Teachers and Students: At L1 Odds in the EFL Class

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Japanese EFL students entering university often expect that they cannot learn unless L2 exposure is followed by an L1 explanation. Yet, teachers believe in maximizing student L2 exposure. The result: mismatching student preferences and teacher beliefs. This study explores the following two questions: 1. Are learner preferences for teachers' L1 use affected by learner L2 proficiency? 2. Do learners' preferences and teachers' beliefs regarding teacher L1 usage match? A new research instrument was created and piloted: Student Preferences for Instructional Language (SPIL). Preferences of 1,424 students were compared with beliefs of 32 teachers regarding L1 use for 5 pedagogical factors. Student preferences for L1 correlated strongly with proficiency level, declined from beginners to intermediates, and were highest for talking about tests and supporting comprehension. Students and teachers mismatched about L1 use to support review and grammar. Theoretical and pedagogical implications are discussed.

大学に入学してくるEFL学習者はたいてい、L1の説明がなければL2を学べないと予想している。一方、教員は学生にL2を極力使わせようとする。その結果、学生の好みと教員の信条との間に不一致が生じる。本研究では以下二つの問題を検討する。第一に、教員にL1を使って欲しがる学習者の嗜好性は、彼らのL2習熟度に影響されるのか。第二に、L1の使用に対する学習者の好みと教員の信条は合致しうるのか。新たに考案した調査測定手段「教授言語に関する学生の嗜好性（Student Preferences for Instructional Language: SPIL）」を使い、5つの教育要素に関して、L1使用を求める学生（*N* = 1,424）の反応を教員（*N* = 32）の信念と比較した。L1使用を求める傾向は、学生の習熟度と強く関連し合っており、初級レベルから中級レベルにかけて減少し、各種試験や文章読解の際に最も高まった。学生と教員の間で反応が分かれたのが、L1を使った復習と文法説明であった。理論的側面と教育的側面との関係性については、本文内で考察していく。

THIS RESEARCH was aimed at clarifying the effect student L2 proficiency has on pedagogical L1 usage and to explore how this interaction contributes to matches and mismatches between student preferences and teacher beliefs. Without such an understanding, the conditions for ill-formed policy decisions and a self-sustaining cycle of misunderstanding and resentment between education administrators, teachers, and students will be perpetuated. In contrast to previous assumptions that the L1 is useless (Krashen, 1981) and potentially detrimental to student learning in the EFL classroom (Lado, 1957; see discussions in Cook, 2001; Hui, 2010; Scott & Fuente, 2008; Stephens, 2006), the researcher argues that teacher L1 use can not only reduce mismatches between student preferences and teacher beliefs, but also assist learner L2 acquisition.

In this paper, L1 refers to the student L1 (Japanese), and L2 refers to the student L2 (English), unless otherwise specified.

Background

In order to build on previous EFL research on L2 proficiency, L1 use, and their effects on mismatches in the classroom, three relevant studies were compared.

In the first study, Burden (2001) surveyed student and teacher attitudes towards teachers' L1 use in Japanese EFL classrooms. All (290) participants were learners in English conversation classes being taught by native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) in five universities in Japan, and 73 EFL teacher participants were from universities across Japan. Participants completed questionnaires concerning their attitudes regarding learner and teacher L1 use in class. The L1 was found to be useful for both students and teachers for general classroom use, explaining new words, talking about tests, and comparing the L1 and L2. Burden found several learner and teacher mismatches, with teachers endorsing but learners rejecting L1 use for explaining grammar, giving instructions, explaining class rules, explaining the reason for doing activities, checking understanding, and creating human contact. In a puzzling discrepancy, learners preferred L1 use to relax, in agreement with teachers, although they had rejected L1 use for creating human contact with teachers. He believed that learners might not want human contact with teachers. (The current author suggests that contact with teachers is unrelated to relaxing the learners.)

