, Kei's speech alternation indicates that meaningful feedback and interactions accumulated longitudinally among her efficacy, speech, and students' responses. However, this practice did not cause her efficacy to deteriorate, instead optimising it in the face of environmental difficulty (see Morris & Usher, 2011, and Weiner, 1986, for other successful teacher responses to failure). The important finding is that when supported by Japanese used as compensation or to aid students' understanding, self-efficacy can stabilise within a framework of minimum fluctuation. Support for this interpretation was in Kei's following explanation:

> After all, the kind of environment students are learning in, and how you should use it, are extremely important. My experiences taught me the lesson that I could be capable of improving students' English ability, whatever situation I may address. (Kei)

A reciprocal effect manifested itself because Kei chose Japanese not only to exert a motivational function for learners but also to enable herself to contribute to the establishment of an effective classroom environment particularly for students with little or no motivation.

On the other hand, scarcity of cognitive and affective feedback from learners limits the motivational function of teachers' using English. Sakura and Kei's efficacy from PA and ME were evidence of this. Sakura felt efficacious when she got feedback from students indicating their motivation, but this feedback was scarce. Kei shared a quite similar opinion. This led to Sakura making a strategy of carefully preparing questions to elicit such feedback, one example of which was "laughter." In this respect, Sakura's source of efficacy was derived mostly from her actions to motivate students. Sakura discussed the manipulation of laughter as a type of conditioned feedback from motivated learners:

> You need tactics to elicit laughter. Without tactics, I get less. The key is to question students so you may get good responses. You cannot get it by routine. Prepare well and then make each question motivational. Hard job, you know, but there is no other way. (Sakura)

The present study adopted mixed methods that minimise validity and reliability deficits and maximise credibility (see Creswell, 2012). However,

vulnerabilities still potentially exist. Researcher bias seems to be one of the most important because case studies can never be completely objective. Bias may also lie in participants' responses when they talk about sensitive and personal issues, such as how exactly they feel motivated in embarrassing situations (Creswell, 2012; Morris & Usher, 2011).

Another limitation is that the present study found no vicarious model of Japanese use, which is in disagreement with Morris and Usher's (2011) finding that teachers behave efficaciously through vicarious experience. There might have been a drawback in the way this study elicited vicarious experiences linked with the L1 because the primary focus of interview protocol was the English-only policy. It may be appropriate to say, therefore, that teachers paid no attention to the linkage between L1 and vicarious experience rather than to say there were no such models. In future research I will investigate the source of language teachers' self-efficacy from this point of view.

Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to identify the connection between instructional speech and the source of TSE and to suggest how teachers can use L1 Japanese and TL English for self-efficacy. First, the mixed methods study demonstrated teachers' unbalanced choice of L1 and partly verified Littlewood and Yu's (2009) hypothesis that the L1 has an influence on the functions of TSE in the cognitive and compensatory dimensions of instructional speech. Teachers' ongoing motivational engagement works for this as a primary role of TSE despite their conflicts between goal setting for and mastery learning of the targeted English (Omote, 2012), together with contingent learner feedback (Macaro, 2005).

Second, teachers' behaviour in the choice of the L1 or TL was mixed. Despite the dominant use of L1, there was distinct agreement among teachers on the effect of English on their self-efficacy in terms of enrichment or students' active participation. Nishino (2012) illustrated how students' conditions influence classroom practices: "Teacher cognition is situated in their own local contexts, and teachers generally think about their students' conditions" (p. 392). Therefore, TSE should be partly influenced by both languages to different degrees depending on which of the students' goals (i.e., entrance examinations, communication, and classwork) the teacher is targeting in foreign language learning (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Turnbull, 2001).

The present study revealed that teachers' speech hinges on a fluctuating sense of TSE. Two powerful functions of the instructional speech emerged

connected with TSE: (a) an embarrassment buffer, which operated to avoid and alleviate a contingent classroom difficulty (see Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009), and (b) an agentic motivation keeper, which worked more longitudinally across languages to maintain self-efficacy in learning and teaching. However, the function in the speech differed between languages, with the English function being conditional and the Japanese function being cognitive and compensatory, which eventually yielded L1 dominancy in the language of instruction.

The study shed light on the issue of maximising and optimising instructional speech. The results supported the idea that a teacher can optimise instructional language as well as maximise TSE. At the same time, however, the results showed that maximisation of the target of enrichment and goal setting has yet to be adequately attempted. To this end, therefore, we should consider three points.

First, there is a caveat regarding how TSE forms and functions with instructional speech, what Turnbull (2001) called an overreliance on the L1: Dominance of the L1 implies its unnecessary use or overreliance on it. This may be partly attributed to the disagreement and insufficient guidance about how and to what extent teachers should decrease the L1 to boost the use of TL. The present data, in this regard, demonstrate a potential impact of TSE that would enhance the choice of TL in certain particular conditions, as was partially shown in Kei's, Mie's, Sakura's, and Taro's cases. Importantly, however, TSE may influence various dimensions of coursework norms (e.g., classroom management, communication, examinations). This aspect of TSE might help students to understand the TL. However, understanding of the TL does not necessarily lead to a significant goal setting and enrichment (or active participation) in the language classrooms, as the data have shown in the current studies.

Another assumed factor is social. As Katz and Ichiro illustrated, for example, teachers opt to use the L1 themselves to maintain TSE. They used the L1 not due to overreliance but rather for social purposes such as to adapt to students' cognitive and socioeconomic conditions. Alternatively, those teachers' previous learning experiences affected TSE; they regarded their own past experiences of learning grammar for university entrance examinations as a practical purpose for learning English at the secondary school level. Because a large number of junior and high school level teachers with the aim of preparing students for the entrance examination use the L1 to remain efficacious (Nishino, 2012; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008), this type of teacher belief could form a situational source of self-efficacy and eventually

a bias towards L1 use. Various modifications of the school situation, including the entrance examination system, might make a difference in teachers' experiences and how this affects their efficacy.

Third, the dynamics of TSE predict a further implication: the possibility for a new kind of teacher training with the goal of optimisation of TSE. Given that efficacy is pivotal in the change from one event into another, the alternative turns from one language to another will greatly depend on the contingent nature of the environment as well as on the students' feedback to the teacher (i.e., Mie's nonchoice of English or Taro's refusal to use Japanese, both of which function as embarrassment avoidance). Morris and Usher (2011) pointed out that an awareness of self-efficacy for self-regulation can allow teachers to behave proactively and confidently during negative events and to dispel misgivings of failure in a task. Therefore, teacher training for this kind of self-regulatory competence—separate from the traditional practice of core linguistic proficiency—is significant and helpful for teachers to maintain self-efficacy with respect to better instructional speech such as, for example, reduction and refinement of L1 use and to enhance the greater use of the TL. More specifically, as both L1 and TL remain inextricably tied in a given context of instructional speech, the ability of the teacher to focus on how best to use the L1 matters most for the enhancement of TL use. Moreover, discussing the ways teachers can qualitatively refine or reduce use of the L1 will virtually open the door to global approaches, such as MEXT's (2014) reforms or the promotion of English as an international language (Marlina, 2013). Therefore, it would give us a further idea of how to turn a foreign language into an additional language in an authentic sense.

The current studies represent a new interpretation for future investigations about the relationship of self-efficacy with instructional speech in Japan. Because of complex classroom circumstances (speaking targeted content through targeted language) and environment (speaking in a limited environment and condition), there is no monolithic way to predict the best dynamics of instructional speech. However, it is not a particular language but a behaviour that motivates classroom agents, conveys meanings, affects teacher and student self-efficacy, and enhances local interactions. In this respect, this study provides the first clue as to how teaching experiences keep teachers efficacious and how they foster effective functions in EFL settings.

Akihiro Omote is currently a student in a MSc program jointly provided by the Birkbeck, University of London, and UCL-IOE (University College London, Institute of Education).

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Appendix A

Study 1: Questionnaire About Instructional Speech (Original in Japanese)

This questionnaire investigates your reflection on your instructional speech (in Japanese and English) in the classroom with a view to exploring more effective foreign language teaching and learning. Responses will be statistically calculated for numerical data such as means or percentages. Your complete anonymity will be secured.

Part 1: About Yourself

1. Sex:	male	female				
2. Mother tongue:	Japanese	other ( )				
3. Age:	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	over 60	
4. Years of career experience:						
	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	over 26
5. School:	1. elementary			2. lower secondary		
	3. upper secondary (normal)			4. upper secondary (vocational)		
	5. vocational college			6. university		
6. Grade:	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th

Part 2: About Your Class

Imagine one main class if you teach more than two classes now.

7. The goal: 1. writing 2. reading 3. listening 4. speaking
5. multi-purpose 6. other ( )

Hereinafter, please answer the questions about the class you chose in Item 7.

8. Students' L1: 1. only Japanese 2. Japanese + other ( )
3. Japanese + others 4. other language ( )

9. Class size: 1. less than 10 2. 11-20 3. 21-30 4. 31-40
5. 41 or more

10. Estimation of students' overall current achievement:
1. 0-20% 2. 21-40% 3. 41-60%
4. 61-80% 5. 81-100%

11. The instruction style is relatively:
1. learner-centered 2. even 3. teacher-centered

12. Main activities relatively focused on:
1. communication 2. even
3 reading comprehension/drills

13. Reflection on the ratio of Japanese (L1) to English (FL) in teacher's speech in tasks (e.g., 4:6 in a total of 10):

L1 : FL = _____ : _____

14. Reflection on the ratio of L1 to FL teacher speech in the classroom management

L1 : FL = _____ : _____

15. Reflection on the ratio of L1 to FL speech in students' task

L1 : FL = _____ : _____

16. Reflection on the ratio of L1 to FL students' speech in the classroom management

L1 : FL = _____ : _____

17. Reflection on the ratio of your speech to students' speech in the class

You : Ss = _____ : _____

Part 3

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the items below showing the efficacious function of Japanese/English on the 6-point scale. Please circle the number that most appropriately matches your opinion about the classroom you imagined in the items above. Even if you agree 50% with the item, please choose either 3 or 4.

1. I do not agree at all (0%).
2. I agree a little (up to 20%).
3. I do not agree much (up to 40%).
4. I agree somewhat (up to 60%).
5. I agree mostly (up to 80%).
6. I agree very much (up to 100%).

A. I feel that Japanese in my class is efficacious because it:

		0%	~20%	~40%	~60%	~80%	~100%
18.	is effective in goal achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	is necessary for goal achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	is significant for goal achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	is helpful to understand learning contents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	is helpful to enhance understanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	smoothens the learning activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	enriches learning during learning activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6

B. I feel that English in my class is efficacious because it:

25.	is effective in goal achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	is necessary for goal achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	is significant for goal achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	is helpful to understand learning contents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	is helpful to enhance understanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	smoothens the learning activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	enriches learning during learning activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix B

Study 2: Interview Protocol

Questions asked
1. What learning experiences did you have prior to becoming a teacher? Explain.
• Do you recall something motivational about your own mastery of English?
• Do you recall a teacher who had a great influence on your efficacy?
2. What mastery experiences have made you efficacious?
• How do you know that a given lesson has or has not gone well in terms of speech? Explain.
3. Can you pinpoint some powerful vicarious influences on your teaching efficacy?
• Can you recall things you have observed that made you efficacious as a teacher? Explain.
4. Can you recall something students or other teachers have said or shown about your teaching?
• Did the comment they made to you increase or decrease your efficacy? Explain.
5. Identify some of the most prominent feelings and emotions that you experience while teaching.
• Which feelings or emotions have most profoundly influenced your efficacy? Explain.
6. Tell me advantages and disadvantages that teachers face in relation to the English-only policy.

Note. Modified from Morris and Usher (2011).

Misinterpreting Japanese Student Collaboration in the L2 Classroom

Joshua Alexander Kidd
Kidd International
Utsunomiya University (EPUU)

In this study, I examined points arising in L2 English activities during which Japanese students resolved to collaborate with classmates. These points included moments when students were specifically instructed to work alone, were rebuked for collaborating, or both. Of issue here was that the value and meaning ascribed by the English native speaker (NS) teachers to Japanese students' spontaneous peer collaboration (SPC) reflected a prevailing assumption about L1 collaboration: that students were off task, were less proficient members of the class, or lacked motivation. The study explored the miscommunication that could result as students upheld what they viewed as an acceptable classroom behaviour, namely peer support through verbal collaboration, while simultaneously attempting to gain teacher recognition as competent and engaged members of the class. Candid student insights illustrated that during language-learning activities students should be given greater freedom to collaborate when and with whom they desire without fear that this will negatively impact how their performance is perceived by the instructor.

本研究は、日本人生徒が英語でのL2活動中に他のクラスメイトと協力しようとする時に生じる問題点を考察する。対象となる場面は、個人で活動するように事前に指導を受けた場合、他の生徒と協力しようとし注意された場合、その両方の場合である。ここでの問題は、日本人生徒が授業中に自発的にピア・コラボレーション(SPC)することに関し、英語母語話者(NS)の教師は、母語での共同作業では生徒は集中せず、生徒のクラス内での能力は低く、モチベーションがないと判断してしまうことだ。この研究では、生徒がクラスルーム内で許される行為だと思う事をする事によって起こるミスコミュニケーションを扱う。これらのミスコミュニケーションは、生徒が自分は有能で真剣に取り組んでいるという事を先生に理解してもらおうとすると共に、言葉を通じて

協力することで得られる生徒間のサポートに関してである。生徒の率直な意見からは、外国語を勉強する為の活動中は、先生にマイナス評価をされる心配なく、生徒は自由にいつでも誰とでも協力できるべきと感じていることが分かった。

For the language teacher working across cultures it can be challenging to avoid unintentionally imposing pragmatic expectations on students, given that aspects of one's own culture and how these are manifested in the classroom are not always identifiable. Unfamiliar pragmatic expectations with regard to the production and interpretation of language in the classroom can be confusing and disorienting for students when there are culturally different perceptions of what constitutes classroom appropriateness. An obstacle to identifying the motivations behind pragmatic norms lies in the very fact that divergence between the L1 and L2 may not be observable, unless of course violations of these assumed norms interfere with communicative objectives. Recognising variance in pragmatic norms and avoiding cross-cultural misunderstanding is complicated by the fact that the teacher is informed by background, experiences, beliefs, and professional knowledge that may not always be compatible with student expectations (see Borg, 2006, and Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, for discussion of teacher education and beliefs). Moreover, in the cross-cultural classroom, we can assume that there are certain shared patterns by which students express themselves, interact, interpret language, and behave that do not always align with the knowledge and schematic framework that teachers bring to the classroom (Archer, Aijmer, & Wichmann, 2012).

Building on a previous proposal that there may be differences between what teachers and their students consider to be standard and conventionally acceptable language use and behaviour (Kidd, 2016), in this study the role of student-initiated spontaneous L1 collaboration in the L2 classroom was explored. Given that L1 collaborative exchanges serve key functions in SLA (Bao & Du, 2015; Swain, Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller, 2002), awareness of potential differences in pragmatic dimensions of collaboration as performed and interpreted during L2 activities can enable teachers to avoid ascribing their own perceptions of appropriateness and better predict points of possible cross-cultural misunderstandings. To this end, English native speaker (NS) teachers' interpretations of their Japanese students' L1 collaborative exchanges with peers during L2 activities were examined and compared with students' reflections on their own collaborative language use. The next three sections present a brief introduction to pragmatic variance, an overview of L1 use in the L2 classroom, and a working description of spontaneous peer collaboration. The fifth section outlines the research methodology

and introduces the participants and setting. The sixth and seventh sections consist of an analysis of student collaboration as revealed through teacher and student feedback. The article concludes with a discussion of the potential pedagogical applications in the L2 classroom.

Cross-Cultural Pragmatic Variation in the L2 Classroom

An issue that many language teachers will frequently encounter during L2 activities is that their students initiate L1 oral exchanges with classmates. Student collaboration in the mother tongue challenges the teacher not only to consider cognitive and social aspects of the L1 in L2 acquisition but also to determine whether or not students require guidelines outlining when and for what purposes the L1 should be collaboratively employed. As the balance of power in the classroom typically favours the teacher, opportunities for students to express their views on L1 use tend to be limited. Consequently, it can be challenging for students to harness a range of L1 pragmatic and sociolinguistic abilities associated with collaboration. Assumptions as to the appropriateness of collaborative L1 exchanges are primarily determined by the teacher and may not always be consistent with those upheld and valued by students. Despite acknowledging the potential for cross-cultural variation, even the experienced and well-intentioned teacher is likely at times to misinterpret student motivations and interactive objectives at times when students collaborate with peers.

The pragmatic rules for language use, as Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003) observed, "are often subconscious, and even native speakers are often unaware of pragmatic rules until they are broken (and feelings are hurt or offense is taken)" (p. 1). Culturally informed expectations of communicative norms operate on all levels and inform verbal and nonverbal interactional practices employed to achieve goals such as upholding rank and role while avoiding imposition in a given situation. Noting the potential for divergence in pragmatic forms, Archer et al. (2012) argued, "A problem that arises frequently in interaction between people of different cultures is that one participant or group is perceived by the other to be impolite" (p. 110). The meaning teachers assign to their students' linguistic behaviour in collaborative exchanges is shaped by factors that are so ingrained that they are not always known or evident to the individual.

The notion of *culture of learning* draws attention to "the often implicit values, expectations and interpretations of learning and teaching which frame ideas and pedagogic practices" (Jin & Cortazzi, 2011, p. 114). These socially transmitted values associated with expectations of educational practices in-

fluence pedagogic practices and shape notions regarding "good" teacher and student classroom performances. Teachers' knowledge of their own teaching practices, the result of their own learning and teaching experiences, is embedded in their practices and attitudes towards themselves and their students. These notions are manifest in attitudes pertaining to areas such as rank, roles, and classroom expectations and to broader issues such as the objectives of education. Recognising the potential for variance in pragmatic norms requires a level of awareness of social norms, cultural reasoning, and the impact of language on the interlocutor (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Points of disparity regarding the pragmatic norms by which students and their teachers view L1 collaboration in terms of classroom appropriateness and communicative objectives can give rise to incompatible expectations and interpretations of classroom collaborative practices.

L1 Use in the L2 Classroom

The role of students' native language in the classroom by the teacher, the students, or both remains a topic of debate among researchers. The position that a monolingual approach facilitates L2 acquisition borrows from claims that the quantity of exposure is critical and informs the view that the target language should be the only language allowed in the classroom. Challenging this premise, a large number of researchers have argued that the L1 provides considerable benefits such as lowering the affective filter, making input more comprehensible, connecting with the students' identity, and creating better understanding of tasks to ensure successful task completion (see Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Levine, 2003; Meyer, 2008; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009).

Arguments calling for a compromise promote a language-learning context that does not deny the value of either the learners' L1 or the L2. A controlled approach to the L1 as a temporary measure for rendering the L2 comprehensible found support from Butzkamm (2003) who argued that "with growing proficiency in the foreign language, the use of the MT [mother tongue] becomes largely redundant and the FL [foreign language] will stand on its own two feet" (p. 36). Similarly, Meyer (2008) made the case that it is critical to maximise the L2 and the "L1's primary role is to supply scaffolding to lower affective filters by making the L2 and the classroom environment comprehensible" (p. 157). Advocates targeting this middle-ground position have argued that the L1 promotes distinct cognitive advantages when judiciously employed in the language classroom.

Stressing that the use of the L1 is commonplace, Bao and Du (2015) argued, "L1 use should be acknowledged as an instinctive process that can facilitate learners' involvement in verbal interactional processes" (p. 19). Recognising and embracing the social and cognitive functions of the L1 are not only pedagogically sound but are also critical to establishing and upholding culturally inclusive L2 teaching practices that embrace student identities. Research has demonstrated that learner identity is intrinsically associated with the process of language learning (Block, 2007; Norton, 2013). The language classroom, as a setting for identity construction, can impose restrictions on the learners as they seek to align or not with the kinds of identities made available by the teacher. Given learners' awareness of their cultural and social identities in language use, creating a place for the L1 in the classroom not only carries pedagogic benefits but also sends a message to students that they can position themselves and modify or align with multiple identities. This relationship between language learning and identity was framed by Norton and Toohey (2002) as follows:

> Language learning engages the identities of students because language itself is not only a linguistic system of signs and symbols; it is also a complex social practice in which the value and meaning ascribed to an utterance are determined in part by the value and meaning ascribed to the person who speaks. (p. 115)

Given that research has identified ways in which L1 use can serve as an effective social and cognitive tool to facilitate L2 acquisition and that L1 use is closely tied to culture and identity, the question is no longer whether L1 use should be included in language classrooms. Rather, what is required now is the identification of how much, in what situations, and for what functions the L1 can be efficiently and meaningfully employed.

Spontaneous Peer Collaboration

L2 learning studies examining collaboration and the social nature of learning have drawn extensively on the framework of sociocultural theory (SCT), which regards cognition and knowledge as constructed through social interaction (Lantolf, 2000; Morita, 2000; Ohta, 2000). Implicit in this notion is the position that language itself is not only the learning objective but also a mediated means to achieve this goal. Language acquisition is viewed not as an individual endeavour but rather as a collaborative process that en-

hances learners' abilities to acquire higher order functions through various socially mediated activities. Bao and Du (2015) underscored that "through speaking, we mediate our reasoning process, alter our ways of thinking, and develop a mutual understanding of the communicated information in order for us to act and solve problems" (p. 13). Spontaneous collaboration, as a cognitive tool that creates a social space where learners support each other through scaffolding, enables learners to perform as experts and novices in solving problems and co-constructing knowledge. Swain (2000) explained collaborative dialogue as a process of engagement in problem solving and knowledge building in which "language use and language learning can co-occur. It is language use mediating language learning. It is cognitive activity and it is social activity" (p. 97). Collaboration with peers provides learning opportunities not only for novice learners, but more proficient learners can also benefit from the dialogic interaction given that learners' status over a series of interactions is fluid rather than fixed (Donato, 1994).

The term *spontaneous peer collaboration* (SPC) is used to delineate situations in which students engage classmates, primarily in the L1, with the intention of negotiating meaning through soliciting, transmitting, or corroborating information related to the L2 learning task (Kidd, 2016). These moments are differentiated from points during L2 activities when students are directed by the teacher to work with peers such as in pair- or group-work activities. The point of differentiation is that students, not the teacher, claim control of the exchange timing, content, turn taking, and choice of interlocutors. Foster and Ohta's (2005) investigation of classroom negotiation illustrated that students actively sought peer co-construction and prompting when engaged in classroom tasks. The researchers surmised that "students expressed interest and encouragement while seeking and providing assistance and initiating self-repair of their own utterances, all in the absence of communication breakdowns" (p. 402). The findings suggest that upholding supportive discourse was prioritised by students over achieving entirely comprehensible input.

An increasing number of L2 studies drawing on SCT have demonstrated that meaning derived through language use within the social context plays an important role in language learning (Kobayashi, 2003; Lantolf, 2000; Morita, 2000; Ohta, 2000; Swain, Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller, 2002). Among other things, SCT holds that learning ensues in various places and forms and that students bring their own cultural, social, and individual frames of reference to their interactions. Although SCT has shed light on peer interaction and implications for L2 learning and teaching, there has been little attention

to the communicative intentions associated with spontaneous peer L1 collaborative exchanges initiated by students in the L2 classroom context and the implications of such SPC for L2 learning and teaching.

Method

Purpose of the Study

This study focused on Japanese L2 English learners' L1 interaction while engaging in spontaneous collaborative exchanges with peers (in which they were not assigned roles by the teacher). The researcher investigated how the learners interpreted their interactive peer exchanges and how they felt these exchanges were being interpreted by the teacher. The study was aimed at identifying when and for what purposes the students collaborated with peers during L2 activities. The students' subjective interpretations of their own language use and behaviour were examined with attention to the teachers' interpretations of student collaboration and with a view to identifying points of cross-cultural pragmatic disparity that interfered with learning and identity alignment.

Participants and Setting

The participants were a class of 40 Japanese students aged 18 to 22 (34 women and 6 men) attending a 3-year nursing college. The college is located in a small rural town and attached to a rapidly expanding hospital complex where students engage in clinical practice and are employed following graduation. Six rows of precisely positioned desks face a lectern, whiteboard, and screen. Students are assigned desks for the semester and, with the exception of clinical visits and lunch, spend the majority of their day in the classroom with different subject teachers visiting. The desks are not fixed, making it possible for teachers to adopt varying configurations to facilitate pair- or group-work activities when desired. As part of course requirements, students are required to complete an English speaking and listening program convened twice weekly and instructed by part-time NS teachers over the 15-week semester.

Design and Data Collection

Conducted over a 4-week period, the study focused on incidents of SPC from the perspectives of four NS teachers and their students. (See Table 1 for teacher information.) Data were collected from the following sources: video

recordings of classroom interaction, researcher observations of English classes, teacher focus group discussion sessions, and retrospective student interviews. To collect samples of the students' collaborative exchanges, the students agreed to have two video cameras placed on either side of the classroom. All participants self-selected and pseudonyms have been used throughout to afford anonymity.

Table 1. Teacher Information

Teacher	Sex / age	Country of origin	Teaching qualification	Years teaching in Japan	Level taught
Haley	F / 45	U.S.A.	MA TESOL	15	2nd
Kerrie	F / 42	U.S.A.	MA TESOL	11	2nd
Michael	M / 54	U.K.	MA TESOL	19	1st
Randal	M / 43	Australia	MA TESOL	12	1st

Following English activities, classroom video recordings were viewed and points during which the students initiated verbal exchanges with classmates were identified and logged for explication in retrospective interviews. Logged episodes were employed as visual stimuli and students were encouraged to share their attitudes towards their own behaviour and language use (see Gass & Mackey, 2000; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Students were shown 24 episodes of collaborative peer exchanges that occurred during L2 activities:

- 5 cases—individual student was asked by teacher to answer a question,
- 5 cases—teacher explained learning activity to whole class,
- 4 cases—students did a reading comprehension activity,
- 4 cases—teacher directed a correction,
- 3 cases—students did CD listening activity, and
- 3 cases—teacher explained vocabulary or grammatical structures.

Data were segmented and labelled with *in vivo* codes, and recurring patterns of student attitudes, behaviour, and shared language use were identified. Students' subjective insights into their own language discourse and behaviour during collaborative exchanges were examined with attention to the use of peer collaboration as a means to avert error, avoid monopolising teacher time, and facilitate comprehension (see Kidd, 2016). Examples of participant feedback representative of the findings are presented to illustrate internal connections in the data.

Stimulated Recall

Stimulated recall (SR), an introspective method of data collection in which one is prompted via visual or oral stimulus, encourages participants to recall and report on thoughts and motivations entertained while engaged in specific activities or tasks. Based on the view that one can be encouraged by a visual reminder to recall thoughts one has had while performing a recently accomplished task, SR methodology provides access to the link between discourse and cognition (Dörnyei, 2007). Verbal reports, conducted soon after L2 activities to reduce potential memory loss due to time lapse, have been employed by researchers to reconstruct the psycholinguistic processes of speakers through the aid of stimulus (Cohen, 2004). Tangible stimulus is regarded as a means by which to "stimulate recall of the mental processes in operation during the event itself." Thereby "access to memory structures is enhanced" (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 17) without placing the same demands on memory retrieval as post hoc interviews or think-aloud protocols that require extensive training of participants (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 18). By examining verbal report data, researchers seek to understand "what the respondents actually perceived about each situation (e.g., what they perceived about the relative role status of the interlocutors) and how their perceptions influenced their responses" (Cohen, 2004, p. 321).

Given that the emphasis is on the recollection of retrievable information rather than rationalisation, SR is a useful research tool for observing the connection between discourse and cognition in the classroom (Keyes, 2000; Plaut, 2006; Sime, 2006; Yoshida, 2008). Although an advantage of SR is that tangible stimulus enhances recall while minimising demands on memory retrieval, there is nevertheless a need to triangulate with observable classroom data to increase validity and reliability, because if cognitive processing is unconscious, then internal processes may be inaccessible or susceptible to erroneous reporting (Dörnyei, 2007).

Results: Teacher Insights

The following section presents the teachers' views of their students' L1 collaboration as revealed in focus group discussions during which classroom recordings were viewed. The teachers' observations are examined with attention to three themes: collaboration as an indication that students were (a) off task, (b) struggling with content, or (c) interfering with the teachers' desire to assist learners.

Teacher Reflections on Student Collaboration

Teacher feedback illustrated that in many, though not all, cases SPC was negatively viewed by teachers as it was associated with behaviours determined to be inappropriate and counterproductive to their teaching and learning objectives in the L2 classroom. For example, teachers reacted critically to situations when an individual student was nominated to answer a question and then proceeded to consult a classmate prior to venturing a response. In addition, SPC was cited by the teachers as interfering with their abilities to meet lesson objectives and to assess student comprehension of content. In 17 of the 24 cases, the teachers indicated that they felt collaboration was inappropriate as the learning task warranted independent student participation. When asked how they would have preferred students to respond, the teachers responded that they wanted to be directly petitioned for help in order to make available the appropriate instructional support.

Participating teachers indicated that they had intermediate to advanced Japanese proficiency and were confident that they could understand the content of student exchanges. Given the timing and content of SPC, the teachers expressed the view that direct intervention to limit or prevent collaboration was necessary and appropriate when students were expected to work independently. Intervention was typically a direct demand for the students to "work alone," stated in both Japanese and English. As explanation, teacher Michael commented, "There are opportunities for group and pair work, but there are times we need students to work alone. I don't expect students to work alone all of the time, but there are definitely times when they need to." Asked when individual participation was viewed as a requirement, Michael responded, "There are many situations; I'd say assessment, examinations, homework, listening . . . basically the activities when I need to gauge who does or doesn't understand." Instructor Kerrie added, "It's disrespectful to turn and ask someone for help when asked a question. If you don't know just tell me and I will help. That's why I'm here." Kerrie further explained, "It's embarrassing when I'm standing there watching the whole thing unfold. I might ask a question and the student just turns away and asks another student. I'm directly in front watching and waiting till they're done. It's really rude."

Teacher Assumption 1: Collaboration Indicates Students Are Off Task

Drawing on their professional experiences in the classroom, the teachers commented that peer exchanges often did not relate to the content of lessons and represented an unwelcome distraction that needed to be closely

monitored and discouraged. Kerrie noted, "It's impossible to progress with the lesson when students aren't paying attention or half listening because it takes so much longer to understand the content." Teacher Randal reflected, "It's critical to keep control to make sure everyone's focused"; and Haley added, "If it ends up being a chat, maybe about what was on TV last night, it can quickly escalate. It's hard to get back to the lesson." Haley underscored that the teachers were not always opposed to collaboration: "I don't think that any of us are against students having a quick word from time to time in Japanese. It's just that students need to be focused during activities to get the most out of them."

Although teacher concern that student L1 talk is off task and counter-productive to L2 acquisition is not uncommon, research has found that this assumption is far from conclusive (see Bao & Du, 2015; Carless, 2007; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Swain and Lapkin's (2000) examination of L1 use by grade 8 French immersion students found that contrary to their teachers' expectations, only 12% of L1 interaction was off-task talk. The L1 was found to serve critical cognitive and social functions, leading the researchers to conclude that "to insist that no use be made of the L1 in carrying out tasks that are both linguistically and cognitively complex is to deny the use of an important cognitive tool" (pp. 268-9). Algería de la Colina and del Pilar García Mayo's (2009) examination of undergraduate EFL learners L1 use while engaged in collaborative tasks found little to no off-task behaviour, leading to the conclusion that "the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom does not mean lack of involvement in the tasks" (p. 342). The researchers stressed that the L1 functioned as a cognitive tool by which students could access L2 forms, focus attention, and retain semantic meaning. These findings are consistent with the results reported by Bao and Du (2015), which revealed only 4% off-task L1 use by students learning Chinese. Among other things, data illustrated that the L1 provided essential cognitive support in clarifying task content, establishing goals, and assessing L2 grammatical forms.

Teacher Assumption 2: Collaboration Denotes L2 Limitations

Teacher feedback suggested that SPC was assumed to flag a less competent or unmotivated member of the class seeking the assistance of a capable classmate, the assumption here being that this alliance would enable the weaker student to bridge comprehension difficulties, avoid "hard work," or both. In Michael's words: "It's a response to the level of difficulty. If they don't know the answer some students just ask a classmate. It's much easier when you have a friend to ask." This view was upheld by Randal who com-

mented, "I think that it can be a way to cope for those students who don't really want to be studying or struggle . . . or perhaps those who are a little bit lazy." Asked how they responded to SPC when it was assumed to be an issue of L2 comprehension, Randal responded, "I say something like, 'If you don't know that's fine, that's part of learning. Always ask me because the question you have is probably something other students want to know too.'" Kerrie indicated that when the student soliciting assistance was viewed as struggling with lesson content, yet failing to commit the effort she expected, her approach was to say something like, "I really do expect more effort from you. It's disappointing when you're not doing your best." The teacher further commented, "This approach can encourage students to take on responsibility for their behaviour in class."

Teacher Assumption 3: Collaboration Undermines Teacher Role and Rank

Randal voiced concern that by drawing on classmates, students interfered with his ability to aid them in the way he desired: "It makes it hard to do my job because there's no chance to identify the problem or include supplementary instruction." This sentiment was backed by Kerrie, who noted, "It's a waste not to ask me when I'm right here. I want to help out." Alluding to the threat to professional standing, Haley commented, "It's rude to ignore me and ask a student. I say something to let the student know I want to be asked." She further illuminated, "It sends the wrong kind of message to the other students if you let it go." Asked to elaborate what this message was, she explained, "Basically that we aren't here to help. We aren't really needed. Maybe they're better off asking classmates who speak Japanese." The teachers interpreted student collaboration as undermining their ability to instruct and thereby undermining their professional identities.

Result: Student Insights

In this section, the students' insights into their own spontaneous L1 peer exchanges are considered as a means to (a) avert errors, (b) avoid monopolising teacher time, and (c) facilitate comprehension through peer knowledge and jointly constructed performance.

Student Reflections on Peer Collaboration

Classroom recordings revealed that a distinctive feature of SPC was that students initiated exchanges with classmates irrespective of whether or

not they were being directly observed by the teacher. Students were aware of the teachers' negative views of collaboration, and this was a source of frustration leading to critical feelings towards both the teacher and the L2. Nevertheless, asked whether teacher intervention deterred her from collaborating, student Miho stated that it would do so, but only temporarily. Feedback from student Kanako suggested that collaboration was viewed as an acceptable and standard classroom behaviour that, among other things, facilitated participation and enhanced confidence: "私は答えをいう前にクラスメイトと答えを確認したい。友達と確認できると、もっと自信をもてる気がする。少しリラックスできる感じがする" [I want to check my answers with classmates before I answer. I think I can feel more confident if I can check with my friends. It's like I can relax a little]. Students disputed the inference that collaboration represented a violation of classroom practices, suggesting that it was a means by which to avert errors, manage risk, avoid monopolising teacher time, and seek confirmation.

An important point to consider is that the participants were 1st-year students; they were making the transition from 50-minute high school English classes taught by Japanese teachers primarily in the L1 to an English program with 90-minute classes instructed by NS teachers primarily in the L2. An important consequence of dependence on the L1 in English lessons at the junior and senior high school levels is that students have been conditioned to rely on L1 support to understand L2 content (Stephens, 2006). Consequently, students may presume that they have not comprehended a concept unless it is accompanied by Japanese and perceive exclusive use of the target language as "a violation of the known classroom culture" (Burden, 2001, p. 5).

Student Insight 1: Collaboration to Avert Error and Manage Risk

SPC was a means by which students dealt with potential anxiety associated with errors committed in front of the teacher and classmates. In student Miho's words: "もし間違えたら、みんなが私の事をバカだと思うのが心配" [If I make a mistake, I'm worried that everyone will think that I'm stupid]. Similarly, Kanako commented, "間違えたら、恥ずかしいから本当に間違えたくない" [I really don't want to make a mistake because it's embarrassing]. Nakane's (2006) examination of intercultural communication between Japanese university students and NS lecturers found that students consider speaking in front of the class potentially embarrassing and view it as a "big deal." Similarly, Kidd's (2016) examination of Japanese students' L2 classroom interaction found that speaking in front of the class was regarded as a significant threat

to face, often mitigated through collaboration and joint student responses.

The potential threat to face (Brown & Levinson, 1978) is compounded if students are unfamiliar with L2 course demands and lack rapport with classmates and the teacher. In addition, Nation (2003) noted that "using the L2 can be a source of embarrassment particularly for shy learners and those who feel they are not very proficient in the L2" (p. 2). Tani's (2008) examination of Asian university students' participation found that "low levels of in-class participation from Asian students are mostly caused by anxiety and fear of making mistakes in public rather than individual characteristics or learning approaches" (p. 351). The implication that fear of error is taken seriously and risks are managed in part by soliciting classmates prior to venturing a contribution is illustrated in the student feedback: "みんなの前で間違えることが大嫌いなので私は美保と答えについて話していた。もしも私がみんなの前で間違えたら、私が頭悪いということがみんなにばれてしまうと感じる" [I was talking to Miho about the answer because I hate making mistakes in front of everyone. If I make a mistake I feel like everyone will discover I'm stupid].

Student Insight 2: Collaboration to Avoid Monopolising Teacher Time

Collaboration was employed to avoid monopolising the teacher's time and potentially interfering with classmates' opportunities for instruction. Moreover, students expressed concern that individual attempts to confirm material or seek comprehension would restrict class progress. Kanako indicated that she was anxious to avoid questions of little relevance to her classmates: "先生が忙しいのは分かってるから、先生に時間をとらせたくない。他の生徒は答えをもう分かってるかもしれないから私が授業の時間を使って聞いたらみんなに平等じゃない" [I know the teacher is busy so I don't want to use his time. Other students might already know the answer so it's not really fair if I use the class time to ask]. Similarly, student Kotomi commented, "先生がそのままレッスンを続けられるように、クラスメイトに聞くのが一番だと思う" [I think it's best if I ask classmates so that the teacher can continue with the lesson]. In this way, collaboration enabled students to avoid monopolising teacher time when comprehension difficulties were felt not to be shared.

Kotomi explained that she determined whether to consult the teacher based on the amount of time she assumed a teacher response would require: "もし小さい事で先生がすぐ直せる事なら先生に聞いてもいいけど、時間がかかるって分かってて私だけの為の事なら聞かない" [If it's a small thing that the teacher can fix quickly then I don't mind asking the teacher, but if I know it's going to take time and it's just for me then I won't ask]. Student Shunsuke commented that "何か大切な事だったら、授業後先生に聞く" [If it's something

important then I ask the teacher after class]. Shunsuke's willingness to approach the teacher after class suggests that collaboration was not intended to conceal comprehension difficulties but rather was an accessible means by which to resource class knowledge in reciprocal exchanges without imposing on the teacher or obstructing progress.

Student Insight 3: Collaboration to Facilitate L2 Comprehension

Confirmation of lesson content through peer collaboration was cited by students as a standard classroom practice. Kanako commented, "私にとって分からない事をクラスメイトと話すのは普通。私はそうやって学ぶから" [It's usual to talk about the things I don't know with classmates. That's how I learn]. Foster and Ohta's (2005) examination of classroom negotiation found that students actively assisted each other to conduct tasks through co-construction and prompting, noting that "learners expressed interest and encouragement while seeking and providing assistance and initiating self-repair of their own utterances, all in the absence of communication breakdowns" (p. 402). In support of this position, Kidd (2016) found that Japanese students employed collaborative exchanges to ascertain solutions to challenging content and to collectively generate ideas. Students did not regard exchanges as a less competent student soliciting information from a more competent peer but rather as mutually beneficial.

When teacher intervention blocked student collaborative efforts, this undermined expectations of classroom appropriateness, leaving students feeling frustrated and without a viable means to establish comprehension. In Shunsuke's words: "私たちが質問について話しているだけなのに、先生はそれをなんで止めようとしたのか分からない" [I really don't know why the teacher tried to stop us when we were just talking about the question]. Illustrating the importance of L1 collaborative exchanges, Algería de la Colina and del Pilar García Mayo (2009) found that it provided university students with essential cognitive support through enabling access to L2 forms, focusing attention, retaining semantic meaning, and creating new meaning in the L2. In the current study, students recognised the value of collaboration as a mediating tool to confirm content and to mitigate communication apprehension by allowing students to check their ideas: "私の答えが正しいと思うか私は陽人に聞いていた。私たちは普段お互いと確認をする。時々彼は分からないときがあるけど、それは関係ない。それでも一応彼に聞いておきたいだけである" [I was asking Haruto if he thought my answer was correct. We usually check with each other. Sometimes he doesn't know but that doesn't really matter. I just want to ask him anyway]. Peer assistance could be harnessed without concern

that revealing comprehension difficulties would have a negative impact on how one was perceived by classmates.

Discussion

The study draws attention to differing interpretations of the cultural and situational appropriateness of student collaboration during L2 activities as viewed by NS teachers and their Japanese students. Differing views of SPC are of interest given that the content and motivations behind exchanges revealed cross-cultural inconsistencies in the functions of SPC and how these exchanges were interpreted. Although the teachers assumed SPC was a sign of comprehension difficulties, students indicated that collaboration enabled them to negotiate class material. Therefore, SPC was not an off-task behaviour but rather an indication that students were proactively endeavouring to mitigate face threat associated with an errant response, avoid monopolising teacher time, and seek confirmation. In addition, students' collaborative practices suggested that independent student contributions were not viewed as being more meaningful than those proffered through joint efforts. When teachers intervened to prevent collaboration or chastise the initiator, this placed constraints on student interaction and resulted in student uncertainty, frustration, and reluctance to engage in L2 activities. Of importance here is that, in contrast with the teacher, students did not regard collaboration as a competent student assisting a less able peer but rather as a reciprocal process that was advantageous to all those participating.

Kidd's (2016) examination of Japanese students' reflections on L2 activities found that students regarded soliciting answers from peers as appropriate in the classroom and consequently did not feel the need to conceal collaboration from the teacher. Teacher intervention reinforced that collaboration not sanctioned by the teacher was regarded as a violation of acceptable classroom practices and behaviour irrespective of whether it contradicted student expectations. Although the teachers may not have intended the directive to work independently as an imposition, from the students' perspective individual contributions were interpreted as restrictive, threatening, and inconsistent with views of standard classroom practice. Given that the teacher tends to determine permissible classroom behaviour and language practices, collaborative exchanges that fell outside of assumed standards were restricted and met with a negative teacher appraisal.

The students valued collaboration as a means by which to process input, modify output, manage anxiety, and prepare to speak in front of the class. Students employed collaboration to check responses, examine different

perspectives, acquire knowledge, exercise ownership of their learning, and build affective bonds. Among other things, through collaborative negotiations, "problem utterances are checked, repeated, clarified, or modified in some way (lexically, phonologically, morphosyntactically) so that they are brought within the optimum i+1 level" (Foster & Ohta, 2005, p. 405). In addition, research has demonstrated cognitive advantages of collaborative learning associated with activities such as "engaging with the task, trying to understand other people's thinking, explaining and justifying one's own thinking, critically monitoring what others are doing, and being supported in carrying out complex tasks" (Barnes, 2004, p. 14). Blocking collaboration was seen by students as threatening, restrictive, and inconsistent with what students considered standard classroom practice.

Towards the Collaborative L2 Classroom

In the collaborative classroom, students are encouraged to enact cultural identities, and the legitimacy of peer co-construction is upheld as a valuable linguistic practice. Teachers' restricting or blocking L1 collaboration lowers student motivation and morale and may be interpreted by students as the rejection of the students' classroom culture and language. To avoid such a situation, teachers are encouraged to recognise that L1 collaborative exchanges serve as a passage through which students actively work together to build and maintain affective bonds, mediate task completion, assist each other, co-construct knowledge, and solve problems. In addition, research illustrates that L1 exchanges provide learners with cognitive support to accomplish tasks that they may not be able to achieve without using the L1 (Bao & Du, 2015; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

Japanese students' predilection for L1 peer collaboration presents a platform from which the teacher can foster and enhance L2 collaboration skills and facilitate learning. To this end, collaboration should be explicitly valued as an instructional goal, and students should be provided appropriate opportunities to collaborate in the L1, while at the same time given appropriate language support and opportunities to develop and strengthen their L2 collaborative skills. Teachers are encouraged to incorporate explicit L2 instruction targeting collaborative practices such as taking turns, asking questions, confirming understanding, paraphrasing, elaborating and providing feedback on peers' ideas, negotiating responsibilities and goals, and handling disagreements. These skills can be employed when students work together in the L2 to discuss activities, negotiate meaning, clarify understanding, and communicate their views. In this way, collaborative activities

should be maximised whenever possible not only to enrich the classroom experience but also to bridge the gap between L2 use in and outside of the classroom by preparing students to use the target language with varying interlocutors in a range of collaborative configurations.

Conclusion

Miscommunication can result when Japanese students uphold what they view as acceptable classroom behaviour, namely peer collaboration, while simultaneously attempting to gain teacher recognition as competent and engaged members of the class. This study has illustrated that in the L2 classroom, even experienced NS teachers' assumptions regarding the motivations and communicative objectives behind their Japanese students' L1 collaborative choices can result in critical and inaccurate evaluations of their students. The participating teachers felt confronted when students engaged peers after being directly called on by the teacher and interpreted SPC as an indication that students were off task, had limited L2 competence, or lacked motivation. The value and meaning ascribed to SPC failed to account for the fact that from the students' perspective, collaboration was seen as an acceptable interactional practice by which group knowledge was shared while minimising the threat to an individual's face. For the students, L1 collaboration served as a social and cognitive tool by which they engaged in reciprocal exchanges to solve problems and co-construct meaning while at the same time upholding affective peer bonds. The study highlights the need for teachers to reflect on their assumptions of SPC and to employ and promote culturally sensitive teaching and learning strategies that acknowledge and embrace diverse communicative practices.

Joshua Kidd holds a PhD in applied linguistics from Macquarie University, Sydney. He runs his own language school and is a part-time lecturer in the English Program of Utsunomiya University. His research interests include pragmatics, identity, and teacher education. He recently published *Face and Enactment of Identities in the L2 Classroom* with Multilingual Matters.

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Oriented to English: Motivations and Attitudes of Advanced Students in the University Classroom

David P. Shea
Keio University

The orientation to English among university students in Japan is a complex and shifting amalgam of attitudes and experiences that shape engagement in the classroom. Although research on learner motivation has highlighted the instrumental value of EFL in terms of imagined identity and investment, motivation is also affected by social factors such as Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) policy and teaching practice encountered prior to university entrance. In this paper, I report on a qualitative analysis of orientations among high proficiency advanced students in a 1st-year EFL class at a large university in Tokyo. Findings suggest that paths of study and admission routes varied widely, that a strong commitment to English was coupled with low levels of confidence, and that orientation seemed to shift noticeably after entering university, as students sensed the possibility of attrition and a reduced scope of English study. At the same time, students welcomed the chance to engage with content and build ideas in English as the role of the EFL classroom took on increased importance.