Next, in an experiment with 117 Chinese EFL learners which included comparison of proficiency levels, Tian and Macaro (2012) found that use of L1/L2 code-switching support for focus on form during lexical development significantly favored teachers' code-switching above L2-only instruction. Teacher L1 use aided L2 lexical development. However, proficiency was not found to be a contributing factor in either the L2-only or the code-switching conditions.

Finally, in a study comparing the attitudes of 305 learners and 13 teachers towards L1 use in the Japanese EFL classroom, Carson and Kashihara (2012) found different matches and mismatches between learner and teacher attitudes than Burden. Additionally, they found that learner L2 proficiency levels influenced learner preferences. Relationship patterns that had previously been imperceptible in pooled student samples were clarified by dividing learners into a wide range of proficiency groups. The issues raised by the L1 of teachers are complex, particularly when compared at greater depth with student preferences than was the case previously by both Burden (2001) and Carson and Kashihara (2012) and has been targeted in another paper (Carson, 2014).

All three studies suggested that favoring L1 usage supports L2 learning. Tian and Macaro (2012) found evidence supporting the L1 usefulness for lexical acquisition in conjunction with focus on form, while Burden (2001) found several agreements between learners and teachers on L1 use. However, Burden's study did not compare student proficiency levels, and Tian and Macaro's study did not find support for the influence of proficiency on learner preferences for their L1 use. Additionally, the differences in mismatches found by Burden compared to Carson and Kashihara (2012) warrant a closer look.

Research Questions

1. Does learner proficiency in the L2 affect learner preference for L1 usage by their teachers? If so, how?
2. Does learner preference for L1 usage by teachers match teacher beliefs regarding L1 use?

Method

Participants

Participants in this study (*N* = 1,424, including 755 males and 669 females) were enrolled in EFL classes at 13 universities in Japan. They consisted of 1,109 first-year, 242 second-year, and 73 third- and fourth-year students. Most were non-English majors (1,214), while some (*n* = 210) were English majors.

EFL teacher participants (*N* = 32, including 21 males and 11 females) included 19 NESTs and 13 Japanese teachers of English (JTEs), and all taught English in universities in Japan. All teachers had MA degrees or higher (20 MAs, 12 PhDs), 20 had TESOL certificates, 17 held teaching certificates, and 24 had specialized language teaching training.

Instrument: Student Preferences for Instructional Language Scale

Examination of the literature found several studies using short questionnaires and reporting descriptive statistics (e.g., Burden, 2001; Schweers, 1999) and some studies using more detailed questionnaires and using inferential statistics (e.g., Burden & Stribling, 2003), but none had the range and detail sought. By referring to previous questionnaires and adding more detailed questions, the researcher created a new questionnaire. The questionnaire was piloted with 317 students from one university and 35 teachers from various educational institutions in Western Japan.

To remove unproductive questions from the questionnaire and focus on the questions that contributed to underlying constructs, the pilot data were examined using an exploratory factor analysis. The researcher chose a maximum likelihood factor analysis (MLFA) with promax rotation and Kaiser normalization. Factor loadings of .50 or greater on the obliquely rotated factor matrix were considered significant. The assumptions of

factor analysis were investigated and met. Cronbach's alpha for the questionnaire was .980, which indicated sufficient instrument reliability for conducting a factor analysis.

The MLFA revealed nine initial factors. After administering the first version of the questionnaire, questions were rephrased following recommendations by four student participants and two translators. Part 1 questions (Background) were simplified to improve comprehensibility. The 63 Likert-scale questions that had originally been in Part 2, now reduced to 40 Likert-scale questions, were included into a new Part 3. The questions that failed to contribute to the nine factors revealed in the factor analysis were examined for relevancy and then eliminated. Two factors were dropped: Factor 8 (Group work) because it contained only two items, and Factor 9 (Administration) because it included only three items and factor loadings for all items were less than 0.700. Factors 1 to 7 were retained for further study. The researcher named the factors as follows:

1. *Emotions*: including student L1 preferences when feeling lost or to support confidence.

2. *Grammar*: concerned with defining new words and introducing new grammar.

3. *Teachers' L1 Competence*: consisting of student preferences about teachers knowing and understanding Japanese.