日本の大学生の英語への指向は一様ではなくその態度やこれまでの経験も様々であり、英語の授業に対する意欲も日々変化している。学習者の動機づけに関する研究は、自己効力感や自己投資に関するEFLの手段的価値を強調しているが、動機づけは同時に文部科学省の方針や高校における入試に対する指導法のような社会的要因にも影響される。本論文では、質的分析の方法を用い、東京の大規模なある大学の上級レベル１年生の英語授業における、学生の英語に対する姿勢を分析した。その結果、大学に入るまでの学習経験や入学形態は様々であること、英語に対する学習意欲は高い反面自信があまりないこと、燃え尽きの可能性や学習範囲の狭窄を感じ始め、大学入学後は英語に対する姿勢が著しく変わること等が分かった。しかし同時に英語で意見を構築する機会を好意的に受け入れ、EFLの授業の役割がより重要になる傾向が示された。

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The attitudes and willingness to study that Japanese students bring to the university EFL classroom are grounded in an intricate association of influences. For many incoming 1st-year students, interest in English is tied to past experiences studying the language in addition to future hopes and imagined positionings (Yashima, 2002), all of which inform attitudes and practices generated in ongoing contexts of study. Given the pronounced shift that students typically encounter between secondary school and university, Ushioda (2013) argued that "it would seem particularly relevant to explore their perceptions of what English and learning English mean" (p. 9). Although Japanese university students have a generally bad reputation for "entrenched silent behavior" and nonparticipation (King, 2013, p. 326) as well as "far from uncommon" postures of boredom and apathy (Ryan, 2009, p. 413), there is evidence that attitudes toward English are changing throughout Japan (Seargeant, 2011), a shift that is particularly noticeable among advanced proficiency students, who often demonstrate strongly positive orientations toward foreign language study. Many of these students envision English playing a role in their future careers despite a lack of confidence and a degree of uncertainty about how English fits into the sociocultural environment at university. Looking at these orientations to language study in closer detail allows us to better understand the dynamics of the EFL classroom and the kinds of student engagement found there.

Literature Review

Research on the motivation to study English as a foreign language was for a long time conceptualized as a matter of aspiring to integrate with L2 culture, generally defined as interaction with native speakers and closer proximity to the target language community (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009). However, as Pavlenko (2002) pointed out, millions of people "learn and use additional languages without giving a thought" (p. 279) to joining another cultural group, which is perhaps the case for many students in Asian contexts, including Japan. Accordingly, there has been a theoretical shift away from an integral view of motivation. Even Gardner (2007), who helped introduce the term *integrative*, defined motivation within a broader, more general conception of intensity, as "genuine interest in communicating" in the L2 and "favourable attitude[s] toward the language learning situation" (p. 19), rather than integration per se.

Recent research on motivation has thus tended to address language learning more in terms of the learner's own language identity, which may include the pragmatic expression of identity associated with personal goals and

career choices. Studying English is located in "complex interplay" of "here and now" realities (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 12), as learners appropriate the idea of the foreign language to locate and enact personal goals. In Indonesia, for example, Lamb (2004) observed that learners approach English not to integrate into Western culture but to develop a globalized English-speaking "version of themselves" that is layered upon the "local L1-speaking self" (p. 3). Indeed, Lamb noted that the global and the local, like the integrative and the instrumental, are often intertwined and indistinguishable. English is associated with the West, but many people are "acutely aware that its social, economic and cultural effects will be felt inside Indonesia" (p. 13). In Japan, a similar trend is evident. English is fast becoming a "must have" basic skill in a globalizing society where the purpose of language study is unrelated to joining a target cultural community but is associated, rather, with personal goals and local trajectories (Ushioda, 2013).

Many discussions of learner motivation refer to Dörnyei's (2009) construct of the "ideal L2 self," postulating a "self-representation" that positions the language learner vis-à-vis English in an act of envisioning a future to live up to (Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013, p. 91). In other words, studying English involves a kind of enactment of the imagined self, wherein aspirations shape and are shaped by the orientation to language learning. Yashima (2002) contended that students visualize themselves interacting with English in the future, adopting an "international posture" associated with "proficiency and L2 communication confidence" (p. 63). Yashima (2013) went on to suggest that the willingness to communicate, which is situated in this imagining, works to give meaning to practice and sustain learning in the English language classroom.

Ryan (2009) pointed out that the discourse about the role of English in Japan as a means of international contact and communication sends "mixed signals" to learners who are dealing with the ordinary, everyday realities of language study. This discontinuity, Ryan argued, means that the "cool and fashionable" image of English does not always translate into active study and as a result, English remains "peripheral" to many young people (p. 409). Further, Ryan contended that the commitment to English study stems in large part from the learner's personal experience in the "immediate social environment" (p. 417). He also observed that learners frequently regard the study of English at university as a kind of communicative return on the investment made in secondary school studying grammar and vocabulary (p. 409).

Ryan's (2009) conclusions highlight the layered interaction between individual orientation and influence of the surrounding environment. In some

respects, his study echoes Norton's (2000) discussion of investment, which suggested that willingness to study the L2 is broader than a simple expression of individual intention. For Norton, motivation is always located in the construction and expression of identity situated in broader social attitudes and ideologies. In effect, motivation is shaped in part by practical considerations of access and engagement within contexts of use, determining "the multiple positions from which language learners can speak" (Norton, 2013, p. 2). Lamb (2004), too, noted that the motivation to learn English is shaped by the surrounding environment, both ideological discourses of internationalization (Kubota, 2002) and practical issues of instruction in the classroom.

One of the most significant social influences on language study in Japan is the government's official language policy as delineated in the official Course of Study and the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology's (MEXT's) increasingly strong promotion of English (Tahira, 2012). Ongoing educational reform "corresponding to globalization" seeks to foster interactional proficiency and produce Japanese who can use English on an international level (MEXT, 2014). In many secondary schools, there is growing recognition of the need to incorporate communicative approaches into the effort to teach English in English (Sato, 2015), and students' positive valuation of authentic language use by teachers reflects a "generally encouraging prospect" for communicative language teaching (Abe, 2013, p. 52). On the tertiary level, this endorsement of English is even more dramatic as more and more universities follow MEXT guidelines to implement content classes with English medium instruction (Brown, 2014; Carty & Susser, 2015). Such curricular initiatives arguably exert top-down pressure throughout the education system.

At the same time, there is clear evidence of a gap between the rhetoric of communicative reform and the reality of L2 instruction, which is likely to have a negative effect on student motivation. Glasgow and Paller (2016) maintained that there is a "continued disconnect" between *de jure* policy, with its emphasis on communication, and *de facto* pedagogy, leaving teachers to "make sense of policy messages that are not reconciled with classroom and institutional practices" (p. 175). Communicative reform is substantially rhetorical, Glasgow and Paller asserted, which gives students little incentive to appropriate English as a practical tool of thought and action. From a slightly different perspective, Kikuchi and Browne (2009) pointed out that MEXT has in fact established communicative guidelines that have not been implemented, given the pervasive pressure on teachers to "prepar[e] students for the form-focused university [entrance] exams" (p. 176). Kikuchi

and Browne found strong support for communicative language instruction among students, even as teachers followed one-way grammar-translation methodologies, detailed in manuals of MEXT-approved textbooks. Sakui (2004) recorded similar disjuncture among teachers trying to introduce communicative language practices in the face of having to prepare for "grammar-skewed" exams (p. 159).

The widespread perception, held by many observers, is that EFL education in Japan is a "failing system" in crisis (Ryan, 2009, p. 407), a result of the ineffective "orthodoxy" of traditional grammar-translation instruction in secondary schools (Aspinall, 2012, p. 87). Test-driven, noncommunicative teaching is seen to engender significant demotivation among students (Kikuchi, 2009, 2013). There is also a prevalent feeling that tertiary EFL study is characterized by "apathy, passivity or lack of learning purpose and engagement" (Ushioda, 2013, p. 9). And yet, when Falout (2012) admitted that the foreign language education system may be test driven and impractical, he also observed that internal factors mediate external influence, remarking that what matters more is "not what learners experience as much as how they perceive and react to their experiences" (p. 6). With this caveat in mind, it is important to catalog student voices and to ask how learners actually perceive English and orient themselves to language study. In the following sections, I report on an action research project involving high proficiency 1st-year university students. Although learners with advanced fluency in English are certainly not representative of the larger university student population in Japan, they nonetheless offer valuable evidence of attitudes and experiences that affect instruction and shape the way we think about EFL pedagogy.

Methods: Aims and Procedures

To better understand student orientations to English, I carried out an exploratory study of 1st-year university classes that I teach, following principles of reflective practice (Walsh, 2011) and action research (Burns, 2010). I collected data related to "issues of practical and personal concern" in the classroom (Burns, 2000, p. 4-5), with the goal to "enhance understanding of the local context rather than generalize to a broader one" (Walsh, 2011, p. 142). To this end, I surveyed student opinions with a series of questionnaires and follow-up interviews, asking about English in general and EFL study in particular. Although the proximity to students in my own classes allowed a deeper understanding of the context in which students responded, there was also potential for bias, so I took particular care not to conflate research

with teaching. All surveys were anonymous with no means to connect a response with a respondent. Oral and written permission was collected from students at the beginning of the year, and principles of informed consent were followed. I promised that privacy would be protected, all names kept anonymous, and comments polished for grammar (to minimize embarrassment). Both interviews and data analysis were carried out after final grades had been submitted to avoid a conflict of interest.

Data were collected over three semesters, spring and fall in 2013 and spring in 2014, from a convenience sample primarily comprising students enrolled in a required 1st-year content-based English communication course I have taught for a number of years at a large private university in the Tokyo metropolitan area. The course was divided into two distinct classes: regular (hereinafter *ippan*) and returnee, both designated advanced. Most students had strong oral proficiencies, although there was noticeable variation within the two classes. Enrollment in the *ippan* class was determined by scores (between 450-495) on the listening section of the TOEIC IP test, which was used as a placement measure. Students were assigned to the returnee class according to the university admissions classification, defined as having lived abroad in an English-speaking environment for more than 2 years. Approximately two thirds of the returnee students had attended the university's attached high school in the United States before returning to Japan and were automatically assigned to the advanced class even though a few (three or four students) had intermediate proficiency and would likely not have been placed into the advanced class had they taken the TOEIC. The returnee classes included six or seven students who had studied abroad but did not attend the attached high school. Also of note was that because of scheduling issues, three or four students from the *ippan* class attended the returnee class, and two or three returnees sat with the *ippan* class. Each class had 20-25 students enrolled, although respondent numbers differ due to attendance on days when the surveys were conducted.

I carried out a variation of four surveys in 12 classes over the three semesters. The surveys were administered to both *ippan* and returnee classes at the end of the spring semester 2013, followed by a set of surveys during the fall semester 2013 and at the end of the spring semester 2014. For heuristic purposes, I considered responses from the *ippan* and returnee classes in both years within the same category. That is, when I refer to the *ippan* class, I am including data from both 2013 and 2014 classes. I have also included a set of open-ended responses to one survey given to students in an elective academic writing seminar, which I also taught during the same time period.

All surveys were written in English and consisted of a combination of forced-choice Likert-scale statements (indicating agreement or disagreement) and open-ended questions to which students could respond in either English or Japanese. There were over 400 open-ended comments in total. The surveys and the classes in which they were administered are summarized in Table 1. Abbreviated versions of the four major surveys are included in the appendix to give a general idea of the questions asked. In citing student comments throughout the paper, I refer to survey codes with attached numbers that reference a location within the data set.

Table 1. Surveys

Code	Class	*N*	Date	Topics
SSI	*Ippan* Film	24	Spring 2013	attitudes toward English
SSR	Returnee class	20	Spring 2013	attitudes toward English
CSI	*Ippan* Film	25	Spring 2013	open-ended Qs re English
CSR	Returnee Film	20	Spring 2013	open-ended Qs re English
SOI	*Ippan* Film	25	Fall 2013	English use, HS activities
SOR	Returnee Film	20	Fall 2013	English use, HS activities
SOW	Writing seminar	13	Fall 2013	English use, HS activities
SR	Returnee Film	18	Fall 2013	attitudes toward English
CSI	*Ippan* Film	25	Fall 2013	open-ended Qs re English
CSR	Returnee Film	20	Fall 2013	open-ended Qs re English
SRI	*Ippan* Film	17	Spring 2014	HS activities, attitudes to English
SRR	Returnee Film	20	Spring 2014	HS activities, attitudes to English

To follow up particular questions and lines of thought that emerged in the analysis, I arranged a set of three interviews with seven students from the 2013 *ippan* class, selected on the basis of active participation and willingness to volunteer. I audio recorded and transcribed the conversations, which followed a semistructured format and lasted approximately 30 to 45 minutes, and I asked a range of questions about attitudes toward language study. The interviews, which took place in English, were carried out after

grades had been turned in—and I paid for the coffee. Moreover, I asked two students from the returnee class to answer additional follow-up questions via email. Interview details are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. Interviews

Code	Participants	Date
IMS	Michiko & Sachiko	Jan 30, 2014
IASR	Arisa, Sayako, Rosa	Jan 31, 2014
IMR	Mai & Ririko	Feb 4, 2014
ITM	Teri & Mami	Email

Data Analysis

To carry out the analysis, I followed procedures of qualitative inquiry (Patton, 2015; Thomas, 2006). For the Likert questions, I calculated simple totals and percentages as a general indication of response, not to establish statistical significance, especially because respondent numbers varied from survey to survey. Although percentages of small sample sizes are in no way statistically valid, a number does indicate a broad tendency of response. I approached both survey and interview data with the same analytic lens, seeking to generate interpretive categories based on an inductive approach. In a sense, I was trying to generate a cohesive narrative (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000) of opinion in a way that made sense of student perspectives. To analyze open-ended comments, I first generated a list of preliminary categories while looking to identify general patterns, commonalities, and salient themes. Following iterative readings of the data set, I refined categories, combining and delineating relationships, aiming to draw conclusions about the research questions. I narrowed the analysis until axial categories emerged, allowing a "grounded" interpretation of student orientation, which I present below.

Findings

Diversity of Background

The most well-defined albeit unexpected finding that emerged from the analysis was the striking diversity of contact with English prior to university. Students studied at different kinds of schools where they experienced an array of instructional approaches in a variety of distinct settings. In addition

to returnees, a surprising number of *ippan* students, almost half the class, reported having lived abroad or attended school in an English-speaking environment for varying lengths of time and for different purposes. What is more, students gained admission to the university through multiple gates, ranging from the entrance exam to high school nomination, attached high school automatic acceptance, foreign exchange, and returnee designation. High schools themselves differed broadly, with diverse curricula and contrasting instructional activities.

Further, students diverged noticeably in their estimation of the effectiveness of the study they had experienced in high school. Indeed, the majority of *ippan* students reported receiving some form of "traditional" instruction, with emphasis on intensive reading, close translation, and explanation in Japanese about grammar and vocabulary. Among the 2014 *ippan* class, for example, 76% of the students reported that their high school English instruction was "mostly grammar-translation" (SRI). When asked about the biggest difference between English study in high school and university, many students mentioned this focus on traditional instruction:

> In high school . . . we studied English by using Japanese. (SOW–3)
>
> We mostly read and translated. I don't remember speaking English in high school. (SRI–2)
>
> Never spoke my ideas in English . . . Never had a conversation. (SRI–6)
>
> Teachers talked and we just took notes. (IMS2)

At the same time, many students also reported having been engaged in a variety of communicative activities not typically associated with traditional instruction, ranging from reading extensively to academic writing, oral presentation, discussion, and even debate. In the returnee section, this trend stood out, with less than a third of students reporting a focus on grammar-translation in high school:

> I took three different kinds of classes: English, creative writing, and reading. When I came to the university, I was ready to join in since I had read novels and learned to write an essay. (SRR–13u)
>
> Mostly we read English books and discussed them in class. (SRR–6u)

> My high school English classes involved a lot of academic writing, oral practice, and reading. (SRR–6e)

However, the diversity of instructional approaches to high school English study was also evident in the *ippan* class, where a high percentage of students reported taking classes with communicative instruction, involving such activities as academic writing and reading extensively. For example, approximately half of the *ippan* students reported reading a novel in high school English classes (SSI), and a clear majority (71%) reported doing reading that involved novels and stories (SRI). Most (81%) reported watching a movie in English as a class assignment, and a small but not insignificant number (15%) reported having written journals in English, although a much larger number (71%) stated that they did some other form of academic writing (SRI). Nearly a quarter of *ippan* students responded that they "got a lot of practice in oral English" (SRI). Open-ended comments support the impression of curricular diversity. *Ippan* students wrote, for example,

> I've written many essays in MLA style, which helped me understand citation. (SOI–4)
>
> Debate . . . gave me a chance to read information in English and speak persuasively. (SOI–5)
>
> I read many novels, such as *Killing the Mockingbird* [sic], *Animal Farm*, and news articles. I also wrote many essays for homework. (SRI–10)

In some cases, the focus on communicative instruction seemed to replace a grammar-translation approach; in other cases, interactive, meaning-focused activities appeared to have been implemented in a supplementary manner. Although some students did not seem to find the activities exciting, their remarks highlight the fact that there was, in essence, a good deal of instruction that was "communicative" in nature. For example, one student wrote:

> In high school, there were few writing activities and it was just reading novels each quarter and quizzes. (SOR–4)

Although the student is somewhat dismissive of the activity, it is clear that there was a substantial amount of reading for meaning, which certainly qualifies as communicative study.

On the whole, traditional instruction based on grammar-translation was largely received with skepticism by students, with many critical of the ap-

proach. One student wrote that high school English did not improve proficiency:

> The communication class was too easy for me and I was always translating for everyone. (SOI–1)

Much of the criticism was that ideas were lost in the focus on grammar, with little opportunity to improve speaking skills or discuss larger ideas:

> We didn't discuss. We were not allowed to discuss in high school. (SOI–24)

At the same time, a number of students reported that they felt grammar-translation instruction was, in point of fact, effective. One student mentioned that word tests were particularly helpful for acquiring vocabulary, raising awareness, and learning to look up meaning, and others stated that they felt grammar to be an effective tool to improve both spoken and written proficiency:

> If you're good at grammar, you can speak proper English. (SRI–14)
>
> Grammar practice helped a . . . bit when writing an essay in high school. (SRR–1e)
>
> Grammar was the most helpful in high school because I need good grammar to write an essay. (SOW–10)

Interestingly, most students seemed to have actually *liked* their English lessons in high school. Nearly two thirds of the *ippan* class indicated that they felt largely positive about English class (SSI). A similar majority (68%) reported that they felt their high school classes were "generally effective to learn English" (SOI). In other words, although some students said they found traditional grammar study boring, others said they found it effective and stimulating.

A final point relates to the context of learning. In the returnee class, all students had lived abroad in an English-speaking environment or had attended an English medium school for at least 2 years. An unexpected finding was that many students in the *ippan* section, more than half, also reported having spent significant time abroad, more than a year, either as a young child or as an older exchange student. For some, the experience outside Japan brought an advanced language proficiency or laid a foundation that

later proved effective. Here again, however, what is striking is the diversity of experience. A third of *ippan* students reported never having lived abroad. Yet within this subset, many had particular access to English in some form, whether a family connection or a personal hobby that involved supplementary use of English outside the classroom. For example, two students wrote,

> My education in high school did help me improve my grammar to some extent, but the reason I am in [the advanced] class is because of my mother's intense English education when I was 0-6 years old. (SRI–3)
>
> In high school, I never had a chance to speak . . . English [which] was definitely not enough, so I watched American movies and dramas on my own. (SOW–11)

In both cases, students are talking about extra preparation outside the regular school context. In the first, preparatory instruction was provided by the student's parent. In the second, additional study related to a personal interest that is often reported as providing a gateway into English: TV and movies. The comments point to the probability that many, perhaps most of, the students in the advanced classes seem to have had access to some kind of study outside the regular high school curriculum. Although I did not look at supplementary instruction in this study, cram schools and preparatory academies are likely a big part of the language-learning landscape. What can be said with some certainty, though, is that the kind and extent of preparation is noticeably diverse, and students have travelled divergent paths and engaged in distinctly different styles of preparatory study before entering the advanced class at a respected university. The question then arises: How do they orient to English once enrolled?

High Aspiration, Low Confidence

The second finding to emerge from the analysis involved juxtaposition between aspiration and assurance. On the one hand, most students expressed strongly positive attitudes toward English, both as a subject of study and as a means of personal definition. On the other hand, most students also reported hesitation and low self-confidence regarding their ability. Some defined themselves as English speakers but most did not, and for both groups, *ippan* and returnee, this orientation was relative, depending on the context. That is, students expressed a strong sense of investment in English, reflecting an awareness of its cultural value and status, even as they found it difficult to imagine actually using their investment effectively.

In both groups, all but a few students agreed that they "liked" English, a markedly higher percentage than those who said they liked their high school English classes (92% vs. 62%). Clearly, English carries high prestige and symbolic value among students, as it is associated with widely reported opportunities for employment, travel, and entertainment. Even the four students who said they did not like to study English nevertheless agreed that the language represented a useful tool. All but two students stated that they thought English would be helpful in the future (SSI, SSR). From the students' point of view, there is definitely a felt need to study the language, certainly in the present and probably in the future. Every student, including those who said they did not like English, declared a strong intention to study hard at university to improve their language skills. Even those who expressed dislike appeared committed to language study.

In contrast, the number of students who expressed confidence in their own language proficiency was perceptibly low. Only a quarter of the *ippan* class and less than half (40%) of the returnee class expressed confidence in their English skills (SSI, SSR). Along similar lines, many students stated that they were reluctant to define themselves as proficient. In spite of having placed into the advanced class, less than half (40%) of the *ippan* students agreed that they consider themselves English speakers (SOI), though the figure was higher (70%) for returnees (SOR). Further, a number of students, nearly a third of the *ippan* and almost half of the returnees, indicated that they lack pride in their English proficiency (SOI, SOR). In fact, a third of the returnees agreed that they would not want to be seen by Japanese classmates as an English speaker. In sum, commitment levels were strong while confidence levels were weak.

The low estimation of ability is certainly not a realistic appraisal given the demonstrably strong abilities evident in class performance and test scores. The lack of confidence undeniably reflects culturally situated attitudes of modesty. In downplaying their own abilities, students were likely trying to avoid what might appear to be self-congratulatory claims of competence. Additionally, part of the ambiguity in talking about confidence is that students envision different contexts of use when they respond, but successful practice generally brings greater assurance. For example, students who expressed confidence in English grounded their reasoning in classroom activity. Two *ippan* students stated,

> I went to international school in China from 5th to 8th grade and . . . I had to take all classes in English. (SRI–2)

> I learned how to write an academic essay and to pick up important and key details from a story. (SRI–1)

For both, confidence grew from concrete use. Along similar lines, 40% of returnee students in the spring semester reported having confidence in their English skills (SSR), but the number rose noticeably the following term, with 72% agreeing that they had confidence speaking English in class (SOR). By the second survey, the students had had 3 months of weekly class sessions in which to engage in discussion activities, expressing ideas and participating in productive, supported oral practice.

A number of students described the lack of confidence in terms of interaction with native speakers outside school contexts. For example, Mami, one of the returnees, said:

> I get nervous when there is another fluent speaker because I think about if my grammar is wrong or if I'm saying things right . . . The only time I actually speak to real native speakers . . . the nervousness is huge and I stumble on. (ITM–2)

One of the *ippan* students, Michiko, explained that she didn't think of herself as an English speaker:

> . . . because I don't have an opportunity to use English in my daily life. (IMS–2)

Both students were voicing a conception of English as a means to communicate with native speakers from abroad. In this respect, English is the language of the Other, not Japanese. Defining oneself as an English speaker intrudes on this dichotomy and challenges the privilege of the native speaker.

The lack of confidence may also be connected to the broader social context of high school study, in which contact with English is almost universally oriented toward university admission and, in most but not all cases, entrance exams. As one student remarked, "Teachers taught us how to get a good score on exams to enter the university." In other words, the goal of high school English study was strongly instrumental: to do well on the test. The effect of this orientation was to frame English as preparatory with a focus on getting the right answer that has consequence for a future orientation to the language.