4. *Tests*: concerning teachers' use of Japanese to check that students understand the requirements for reports and tests.

5. *Review*: comprised of reviewing previously learned concepts, vocabulary and grammar.

6. *Comprehension*: including questions about using L1 when the student doesn't understand their teacher's English explanation.

7. *Society*: about students' L1 preferences when discussing topics like social and cultural issues in countries where English is the dominant language.

The scale has been named the Student Preferences for Instructional Language scale (SPIL), and Parts 2 and 3 can be viewed in the Appendix.

Procedure

The questionnaires were given to student and teacher participants in their first classes in April. Students completed Japanese-language questionnaires after being informed that participation was voluntary and anonymous and would not influence their course grades. Completion averaged about 15 minutes, although students could take longer. Teachers completed their English-language questionnaires and then returned all participant questionnaires.

During student data entry, incomplete or incoherent responses were rejected. Visual inspection of boxplots revealed no extreme outliers. Some variances were discovered by examination of Q-Q plots, and Levene's test revealed some of the homogeneity of variances was violated. ANOVA tends to be robust to nonnormal distributions (Sawilowsky & Blair, 1992), so the researcher compensated with Welch's ANOVA for Research Question 1. To improve statistical reliability while maintaining some discrimination between proficiency levels, the original five TOEIC groups were recoded into four groups by combining the original 4th and 5th groups into a new Group 4 (TOEIC ≥ 500) to answer Research Question 1. Regarding Research Question 2, students were pooled into one group, enabling comparison with the teachers. The five factor scores for students were nonnormally distributed, as revealed by visual inspection of Q-Q plots and histograms and as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p < .05$). To compensate, Welch's ANOVA and Games-Howell post-hoc tests were used to assess the data.

Examination of teachers' data found no incomplete or incoherent responses. Visual examination of boxplots disclosed no extreme outliers. Factor scores were approximately normally distributed, as determined by visual inspection of Q-Q plots. Four of the five factor scores were normally distributed, except for comprehension, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p < .05$). With student and teacher groups being of different sizes, the design is unbalanced. However, *t* tests are robust to some deviation from normal variance.

Results

The results are presented below according to the research question they answer.

Research Question 1

Five factors (F1 Emotions, F2 Grammar, F4 Tests, F5 Review, and F6 Comprehension) were selected from the seven factors previously obtained via MLFA, to focus on pedagogical issues, and compared across four TOEIC Proficiency groups (Group 1: ≤ 299, Group 2: 300-399, Group 3: 400-499, Group 4: ≥ 500). For simplicity, *Factor #* has been abbreviated to *F#*.

As can be seen by comparing descriptive statistics for student proficiency groups and the five L1 usage factors in Figure 1, students generally have a positive preference for all five factors in Group 1, but by Group 4 they generally only prefer L1 support for tests and comprehension. Means above 3.0 (neutral) indicate that students have a positive preference for L1 support, while means below 3.0 indicate that students have a low preference for L1 support, for each factor.
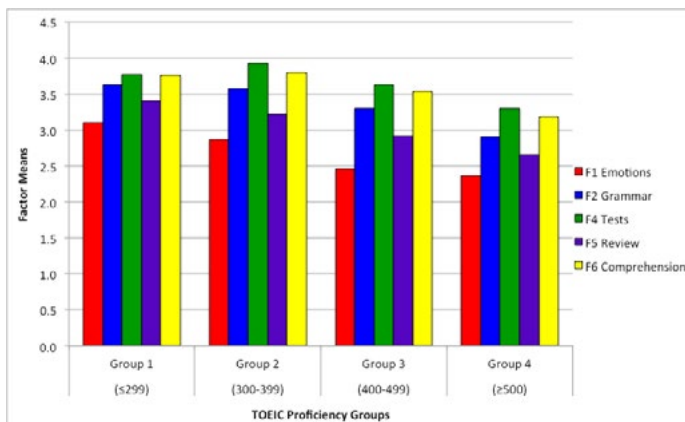
Figure 1. Means of student preferences for L1 support according to proficiency groups.

Table 1. Paired Comparisons of Preference Mean Differences Between Proficiency Groups for Each Factor

Factor	Significant* preference differences between proficiency groups (Greatest differences to smallest differences)
F1 Emotions	(G4 - G1) > (G3 - G1) > (G4 - G2) > (G3 - G2)
F2 Grammar	(G4 - G1) > (G4 - G2) > (G4 - G3) > (G3 - G1) > (G3 - G2)
F4 Tests	(G4 - G2) > (G4 - G1) > (G4 - G3) > (G3 - G2)
F5 Review	(G4 - G1) > (G4 - G2) > (G3 - G1) > (G3 - G2)
F6 Comprehension	(G4 - G2) > (G4 - G1) > (G4 - G3) > (G3 - G2)

Note. G1 = Group 1 (TOEIC ≤ 299); G2 = Group 2 (TOEIC 300 - 399); G3 = Group 3 (TOEIC 400 - 499); G4 = Group 4 (TOEIC ≥ 500)

* Sig. < .05.

Welch's ANOVA was used (Lix, Keselman, & Keselman, 1996). The Robust Tests of Equality of Means table revealed the following results: Preferences for L1 support for all factors were significantly different between all proficiency levels ($p < .001$).

Since the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, the Games-Howell post hoc test was chosen to compare all possible combinations of group differences (Ruxton & Beauchamp, 2008). This post hoc test shows whether the differences are statistically significant for comparison of each group (each factor in each proficiency level). Results are reported beside the five factors in TOEIC proficiency groups in Table 1. Because of the complexity of the results, only statistically significant paired comparisons are shown, along with the direction of strength.

The Games-Howell post hoc analysis revealed that the largest mean difference in L1 preferences occurred between TOEIC proficiency Group 4 and Group 1 for emotions, grammar, and review, and between Group 4 and Group 2 for tests and comprehension. Significant differences in mean preferences for L1 support occurred for grammar in every TOEIC Group (from highest to lowest proficiency), the only factor in which this occurred. The smallest significant difference in L1 preferences occurred between Groups 3 and 2 for all factors. There appeared to be no significant difference between Groups 1 and 2.

To summarize, as depicted in Figure 1, students appeared to prefer the most teacher L1 support in Groups 1 and 2 (the least proficient in English), while those in Group 4 (the most proficient) showed the least preference for L1 support on all five factors. However, there was not a lot of difference between any of the groups. No significant difference appeared between Groups 1 and 2 for any of the five factors, although there was a slight increase in preference for L1 support for tests and comprehension from

Group 1 to Group 2, followed by a decline to Group 4. Preferences for L1 support for all other factors declined from Group 1 to Group 4. As summarized in Table 1, significant differences in the mean scores for L1 preferences were greatest between Groups 4 and 1 for emotions, grammar, and review, and between Groups 4 and 2 for tests and comprehension, compared to other group differences.

Research Question 2

Student preferences were compared with teacher beliefs regarding the five factors of L1 usage in EFL class. Likert-scale responses lower than 3.0 (neutral) mean low preferences, and numbers larger than 3.0 mean high preferences for L1 use for each factor. Student preferences compared with teacher beliefs regarding each factor are reported in Figure 2. Neither students nor teachers favored L1 support for emotions, but they did for tests (teachers = 3.4, students = 3.7) and comprehension (teachers = 3.5, students = 3.7). There is some disagreement regarding grammar (teachers = 2.99, students = 3.55) and regarding review (teachers = 2.7, students = 3.2).