Another returnee, Sayako, noted this contextual frame even in the progressive secondary school she attended where there was a great deal of

communicative instruction. She said that in high school, she "didn't like speaking" because her "opinions were either right or wrong" (IASR–2), and she always felt "the pressure" to be right. Interestingly, Sayako explained her comments about correctness in terms of the change in orientation she felt at university, where, she said,

> Everything is right, you just say what you want to say, so [there's no] pressure that the answer might be wrong. (IASR–2)

The point Sayako was making is that the aim of discussion in the university class was not to produce the right answer, but to generate an insightful response that made sense and expressed an interesting, persuasive idea, which is an issue of personal expression—what she thought and wanted to say, rather than correctness.

In short, it seems that many students lacked confidence in part because they were always being evaluated as right or wrong. With a focus on correctness, students faced the likelihood of error, especially considering the difficulty of many entrance exams. Within the preparatory framework in which English is studied in high school, the pressure to give the right answer seems to make it difficult to express ideas or speak with confidence because the stakes are so high.

Both Toward and Away

The third finding to emerge from the analysis was that the orientation to English seemed to change significantly upon entering university. Students appeared to develop a more integrative relationship with the language that entailed both subtractive and additive dimensions. On the one hand, many students, particularly those who had lived abroad (both returnee and *ippan*), reported feeling a sense of language attrition due to their reduced contact with English. On the other hand, students began to see English less as a subject of study and more as a tool of critical thinking and expression, which was connected to the shift toward content-based instruction in university EFL classes. This tension in orientation, both toward and away from English, points to the mediating role of the classroom.

Students seemed to feel that, compared to high school, English at university has a reduced presence because for most students the number of classes per week dropped, reducing the quantitative sense of connection, and other activities intruded upon time for language study. The biggest difference between high school and university, one student said, was

> . . . using English every single day [in high school]. In university, it is hard to focus on studying English since there are many other things to study in Japanese. (SOR–16)

The student was referring, first, to the reduction in the number of overall class hours. Whereas English was a major component of the high school curriculum, the connection is less intense at university, where two classes per week is the norm for students in this study. (It is possible to take more, although not required.) The student's comment also noted social pressures working against English. Whereas in high school there is a broad energy generated by preparation for university exams and admission, the tension dissipates at university as other commitments increase. In this respect the sphere of English narrows after high school.

More than two thirds of students in both *ippan* and returnee classes reported that they felt it difficult to use English outside the university classroom, which is perhaps why only a minority, slightly more than a third, reported that they use English in some way almost every day (SOI, SOR). With a few noticeable exceptions, supplementary activities to maintain contact with English were also limited. Two students reported joining English club activities such as the international relations circle, and a handful of students listed a range of extracurricular pursuits that involve English: surfing the Internet, reading newspapers, viewing TED talks, and so on. Watching English films was especially popular (SSI), but the scope and effectiveness of individual study appeared limited. All but two returnees reported feeling that their English ability was declining the longer they lived in Japan (SR), and *ippan* students with experience living abroad asserted that they, too, felt attrition. Mai, for example, complained that, after returning to Japan, she had "forgotten a lot of English" (IMR–1), and Arisa stated that her pronunciation and fluency were "going down" (IASR–1).

Reinforcing this tendency was the difficulty students found using English with other Japanese. Commenting on another student's claim that "it's easy to use Japanese with friends" [not English] (SR–2), Ririko and Mai concurred, stating that they ordinarily reserve English either for the classroom or for interaction with non-Japanese:

> (R) You only use English in English class, so (M) we don't have much time or opportunity because we can speak in Japanese. If there are no native speakers around, there's no need to use English. (IMR–1)

In her interview, Rosa echoed the opinion, commenting that she felt her lack of proficiency and confidence precluded using English with fellow Japanese:

> It's hard to use English to each other, [it's] impossible, because my English is not good enough. I don't have confidence to speak to other students (IASR–2)

A number of other students also reported that the chance to use English communicatively was limited to the English classroom:

> This class is my only chance to use English in my university life, so I was motivated every week. (CSFR–1)
>
> I didn't have other opportunities to speak English, so class helped maintain my speaking skills a lot. (CSFI–15)

In terms of the quality of contact, however, English at university created a broader, stronger focus in the classroom, where there was significant expansion in the scope of study. Students reported a move away from the preparatory test orientation of high school, accompanied by a shift toward academic subject matter involving interpretation, argument, and discussion in content-based instruction. Students indicated a strong endorsement of this change. Over 80% agreed that they would prefer to study a subject in English rather than study English itself (SOI, SOR). Students described this difference in focus as expressing ideas, with concern for persuasiveness or clarity, not correctness:

> We studied mainly grammar in high school, but [at university] we've studied telling our own ideas and learning the ideas of other students. (SOI–12)
>
> In high school, I didn't get to express my own ideas. (SOI–5)
>
> I found that there were no answers about many problems. Even if I have a different idea from others, I don't have to feel bad. (SOI–7)

Addressing problems and engaging with classmates in English was received positively. Talking about ideas provided the opportunity, as one student said,

> to think deeply, which I don't have many chances to do in my daily life. (CSFI–1)

Rosa pointed out the fundamental value of productive expression within the future trajectory she envisioned for her career:

> Most classes at university are with many people, large lectures, so English is the only place where I can express my idea. When we grow up and go out into the world, we can prepare. I want to work in the field of international relations, so I do think about this need to express ideas. (IASR–2)

Rosa's comment points to the value of developing productive ability in her L2. Her remarks also illustrate how the *quality* of English study increased while the overall *quantity* of class time decreased. Left to their own resources, a minority of students thrived with the increased independence of university, but most seemed to struggle, losing some of the proficiency they thought they had gained in high school. Without the pressurized stimulation of exam orientation in high school, not a few students felt more dependent on the university EFL classroom as the primary source to develop their English proficiency.

Within this contrasting tension surrounding English, students expressed a strong positive orientation toward interaction with classmates, from whom they drew inspiration and encouragement:

> I didn't need to hesitate in speaking. Everyone does much better than me, so I'm encouraged to speak more. (CSFI–10)
>
> Other people speak English fluently and have insightful ideas; I learned many things from other people. (CSFI–17)
>
> Some people are very enthusiastic and they influence me in a good way. (SR–24)

Ironically perhaps, the social pressure that works against using English outside the classroom with peers seems to work inside the classroom to encourage collaboration and shared discussion. Outside the school context, English is defined in terms of the Other, but inside, a different relationship is constructed, with a more proximal orientation and a stronger sense of personal investment associated with discussing ideas and interpretations with fellow classmates.

Discussion and Implications

In this paper, I have tried to delineate key orientations to English and English study that advanced 1st-year students report bringing to the university

EFL classroom. First, there is a striking diversity of backgrounds and kinds of language study in which students were engaged. Although intensive and preparatory, study prior to university entrance appears to be generally effective, at least from one point of view, in that a great deal of energy and commitment to language study is evident among students who have developed advanced proficiencies. Second, students demonstrated a strong recognition of the instrumental value of English, but this valuation was not matched by confidence or self-assurance. Clearly, there are cultural injunctions against boasting, but the concern for correctness seemed to undermine the investment in English even though confidence in language skills appeared to increase with sustained opportunities for use. Third, there was a repositioning of identification with English after entering university with less time given to language study overall but more focus given to content, a shift that was received positively, especially when the class atmosphere was supportive and worked to facilitate participation, eliciting, as one student phrased it, chances to "think deeply."

Student comments shed critical light on some of the dynamics of language study in the Japanese university. They suggest, for example, that the commitment to study English does not invariably "dissipate" once the pressure of entrance exams has passed (Aubrey, 2014, p. 156). Nor does the "disjuncture" of instructional style between high school and university necessarily produce confusion or prove a barrier to learning (Gold, 2015). In fact, students seemed to welcome the opportunity to move from studying English to studying subject matter in English, though many did seem to have trouble balancing the various social and academic commitments surrounding language study. From my perspective, actively constructing and expressing ideas sometimes proves difficult for learners, but student comments suggest that most welcome the chance to engage with content, building ideas expressively and collaboratively with the support of classmates.

Admittedly, the advanced, high-proficiency students in this study are not representative of other students in Japan. Most are academically talented and score well above average on critical test measures. Further, many, but not all, come from families with the financial resources to live abroad, supplement regular tuition with after-school instruction, or both, and there is evidence that a widening economic gap works to divide students who embrace English and those who reject it (Block, 2015). Economic circumstances, however, do not invalidate the hard work and commitment that the advanced students bring to English study. In this respect, the students in this study reflect both the vitality and flexibility of EFL education in Japan,

and the struggle to develop new identifications with the language. Advanced students suggest that it is possible to make English a part of identity, not by following the same trajectory as that defined in secondary school contexts, but by appropriating a similar energy and engagement with L2 study.

It seems important to note that advanced proficiency students do not justify traditional approaches to EFL instruction, still prevalent in many secondary schools, simply because they have succeeded academically. In fact, I would argue that findings from this study suggest the opposite: that EFL education in Japan is changing rapidly and that traditional grammar-translation instruction in secondary schools is steadily giving way to more active, communicative use of English. Many critics of language education argue that not enough is being done to change teaching practices and implement "communicative" language teaching. Without doubt, there is room for improvement, but there is also risk of missing the diversity and vigor that advanced students represent. Student comments in this study indicate that recent innovations in high school programs, such as bilingual immersion initiatives and "international" Super English Language High School programs (Noguchi, 2015), are having a positive effect on performance and motivation. There are also many individual high school teachers who, in spite of pressures associated with university entrance exams, have nevertheless developed creative, innovative pedagogies in EFL classrooms (Sato & Hirano, 2014). As globalizing forces continue to push Japanese society to incorporate English, pragmatic responses of students actively appropriating English are likely to grow even stronger.

In many discussions of EFL pedagogy a sharp distinction is drawn between communicative language teaching (CLT) and grammar-based exam preparation, but findings from this study suggest that this contrast may be somewhat overstated. If the word *communicative* is defined as the exchange of meaning, CLT would include both reading, which is at the heart of the exams, and teacher-fronted lectures. A CLT approach is not always interesting, nor is exam work necessarily dull. Pedagogically, the question is not what particular teaching method is employed (Kumaravadivelu, 2003), but whether the lesson is interesting, accessible, and relevant. At the same time, it seems valid to ask whether students are positioned as active producers of ideas or passive recipients of knowledge, an arrangement that seems especially common while preparing for exams—although here, too, the issue is not one or the other but a balance between the two. To be fair, students are not always positioned receptively in secondary English classes because more and more high school students seem to be getting the chance

to construct ideas and express opinions both orally and in writing. In fact, there may be growing recognition that constructing knowledge via engaged productive output (Swain, 2000) is perhaps the most effective preparation for entrance exams, which are, increasingly, more about interpretation and less about grammar.

Gardner (2007) pointed out that "what is meant by 'learning' the language" has "different meanings at different stages of the learning process" (p. 13). In advanced stages of acquisition, characterized by what Gardner called "automaticity and thought," the student "no longer thinks about the language, but thinks in the language" (p. 13). This development perhaps could also describe what is happening for many students in the transition to university where language is becoming a tool of study. At the same time, the findings point to strong monolingual pressures restricting the scope of English as a "foreign" language outside the classroom—and possibly inside as well. In this respect, the EFL classroom takes on increased importance because it allows students to get past the unstated ideological assumption that English is to be used with cultural Others. When English is spoken among Japanese classmates to develop ideas and interpretations in collaborative discourse, a fundamental connection is made between social activity and thinking (Mercer & Howe, 2012). Engaging in shared interaction generates not only confidence, but also new cognitive patterns and cultural expectations about language use. English becomes the medium of student-to-student interaction—if, of course, the interaction is in English. Recent SLA research has been strong in its endorsement of using L1 in the classroom, but the effectiveness does not necessarily apply to contexts where there is a need to protect the only English-speaking environment to which many university students have access. Support for the L1 can be demonstrated by the teacher in other ways than letting students work on their own in the L1, which is difficult to prevent in small group contexts.

Thompson (2008) contended that much discussion of classroom pedagogy within the dialogic framework of sociocultural theory has emphasized internalization but missed the value of externalization and the fundamental ties between learning and the expression of ideas. Similar to Swain's (2000) endorsement of productive output, Thompson's point about extended talk and "opportunities for sustained thinking" (p. 243) is a reminder that, like motivation, the atmosphere of inquiry is not given but generated. This makes it even more important to consider investigation of student views, as knowledge is negotiated and new ideas as well as new identities are constructed in the dynamic space of the foreign language classroom.

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David Shea has taught a wide variety of academic English classes on the university level in Japan since 1993. He has published articles on pedagogy, intercultural pragmatics, and bilingualism. He is currently Associate Professor in the Faculty of Business & Commerce at Keio University.

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Appendix

Surveys

SSI, SSR Spring 2013

STUDENT SURVEY

AS Agree Strongly	A Agree	D Disagree	DS Disagree Strongly
強くそう思う	そう思う	そうは思わない	強くそう思わない

	AS	A	D	DS
1. In general, I like English.	○	○	○	○
2. I liked my high school English classes.	○	○	○	○
3. I need English because it will be useful in my future.	○	○	○	○
4. I have confidence in my English skills.	○	○	○	○

5. I studied hard in high school to improve my English skills.	○	○	○	○
6. I *will* study hard in university to improve my English skills.	○	○	○	○
7. I read an English novel (not 教科書) in high school English class.	○	○	○	○
8. I read an English novel on my own when I was in high school.	○	○	○	○
9. I *will* read an English novel on my own this semester.	○	○	○	○
10. I wrote an English journal (日記) for high school English class.	○	○	○	○
11. I wrote an English journal on my own when I was in high school.	○	○	○	○
12. I *will* write an English journal on my own this semester.	○	○	○	○
13. I watched an English movie for high school English class.	○	○	○	○
14. I watched an English movie on my own when I was in HS.	○	○	○	○
15. I like to watch movies in English.	○	○	○	○
16. Sometimes, I speak with my Japanese friends in English.	○	○	○	○
17. Sometimes, I watch the news in English.	○	○	○	○
18. Sometimes, I study vocabulary books to learn new words.	○	○	○	○
19. I lived in an English speaking country for a year or longer.	○	○	○	○

SOI, SOR, SOW Fall 2013

RESEARCH SURVEY on ENGLISH

	AS	A	D	DS
a. I think about myself as an English speaker.	○	○	○	○
b. I use English in some way almost every day of my life.	○	○	○	○
c. I think the way I studied English in HS was generally effective.	○	○	○	○
d. I am proud of the English ability I have.	○	○	○	○
e. Instead of studying English, I'd rather study something in English.	○	○	○	○
f. It's easy for me to use English while living in Japan.	○	○	○	○

g. What is the biggest difference between the way you studied English in high school and the way you've studied in this class?

h. What activity in high school most helped to improve your English?

j. How do you plan to use English in your future?

中学校教科書における口頭コミュニケーションを志向した活動の分析―第二言語習得研究におけるタスク基準からの逸脱に焦点をあてて―

Analysis of Oral-Communication-Oriented Activities in Junior High School Textbooks: Focusing on Task Criteria Proposed by Second Language Research

福田純也
Junya Fukuta
静岡大学
Shizuoka University

田村祐
Yu Tamura
名古屋大学
Nagoya University

栗田朱莉
Akari Kurita
矢作北中学校
Yahagikita Junior High School

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言語教育研究においては、学習者と教師、および学習者間の口頭コミュニケーション活動についての重要性がこれまでも指摘されてきたが、日本の英語教育においても、授業に口頭コミュニケーションを取り入れる必要性が徐々に認識されつつある。本研究では、真正性の高い有意味な言語活動を促進するために作られたタスクの基準（e.g., Ellis, 2003; Ellis & Shintani, 2014）を用いて、中学校教科書に含まれる口頭コミュニケーションを志向する活動がどのような基準に合致しているかを分析した。そしてその結果をもとに、中学校教科書に含まれている活動をそのまま用いることによって、学習者の言語スキル向上に対してどのような結果が期待できるか、またはできないかについて、第二言語習得研究の研究結果を参照しながら考察した。そして教科書に掲載されている活動の多くは、そのまま用いると自発的に発話内容を言語化するプロセスを学習者が経験したり、言語習得上有意義な意味交渉が起こったりすることが期待できないことを示唆した。

In the field of language teaching research, the importance of meaningful interactions and oral communication activities has been pointed out repeatedly. In English language teaching in Japan, this importance has also been recognized by some teachers, although gradually. In this study we analyzed 3 textbooks used in Japanese junior high schools, referring to task criteria (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Ellis & Shintani, 2014) that were developed for the purpose of promoting authentic meaningful communication. There were 4 task criteria: (a) the focus is on meaning, (b) there is a gap, (c) the learners rely on their own linguistic or nonlinguistic resources, and (d) learners' language use is not used to assess achievement. We examined whether or not the oral-communication-oriented activities in the textbooks met these criteria. The textbook analysis indicated that the majority of the activities presented did not meet the task criteria. Among the four criteria, (c)—the learners rely on their own resources—was met the least. In most of the cases, linguistic resources such as conversation examples and lexical items were provided for the students, and the only thing the students needed to do was to use those resources. On the other hand, almost half of the activities met (b)—there is a gap—and this was the most easily satisfied criterion. We gave careful consideration to what kind of learner language proficiency development can be expected if classroom teachers use these communication-oriented activities as they appear in the textbook. In doing so, we considered the results obtained from previous SLA research. The fact that most of the activities in the textbooks did not meet the task criteria means that, if they are not modified appropriately, they would prevent language learners from engaging in voluntary grammatical encoding and negotiation of meaning. For example, as most of the activities did not meet criteria (c), the students can hardly experience grammatical encoding because they do not need to think about what linguistic form they should use to convey the meaning. Also, the fact that the focus of the task was not on meaning would result in a serious lack of meaningful negotiation, and therefore the students would miss precious opportunities to get comprehensible input through negotiation of meaning. In sum, the activities presented in the textbooks we analyzed were not enough to guarantee that the students would participate in negotiation of meaning and experience necessary cognitive processing during speaking, both of which are the essence of SLA. We do not propose that the activities should not be used or that they are useless. Rather, we believe that it is worthwhile to think of the communication-oriented activities

with task criteria in mind in order to ensure the development of learners' language proficiency. In addition, teachers should modify the activities to enable the students to focus on meaning and to communicate using their own resources. The results of this study provide useful insights for teachers who want to make their classes more communicative and to have the students engage in meaningful conversation.

学習者と教師、および学習者間の口頭コミュニケーションの重要性はこれまでもさまざまな研究により指摘されてきた。一つの流れとしては、応用言語学者たちが試みた言語使用に関する能力の記述（e.g., Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980）に基づくもので、従来言語指導の際に重視されてきた文法的能力（grammatical competence）は言語能力の一部に過ぎないことを強調するもの（e.g., 馬場, 1997; Brown, 2000）が挙げられる。この観点からの研究では、統語・語彙・音韻的な知識を操作するスキルの養成だけではなく、言語が用いられる社会的、文化的規則や慣習を理解し、その規則に即した「適切」な運用を行うことや、コミュニケーションに何らかの障害（communication breakdown）が生じたときに、さまざまな方略をもちいてコミュニケーションを続ける能力なども言語運用能力に含め、これらの能力をコミュニケーションを通して総合的に身につけることを重視する。

もう一つの流れとしては、文法的能力に関しても、口頭コミュニケーション活動を通して実践的な運用スキルや知識をよりよく身につけることができるというものである。この観点からは、第二言語習得研究の認知的-相互交流的アプローチをとる研究者（cognitive-interactionist）たちが盛んに研究を行っている。例えば、Long（1985a）は意味交渉を目的とした相互交流の中で生じる会話調整（相手の理解を確認したり、発話の意味を確認したり、相手の理解を促すために発話を修正するなど）が、第二言語習得における認知的プロセスを促すと主張した。また、第二言語の文法習得は、教師の決めた指導順序どおりに進むわけではなく、学習者の内的シラバスにそって発達することが第二言語習得研究者らによって主張され、自然なコミュニケーションや意味理解活動の中で、適宜文法形式へ注意を焦点化させる活動（focus on form）の有用性が強調された（e.g., 和泉, 2009）。

このようなコミュニケーション活動の重要性は国内でも認識されつつある。コミュニケーション活動がどの程度、教室内活動における割合を占めるべきかについては未だ答えの出ない問いではあるが、従来の受信型英語教育から発信型英語教育への転換を実現すべきであるという観点から、アウトプットや、教師と学習者および学習者間の対話、そしてそれらを含むコミュニケーションを重視した教授法の重要性が述べられている（e.g., 佐藤, 2014）。

本研究では、口頭コミュニケーション活動に焦点をあてて、認知的-相互交流的アプローチ（cognitive-interactionist approach）に基づく第二言語習得研究を参照しつつ、中学校教科書の分析を行う。

先行研究における教科書分析

日本における教科書のスピーキング活動やペア・グループワーク活動の分析はこれまでもいくつかの研究で行われてきており、例えば高校教科書におけるそれらの活動がどのような特徴を持っているか（例えば「意見交換」・「意思決定」など、どのような目

標を念頭においた活動が多いか、活動に求められる結論は収斂型か、開放型かなど）を分析した研究（荒金, 2015; 江草・横山, 2007）がある。これらの研究は、活動の特徴からどのようなパフォーマンスが学習者に期待できるかを理論的に考察し、その結論として、(a) 高校教科書では目標を達成するためにインタラクションを必要とするものが少ない; (b) 流暢さの伸長にのみ効果が期待できる活動が多い; (c) 市販されているテキストほど正確さや複雑さへの効果が期待できない、といったことが示唆されている。

本研究も対象とする中学校教科書の分析では、平成18年版の旧課程教科書と、平成24年版の新課程教科書の比較を行い、24年版におけるスピーキングやインタラクション活動の数の増加が、パターンプラクティスのような活動の増加によることを示した研究などがある（臼田・志村・横山・山下・中村, 2009; 臼田ほか, 2012）。これらの研究では、近年増加したドリル的口語練習や語句を置き換えるだけの活動は、思考力・判断力・表現力の育成という観点や、自らの体験や考えと結びつけて話すといった能力の伸長という観点からみて不十分であると指摘されている。

このようにこれまでの中学教科書の分析では、思考・判断・表現といったコミュニケーション能力に関連した高次の認知的能力を育むという観点から、教科書に含まれる活動の不十分さが指摘されつつある。一方で、教室での授業実践の営みの目標には、このような高次の認知的能力の育成だけでなく、言語の運用スキルを育成することや、そのために必要な知識を身につけることなど、言語のそのものの習得も当然ながら含まれる。これらの言語運用スキルや知識という従来重視されてきた観点は、中学教科書に含まれる活動を用いることで十分に育まれるといえるのだろうか。前述の通り第二言語習得研究では、実践的な運用スキルや知識をよりよく身につけるための口頭コミュニケーション活動はどのようなものかといった観点の研究がなされてきている。そこで本研究は新たな視点として、第二言語習得研究に基づき、言語運用スキルや知識を十分に育むために必要な、真正性の高い有意味な言語活動を促進する「タスク」の定義基準を採用し、中学校教科書に付属する口頭コミュニケーションを志向する活動の特徴を記述する。そして、第二言語習得研究の知見を参照し、タスク基準からみた特徴に基づき、その活動によって促される（または促されない）と考えられる言語習得にかかわる認知プロセスをより詳細に検討する。

第二言語習得におけるタスク基準

認知的-相互交流的アプローチを基盤にして、第二言語習得研究では「タスクに基づく教授法（task-based language teaching: TBLT）」が提唱されている。TBLTは、語彙・統語・音韻などの言語的要素の定着を第一の念頭においた教授法とは異なる言語習得観を持ち、設定された非言語的な目的を達成することを志向した課題である「タスク」を基盤とした言語教授法である（詳細は松村, 2012）。このタスクに学習者が主体的に関与し、現実の言語使用と近い有意味な活動を行うことを通じて学習者は言語を身につける。したがって、この教授法の基盤となる個々の「タスク」は現実の言語使用と近い有意味活動を学習者に促すものである必要があり、さまざまな研究者によってタスクの定義付けが試みられている（e.g., Ellis, 2003; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Long, 1985b; Skehan, 1998）。