The results from the *t* tests can shed further light on these attitudes by determining the magnitude in size of the differences between the means of students' and teachers' responses and determining whether these differences are statistically significant. Independent *t* tests were chosen to compare the mean effect sizes between students and teachers for the five factors, and are summarized in Table 2. Students had higher L1 means than teachers but the differences were not significant for L1 use to support students emotionally and with comprehension. Students preferred significantly more L1 support for tests, review, and grammar than teachers believed was beneficial. The largest differences in scores between students and teachers were for grammar (0.56) and for review (0.55).
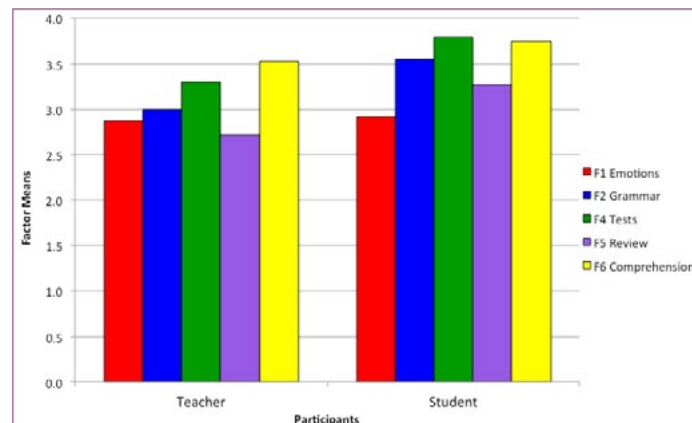

Figure 2. Comparison of student and teacher means for 5 factors of L1 use.

Table 2. Differences of Student and Teacher Mean Responses for Five Factors

Factor	M^1	SD	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Cohen's d^2
F1 Emotions	-0.04	1445.0	-0.25	0.807	0.044
F2 Grammar	-0.56	29.6	-2.64	0.013*	0.569
F4 Tests	-0.04	1447.0	-3.05	0.002*	0.499
F5 Review	-0.55	1420.0	-3.59	0.001*	0.620
F6 Comprehension	-0.22	1445.0	-1.35	0.177	0.224

Note. M^1 = teacher means – student means. *Cohen's d^2* : The difference in student and teacher effect sizes are measured in Cohen's *d*, where ≤ .02 = weak; .05 = medium; ≥. 08 = strong (Cohen, 1992).

*Sig. < .05

As shown in in Table 2, the differences were significant for L1 usage to support students with grammar, tests, and review, but not emotions or comprehension.

Discussion

There is some evidence to support a positive answer to the first research question, namely that students prefer L1 support for all learning situations considered. Their preferences ranked, from high to low, for L1 support of tests (contrary to Burden, 2001), comprehension (supporting a similar construct in Burden; Carson & Kashihara, 2012; and Tian & Macar, 2012, regarding lexical development), grammar (contrary to Burden), review (supporting Burden), and finally, emotions (contrary to Burden but supporting Carson & Kashihara). Additionally, L1 preferences were higher in Group 2 for discussing tests and supporting comprehension than all the other groups, and declined through Groups 3 and 4. All other L1 preferences for factors ranked highest in Group 1 (supporting Burden), and decreased as proficiency rose (contrary to Tian & Macaro). This may be due to students finally gaining enough facility with the L2 to begin making deeper cognitive connections in the L2, particularly in Group 2 for comprehension and discussing tests. From Group 3 on, as students gain in proficiency, they appear to prefer correspondingly less L1 support. However, changes in preferences occur around Group 4.

Evidence supports an affirmative answer to the second research question, namely, does learner preference for L1 usage by teachers match teacher beliefs regarding L1 use? First, students and teachers matched for some factors. However, students preferred more L1 support than teachers for all five factors. Students and teachers agreed that L1 use for emotional support was unimportant (contrary to teacher beliefs in Burden and Carson & Kashihara). Both groups agreed that L1 support was helpful for comprehension (supporting a similar result in Burden, but at higher levels). The two groups mismatched on the following: They both supported L1 use for tests (supporting Burden and opposing Carson & Kashihara), but with students preferring significantly more L1 support for tests than teachers. They mismatched significantly concerning grammar (supporting a similar result in Burden, but at higher levels) and regarding review (contrary to Carson & Kashihara), with students preferring significantly more L1 support than teachers thought was useful. Mismatches were largest between high student means and low teacher means for grammar (opposite to Burden's findings) and review.

Inconsistences in L1–L2 communication research can be illustrated by contextual differences between the current study and the three EFL studies used for comparison. First, the student populations differed. Burden's (2001) student participants had NESTs, while the students in the current study had both NESTs and JTEs. Next, while students in both studies were Japanese, they were from mixed or unspecified majors. The students in Tian and Macaro's (2012) study were all Chinese 1st-year English majors, with perhaps, higher motivation compared to Burden and the current study. Consequently, they probably did not prefer as much L1 (Chinese) support as students in Burden's study or the current study. Additionally, contrary to Tian and Macaro (2012), the current study found that proficiency influenced student L1 preferences. Tian and Macaro suggested that there might not have been enough of a range in proficiency levels to allow for significant differences to emerge (Tian & Macaro, 2012, p. 382). Therefore, their lack of confirmatory results suggests more an insufficiency in student proficiency range than a lack of proficiency effect. Finally, Tian and Macaro's study used a repeated measures experimental design, while the other three studies used cross-sectional survey designs.

Another reason for inconsistency is that there has been no comprehensive and reliable instrument with which researchers can coordinate their efforts until now. The researcher has undertaken the creation of a new, pedagogically detailed instrument (SPIL), in hopes of contributing reliability to further study. Details and a Japanese translation will be made available in an upcoming paper.

Additionally, EFL and ESL conditions are not identical, but sometimes research results are extrapolated to include situations that are actually beyond their scope (e.g., Auerbach, 1993; Schweers, 1999). For instance, EFL students often have low motivation and few opportunities to hear and speak English, and the urge to speak in their shared L1 is irresistible. The current study was concerned with EFL students. In contrast, in ESL conditions, motivation is often greater due to practical considerations, there are frequent opportunities to practice, and often there is little or no shared L1. While the L2 is the same, the conditions for study and use are not.

Pedagogical Suggestions

Differences in proficiency levels appear to influence student L1 support preferences for the five factors investigated in this study. Consequently, the author has a few suggestions to maximize the potential learning situation in the EFL classroom.

 First, low-proficiency students need to build proficiency in making L1–L2 connections before they can progress to making L2 lexical connections to cognates in L2. Also, low-proficiency students want L1 support. Both these needs and wants can be met through the use of bilingual textbooks, dictionaries, and handouts. Using bilingual textbooks, more able students could focus on the L2 while the L1 is there to assist less able students. Students should be encouraged to use English–Japanese dictionaries, flip cards, and spaced-repetition software to build lexical connections between their L1 and L2. Multimodal software,

such as the watch-learn-speak video-based website, English Central (www.englishcentral.com), can help increase variety and interest as well as encourage diverse L2 production. Comparative L2–L1 exploration of mistakes made through literal L1 translations of L2 phrases could be taught bilingually, which could help students verify or revise their linguistic hypotheses and use errors to focus on form (see Barker, 2010a, 2010b). Using bilingual handouts to focus on form could help to correct or confirm student hypotheses concerning L2 grammar in a non-threatening way. Support can be there if it is needed, but would not interfere with L2 production.

Second, students should be encouraged to plan difficult tasks in their L1, with the stipulation that L2 production must result and the tacit expectation that it will be of a higher quality than could be produced in strictly L2 conditions (Joyce, von Dietze, & von Dietze, 2010). While this strategy is likely to be of more benefit to beginner-level students, it can also help intermediate and advanced students to attain a higher level of L2 production than would be possible otherwise.

Third, students should plan complex assignments and do practice tests in groups. By tackling complex ideas in their L1, they can help each other with task management, lexical selection, and metalinguistic negotiation in the L1 before attempting to produce difficult L2 assignments or write official tests (Antón & Dicamilla, 1999).