どのようなものがタスクであり、どのようなものがタスクといえないかという基準に関してさまざまな研究者がその弁別的定義を提唱しているが、本稿では、多くの研究

者に採用されているEllis（2003）の基準をさらに洗練化させた下記のEllis and Shintani（2014）の基準を採用することとする（訳は筆者らによる）。

1. 活動中の学習者の基本的な焦点は意味におかれる
2. 解決されるべき何らかのギャップが存在する
3. 自身の持つリソースによってタスクの遂行がなされる
4. 言語運用は手段であり、タスクが達成されたかどうかによって評価がなされる

上記1～4の基準は、必ずしも完全に分割できる基準ではなく、それぞれが少しずつ関連し合って、当該活動がタスク的か否かを示している。

1. の基準はタスクの大原則であり、ここでの「意味」の対義語は「形式」である。タスクにおいては、前述の通り現実に近い有意味な言語使用が重視されるため、語彙・統語・音韻などの形式的な側面をその第一の焦点としない。学習者は現実世界での言語使用者としての言語使用を求められる。その点で、例えば、過去形を用いることを目的とし、“Did you～”を使ってクラスメイトに質問をするような活動は、学習者が“Did you～”という「表現」を使うことを目的としており、聞き出す「内容」に焦点があたっているとは言えない。つまり、場面に埋め込まれたパターンプラクティスのような活動も、形式を使用する訓練に主眼があるため、この基準においてはタスク的とはいえない。

2. の基準の「ギャップ」とは、コミュニケーションを行う中で生じる、対話者間の情報量の違いや意見の相違を指す。例えば、ある地図を見ながら、話し手が聞き手に、目的地までの道順を説明する課題を想定する。そこには話し手は目的地までの道順を知っており、聞き手はそれを知らないという情報の差（＝ギャップ）が生じている。学習者はこのギャップを埋めようとすることで、コミュニケーションを取ろうとする。すなわち、このようなギャップは、コミュニケーションに必要性を与え、学習者を動機づけるものであるといえる。また、このようなギャップは有意味な相互交流やその際に生じるリキャストや意味確認などの働きかけ（interactional moves）が起こる必要条件となる。埋めるべきギャップを埋めようとして、学習者は意味の理解ができない部分に対して尋ねたり、自らの発話に関する誤りの訂正を行ったりし始める。このような相互交流の働きかけが起こるか否かは、コミュニケーション活動を通した言語習得の効果に大きく影響することが知られている（Kim, 2009, 2012; Mackey, 2007; Pica, 1992）。例えば、ダイアローグが示されており、そのダイアローグを暗記して、ダイアローグ内の語を入れ替えて対話練習をし、語を入れ替えても基本的に話の流れが変わらないような活動は、学習者間にギャップがあるとは言えず、学習者が自発的に相互交流の働きかけを伴う有意味なコミュニケーションを生じさせるような動機もないため、この基準から逸脱することとなる。

3. の基準は、学習者がタスクを遂行する際に、与えられたモデルダイアローグや単語・表現のリストなどの資料を参照するのみではなく自身のもつ知識や技能（リソース）を最大限利用して行う活動であるかどうかを問う。例えば電話でのやりとりを行う課題で、学習者自身が表現を変え、やりとりの結末を変えることができるような選択が許されているとしても、必要となる会話表現が全て記載され学習者によって参照できる状態になっている場合、何らかのコミュニケーションの目標が達成されたとしても、自身のもつリソースによってタスクが完遂されたとは言えない。自身のもつリソースによってタスクを行うことは、換言すると、学習者自身のもつ知識と認知プロセスを十全に活用し

てタスクに取り組むということでもある。学習者は口頭コミュニケーションの際には、口頭で相手に自身の意見をわかりやすく伝えることが求められるが、そのような口頭産出を行う際にはまず(a)自身が何を言うか、またどのように言うかという前言語的な概念生成を行い、(b)その前言語的メッセージに対し、自身の知識にアクセスして語彙をあてはめ統語・音韻情報を付与(以下、このような心的な操作を「文法的エンコーディング」と呼ぶ)し、(c)調音装置を通して音声として言語を発する(Levelt, 1989)。このようなプロセスのなかで、表現を学習者の知識の外にある(教科書などに準備されている)資料から探し出し言語を発することのみで達成されるタスクでは、学習者自身が第二言語で何をどのように伝えるか、そしてその概念をどのような文法でエンコーディングするかという処理がほとんど行われないと考えられる。したがってそのようなタスクは上記のプロセスのうち(a)と(b)が行われず、(c)のみがもちいられる。つまり、自然なコミュニケーションで必要とされる産出プロセスのほとんどが使用されず、プロセスが促進されることもないと考えられる。

最後となる4. の基準であるが、これは、特定の目標言語が適切に使用できたかどうかではなく、自然な言語コミュニケーションにおいて達成されるべき目標が達成されたか否かによって評価がなされるべきであるというものである。行動志向的なCAN-DOリストを想定すると理解しやすいが、例えば「昨日あったできごとを、ペアの相手に伝えることができる」というものを教師がタスクの評価基準の一つとして採用し、それが達成されたかどうかで評価を行うと「言語外の評価」が達成されたこととなる。逆に、「過去形を適切に用いて、昨日あったできごとを話し合うことができる」というのは、過去形という言語的特徴を参照した評価基準となり、タスクの基準からは外れることになる。言語を参照した基準を採用しないのは、そのような基準を用いることで学習者が「間違えないように言語を使用する」ことを心がけることにより、意味中心というタスクの原則が破綻してしまうことを防ぐためである。また、過剰な正確性の重視は、「使える言語項目」のみを使うという、言語使用の回避につながる。学習者が過剰に回避行動を行うと、新たに覚えた言語項目の自発的使用を抑圧してしまうことにもなり、言語習得上、望ましくないといわれている(e.g., Skehan, 1998)。

上記の基準は、どのようにすればコミュニケーション活動が現実世界に近い、有意味で真正性の高い活動となるかという、言語教師の疑問に対して一定の答えを示している。TBLTにおいては、以上の基準によって定義されたタスクをシラバスの軸とし、授業をデザインしていくが[1]、この基準は、TBLTを採用しないコミュニケーション活動を展開する際にも有用である[2]。コミュニケーションを取り入れた英語授業の重要性が叫ばれる中、中学校教科書がこの基準にどの程度合致し、どの程度逸脱しているかを示すことで、その教科書の活動を「そのまま」採用することにより得られる効果、および期待できない効果について考察することができる。その上で、英語教師がどのように授業にコミュニケーション活動を取り入れ、展開するかに対して有用なヒントが提供できると考える。

方法

分析対象

分析対象となったのは、日本全国における教科書採用数として上位三位に入る『*New Horizon*(東京書籍)』、『*Sunshine*(開隆堂)』、そして『*New Crown*(三省堂)』

である[3]。それぞれ1年生用から3年生用まで3冊に分かれているため、計9冊が分析対象となった。本研究の目的は、教科書に掲載されている口頭コミュニケーションを志向した活動がタスクの基準にどの程度合致・逸脱しているかを分析することである。したがって、教科書中に口頭コミュニケーションを促す指示(「ペアで話し合いましょう」「意見交換しましょう」など)のある活動を広く「口頭コミュニケーションを志向した活動」と定義し、それらを全て抽出した。抽出された活動の数は、327(*New Crown*: 85, *Sunshine*: 165, *New Horizon*: 77)であった。

分析方法

抽出された活動をそれぞれ、上記のタスク基準４つの観点からコーディングした。コーディングは上記の観点と、Erlam(2016)のコーディング基準を改定したものに基づきおこなった(表1)。このコーディング基準における問いの2つともに合致した場合、当該基準が満たされていると判断した。この基準に基づく分析の信頼性を検討するため、抽出された活動全体における1割について筆者ら3人の一致率を算出した。その結果、3者の一致率は84.5%であった。不一致箇所を全て議論を通じて解消したのち、分析対象となった活動すべてを3人で分担してコーディングした。

表1. タスクのコーディング基準(Erlam, 2016, p. 288を改定)

	基準を満たすための問い	基準を満たす際に期待される答え
1	基本的な焦点は意味にある	
	学習者はタスクにおいて言語学習者としてではなく言語使用者として機能することを求められるか	はい
	学習者が自発的に概念化したメッセージをエンコーディングまたはデコーディングすることが学習者のタスク遂行中の主な焦点であり、言語形式でないか	はい
2	何らかのギャップが存在する	
	コミュニケーションが起こった結果そのギャップは解消されたか	はい
	コミュニケーションの結果として、タスク遂行前は学習者自身が知らなかった発見があるか	はい
3	自身の持つリソースによって遂行される	
	学習者がタスクを遂行する際に必要な言語形式や表現を教授されるか	いいえ
	学習者は既に知っている表現を用いる機会が保障されているか	はい

	基準を満たすための問い	基準を満たす際に期待される答え
4	言語外の結果によって達成評価がなされる	
	言語はその目的としてではなく目的を達成するための手段として使用されるか	はい
	タスクが達成されたか否かはタスクが完了したかどうかで判断されるか	はい

コーディングの際、コーディング基準に加え特に注意を必要とした点として、以下の3点が挙げられる。まず、意味への焦点という点では、相手の発話が予想できず、それに対する答えを事前に準備することができないような活動を、意味交渉ありと判断し、意味への焦点を判断する材料として加えた。逆に、相手がどのような応答をしても会話の流れが変わらないような、モデルに沿った発話を求める課題は意味交渉なしとした。

次に、ギャップの有無の観点では、教科書に答えの候補があるかどうか、またそれを使用するだけで活動が完遂できるかという点と、コミュニケーションの結果として得られる情報が学習者にとって新しいものであるかという点を考慮し、これらを満たした場合はその活動にはギャップがあると判断した。例えば、ペアで「落とし物を拾って持ち主に渡す」というコミュニケーションをモデルに沿って行うという活動はギャップがあるとは判断できない。

最後に、言語外の評価という観点に関しては、文法による評価を行う指示（過去形を正しく用いて会話をするなど）以外にも、コミュニケーションの結果として得られた情報をもとに並び替えをする、表を作る、メモを取るといった活動がコミュニケーション活動の後に位置づけられているかどうかを重視し、これらを基準にタスクが達成できたか否かを判断できるといった場合は、言語外の評価という基準を満たしていると判断した。

結果

表2に4つの基準を満たした活動の数と、全体の活動に占める割合を示した。また、表3には基準が満たされたコミュニケーション活動の数と割合を学年ごとに示している。教科書ごとに各基準の達成度合いは異なるが、全体として、学年が上がるごとにコミュニケーション活動の数自体が減少していく傾向があることがわかる。コミュニケーション活動の総数でみていくと、*Sunshine*に掲載されている活動の総数は165であり、*New Crown*の85と *New Horizon*の77を約2倍も上回っている。このことから、*Sunshine*には量的には豊富な口頭産出言語活動が掲載されていることがうかがえる。しかしながら、4つのそれぞれの基準を1つでも満たしたコミュニケーション活動の数の合計をみると、*New Crown*は119、*Sunshine*は94となり、むしろ*Sunshine*のほうが少ない。*New Crown*はコミュニケーション活動の総数が85であることを考えると、1つの活動あたりが満たす基準の数が1以上であることがわかる。一方で、*New Horizon*

はコミュニケーション活動の総数が3つの教科書の中で最も少ない上に、基準の達成数も最も少ない。

さらに詳しく各基準の達成度合いをみていくと、*New Crown*は4つの基準の中で、学習者自身のリソースで活動に取り組ませるという基準は低いものの、活動に何らかのギャップが存在するという観点は7割近い活動がその基準を満たしていることがわかる。また、活動の達成を言語使用以外の観点で評価するという基準も、半数近い活動がその基準を満たしている。意味中心の活動であるかという点では、全体の20％の活動がこの基準を満たしている。これは、決して高いものであるとは言えないものの、*Sunshine*や*New Horizon*よりも遥かに高い割合である。

*New Horizon*は上記したように、口頭コミュニケーションを志向した活動が3つの教科書のうちで最も少なく、基準の達成数の合計も最も少ない。それだけでなく、学年を追うごとにインタラクティブな活動の代わりにパターンプラクティス的な口頭練習が増加していくという傾向もみられた。その結果として、学年が上がるにしたがって口頭コミュニケーションを志向する活動の数が著しく減少していることがわかる（表3）。4つの基準の中でも最も達成率が高いのはギャップの基準であり、この傾向は全体の傾向と一致している。他の3つの基準はどれも1割に満たないが、特に深刻なのはリソースの観点だろう。つまり、学習者が自ら発話内容を考え、それを表現する言語形式を選択し、そして発話をするという活動がまったく掲載されていないといえる。そして*Sunshine*は、傾向としては*New Crown*と*New Horizon*の中間に位置しつつも、パーセンテージで比較すると概ね*New Horizon*と同様の特徴が見られる。

表2. 全教科書の達成数（カッコ内はパーセント）

活動	*New Crown* 基準の達成数		*Sunshine* 基準の達成数		*New Horizon* 基準の達成数		総合 基準の達成数	
意味	17	(20.0)	11	(6.0)	2	(2.6)	30	(9.2)
ギャップ	58	(68.2)	60	(36.3)	23	(29.7)	141	(43.1)
リソース	3	(3.5)	5	(3.0)	0	(0.0)	8	(2.4)
達成評価	41	(48.2)	18	(10.9)	4	(5.2)	63	(19.3)
基準の達成数の合計	119		94		29		242	
活動総数	85		165		77		327	

注. カッコ内のパーセンテージは、（各基準を満たした活動数／活動総数）×100で計算されたものである。意味：基本的な焦点が意味にある。ギャップ：解決されるべき何らかのギャップがある。リソース：自身の持つリソースによってタスクの遂行がなされる。達成評価：タスクが達成されたかどうかによって評価がなされる。

表3. 全教科書の学年ごとの達成数（カッコ内はパーセント）

学年	活動	*New Crown* 基準の達成数		*Sunshine* 基準の達成数		*New Horizon* 基準の達成数		総合 基準の達成数	
1年	意味	5	(16.1)	2	(2.8)	0	(0.0)	7	(4.6)
	ギャップ	21	(67.7)	30	(42.3)	11	(21.6)	62	(40.5)
	リソース	0	(0.0)	4	(5.6)	0	(0.0)	4	(2.6)
	達成評価	11	(35.5)	18	(25.4)	1	(2.0)	30	(19.6)
	基準の達成数の合計	37		54		12		103	
	活動総数	31		71		51		153	
2年	意味	9	(32.1)	4	(6.9)	0	(0.0)	13	(12.9)
	ギャップ	19	(67.9)	16	(27.6)	8	(53.3)	43	(42.6)
	リソース	2	(7.1)	1	(1.7)	0	(0.0)	3	(3.0)
	達成評価	13	(46.4)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	13	(12.9)
	基準の達成数の合計	43		21		8		52	
	活動総数	28		58		15		101	
3年	意味	3	(11.5)	5	(13.9)	2	(18.2)	10	(13.7)
	ギャップ	18	(69.2)	14	(38.9)	4	(36.4)	36	(49.3)
	リソース	1	(3.8)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	1	(1.4)
	達成評価	17	(65.4)	0	(0.0)	3	(27.3)	20	(27.4)
	基準の達成数の合計	39		19		9		67	
	活動総数	26		36		11		73	

注. カッコ内のパーセンテージは、（各基準を満たした活動数／活動総数）×100で計算されたものである。意味：基本的な焦点が意味にある。ギャップ：解決されるべきなんらかのギャップがある。リソース：自身の持つリソースによってタスクの遂行がなされる。達成評価：タスクが達成されたかどうかによって評価がなされる。

全体でみると、最も達成されやすい基準はギャップであり、最も達成されにくい基準は学習者のリソースであった。この全体の傾向とは異なる傾向を示した教科書はなかったため、これは3つの教科書に共通の傾向であるといえるだろう。

次に、それぞれの基準を満たしているか否かという観点を、基準の組み合わせで見ていく。表4には、全教科書、また教科書ごとに、どのようなタスク基準の組み合わせの数が多いかを示した。

まず一見して、どの教科書も4つの基準すべてを満たしていない活動の割合が1番多いことがこの表からわかる。*New Crown*ではそのような活動は全体の3割ほどにとどまったものの、この傾向は特に*Sunshine*と*New Horizon*に顕著であり、*Sunshine*で約6割、*New Horizon*で約7割がタスク基準の全てに逸脱している活動であった。

上述のように、もっとも達成されやすい基準はギャップであったため、いずれの教科書も、第2位以下の組み合わせではギャップの基準に関してはほとんど満たしていることがわかる。また、ギャップのある活動には、達成評価として言語外の評価が可能なものが付随しやすいこともわかる。しかしながら、ギャップのある活動であっても、意味中心の基準やリソースの基準を満たしている活動の割合は非常に少ないことが分かる。ギャップの基準をもっともよく満たしている*New Crown*であっても、リソースとギャップの基準を満たす活動は全体の2.4％しかなく、*Sunshine*もこの2つの基準を満たす活動は1.8%と、きわめて限られている。*New Horizon*は、ギャップのある活動こそあれど、リソース基準を満たす活動はなかったため、ギャップがありなおかつ学習者が自身のリソースを用いて遂行するという活動は見られなかった。

表4. 4つのタスク基準の組み合わせ頻度（上位5位）

教科書	順位	頻度	割合	意味	ギャップ	リソース	達成評価
総合	1	183	54.6%	×	×	×	×
$n = 335$	2	69	20.6%	×	○	×	×
	3	40	11.9%	×	○	×	○
	4	15	4.5%	○	○	×	○
	5	10	3.0%	○	○	○	×
New Crown	1	25	29.4%	×	×	×	×
$n = 85$	2	24	28.2%	×	○	×	○
	3	17	20.0%	×	○	×	×
	4	13	15.3%	○	○	×	○
	5	2	2.4%	○	○	○	○

教科書	順位	頻度	割合	意味	ギャップ	リソース	達成評価
Sunshine	1	105	63.7%	×	×	×	×
n = 165	2	32	19.4%	×	○	×	×
	3	17	10.3%	×	○	×	○
	4	9	5.5%	○	○	×	×
	5	3	1.8%	×	○	○	○
New Horizon	1	53	68.8%	×	×	×	×
n = 79	2	20	26.0%	×	○	×	×
	3	2	2.6%	○	○	×	○
	4	1	1.3%	×	○	×	○
	4	1	1.3%	×	×	×	○

注. 4つの基準における×は基準を満たしていないこと、○は基準を満たしていることを表す。意味：基本的な焦点が意味にある。ギャップ：解決されるべきなんらかのギャップがある。リソース：自身の持つリソースによってタスクの遂行がなされる。達成評価：タスクが達成されたかどうかによって評価がなされる。

考察

分析の結果、対象となった3冊の教科書に掲載されていたコミュニケーションを志向する活動は、全体の半数以上がタスク基準の全てから逸脱している活動であることが示された。これは、教科書に掲載されている口頭コミュニケーションを志向する課題のほとんどが、ペアでスキットを読み上げたり、ダイアローグ内の表現を入れ替えたりすることのみが求められるような課題であったことによる。*New Crown*についてはタスク基準のすべてを逸脱している活動は全体の3割弱にとどまっていたが、やりとりの焦点が意味にある活動や、学習者が自分のリソースを用いて課題を遂行するといった性格の活動は極めて少なく、スキットや表現を入れ替えて発話する活動が大部分を占めていた。つまり、口頭コミュニケーションを志向する課題でも、そのほとんどがペアで行う音読かその延長線上に位置づけられるものであるといえる。ただし音読活動そのものに関しては、「有意味な口頭コミュニケーション」以外の目的をもって実施されることもあり、その活動自体が即座に悪いものというわけではない。例えば、音読活動は学習者が「英語を声に出す」という抵抗感を軽減するという調査もある（Morioka, Tsumura, & Fukihara, 2015）。また「全ての基準から逸脱」とされた活動の少なかった*New Crown*にみられる顕著な特徴として、「全ての基準から逸脱」に該当する活動は、すべて“skit”という、ダイアローグを覚えて声に出すセクションであったことが挙げられる。このような活動を「英語を声に出す抵抗感の軽減」や、「発音の練習」などといった目的をもって行うことの意味は、この結果によって否定されないことは付記しておかねばならない。

次に、全体の傾向として「自身の持つリソースによって遂行される」という基準はもっとも満たされにくいことが示された。つまり、教科書に口頭コミュニケーション活動が出てきたとしても、その活動は事前に用意された言語項目をそのまま運用すれば

達成できるものであった。ほとんどを占めるケースとして、活動の説明や必要な絵などが示されたのち、そのページの下部もしくは横に、生徒が発話すべき言語項目や表現が「すべて」列挙されており、生徒がすべきことはその表現の一部を変えて（もしくはそのまま）発話するということであった。このリソースに関する基準を満たすのがもっとも難しいという結果は、研修を受けた語学教員が作成したタスクを本研究と同様の観点から評価したErlam（2016）の結果とも一致するものである。

既に記したように、このようなタスクでは、学習者が自然な口頭コミュニケーションのために発話を行う最初の段階、すなわち自身が第二言語で何をどのように伝えるかを考え、次にどのような文法でエンコーディングするかという処理がほとんど行われないと考えられる。学習者の視点から換言すると、学習者が自身で言う内容を生成し、その内容をどういった言語形式で表せばよいか自発的に考える機会がほとんどないということである。このような課題をそのまま用いることは、学習者の口頭コミュニケーションにおける自発的発話を訓練するという意図からは外れたものとなる。

また、「何らかのギャップが存在する」という基準を満たしているものは、本研究が採用した基準の中では満たされているものが最も多かった。これは、口頭コミュニケーションを行うに際して、そのやり取りを動機づけるためにギャップは最低限必要になるものであるためではないかと考えられる。特に興味深い特徴として、*New Crown*に掲載されている活動の65%近くが、この「ギャップが存在する」という基準を満たしていた。*New Crown*は、自己表現活動が多く取り入れられており、口頭コミュニケーションの際に自身が持つ相手の知らない内容（自分の嗜好など）を伝えることを求めるものが多いため、このような傾向が見られたと考えられる。また、*New Crown*は自己表現活動ののちに「メモを取る」、「表を完成させる」など、言語外の達成評価を採用しているものが多かった（28.2%）ことがその特徴として挙げられる。これらの特徴は、他の活動をより真正性の高い活動にする際に参考になる点であるといえる。

しかし、全体的に見て「何らかのギャップが存在する」という基準を満たしている活動も、上記の「自身の持つリソースによって遂行される」が組み合わせとして満たされていないものがほとんどであった。もともと、ギャップを作る大きな理由の一つとしては、前述のように学習者が自発的に相互交流の働きかけを生じさせるように動機づけることであったが、課題によって必要とされる表現が全て教科書に記されており、相互に何が表現されるかがわかっている条件では、聞き手が発話の不明瞭な部分を確認するために聞きなおしたり、話し手が意味を伝えるために言い換えたりなどといった働きかけの発生はあまり期待できないといえよう。

*New Crown*に掲載されている自己表現活動において達成評価を言語外で行える構成になっているタスクが多いのは前述の通りであるが、*Sunshine*に関しては言語外の達成評価がみられたのは中学校1年生の教科書に掲載されている活動のみであった。また*New Horizon*に関しては、口頭コミュニケーションを促す課題の数自体が他の教科書と比較して少ない。また分析結果をみてわかるように、*Sunshine*においては８割以上、*New Horizon*においては95％以上が外的資料を参照しながら「その日に学習する言語項目を使った文を声に出す」といった性格の強い課題であり、そのような課題においては言語外の達成評価を採用することが難しい。このような場合、学習者に真正性の高い有意味な口頭コミュニケーションの機会を提供するには、教科書に掲載されている課題を大幅に改定するか、教師が自らそのようなタスクを用意しなければならない。