Fourth, students should be encouraged to help each other in their L1 if some cannot understand the L2. Strong students should be urged to help their less proficient classmates by explaining difficult L2 words and concepts in their L1. Doing both can help less proficient students build their initial L1–L2 lexical bridges and help more proficient students develop connections to L2 cognates by improving their proficiency through repetition (Kroll & Tokowicz, 2001). Communication strategies can be taught bilingually, enabling students to not only overcome L2

gaps but also to feel confident that they are using the appropriate L2 expressions by learning their L1 equivalents. Rather than attempt to create native-like speakers of English, teachers should encourage their students to be proud of becoming bilingual or multilingual (Cook, 2002).

Finally, teachers should engage in a dialogue with students at the start of the year (Murphey, Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009). The dialogue could begin with an exploration of students' previous experience, education, and views regarding the L2. It could consider students' perceptions of the potential for L2 use in their lives. The dialogue's goal could be a negotiation to familiarize the teacher with the students' expectations and preferences and to familiarize the students with the teachers' pedagogical targets, all with the students' fondest hope in mind: knowing how to obtain the elusive Grade A.

Limitations and Future Research

Most research into L1–L2 assisted classrooms, including the current study, has employed cross-sectional surveys. A detailed longitudinal study could uncover learning gains that cross-sectional studies are too limited to identify. The author is presently engaged in a 1-year longitudinal study, but a study over a longer period of time could shed more light on the relationship between L1 use, L2 study, and learning gains. Furthermore, experimental manipulation of learning under L2-only or L1-assisted EFL conditions could identify relationships between medium of instruction (MOI), student proficiency, and type of teacher (NNEST or NEST).

Also, future research could compare student and teacher agreement and disagreement across cultural contexts. In previous research in the Japanese EFL context (Carson, 2014), the author has found that students expect more affinity with and L1 support from their JTEs than NESTs. Also, JTEs and NESTs generally hold opposing views on which medium of instruction best serves the needs of their students, English only (NESTs) versus some use of the L1 (JTEs). The relationships between student preferences and their L2 proficiency levels, between students and their NNEST or NEST teachers, and between NNESTs and NESTs on pedagogical choices in the EFL class and in a variety of contexts and cultures would be a rich source of further study.

Conclusion

Students prefer the option of having L1 support when they need it. Evidence to support this preference has been found in the literature, but the evidence is not always consistent. A vast range of potential confounding factors are involved in the context of EFL research. Partly to ascertain some of the potential reasons for research inconsistency, the author has reviewed three examples of EFL research: papers written by Burden (2001), Tian & Macaro (2012), and Carson & Kashihara (2012). Variability was implied or appeared in the cultures of the countries in which studies were conducted and in motivational and affective variables related to student choice of study major. It may be difficult for teachers to know how to apply the results of this research when it is often inconsistent.

In the course of examining student preferences and teacher beliefs, the researcher has accomplished three things: first, creating and testing a comprehensive and reliable instrument; second, identifying several areas of student preferences and how they differ with students' proficiency levels; and third, identifying several areas of mismatch between students and their teachers. In particular, most students enter the university EFL classroom with strong desires for L1 support for grammar, comprehension, and tests. On the other hand, some teachers disagree with students' perceptions of their need for L1 support for review and grammar, believing that less is better.

The author has concluded with several recommendations for educators. From the results, it is clear that students prefer L1 support when they do not understand, cannot complete class requirements, or cannot communicate in the L2. Hopefully, the author has identified several ways to encourage students to develop their L2 skills.

Bio Data

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Appendix

SPIL: Student Preferences for Instructional Language

2. Your Preference of Teachers` Use of Japanese or English in Class

I am conducting this questionnaire for the purpose of improving the quality of English classes. I would like to know how much Japanese or English students expect that their teacher should use in English class. Your participation is anonymous and voluntary. You do not need to write your name. I hope that you will answer honestly to the best of your knowledge, so that the data will show your true expectations. Your responses will not affect your course grade. Thank you for your help!

Please Write Your student number: _____

(This information will be kept strictly confidential. The researcher will not know your name.)