また全体の傾向として、学年が上がるごとに口頭コミュニケーションの数が低下していく傾向がみられた。この結果は筆者らの直感に反するものであった。なぜなら、「自身の持つリソースによって遂行される」という基準が満たされていないのは、教科書が「英語学習初期の段階では、学習者自身がもつ言語的リソースが限られているため、自然な口頭コミュニケーションができない」という教師の不安を反映しているためではないかと考えたためである。しかし、そうであれば、英語のスキルが向上する高い学年になるにつれて、このような口頭コミュニケーションを志向する活動の数はむしろ増加していくはずである。口頭コミュニケーションを志向する活動の数が減少するということは、その他の文法説明や読解活動に多くの分量が割かれているということである。このことは、1・2年次にはいわゆる「教科書本文」が会話調であることが比較的多いことに比べて、3年次の教科書では物語文や説明文が教科書本文として登場する頻度が高いことからも裏付けられる。このことは、日本における教科書では、口頭コミュニケーションを志向する活動が英語の運用スキル習得という観点からはあまり重視されていない可能性を示している。

では、教師は教科書に掲載された言語活動をどのように改変すれば、第二言語習得の観点から有益とされる文法エンコーディングの機会を保障し、さらに学習者同士の意味交渉を促すような活動を取り入れることができるのであろうか。この点を、本研究が参照したタスクの定義とその基準の観点から考察してみたい。

まず、言語使用以外の達成評価に関しては、*New Crown*でしばしば用いられていた、「メモを取る」「表を作成させる」といった活動を追加することが挙げられる。表に埋めたことについて、ペアまたはグループワークの後に教室全体でシェアしたり、表やメモを元にその後文を書かせるようにしたりするなど、表を埋めることに意味をもたせることが重要である[4]。

次に、意味への焦点である。これは、単なる単文応答以外の要素を付与するような指示を加えることが1つの方法として考えられる。例えば、ただ過去に起こったことについて質問し、それに答えるのみではなく、相手の答えに応じた発話を投げ返すことを学習者に求めるのである。これは「プラスワンダイアログ」とも呼ばれ、実際に教室で活用している教師も多いかもしれない。こういった仕掛けを用意することで、相手の応答に対してその場で自分の伝えたいことを概念化し、それを文法エンコーディングするという作業を学習者は求められることになる。ただし、単に質問をすることを目的とするのではなく、言語使用以外の達成評価の観点も鑑み、会話を広げることによって達成できるような別の目標を設定しておくことも重要である。

また、相手が何を言うか予想がつかない—実際のコミュニケーションではそういった場面がむしろ普通であるが—状況における発話場面では、相手の発言の意味を確認したり、または理解できなかった場合に聞き返したり、理解されなかった際に発言を修正したりといった意味交渉が起こりやすいといえる。このような理解の確認や聞き返し、発言の修正などは、コミュニケーション活動時に限らず英語の授業の中で教師が積極的に英語を使いながらモデルを示すことが望ましい。場合によっては、理解ができなかったときや相手の発言の意味を確認したいときに使う表現を補助資料として学習者に渡しておき、活動の中で場面に応じて使用できるような手助けをすることも考えられる。

最後に、本研究の調査結果から最も満たされにくい基準と判断された「自身のもつリソースによって遂行される」について述べる。これについては、教科書に掲載されて

いる語彙やフレーズの情報をできるだけ参照させないようにすることが必要である。例えば、規則変化動詞の過去形（e.g., *played, watched, visited*）の産出を狙った活動があったとしよう[5]。ここで、*played a video game, watched a movie, visited a museum*といった語句をあたえてしまっては、学習者が活動中に行うことはここに書かれた語句をスロット（I____）にあてはめて産出するだけであることは予想がつく。それでは、概念化と文法エンコーディングのプロセスを学習者が経験することができない。したがって、例えば動詞の原形のみを与えて（e.g., *play, watch, visit*）、「何を作ったか」「どこに行ったか」「なにを食べたか」などは学習者に自由に考えさせてみてはどうだろうか。こうすることで、"What did you do yesterday?"と聞かれた学習者が例えば「昨日友だちとゲームをした」ということを伝えたいと思ったとき、それをどうやって英語で表現するかの文法エンコーディングプロセスを行う機会を保障することができる。

この「自身のもつリソースによって遂行される」という観点は、ともすれば「教師はタスク遂行に必要となる言語形式を教えてはならない」と読み替えられてしまうこともある。しかしながら、これは誤解である。あくまで、「事前に」教えてはならないのであって、タスク遂行中に学習者が自分で表現したいことと、自分が表現できることのギャップに気づいたあとで（noticing the gap）、タスク遂行に有効な言語形式を教師が与えてあげればよいのである（e.g., Swain, 1993）。

以上、活動改変の例として、タスクの定義と基準をもとにいくつかの提案をした。ただし、これはあくまで一つの提案にすぎず、これだけが唯一の答えではないことは申し添えておかねばならない。教師自身が目の前の学習者をよく観察し、彼らに適切な活動を考えることが重要であることは、疑いのないことである。

結論

本研究は、学習者と教師、および学習者間の口頭コミュニケーションを志向する活動の重要性が徐々に認識されつつあることを踏まえ、日本における中学校教科書に掲載されている口頭コミュニケーションを志向した課題がどのような特徴を持つか、第二言語習得研究の知見を援用しつつ調査することを目的とした。そのため本研究では、Ellis and Shintani（2014）の示した「基本的な焦点は意味にある」、「何らかのギャップが存在する」、「自身の持つリソースによって遂行される」、「言語外の結果によって達成評価がなされる」という4つの基準に照らして3種類の教科書の特徴を分析した。

結果として、教科書に掲載されている口頭コミュニケーションを志向する活動は、教科書に掲載されているダイアローグを読み上げるか、付記されている表現を選んで入れ替えることによって達成される課題が最も大きな割合を占めることが示された。このことは、教科書を教師が自ら改変せず用いると、学習者が自身で言う内容を自発的に考え、その内容をどういった言語形式で表せばよいかという文法的エンコーディングを行う機会が少なく、また第二言語習得上、大きな役割をもつといわれている意味交渉が期待できない課題が多いことを示唆した。また、近年の言語教育研究において口頭コミュニケーション志向する活動の重要性が強調されつつあるとはいえ、教科書はそれを十分反映したものとはいえないことが本研究から示唆された。真正性の高い有意味な口頭コミュニケーションの機会を学習者に提供するためには、教科書の活動をそのまま用いるのみではなく、学習者が自発的に言語産出を行うような「タスク的」な活動を教師の裁量で取り入れていく必要がある。

本研究が取り扱った3種類の中学校の英語教科書は、それぞれ特徴が異なり、どのように改変を行えば真正性の高い口頭コミュニケーションを志向する活動になるのかといった端的な答えがあるわけではない。また、本研究が取り扱った教科書は日本において大きなシェアをもつものではあったが、すべてではない。しかし、本研究が示した、教科書に掲載されている多くの課題がもつ「真正性の高い有意味なコミュニケーション活動という観点から足りない点」は、教師が教室内で行う言語活動を内省し改善するための1つの基礎資料となると考えられる。今後は筆者らも、中学の現場で授業実践を行う教師と交流を図りながら、よりよい言語活動をどのように計画し実践していけばよいかを考えていきたい。

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注

1. タスク関連研究のほとんどは、この基準によって採用されたタスクを用いた指導効果を示すものであり、シラバスの評価を行うものは少ないため、タスク関連研究が示した知見のほとんどはこの基準を満たしたタスク単体の効果であるといえる。
2. 例えばSato and Kasahara（2015）は、従来提唱されてきたPresentation-Practice-Production（PPP）を機軸にしつつも、Productionの活動として機械的な産出訓練ではなく真正性の高い有意味なコミュニケーション活動を取り入れる必要性を主張しており、PPPにタスクを取り入れたHybrid PPPを提唱している。
3. 日本経済新聞（2015）の調べによると、これらの教科書の全国シェア率は*New Horizon*: 33.8%、*Sunshine*: 24.8%、*New Crown*: 24.2%であり、三社で全国の82.8%を占める。
4. 言語使用以外の評価とした場合、例えば不完全な文や誤った表現を用いて、あるいは単語のみのやりとりでタスクを遂行してしまう学習者が出るという懸念があるかもしれない。しかしながら、背景の節で述べた通り、TBLTでは言語使用の正確さをタスクの達成よりも重視することはない。たとえ不完全であっても、言語使用者として達成すべきタスクを達成したという事実を評価するからである。ただし、不完全な文や文法的な誤りに対して教師がなにも教育的介入を行わないことをTBLTが奨励しているわけではない。学習者の表出に現れた文法的な誤りは、あくまで事後的に明示的・暗示的フィードバックを行うことで対応し、タスクが達成できたかどうかを主として評価を行う。
5. そもそも、ある言語形式の産出を狙ったタスクという時点で、タスクとはみなせないという考えもある。しかしながら、中学校教科書は基本的には一つの課で学習する言語形式が定められており、その言語形式を使うことを目標とした活動があることがほとんどである。したがって、ここではその活動を基にして、いかにタスクの基準を満たすような活動として機能させることができるかを重視している。

福田純也は静岡大学教育学部特任助教である。主な研究対象はタスクを用いた言語指導法、第二言語習得における意識の役割などである。

田村祐は名古屋大学大学院国際開発研究科博士後期課程在籍、日本学術振興会特別研究員（DC2）、愛知工科大学非常勤講師である。専門は、心理言語学的アプローチによる第二言語の文法習得研究である。

栗田朱莉は岡崎市立矢作北中学校教諭である。名古屋大学大学院国際開発研究科博士前期課程修了、修士（学術）。

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Research Forum

Examining Personality Bias in Peer Assessment of EFL Oral Presentations: A Preliminary Study

Mitsuko Tanaka
Ritsumeikan University

In this study, I explored a potential personality bias in peer assessment of EFL oral presentations. First-year Japanese university students enrolled in an oral presentation class (N = 21) made presentations and evaluated their classmates' presentations over two semesters. Rater severity was estimated using the many-facet Rasch measurement model. Raters' personality traits were assessed based on their responses to a questionnaire containing 4 variables: dogmatism, individuality, evaluation apprehension, and dependency on others. The results of 2 multiple stepwise regression analyses showed that whereas personalities were not associated with rater severity in the beginning, dependency on others and evaluation apprehension significantly predicted rating severity as time went by. Whereas those with high dependency on others (who valued harmony with others) became more lenient, those with high evaluation apprehension became more severe in their assessment of their classmates' presentations. These findings indicate a potential personality bias in peer assessment of EFL oral presentations.

本研究は英語で行うプレゼンテーションに対する学生間相互評価において評価者の性格によるバイアスの有無を検証することを目的とする。一クラス21名の大学一年生が二学期にわたりプレゼンテーションおよび相互評価を行った。評価者の厳しさは多相ラッシュモデルで分析した。評価者の性格は、「独断性」、「個の認識・主張」、「評価懸念」、「他者への親和・順応」を含む質問紙への回答によって測定した。重回帰分析の結果、初めは評価者の性格と評価の厳しさに関連はないものの、時間の経過とともに「評価懸念」と

「他者への親和・順応」が評価の厳しさに影響を及ぼすことが分かった。具体的には、他者との関係を重視する学生の評価は甘くなり、他者からの評価を気にする学生の評価は厳しくなることが明らかになった。以上のことからオーラルプレゼンテーションの学生間相互評価においては学生評価者の性格に起因するバイアスが生じえることが示された。

Oral presentation is one of the tasks that are often used in EFL speaking classes in Japanese tertiary education. Peer assessment is incorporated into class activities in some EFL oral presentation courses. In general, peer assessment benefits learners as it tends to improve the quality and effectiveness of learning (Topping, 2009). Researchers in the EFL setting have also pointed out the numerous positive effects of peer assessment on learning (e.g., Azarnoosh, 2013; Cheng & Warren, 2005; Otoshi & Heffenen, 2007). For example, through peer assessment students can recognize assessment as a shared responsibility and thus can be involved in learning more autonomously. Additionally, they can understand the assessment criteria more clearly and reflect on their performance and learn more deeply by observing their peers' performance critically. Despite the acknowledged educational benefits of peer assessment, many teachers might feel hesitant about incorporating it into a formal grading system because its reliability has not been empirically established.

In general, rater variability, which has been characterized as "variability of scores awarded to examinees that is associated with characteristics of the raters and not with the performance of examinees" (Eckes, 2015, p. 39), exists in performance assessments regardless of rater types (e.g., teachers and students). One such rater variability is rater severity. Examinees of the same performance ability may pass or fail depending on the severity of raters. Raters differ in the severity or leniency with which they rate (Eckes, 2005). Student raters are also assumed to display such variance in rater severity in peer assessment.

Although many factors may affect rater severity—such as personality traits, rating experience, rating purposes, workload, and demographic characteristics (Eckes, 2015)—the present study focused on personality traits. When rapport is built among students in class, some students, such as those who value harmony with others, may give more supportive ratings to their peers' performances than other students do. Thus, personality traits may be a source of systematic variance affecting rater severity. The aim of the present study was to examine a potential rater bias derived from personality traits in peer assessment in an EFL oral presentation classroom.

Literature Review

There has been very little research on the roles of personality traits on peer assessment in EFL settings. To my knowledge, AlFallay (2004) is the only researcher to carry out a study that incorporated personality factors to examine rater effects in peer assessments. AlFallay investigated the effects of psychological and personality traits (i.e., self-esteem, anxiety, and motivation) on the accuracy of peer- and self-assessments in EFL oral presentations in Saudi Arabia. The results of correlational analysis showed that peer assessments were more highly associated with teacher-assessment when students had high anxiety, high integrative orientation, and low motivational intensity compared to students with low anxiety, high instrumental orientation, and high motivational intensity. Although the study did not address the issue of rater severity, it clearly demonstrated that individual difference variables, including personality traits, were associated with rating behaviors in peer assessment.

Currently, the Big Five model is the dominant model for investigating personality (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). The present study, however, employs variables for self-construal, or "how individuals see the self in relation to others" (Cross, Hardin, & Gercek-Swing, 2011, p. 143), to measure personality traits. I adapted Takata's (2000) questionnaire instrument to measure self-construal (see Appendix). The questionnaire consisted of 20 items used to measure four variables: dogmatism, individuality, dependency on others, and evaluation apprehension. Dogmatism represents assertive attitudes and behaviors people display based on their own beliefs. Those with higher dogmatism express their opinions assertively and clearly. Individuality refers to a type of personality that values its own beliefs and decisions. Those with higher individuality do not care even when their opinions and behaviors are different from others and they think that their own decision is the best decision. Dependency on others revolves around relatedness and harmony with others. Those with higher dependency on others think that maintaining harmony with others is important and tend to give others' opinions more weight than their own opinions when opinions conflict. Evaluation apprehension refers to a type of personality that cares about being evaluated by others. Those with higher evaluation apprehension care about what others think of them.

When students enjoy rapport with their classmates, those with higher dependency on others might give more lenient ratings to their peers' performances due to the value they place on relatedness with their peers. On the other hand, even when students build a strong bond with their peers, those

with higher dogmatism and individuality might maintain their severity level, as their decisions are usually not affected by their relationships with their peers. As no research has been conducted to investigate the impact of these personality traits on rater severity in peer assessment, the present study examined a potential rater bias derived from the personality traits in peer assessment in an EFL oral presentation classroom. The following research question was posited in this study:

RQ To what extent do personality traits influence rater severity as student raters become familiar with their classmates and with peer assessment?

Method

Participants

The participants were Japanese university students majoring in sports and health science at a private university in Japan. They were all members of the author's class. The students in this department take four oral presentation courses that are conducted once a week over 2 years (one course extending over four semesters) as a requirement. The present study focused on 1st-year students in one class during the 2014 academic year. The students were placed in the class in association with an introductory academic seminar course regardless of their English proficiency levels. The students were engaged in many academic and social activities in the main academic seminar class. The author observed that through these activities they had built good rapport with their classmates by the second semester. Although the class comprised 27 students, the data for only 21 student raters were used for the main analysis as data on personality traits, peer assessment, or both were missing for the remaining students.

Oral Presentations

Each student made two presentations (mid-term and final presentations) in each semester. This study focuses on the mid-term presentations they made in the first semester (Weeks 8 and 9; hereinafter, Time 1) and the second semester (Weeks 21 and 22; hereinafter, Time 2). The duration of the presentations was 3 minutes for Time 1 and 4 minutes for Time 2. Students made presentations on topics of their own choice both times. At Time 1, they made a presentation based on information from books and articles. Example presentation topics were *How to get better sleep* and *The effects of music*.

At Time 2, they conducted a survey and made a presentation based on the results. Example presentation topics were *Experiences of flow in sports* and *Burnout syndromes*.

Peer Assessment

Each student rater evaluated his or her classmates' presentations both times with a peer assessment form used in the English program of the department. The assessment form contained four categories (English language use, content and organization, preparation and nonverbal delivery, and question and answer session) to rate each presenter using a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = *very poor* to 5 = *very good*) and space to write a short comment on each presentation. The present study focused on the first three categories.

The student raters were informed of the three criteria through the teacher's explanations in advance. As peer assessment was part of the course assignments for which their final course grade was calculated, students were generally seriously engaged in peer assessment and wrote a comment for each presentation (see the section on rater severity for more detailed discussion). The peer assessment was not disclosed to the presenters. No feedback was given for the peer assessments at either Time 1 or Time 2.

Personality Traits

Takata's (2000) questionnaire on self-construal was administered around Time 1 to measure the students' personality traits (see Appendix for the English translation of the questionnaire items). As illustrated in the literature review, the questionnaire contained items to measure four variables: dogmatism (four items), individuality (six items), dependency on others (six items), and evaluation apprehension (four items). The questionnaire was answered on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*) and was administered to 219 students, including the participants of this study (n = 21). The reliability analysis was conducted based on the responses from the 219 students using Winsteps 3.80.0 (Linacre, 2013b) and SPAA 24.0. Table 1 shows the summary of the reliabilities and unidimensionality of the four questionnaire constructs. Each construct is acceptably unidimensional as the Rasch model accounted for more than or approximately half of the total variance and the eigenvalue of the first residuals was less than 2.0, which is the variance of two items and the minimum value for construing a secondary dimension (Linacre, 2012). Concerning construct reliability, whereas the three constructs besides dependency on others dis-

played acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficients (min. = .71) and Rasch person reliabilities (min. = .68), dependency on others showed a low reliability estimate (Cronbach's α = .57, Rasch person reliability = .53). Despite its low reliability, dependency on others was retained for further analysis due to its importance in the present study. Thus, the results must be interpreted with caution, especially as the sample is stratified into only one or two levels with a person reliability estimate of .50 (Linacre, 2012), which may suppress the effect of dependency on others in the main analysis.

Table 1. The Summary of the Reliability Analysis for the Questionnaire Constructs (*N* = 219)

	DOG	IND	DEP	EVA
Variance explained by measures	47.30	56.70	48.60	63.20
The first residuals	14.10	18.60	12.90	17.90
(eigenvalue)	1.60	1.70	1.50	1.90
Item separation	5.81	6.98	10.18	8.72
Item reliability	.97	.98	.99	.99
Person separation	1.68	1.47	1.05	1.78
Person reliability	.74	.68	.53	.76
Cronbach's α	.74	.71	.57	.76

Note. DOG = dogmatism (4 items); IND = individualism (6 items); DEP = dependency on others (6 items); EVA = evaluation apprehension (4 items).

Results and Discussion

Descriptive Statistics

Rater Severity

Rater severity of each student rater was estimated for both Times 1 and 2 using the many-facet Rasch measurement model with Facets 3.71.2 (Linacre, 2013a). Although the class comprised 27 students, data on 26 presenters and 25 raters were submitted to the Rasch analysis as the remaining data were unavailable. The data were specified to have four facets: the ability of student presenters, the severity of student raters, the difficulty of two sessions (Times 1 and 2), and the difficulty of three assessment categories (English language use, content and organization, and preparation and non-

verbal delivery). Figure 1 presents the Wright map plotting measures for these four facets with the logit scale in Column 1 on the left and the scale used in the assessment in the last column.

Column 2 shows presenter abilities. Higher ability presenters were mapped at the top of the vertical ruler and lower ability presenters at the bottom. The presenters are largely spread out along this measure, revealing a large variance in the presentation abilities of the participants of this study as perceived by their peers.

Column 3 shows rater severity. More severe raters are located at the top and more lenient raters at the bottom. As only 10 out of 25 student raters were located below 0.00 logits, the majority of the student raters scored their peers' presentations critically. The data from the calibration report for the student raters revealed that rater severity varied considerably, ranging between -1.82 and 1.16 logits (M = 0.50, SD = 0.10), with a rater separation reliability (rater separation index) of .97 (5.28). The significant fixed (all-same) chi-square, $\chi^2(24) = 620.7$, $p < .001$, also confirmed the significant variations in the level of severity among the student raters.

Column 4 shows the session difficulty for Times 1 and 2. Although the difficulty span between the two sessions was small (0.28 logits), the presentations at Time 2 (M = 0.14) were more severely scored than at Time 1 (M = -0.14). The separation reliability (separation index) of .96 (5.10) and the significant chi-square, $\chi^2(1) = 27.0$, $p < .001$, also confirmed the significant difference between the two sessions.

Column 5 shows the category difficulty. Although all three categories were clustered around the center, preparation and nonverbal delivery was scored the most severely, followed by English language use and content and organization, respectively.

Concerning consistency of the student raters' ratings, two of the 25 student raters (Raters A and B) were identified as misfitting based on the criteria of the infit and outfit mean square (MNSQ) statistics between 0.50 and 1.50 (Linacre, 2013c). Rater A (rater severity = 0.34 logits, infit MNSQ statistics = 1.76, outfit MNSQ statistics = 1.77) and Rater B (rater severity = 0.86 logits, infit MNSQ statistics = 1.91, outfit MNSQ statistics = 1.89) underfit the model. Although use of fit MNSQ statistics above 2.0 "distorts or degrades the measurement system," MNSQ statistics between 1.5 and 2.0 are indicated as "unproductive for construction of measurement, but not degrading" (Linacre, 2013c, p. 266). Accordingly, the two misfitting raters with fit MNSQ statistics below 2.0 were retained for the main analysis. The fit MNSQ statistics of 25 student raters ranged between 0.67 and 1.91 (M =

```
+-------------------------------------------------------------------------------+
|Logits|+Presenters|-Raters|-Sessions|-Categories                          |Scores|
|------+-----------+-------+---------+-----------------------------------+------|
|    5 +           +       +         +                                   + (5)  |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      |           |       |         |                                   | ---  |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|    4 + *         +       +         +                                   +      |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | *         |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | *         |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | *         |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | *         |       |         |                                   |      |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |  4   |
|    3 +           +       +         +                                   +      |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | *         |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | **        |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | **        |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | ****      |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | **        |       |         |                                   |      |
|    2 +           +       +         +                                   +      |
|      | ***       |       |         |                                   | ---  |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | ***       |       |         |                                   |      |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | *         |       |         |                                   |      |
|      | *         | **    |         |                                   |      |
|    1 +           +       +         +                                   +      |
|      |           | *     |         |                                   |      |
|      | *         | **    |         |                                   |  3   |
|      |           | **    |         |                                   |      |
|      |           | *     |         |                                   |      |
|      |           | ***** |         |                                   |      |
|      |           | *     | Time 2  | Preparation & Non-verbal Delivery |      |
*    0 *           * *     *         * English Language Use              *      *
|      | *         |       | Time 1  | Content & Organization            |      |
|      |           | ***   |         |                                   |      |
|      |           | **    |         |                                   | ---  |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      |           | *     |         |                                   |      |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|   -1 +           + *     +         +                                   +      |
|      |           | *     |         |                                   |      |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      |           | *     |         |                                   |  2   |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      |           |       |         |                                   |      |
|      |           | *     |         |                                   |      |
|   -2 +           +       +         +                                   + (0)  |
|------+-----------+-------+---------+-----------------------------------+------|
```

Figure 1. The FACETS Wright map for the presenter ability, rater severity, session difficulty, and category difficulty. Each asterisk (*) indicates one student.

1.00, *SD* = 0.30) and between 0.67 and 1.89 (*M* = 1.01, *SD* = 0.30) for infit and outfit values, respectively. Taken together, most students were consistent in scoring their peer presentations. The mean of the peer assessment also correlated highly with the teacher assessment based on the raw scores at Time 1 ($r = .82$, $p < .001$).

Personality Traits of Student Raters

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for the four personality variables in logits. The participants at the group level generally asserted their opinions (relatively high dogmatism; *M* = 0.69) but tended not to stick to their beliefs when people around them had different ideas (low individuality; *M* = -0.94). They had a tendency to value relatedness and harmony with others (high dependency on others; *M* = 1.13), and cared about being evaluated by others (high evaluation apprehension; *M* = 0.90).

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Personality Traits (*N* = 21)

			95% CI		
	M	*SE*	LL	UL	*SD*
Dogmatism	0.69	0.30	0.06	1.32	1.39
Individuality	-0.94	.30	-1.57	-0.31	1.38
Dependency on others	1.13	.22	0.68	1.59	1.00
Evaluation apprehension	0.90	.43	-0.01	1.80	1.99

Note. All the estimates are based on Rasch logits. Cl = confidence interval; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

The Effect of Personality Traits on Rater Severity

The research question concerned to what extent personality traits influence rater severity as student raters become familiar with their classmates and with peer assessment. In order to examine the effects when students are less familiar with their classmates and the assessment, a multiple stepwise regression analysis was performed with rater severity at Time 1 as a dependent variable. The results showed that none of the four personality factors significantly predicted rater severity at Time 1 (Table 3). When student raters were relatively new to their classmates and to peer assessment, personalities were not associated with the rater severity of peer assessment.

Table 3. The Regression Analysis of Personalities Predicting Rater Severity at Time 1 (N = 21)

Predictors	F	R^2	B	$SE\ B$	β
Step 1	.75	.16			
Individuality			0.16	0.22	.31
Evaluation apprehension			0.06	0.13	.18
Dogmatism			0.08	0.20	.15
Dependency on others			−0.09	0.25	−.13
Step 2	1.02	.15			
Dogmatism			0.12	0.16	.23
Individuality			0.11	0.17	.21
Evaluation apprehension			0.03	0.09	.08
Step 3	1.54	.15			
Dogmatism			0.13	0.15	.25
Individuality			0.09	0.15	.17
Step 4	2.87	.13			
Dogmatism			0.19	0.11	.36

Note. All variables were nonsignificant. B = unstandardized regression coefficient; β = standardized regression coefficient.

In order to examine the effects when student raters are more familiar with their classmates and peer assessment, another multiple stepwise regression analysis was conducted with rater severity at Time 2 as a dependent variable. The results showed that two of the four predictors (i.e., dependency on others and evaluation apprehension) were significant predictors of rater severity at Time 2 (Table 4). In line with the initial hypotheses, whereas student raters who valued relatedness and harmony with others were more lenient in peer assessment, the personality traits of being independent and assertive did not influence rater severity. Furthermore, students who cared about being evaluated by others were more severe in peer assessment. Taken together, although some personality traits (i.e., dogmatism and individuality) do not have a systematic impact on the rater severity, it appears that certain personality traits (i.e., dependency on others and evaluation apprehension) influenced rater severity when students were more familiar

with their classmates and peer evaluation. However, further research is needed to verify these results, as the confidence intervals of the means of the four independent variables were wide as shown in Table 2.

Table 4. The Regression Analysis of Personalities Predicting Rater Severity at Time 2 (N = 21)

Predictors	F	R^2	B	$SE\ B$	β
Step 1	2.57	.39			
Evaluation apprehension			0.25	0.14	.58
Dependency on others			-0.49	0.26	-.56
Dogmatism			0.17	0.20	.28
Individuality			0.05	0.23	.07
Step 2	3.61*	.39			
Evaluation apprehension			0.23	0.10	.53*
Dependency on others			-0.45	0.20	-.52*
Dogmatism			0.20	0.12	.33
Step 3	3.63*	.29			
Dependency on others			-0.52	0.21	-.59*
Evaluation apprehension			0.23	0.10	.53*

Note. B = unstandardized regression coefficient; β = standardized regression coefficient.

*$p < .05$

Conclusion

To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the effect of personality traits on rater severity in peer assessment of EFL oral presentations. The present study found that rater personalities tended to cause rater bias in peer assessment under certain circumstances and may jeopardize the precision of peer assessment. However, this study was only a preliminary study conducted with a very small sample size (N = 21). It should be replicated with a larger sample to generalize the findings. As there is a dearth of research investigating rater bias in peer assessment of EFL oral presentations, more research on this issue is also needed.

Acknowledgment

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Mitsuko Tanaka is a lecturer at Ritsumeikan University. She holds a PhD in education from Temple University. Her current research interests include individual differences in SLA (e.g., motivation and self-construal) and language assessment.

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Appendix

English Translation of the Questionnaire Items for Takata's (2000) Self-Construal

To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements?

Factor 1: Dogmatism (DOG)	
DOG1	I always try to have opinions of my own.
DOG2	I always know what I want to do.
DOG3	I always express my opinions clearly.
DOG4	I always speak and act with confidence.
Factor 2: Individuality (IND)	
IND1	The best decisions are the ones I make by myself.
IND2	When I believe in an idea, I do not care what others think of it.
IND3	Even if people around me have different ideas, I stick to my beliefs.
IND4	In general, I make my own decisions.
IND5	Whether something is good or bad depends on how I think about it.
IND6	I do not care when my opinions and behaviors are different from others.

Factor 3: Dependency on Others (DEP)	
DEP1	It is important to maintain harmony with others.
DEP2	It is important for me to be liked by others.
DEP3	How I feel depends on who I am with and what circumstances I am in.
DEP4	I avoid having conflicts with my group's members.
DEP5	When I differ in opinions from others, I often accept their opinions.
DEP6	I sometimes change my attitudes and behaviors depending on who I am with and what circumstances I am in.
Factor 4: Evaluation Apprehension (EVA)	
EVA1	I care about what others think of me.
EVA2	Sometimes I am worried about how things will turn out and have difficulty in getting started.
EVA3	I care about how others evaluate me.
EVA4	When interacting with others, I care about my relationships with them and their social status.

Note. All the questionnaire items are randomly ordered 6-point Likert-scale items. 1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree.

Reviews

Spoken Discourse. Rodney Jones. London, England: Bloomsbury, 2016. vi + 219 pp.

Reviewed by
Thomas Amundrud
Nara University of Education

For current and future language teachers, a working knowledge of the study of spoken discourse is essential. As with most academic fields, though, the range of approaches available can seem dizzying to those for whom discourse is not a primary research area. In *Spoken Discourse*, Jones demystifies the study of how we use speech in society and expands the traditional definition of *speech* beyond the notion of two or more speakers talking face-to-face to include both material, technological mediations such as YouTube videos as well as the meaning-making, semiotic technologies we use to create, affirm, and challenge identities. In doing so, Jones provides a workable and coherent framework that enables new researchers in spoken discourse, as well as students and teachers in this field, to access and analyze speech and its material effects in the world. To do this, Jones develops what he calls "an analytical approach that focuses on the relationship between spoken discourse and the concrete *actions* [emphasis in original] we take with it" (p. 183). Jones approaches the study of spoken discourse from the triadic, social semiotic perspective he has developed elsewhere (e.g., Jones, 2012). Accordingly, in this volume, he simultaneously focuses on language above the clause (forming cohesive texts), language in action (performing concrete social goals), and language as a means of creating social worlds mediated by ideology.

In Chapter 1, Jones introduces the study of spoken discourse via a journey through detailed transcripts of a phone conversation in which a young man in the U.S. military comes out as gay to his father. To show how the study of spoken discourse is much more complex than merely studying face-to-

face or traditionally mediated interactions like the telephone conversations studied at length in early conversation analysis, Jones informs us that this phone conversation was included as a part of the young man's YouTube video channel in which he simultaneously documented and searched for support for his journey coming out as a gay member of the military while the "Don't ask, don't tell" policy was still in place. In Chapter 2, Jones surveys various disciplines that have contributed to the study of spoken discourse, focusing particularly on the contributions of conversation analysis, pragmatics, and sociolinguistics. Chapter 3 contains an examination of the tools, both technological and semiotic, through which we communicate and how the affordances of these tools of talk develop. Jones argues and shows that these technologies should not be seen as breaks from face-to-face interaction as well as that face-to-face conversation should not be seen as pure or unmediated (p. 56). In Chapter 4, Jones uses the perspectives of speech act theory and conversation analysis to look at mediated action—how talk interacts with action and serves to facilitate or impede it. Chapter 5 is an exploration of interaction: (a) how people manage the mechanics of talk, such as opening or closing conversations and taking turns, (b) how people in interactions become "ratified participants," recognized as having a right to participate in that interaction, and (c) how different types of ratified or nonratified participation are enacted with both face-to-face and digital technological mediation. In Chapter 6, Jones looks at identities and how they are both "brought along" to interactions as conventionalized amalgams of talk and behavior and "brought about" through the ways people negotiate their relationships in specific circumstances. Chapter 7 contains a discussion of how the groups and communities we belong to are imagined and how people use them as semiotic resources to create meaning in their interactions. Jones closes the book in Chapter 8 by exploring his concept of "answerability," or how our responses to the interactions we are involved in not only involve the immediate interactions themselves but also the larger "big C" conversations (Gee, 2011) in which they occur, along with the positive and negative consequences of how the continuing development of communication technologies affect our answerability to one another.

A strength of this book for those new to the study of spoken discourse, as well as for students in advanced undergraduate or graduate courses, is the clarity of Jones's prose. Jones clearly and repeatedly defines terms such as *technologization* (p. 72), which describes how both physical tools like voice recorders as well as semiotic tools like speech genres develop collections of usages, acquire specific social values, and become enmeshed in larger "big

D" Discourses (Gee, 2011) that both engage and exclude specific kinds of people. Terms such as this, along with everyday vernacular terms like *talk* and *discourse*, which frequently and confusingly acquire new or varied meanings within the social sciences, are clearly defined and explained. Moreover, Jones takes care to define key conceptual frameworks that are related to each other, such as speech communities and communities of practice in Chapter 7, showing how they are distinct. For students and new researchers trying to determine the research tools to use for a specific project, such explanations will save considerable time.

There is little to criticize in this text aside from one single editoral oversight that might confuse readers unfamiliar with this field. On page 149, in describing the differences between involvement and independence strategies by which speakers communicate social closeness and distance, Jones states that "people who are more powerful are freer to use involvement strategies to those who are less powerful, but the less powerful are usually obliged to use involvement strategies to the more powerful." Based upon Jones (2012) and the study of politeness strategies generally, the final clause should state that the less powerful are obliged to use *independence* strategies. Because of the confusion and misguidance this could provide, it is hoped that this error will be corrected in subsequent editions.

Despite this minor problem, *Spoken Discourse* is a clear, concise, and timely introduction to how we can analyze speech in its many forms. Readers seeking to learn about the study of spoken discourse and teachers leading courses in this study would be advised to consider this text as a useful guide.

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Academic Writing Step by Step: A Research-Based Approach. Christopher N. Candlin, Peter Crompton, and Basil Hatim. Sheffield, England: Equinox, 2016. xiii + 207 pp.

Reviewed by
Robert Andrews
Kyoto Sangyo University

Whether in the writer's first or second language, academic writing is widely regarded as a difficult skill to master. As a result, numerous approaches to writing instruction have arisen along with debates over their effectiveness. Traditional arguments between product and process approaches have been refined to include considerations of genre as well as the specialized field of English for academic purposes (EAP). In the preface for *Academic Writing Step by Step: A Research-Based Approach*, the series editor promises a new methodology informed by genre theory, discourse analysis, and systemic functional linguistics. The authors further explain that this resource is designed as a workbook on research paper writing for undergraduate and graduate students who are speakers of English as a second or foreign language. Students follow this workbook by analyzing and emulating popularized research articles, with example texts taken from sources such as *The Guardian*, *The Economist*, and even blogs.

The body of this workbook contains 10 units (A to J). In Units A to F, an example text is used to showcase key components of research writing. These units broadly follow the same format and sequence with context, vocabulary, featured text, commentary, and guided activities on grammar and text organization and are of similar length—between 16 and 18 pages. In Unit G, persuasive strategies for writing with logic, credibility, and feeling are introduced as well as ways to construct an argument. Unit H includes explanations of how to credit other people's research, including, for example, ways to cite references in accordance with APA rules. The authors then invite us "inside the writer's head" according to the titles of the final two units (I and J), highlighting such features as to-do lists and editing.

The focus of Unit A is the macrostructure of the book's target genre: the popularized research article. The model texts are authentic texts (as opposed to ones created solely for pedagogic purposes) taken from mainstream publications and blogs that are chosen for their accessibility to nonspecialists. They also feature concepts that the authors consider to be the core con-

stituents of all research writing—*given*, *new*, *data*, and *conclusion*. *Given* and *new* are familiar concepts in discourse analysis (see, e.g., McCarthy, 1991), defined respectively in *Academic Writing Step by Step* as "commonly held but questionable assertions" and "presentation of research supporting the new proposal" (p. 1) with the contrast between the two being an essential element of all research writing (p. 10).

In Unit B, the authors outline how this contrast is relevant to the title, lead summary, and overview of a research article and how the overview provides a map of the rest of the article. Unit C is about developing the article body and conclusion by composing a problem-solution structure that demonstrates the relationship between the given and the new. Further text features are introduced such as a research question and a concise answer to that question in the form of a thesis statement. The authors then build on the previous unit by demonstrating in Unit D how to write expository summaries, either as short "in-text" or longer "stand alone" pieces. They take students through the process of quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing the work of others and suggest two criteria for choosing to use a quotation instead of paraphrasing information. These criteria are that the language should be vivid (i.e., nonscientific) and that the speaker should be authoritative, such as the researcher who conducted the research. Title and research institution should be included as well to substantiate their authority.

In the next unit, the authors explain "how writers string together several summaries" (p. 70) to form an explanatory synthesis. The model text in Unit E is a blog post in which each paragraph in the body of the article is a summary of a piece of research on obesity. The article body is preceded by an introduction to the topic and followed by a conclusion that summarizes the opinions of the author on the cited articles. The reader is also shown the writer's role in forming the explanatory synthesis, which includes how to use transition words such as *for example*, *moreover*, and *however*. The authors use Unit F to describe in some depth how to build an argument or critique, which is a claim followed by an evaluation of that claim.

Much of Units A to F cover ground similar to that of Behrens and Rosen (2010) but in a way that is more suitable for L2 learners. These parallels continue in Unit G with the introduction of the Aristotelian concepts of logos, ethos, and pathos—or appeals to rationality, credibility, and emotion—which are used to describe persuasive style. Also familiar are the unit's critical thinking sections, including activities on how to identify and correct logical fallacies such as *ad hominem*, question-begging, and non sequiturs. In Unit H, the authors equip the reader with valuable advice on

how to avoid plagiarism with a comprehensive account of how to provide in-text and end-text citations. Activities include composing citations using photographic reproductions of papers from journals or online materials.

The final two units offer practical advice on the writing process, such as the prewriting to-do list in Unit I, with commentary on how to improve a piece over multiple drafts. Unit J culminates in a completed paper on animal research. This essay presumably serves as a model for student readers, although it disappointingly uses logical fallacies such as arguments from tradition and popularity to counter arguments against speciesism. The unit also somewhat undermines the authors' claim that popularized science articles, like those cited in the preceding units, serve as useful models for writers of undergraduate research papers or a graduate thesis (p. xii). The genre has received criticism for distorting scientific findings for the purposes of sensationalism (Goldacre, 2008). Although popular science articles may contain textual features that are similar to academic writing, some of the examples in the book are less convincing as models of style to be emulated. A particularly egregious example is the final sentence in the blog post on obesity: "It's like taking candy from a baby, or, um, **GIVING** [emphasis in original] candy to a baby" (p. 72). Teachers who wish to advise their students on systematic academic writing style may want to refer to Kluge and Taylor (2007).

However, the strength of this volume is the useful array of discourse awareness activities that accompany the target texts such as multiple-choice questions, explicit text commentary, and writing practice assignments. Grammar targets have also been well chosen for presenting research. The past and present perfect allow the contrast between the given and new to be emphasized, as in this example: "Dolphins have long been recognized as among the most intelligent of animals, but many researchers had placed them below chimps" (p. 27). This allows the given to be presented before the new—which is research showing dolphins may be as intelligent as 3-year old humans. Other grammar targets presented in these units that befit an academic style of writing include the passive voice, gerunds, and noun + noun compounds. These allow the writer to condense information and focus on the research process instead of the researchers. Also included are functional grammar devices for promoting cohesion, such as reference and ellipsis.

With the aforementioned reservations in mind, the book may well be of use to students and teachers of academic writing who wish to understand the text structure of the popularized research article or who intend to write or publish such pieces.

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Input and Experience in Bilingual Development. Theres Grüter and Johanne Paradis (Eds.). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins, 2014. x + 204 pp.

Reviewed by
John Eidswick
Kyoto Sangyo University

In recent years, the role that input plays in children's development of second language abilities has been the focus of increased interest amongst researchers of bilingualism. To present recent research examining these roles, editors Grüter and Paradis have assembled *Input and Experience in Bilingual Development*. Drawn from contents of symposia at the 2008 and 2011 International Association for the Study of Child Language (IASCL) conferences, the book consists of nine chapters whose authors describe studies with speakers of numerous language pairings (Dutch-French, French-English, English-Chinese, Russian-Hebrew, Wapichana-Portuguese/Spanish, and Spanish-English) in several cultural and familial settings.

In their introduction, the editors outline how the chapters can be grouped thematically into three parts. The first two chapters address issues of input measurement. The following three chapters describe studies of bilingual development linked with experiential factors, specifically proximal (basic child-centered metrics such as age and length of exposure) and distal (broader influences such as economic condition or education). The final four chapters report on comparisons of bilingual and monolingual development.

In the first chapter, Grüter, Nereyda Hurtado, Virginia A. Marchman, and Anne Fernald focus on limitations of measuring input in relative (such as the

percentage of L1 versus L2 caretaker speech) rather than absolute terms (such as words per minute of the speech of each caretaker) and on the use of mismatched measurement types for defining input and learning (such as measuring outcomes in terms of absolute measures but input in terms of relative measures). To illustrate these limitations, the authors make use of previous research findings to create hypothetical, idealized data, both relative (percent of Spanish and English exposure) and absolute (total number of Spanish and English words heard per day) for four bilingual children. These data are used for various alignments of relative-versus-absolute language exposure and outcomes analyses that demonstrate how some approaches to conceptualization of input and outcome can miss important aspects of input variation. The researchers assert as ideal a situation in which exposure and outcomes are both measured in absolute terms while acknowledging the practical difficulty of obtaining such measures. Annick De Houwer follows with a study comparing absolute measures of maternal language input in monolingual (Dutch) families and bilingual (Dutch and French) families. Of the 13 measures taken, the only substantial variation was in the amount of maternal input that occurred—some bilingual children actually heard more Dutch than did children in the monolingual Dutch families.

The next three chapters concentrate on experiential factors that can color the quantity and quality of input. First, Lara J. Pierce and Fred Genesee provide an overview of studies of Chinese L1 children adopted in Canada, focusing on joint attention (JA) interactions (involving simultaneous attention of a child and caretaker on the same object). The authors summarize the results of these studies, arguing that the results reveal two salient points. One is that cultural backgrounds can influence choices for JA interactive strategies (such as follow-ins versus redirectives). The other is that in terms of L2 proficiency, children might benefit from selective strategy use based on the language used. In the next chapter, Sharon Armon-Lotem, Susan Joffe, Hadar Abutbul-Oz, Carmit Altman, and Joel Walters review research on children of Russian L1 economic immigrants to Israel and those of English L1 parents immigrating because of political and religious beliefs. Results lead the authors to conclude that "successful L2 acquisition goes hand-in-hand with positive L2 ethnolinguistic identity in children from economically driven immigrant communities" (p. 95). In the following chapter, Barbara Zurer Pearson and Luiz Amaral's object of concern is the long-term fate of Wapichana, an Amazonian language of Guyana and Brazil. The authors discuss a range of distal and proximal factors, such as language models that children encounter, and stress the importance of ensuring their availability to children to prevent the loss of endangered languages.

The remainder of the book concentrates on comparisons of bilingual and monolingual development. These four chapters are loosely related in their arguments against anchoring assessment of bilingual children's L2 proficiency in the normal ranges of monolingual ability. The chapter by Erika Hoff, Stephanie Welsh, Silvia Place, and Krystal M. Ribot features research showing that bilingual children lag behind monolinguals in early language development and that bilinguals exhibit greater variability in L2 proficiency among themselves than when compared with monolinguals. These findings underscore the importance of establishing more appropriate guidelines for evaluating bilingual proficiency. In her chapter, Elin Thordardottir reviews studies on the receptive, productive, and processing ability of French-English bilinguals in Montreal. Results suggest that input quantity is related to vocabulary and grammar development but not to processing ability. The findings of these studies contrast with the earlier chapter by Hoff et al. in that children described by Thordardottir could perform in line with monolinguals on certain measures. Three studies by Paradis, Antoine Tremblay, and Martha Crago also concerned French-English bilingual children in Canada. They found that in 11-year-old bilingual children, differences with monolingual children in morphosyntactic ability (that is, the ability to make changes to words that accord correctly with grammatical rules at the sentence level) largely vanished, suggesting that older bilinguals achieve long-term mastery of at least some L2 qualities regardless of the earlier impact of input variation. In the final chapter, Sharon Unsworth describes a study of English-Dutch bilinguals that investigated the relation of input with a morphosyntactic feature (grammatical gender-marking of definite determiners) of Dutch and apprehension of meaning restriction in scrambled sentences. Although the results for determiner discrimination aligned with findings of other studies that showed larger amounts of input result in higher proficiency, the finding of no differences for bilingual versus monolingual consciousness of interpretive constraints in scrambled sentences is "difficult to reconcile with approaches to acquisition in which input plays a central role" (p. 195). The results of this study, along with those described in the chapter by Thordardottir, suggest that although input and experience are important to bilingualism, they do not explain everything about its development.

The editors' goal was to provide exposure to studies on input, experience, and bilingual development that were expansive enough to lay out a broad stage for future investigations. They have largely succeeded. Although those working in the Japanese context might be dismayed by the absence of studies based specifically in Japan (or even in Asia), the material in this book should nonetheless be of interest to anyone dealing professionally or personally with emerging bilingual children.

Languages and Identities in a Transitional Japan: From Internationalization to Globalization. Ikuko Nakane, Emi Otsuji, and William S. Armour (Eds.). New York, NY: Routledge, 2015. ix + 202 pp.

Reviewed by
Peter Hourdequin
Tokoha University

This book is an edited volume that explores the dynamic nature of language and identity issues relevant to contemporary Japan. In their introductory essay, the three coeditors make a case for the volume's theme of Japan in transition, which "is approached through critical discussions of global trends, policies, and public discourses, as well as through analysis of associated local practices" (p. 7). The editors also identify three areas of transition that they use to organize the subsequent chapters into sections: cultural, ideological, and pedagogical.