Please choose the option that is true for you:		
1	I prefer that my teacher uses this much of Japanese in class: (circle choices here →) 1. 0-20% 2. 20-40% 3. 40-60% 4. 60-80% 5. 80-100%	1 2 3 4 5
2	Choose (a) or (b) about your university English classes: (a) I am being taught English mainly by Japanese teachers (b) I am being taught English mainly by native English-speaking teachers	a b
	1 2 3 4 5 Strongly disagree Disagree Neither Agree Strongly agree	
3	I have a Japanese English teacher, and I am satisfied with the amount of English he or she uses in class. I do not have Japanese English teacher. (Skip this question)	1 2 3 4 5
4	I have a native English-speaking teacher, and I am satisfied with the amount of Japanese he or she uses in class. I do not have a native English-speaking teacher. (Please answer 3).	1 2 3 4 5

3. Your Preference of Teachers` Use of Japanese or English in Class

	1 2 3 4 5 Strongly disagree Disagree Neither Agree Strongly agree
In English class *in general*, I prefer:	
1	That my teacher knows and understands Japanese	1 2 3 4 5
2	That my teacher can answer my questions in Japanese if I don`t know how to ask or understand the answer in English.	1 2 3 4 5
3	That my native English-speaking teacher has been successful at learning Japanese because he or she can be a good model for me. (If I have a Japanese teacher, go to 8)	1 2 3 4 5
4	That my native English-speaking teacher has been successful at learning Japanese because he or she can know where my problems will be.	1 2 3 4 5
5	That my teacher uses Japanese in class because it helps me to learn English	1 2 3 4 5
6	That I can use Japanese in English class to help me learn English	1 2 3 4 5

		1	2	3	4	5
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly agree

In English class, I prefer my teacher to use Japanese to:

7	Define new vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5
8	Compare different words that seem similar (for example, "accident" and "incident")	1	2	3	4	5
9	Show when a word has more than one meaning	1	2	3	4	5
10	Introduce new phrases	1	2	3	4	5
11	Introduce new slang and casual expressions	1	2	3	4	5
12	Introduce new grammar	1	2	3	4	5
13	Translate examples of grammar from English to Japanese	1	2	3	4	5
14	Translate examples of grammar from Japanese to English	1	2	3	4	5
15	Show when English words or phrases match Japanese words or phrases	1	2	3	4	5
16	Explain when English words or phrases are different from Japanese words or phrases which seem similar (for example, "have a cold" is different from "風邪を持って;" but it should be 風邪をひいている)	1	2	3	4	5
17	Show how "borrowed words" have a different meaning in English. (For example, "スマート" in Japanese does not mean "thin" in English.)	1	2	3	4	5
18	Review the major points of the previous lesson	1	2	3	4	5
19	Review vocabulary or expressions already learned	1	2	3	4	5
20	Review words with more than one meaning	1	2	3	4	5
21	Review "borrowed words"	1	2	3	4	5
22	Review slang and casual expressions	1	2	3	4	5
23	Give instructions about reports or exams	1	2	3	4	5
24	Help me when I do not understand the English words	1	2	3	4	5
25	Help me when I do not understand the teacher`s explanation	1	2	3	4	5
26	Help me when I want to ask questions but do not know the English words	1	2	3	4	5
27	Help me when I want to answer questions but don`t know the English words	1	2	3	4	5
28	Check my understanding of important assignments	1	2	3	4	5
29	Check my understanding about test-taking procedures (for example, if I can use notes)	1	2	3	4	5
30	Check my understanding about test instructions and format (for example, "multiple choice or open-ended format")	1	2	3	4	5
31	Tell me when I have done something well	1	2	3	4	5
32	Help me to feel more comfortable	1	2	3	4	5
33	Help me to feel more confident	1	2	3	4	5
34	Help me to feel less tense	1	2	3	4	5
35	Help me to feel less lost	1	2	3	4	5
36	Joke in class	1	2	3	4	5
37	Talk about English-language cultures	1	2	3	4	5
38	Talk about famous English-speaking celebrities	1	2	3	4	5
39	Talk about social issues in English-language societies	1	2	3	4	5
40	Compare cultural differences between Japanese- and English-language societies	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much!