Part I is entitled "Cultural Transition" and contains two chapters that attend to the spread of Japanese popular culture throughout the world. The first, by Chris Burgess, offers a critical examination of the government-driven "cool Japan" campaign, exploring some of the implications and pitfalls of attempts to centrally manage the spread of "national" cultural content overseas. In his chapter, Burgess traces the rise and fall of *kokusaika* [internationalization] and *gurobaruka* [globalization] discourses in Japan since the 1980s and juxtaposes these with the history of state-sponsored cultural diplomacy initiatives in the 21st century up to 2013. Although the chapter offers a useful context for understanding contemporary Japan, it feels instantly dated given the significant cultural and political developments that have occurred inside and outside Japan over the past few years. A chapter with a broader scope, and thus more staying power, might have considered the multimedia English and Japanese-language discourses *about* Japan and Japanese culture that have shaped and continue to shape perceptions of this island nation. Without such meta-awareness, Burgess's conclusion that "Japan's inability to deal frankly with historical issues clearly limits effective use of soft power, particularly in Asia" (p. 29) appears to simply echo external critiques of Japan that have been recycled since the 1990s.

The second chapter in Part I, titled "The Geopolitics of Japanese Soft Power and the Japanese Language and Studies Classroom," is by Armour.

It is an attempt to interpret trends in the study of Japanese language and culture outside of Japan (Australia) with global discourses and technological practices. Armour expresses reservations about neoliberal discourse and its accompanying technological practices that have led to broad accessibility of Japanese popular culture but does not fulfill his promise to "discuss the potentials, both positive and negative, that these technologies and media offer" (p. 50). The focus is squarely on the negative ways that students' development of their own connections to Japanese language and culture via the Internet disrupts traditional pedagogy. Unfortunately, rigorous classroom-based approaches to teaching in our era of rapid cultural and technological change, such as *The Pedagogy of Multiliteracies* (Cope & Kalantzis, 2009), are never mentioned in this chapter or in the volume's final section, which focuses on pedagogical transition.

The title of Part II is "Ideological Transition," and this section contains three very strong chapters by Ryuko Kubota, Nakane, and Otsuji. These chapters insightfully explore what Pennycook (2010) termed "language as local practice" (p. 1), which conceives of all language as an emergent feature of local contexts rather than a force that moves from center to periphery. Kubota's chapter draws on earlier case-study data to adeptly "demonstrate how research participants' views and experiences of learning English and other languages contradicts the sociolinguistic reality and expectation in local and international contexts" (p. 60). In her chapter, Nakane examines "Internal Internationalization" by looking at interpreting practices in the Japanese criminal court system. Forensic analysis of various courtroom interactions and practices leads to a sensible conclusion that "the internationalization discourse of appreciating differences across ethnicity, cultures, and languages and bridging the gaps between 'us and them' may prevent the Japanese judiciary from addressing language and communication issues that defendants may face in court regardless of their language backgrounds" (pp. 96-97). The final chapter in this section, like the other two, foregrounds the diversity of actual language practices in contemporary Japan. In this case, the setting (and chapter title) is "Metrolingual Tokyo." Otsuji employs case-study and conversation analysis techniques to effectively show the hybridized nature of language use in contemporary Tokyo. However, the author does not, in my opinion, present adequate proof that the hybridized language use she analyzes is primarily an urban (or even geographically mediated) phenomenon. The chapter is nevertheless effective in problematizing existing categories and assumptions for understanding the boundaries of languages and cultures of use in our globalized era.

Part III, entitled "Pedagogical Transition," contains three chapters in which the authors explore educational issues related to the book's theme of languages and identities in transition. Chapter 7 by Robyn Moloney and Susan Oguro is a case study of heritage learners of Japanese in Australia that, though limited in its scope, effectively uncovers some of the ground-level factors that lead to differing language-learner identities and practices. Jun Ōhashi and Hiroko Ōhashi (Chapter 8) provide a classroom-teacher perspective on some of the possibilities for teaching what they term "humanistic values" (p. 141) to Japanese language learners in Australian higher education. Their premise follows Kramsch (2006, 2009) and Kramsch, Howell, Warner, and Wellmon (2007) in problematizing the idea that communicative competence must be the dominant goal of language education at all levels, and they provide examples of pedagogical tasks and off-campus activities that are aimed at deeper, often reflexive forms of learning that lead to "self and inner growth" (p. 161). This section's final chapter returns to Japanese classrooms as Sumiko Taniguchi and Cheiron McMahill consider the role of *tabunka kyousei* (translated as *multicultural coexistence*) ideology and policy in the education of language minority children. The authors present a case study of an NPO community school in Gunma prefecture that promoted a counterideology, and they reflect on the negotiation and accommodation of this counterideology in context.

Languages and Identities in a Transitional Japan is a welcome contribution to discussions about the evolving cultures, ideologies, and pedagogies of contemporary Japan and Japanese language studies. The book includes research set in Japan, China, and Australia and tackles a variety of important themes that relate to language education in the current era of rapid globalization and technological change.

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Positive Psychology in SLA. Peter D. MacIntyre, Tammy Gregersen, and Sarah Mercer (Eds.). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters, 2016. xii + 388 pp.

Reviewed by
Harumi Kimura
Miyagi Gakuin Women's University

If positive psychology is the scientific study of human strengths that help us grow and thrive, then positive psychology in SLA is the scientific study of L2 learners' potential to be wholeheartedly engaged in learning an L2. The front cover of *Positive Psychology in SLA* displays an image of a human hand with the fingers extended towards and touching the surface of water, making gentle ripples. At the beginning of Chapter 1, each of the three editors shares a story related to one of the three elements in the image. MacIntyre talks about hands, Gregersen about ripples, and Mercer about water. I think the image sends at least three additional messages to readers. First, this book connects theoretical discussion, empirical studies, and practical classroom applications of past research and demonstrates that, like the three elements in the image, they are interdependent. Second, the field of positive psychology can help us explore our potential to grow as individuals, build positive relationships, and make a difference in our environment—like the fingers making gradually expanding ripples in the water. Thus, readers will know that they are capable of, and even responsible for, doing their share. Third, we can only see the surface of the water, implying that much remains to be investigated and understood because, according to the publisher, this anthology is the first collection of writings on positive psychology in SLA and efforts in the field are just beginning.

An ambitious starter to the book is Rebecca L. Oxford's chapter (Chapter 2), in which she proposes her EMPATHICS Vision of L2 learner psychology. Although Oxford believes that the five aspects (positive emotions, engage-

ment, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment) of Seligman's (2011) now-famous PERMA model are essential to improve L2 learners' experiences and achievements, she has identified nine dimensions of critical psychological forces (the nine letters of her acronym) that can assist L2 learners in achieving high levels of well-being and making rapid and solid progress. According to Oxford, many of the themes in these dimensions have been neglected in SLA previously but are now addressed in this book.

For example, emotion and empathy make up Dimension 1 in Oxford's model. Seligman lists positive emotions as one of the five aspects; recently in SLA, enjoyment, one of the positive emotions, has been empirically examined. Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) demonstrated that it facilitates building learner resources for processes of L2 development, indicating that attending to positive L2 learner affect and using positive psychology activities as a way of improving L2 learning and teaching is necessary in utilizing and theorizing the social and individual aspects of L2 learning. However, the second component of this dimension, empathy, does not seem to be discussed in SLA literature, although it is a common topic in a range of fields such as education, psychology, and neuroscience. If the fundamental goal of L2 learning is to develop interactional competence as well as attentive listening skills so learners can move beyond superficial communication in this culturally diverse, globalizing world, then empathy—seeing the world through others' eyes—should be properly explored as the key human social capacity in SLA, as Mercer does in Chapter 3.

Among the nine dimensions of the EMPATHICS vision, Dimension 9 is widely considered in this volume, especially in theoretical and empirical discussions. The S of the EMPATHICS acronym represents diverse *self* factors such as self-efficacy, self-concept, self-esteem, and self-verification. In the Vision-based approach to L2 learning motivation, which is now becoming mainstream and has been extensively researched in L2 motivation research, the ideal L2 self plays a key role in leading the way for foreign language learning as the future-self guide. In Chapter 4, Joseph Falout offers a thoughtful and theoretical explanation of how, by making use of positive emotions, L2 learners can connect their past selves to their present and future selves. In Chapter 10, J. Lake reports on a sophisticated quantitative study that demonstrated that the global positive self at a general level and the positive L2 self at a domain-specific level both feed into L2 self-efficacy and L2 proficiency in his hierarchical, positivity-oriented model of L2 learning. In Chapter 11, Zana Ibrahim examines the phenomenon of directed motivational current (DMC) experiences of L2 learners, as introduced in

Dörnyei, Henry, and Muir (2016). A DMC is a long-lasting, powerful flow of energy used to pursue a goal like language learning, and it has the potential to help learners reinterpret negative emotions, such as anxiety, in light of positive emotions such as happiness and prosperity.

Some other constructs such as love (Chapter 5), social capital (Chapter 6), hope and hardiness (Chapter 7), flow (Chapter 8), and perseverance (Chapter 12) are also examined in theoretical and empirical sections of this book. Some are discussed in relation to Oxford's EMPATHICS dimensions.

Although the five aspects in the PERMA model and the nine dimensions of EMPATHICS do not have to be either exhaustive or mutually compatible, they reinforce the notion that language learners' well-being is multidimensional and takes a variety of forms. It is safe to say that positive psychology not only provides diverse perspectives for the field of SLA in terms of theory building, empirical research, and classroom applications but also sheds light on the empowerment of L2 learners.

Nevertheless, after reading this book, I have come to believe that the best contribution positive psychology can make to our field is rich ideas for classroom-based studies and practical interventions. Two of the most significant jobs L2 teachers have are convincing their students that L2 learning is worth pursuing and helping them become autonomous learners. For example, in Chapter 6, Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Margarita Meza discuss implementing the positive psychology exercises proposed in Seligman, Ernst, Gilham, Reivich, and Linkins (2009) to investigate the effect of intervention in creating a positive learning environment called *social capital*. In other chapters, teacher trainers share classroom and outside-of-class activities they have created based on positive psychology literature. For example, in Chapter 13, Marc Helgesen tells how he has made use of eight types of behavior that can lead to a more satisfying life (see Lyubomirsky, 2005) and has turned them into a peer-to-peer dictation task. In Chapter 14, Tim Murphey describes his idea of students teaching significant others what they learn in school. This is effective in changing the self-focused minds of learners into task-focused minds so that they can do away with the self-preoccupation that distracts them from focus on task and therefore become the givers of information for the sake of others, a behavior that can be called altruism. These examples may help readers to draw the conclusion, as I have, that one of the most significant contributions of positive psychology to L2 teaching is the potential to transform L2 learning tasks into life behaviors that are cognitively and socially meaningful.

In concluding this review, I suggest that readers should progress through the book by starting with the three anecdotal stories in Chapter 1, then moving on to any chapter they like according to their interests, and finally trying out some of the ideas in their own action research or teaching. They may want to narrate their own story and share it with their colleagues, friends, and family, which could even be the start of another volume on positive psychology in SLA.

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Beyond Repeat After Me: Teaching Pronunciation to English Learners. Marla Tritch Yoshida. Alexandria, VA: TESOL Press, 2016. vi +188 pp.

Reviewed by
Branden Kirchmeyer
Sojo University

Teaching pronunciation to EFL/ESL students can seem daunting, even for instructors who are native speakers of English. Teacher education programs the world over often prioritize literacy and grammar despite the common goal of developing practical communicative abilities shared by many language education institutions. Of course, texts for teaching pronunciation

abound, yet books aimed at providing teachers with specific strategies often gloss over the foundational concepts. Although larger handbooks for teachers may provide exhaustive and research-based reviews of the technical aspects of pronunciation, they take a backseat role in directing teachers *how* to teach pronunciation. *Beyond Repeat After Me* bridges this gap by successfully blending metalinguistic analysis of American English pronunciation with practical pedagogical strategies. In this text, written specifically for "the needs and interests of nonnative speakers of English" (p. v), Yoshida presents the essential concepts of American English pronunciation—from the articulation of individual sounds to the assignment of prominence in a thought group—in a manner that is both highly informative and easy to read. Divided into 15 chapters, Yoshida's approachable exposition plays out into two unspecified yet discernable acts: the production and teaching of (a) segmental features of pronunciation (individual phonemes), and (b) suprasegmentals (stress, rhythm, prominence, and intonation).

Following an introductory chapter that orients the reader via briefings on trends in pronunciation education, factors affecting pronunciation learning, and key problems faced by students, Chapters 2 through 6 deal with the pronunciation of American English at the segmental level, culminating with a chapter on teaching suggestions and activities. Chapter 2 introduces some basic concepts of phonology, including phonemes and allophones, consonants and vowels, and the phonemic alphabet, before ending with an encouraging recognition of the descriptive nature of rules that "govern" pronunciation. Chapter 3 very briefly describes the human articulatory system and equips readers with the terminology necessary for subsequent chapters. Yoshida's advocacy for the use of various media to teach pronunciation begins to emerge in this chapter. Some of her teaching suggestions include the use of mirrors, dental models, and multimedia apps (p. 21). In Chapters 4 through 6 Yoshida presents and illustrates consonants, vowels, and certain word endings of American English before expanding on the actual teaching of these features in Chapter 7.

Throughout each of these chapters the reader finds an abundance of figures, tables, and illustrations that serve to make the content more tangible: for instance, a tip box illustrating how toy pop guns, air pumps, and balloons can help demonstrate articulation (p. 26) and tables showing tongue position (p. 39) and lip positions (p. 41) for American English vowels. In her preface, Yoshida emphasizes the importance of sound as a necessary tool and aspect of pronunciation teaching and learning. Although visuals are helpful in representing various aspects of spoken language, nothing can

truly compare to using actual audio, and Yoshida does not disappoint. Her companion website (http://www.tesol.org/read-and-publish/bookstore/beyond-repeat-after-me), publicly accessible via the TESOL Press website, contains videos and audio files useful for both teachers and students. Icons denoting supplementary audio files, hosted on the aforementioned publisher's website, average about two per page in these chapters.

Busy teachers looking to dive straight into activities and approaches to teaching pronunciation might start in Chapter 7, in which Yoshida adopts a communicative framework proposed by Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (2010) to present a compendium of techniques that require little background knowledge to understand and implement in any class. None of the techniques listed here are original, but they often include bits of advice amassed during Yoshida's nearly three decades of experience and together they offer an essential resource for EFL and ESL teachers in any context.

Suprasegmental features of pronunciation—stress, rhythm, thought groups, prominence and intonation, and connected speech—are brought up respectively in Chapters 8 through 12, which lead into a second set of useful pedagogical techniques (Chapter 13). Yoshida continues to employ visuals when explaining auditory artifacts: various sized balls indicate stress, contour overlays illustrate intonation, and bars of magnets convey connected speech patterns. Because Yoshida has earlier cited several scholars (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010; Gilbert, 2008; Lane, 2010) who prioritized the teaching of suprasegmentals over individual sounds (p. 3), it is not surprising that these chapters make up the larger portion of the book and include more than two-thirds of the supplementary audio files. Despite the increasing complexity of pronunciation-related concepts, Yoshida covers a wide variety of technical language both distinctly and clearly.

Chapter 13 is both entertaining and informative. Adapting the same five-part framework she used to organize phoneme-focused instructional strategies in Chapter 7, Yoshida delves into "Teaching the Musical Aspects of Pronunciation" with activities like syllable scavenger hunts, ball throwing, feet stomping, rubber band stretching, and orchestra conducting. Puppets, songs, model clay, and jokes are also discussed, as is software that analyzes and visualizes sound waves. These strategies—especially those that might seem childish at first glance—should not be overlooked as appropriate for learners who are above elementary age. This reviewer can personally attest to their capacity for engaging less-than-enthusiastic university students and their ability to convert features of English pronunciation that typically evade students' perception into comprehensible and replicable input.

The book closes out with a chapter aimed at drawing teachers' attention to student variability (Chapter 14) and a very helpful chapter addressing the notorious spelling system of English (Chapter 15). A concise collection of additional resources and a glossary of over 200 clearly defined terms, replete with examples, more than satisfactorily complete the book. On the whole, this text has much to offer any educator, regardless of experience, who is tasked with teaching pronunciation to English language learners.

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Exploring Listening Strategy Instruction Through Action Research. Joseph Siegel. Croydon, England: Palgrave Macmillan, 2015. xvi + pp. 259.

Reviewed by
Adam Murray
Miyazaki International College

In this book, Joseph Siegel describes a longitudinal research project that he conducted for his doctoral research at a private university located in southern Japan (Siegel, 2014). Unlike previous research on listening strategy instruction, such as Ozeki's (2000) one-semester study, Siegel's project spanned three academic semesters and involved two teachers and six classes of students. This book consists of three main parts: a literature review of listening and listening instruction, a description of the action research project, and a discussion of the findings.

In the introductory chapter, Siegel describes a situation that many EFL teachers struggle with—the challenge of planning and delivering effective listening instruction. A photograph of a journal entry written by one of

his students enrolled in a listening course effectively illustrates the need for more implicit instruction with the comment "Please teach me how to listen English words" (p. 3). This comment confirmed Siegel's observations that although classes often include listening assessment, they rarely offer instruction that would actually help the students become more competent listeners. However, when he reached out to colleagues at his institution, they did not have ideas about how to improve listening instruction. This situation is not unique and many teachers, particularly in foreign language contexts, can surely relate.

In Chapter 2, Siegel provides a brief review of the literature on listening and listening instruction. First, he covers the theoretical models of listening and basic listening-related concepts such as bottom-up processing (BUP) and top-down processing (TDP). In Section 2.2.3, he proposes an original theoretical perspective on the relationship between BUP and TDP. Unlike other commentators who put an emphasis on BUP, Siegel argues that both processes are required and that learners use TDP before BUP instead of in the opposite order. For example, a listener uses background knowledge and life experience to predict what she is going to hear.

Siegel then describes how listening instruction has evolved over the years, along with the trends in L2 instruction. Specifically, he talks about the osmosis approach, listening to readings of written texts, the comprehension approach, the subskills and strategic approach, extensive reading, and problem-based listening strategy instruction. One of the biggest criticisms of all of these approaches is that they do not actually teach how to listen by providing explicit instruction but rather rely on exposure or testing. Furthermore, although many textbooks include listening activities, most do not actually teach students how to become effective listeners.

Because Siegel's action research project involved listening strategy instruction (LSI), readers who are not familiar with strategy instruction should read section 2.3.2 carefully. On page 48, Siegel uses Rost's (2002) definition of strategies: "conscious plans to manage incoming speech" (p. 236). Strategies fall into two categories: cognitive (e.g., inference, elaboration) and metacognitive (e.g., strategy selection, comprehension evaluation). In general terms, LSI involves raising awareness of necessary skills (strategies) and using them.

For many readers, Chapter 3 is likely to be of special interest because Siegel describes the LSI program that he implemented at his university. As in many listening courses, the existing pedagogy placed an emphasis on listening comprehension and the classroom context. Siegel summarizes the objec-

tives of his listening strategy instruction program: "to increase [students'] listening confidence, to develop listening processes and strategies, and to evolve their abilities to transfer processes and strategies practiced in class to novel listening events" (p. 58).

Siegel identifies 13 metacognitive and cognitive strategies that cover both TDP and BUP. Examples of these strategies are genre recognition, discourse marker identification, and guessing new words from context. He outlines the steps in teaching strategies: (a) consciousness raising, (b) teacher modeling, (c) controlled practice, and (d) evaluation of strategy selection. Throughout the course, the presentation of the strategies progresses from general TDP strategies to more specific text-dependent BUP strategies.

Siegel explains how he added explicit strategy instruction to replace or augment the listening activities in the commercially available textbook *Interactions 2* (Tanka & Baker, 2007). On page 69, he provides an excellent table that illustrates how he integrated the strategies. For example, instead of doing a gap-fill activity, the students did a chunking activity in which they identified the units of meaning.

In the second part of the book, Siegel describes action research and its typical stages (Chapter 4). Because he was interested in improving what he labeled as an "undesirable approach to listening instruction" (p. 78) in the existing listening course, iterative action research seemed to be an appropriate research framework for his study. For the first phase, three data collection tools were used: a questionnaire, student interviews, and a research journal. At the end of each phase, additional data collection tools such as observation notes and pre- and posttests were added. One of the strengths of iterative action research is the ability to make changes based on the observations and reflections made after each stage. On pages 112 and 125, Siegel effectively uses tables to show how he dealt with the issues that arose in phases one and two of the research project.

In the third part of the book, Siegel reports on the project from the perspective of the students and the teacher. Using questionnaire data and interviews, he found that most of the learners felt positive about LSI. For the teacher's perspective on LSI, he interviewed the other teacher involved with the project. One important issue that the teacher raised was the challenge of teaching listening strategies with general listening texts that were not designed for LSI.

In the final chapter, Siegel discusses LSI in a variety of contexts. In terms of the Japanese university context, he thinks that LSI is a feasible and desirable alternative to the status quo because of the usefulness of listening strategies

outside of the language classroom. He also calls for classroom trials and further action research to advance the field of listening instruction. Finally, he recommends that teacher education programs and training manuals place greater importance on listening.

Where this book shines is the thorough description of iterative action research with a qualitative perspective. Teachers who are looking for a detailed "how to guide" for integrating listening strategies in their courses might be somewhat unsatisfied and should look at Rost and Wilson (2013) for examples of activities and practical advice about implementation. However, Siegel provides inspiration and a "game plan" for classroom teachers and curriculum designers to integrate language strategy instruction in their courses.

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1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan
Tel.: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631
(From overseas: Tel.: 81-3-3837-1630; Fax: 81-3-3837-1631)
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日本語論文投稿要領

*JALT Journal*では日本語で執筆された論文、研究報告、実践報告、書評等を募集しています。文体:一般的な学術論文のスタイルを用い、章立ての仕方や参考文献のデータの書き方などは、*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.)の定める方式に合わせて下さい。不明の場合は、*JALT Journal* の英語論文を参考にするか、日本語編集者までお問い合わせ下さい。なお、*JALT Journal*の読者は現場の教師が主なので、特殊な専門用語や統計的手法は、わかりやすく定義するか説明を加えるなどして下さい。原稿: 長さは、参考文献リストも含め18,000字（書評の場合は1,500字）以内です。A4の用紙に横書きで、1行40字、1ページ30行で印刷して下さい。手書きの原稿は受け付けません。

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〒062-8605 北海学園大学　経営学部
JALT Journal 日本語編集者　浦野　研
電話:(011)841-1161(代) Fax:(011)824-7729
jj-editorj@jalt-publications.org

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JALT2016

TRANSFORMATION
IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

JALT2016: *Transformation in Language Education*
Postconference Publication

It is with pleasure that we present the 2016 JALT Postconference Publication: *Transformation in Language Education*. The 59 papers published in the PCP have come to represent an impressive range of topics and issues related to language education. We feel that this year's edition as well provides an index of the breadth and depth of interest shown by the EFL professionals who have presented at the JALT International Conference.

Selected Papers

This section highlights four papers of exceptional quality that were chosen through consultation with the JALT editorial board. We express our congratulations to these authors and our appreciation of their well-written papers.

- *Moving Towards Better Quantitative Data Analysis in FLL Research* – Paul Collett, Shimonoseki City University
- *Introducing the Family Reading Project* – Peter Ferguson, Nara University of Education; Aaron Sponseller, Hiroshima University; Ayano Yamada, Shinimamiya Elementary School
- *Changing Orientations to English During English-Medium Study Abroad in Thailand* – Daisuke Kimura, Pennsylvania State University
- *Fukushima and Beyond: Teaching Trauma Survivors* – Victoria Wilson, University of Southern Queensland

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