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Japan Association for Language Teaching

A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of approximately 3,000 language teachers. There are 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.

Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes the option of joining one chapter and one SIG, copies of JALT publications, and free or discounted admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many additional SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥2,000 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office or visit the JALT website.

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In This Issue

Articles

For our May issue we are pleased to present two feature articles. In the first, **Hidetoshi Saito** looks at the effects of test preparation and keyword lists on a story-retelling task. In the second, **Charles Mueller** compares introductions to research articles written in English by English native speakers, in English by native speakers of Japanese, and in Japanese by native speakers of Japanese.

Reviews

With contributions from the new Assistant Reviews Editor, John Nevara, this issue of *JALT Journal* features seven reviews. **Scott Bean** opens with the first of two reviews on literature and language learning. Next, **Eucharia Donnery** explores Ruth Finnegan's ethnographic account of what language is. In the third slot, **Paul Freeborn** provides a second look into literature in language education from a book with that very title. We sourced a fourth reviewer through the JALT TBL SIG and **Justin Harris** came forward to tackle *Contemporary Task-Based Language Teaching in Asia*, coedited by Michael Thomas and JALT Publications alumnus Hayo Reinders. **Jakub E. Marszalenko** then lends his expertise to examine a research-based title on translating and interpreting. In the next to last review, *Language for Specific Purposes* from Palgrave Macmillan's Research and Practice in Applied Linguistics Series is appraised by **Sayaka Morita**. Wrapping things up, **Andrew Reimann** reports on a title focused on Canadian English.

Editor's Message

My time as *JALT Journal* Editor is winding down, and I am already starting to feel nostalgic. The work is hard, but it has deepened my appreciation for how JALT comes together as a scholarly community to produce this journal twice a year. My gratitude as always goes out to the authors and reviewers who do the most vital labor. The Associate Editor, Eric Hauser, has been an invaluable resource as he prepares to take on the duties of Editor next November. Deepest thanks also go to Aleda Krause and her team for putting together the journal with patience and good humor every time.

Anne McLellan Howard

Articles

Effects of Preparation and Use of Keyword Lists on a Classroom Story-Retelling Test

Hidetoshi Saito
Ibaraki University

The purpose of this quasi-experimental study was to explore the effects of test practice and keyword use on story-retelling test performance under four conditions. Eighty-two beginning and intermediate Japanese university students enrolled in English courses were required to practice orally summarizing two passages using a keyword list and also instructed to orally summarize one of two previously unseen passages without preparation. In the test session, two groups experienced two conditions that were identical and one that was different. Both groups retold one practiced passage with keywords at hand and a new passage without a keyword list. Group 1 retold another practiced passage with the keyword list withheld, whereas Group 2 read an additional new passage, made a keyword list, and retold it with the keyword list but without practice. Test practice was found to improve performance, but keyword list use induced better performance only when used with practice.

テスト準備とキーワードリストは口頭要約テストに役立つか。この研究はテスト準備とキーワードリストの使用が口頭での要約テストに役立つかを調査することを目的とした。日本人大学生（初中級者）2グループ（計82名）が二つの同一条件と一つの異なる条件でそれぞれ英文要約を行った（計三条件づつ）。参加者は予め二種の英文が渡され、キーワードリストを作って練習をするように指示された。また、その場で新しい英文の要約を行うことも指示された。試験当日、両グループともまず練習した英文をリストとともに要約し、その後新しい英文の要約も行った。グループ1はさらに、準備したキーワードリストなしで練習した英文の要約を行った。グループ2はその場で新しい英文を読み、キーワードリストを作って

要約を行った。結果として、練習したほうが、練習をしていない場合より良いが、キーワードリストは練習した場合のみに有効であることがわかった。

Opportunity for practice is critical in learning a new language. Repeated practice is required to automatize skills (Anderson, 1999). Despite the significant role of practice in skill learning, practicing for tests has been considered inappropriate because of purported inflation of test scores without actual improvement in the target skills or knowledge (Lai & Waltman, 2008). From a classroom learning perspective, however, preparing for performance tests, such as speaking and writing tests, is widely believed to have a positive influence on student engagement in learning in and outside the classroom, especially in the context of foreign language learning, where learners have little opportunity to use the target language in daily life.

To explore whether test practice and preparation improve classroom test performance, this study focused on the effect of practice and use of a self-prepared keyword list on oral test performance. Two hypotheses relevant to the role of practice and keyword use in the classroom-testing context were proposed: the test practice effect (TPE) hypothesis and the keyword use effect (KUE) hypothesis.

Literature Review

The first hypothesis in this study is the TPE hypothesis, which states that test practice of the target performance (rather than no practice) will facilitate performance on speaking test tasks. Previous studies in second language acquisition (SLA) have consistently shown that repeated practice improves the learner's speaking performance on a task (Arevart & Nation, 1991; Bygate, 2001; Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, & Fernández-García, 1999; Kawauchi, 2005; Lynch & Maclean, 2000; Williams, 1992). The TPE hypothesis is consistent with these studies, revealing that practice or repeated implementations of the target activity (defined by DeKeyser, 2007) improve current skills and hence facilitate language performance.

One explanation for the practice effect is that previous experience with the same task type (familiarity of task structure) and content (prior knowledge; Mackey, Kanganas, & Oliver, 2007; Skehan, 1998) results in reduced cognitive load and thus efficient processing of the conceptualization and formulation of speech (Bygate & Samuda, 2005). Better performance in combinations of accuracy, fluency, and complexity can reflect efficiency in cognitive processing (Robinson, 2005; Skehan, 1998). Efficient cognitive

processing is made possible by bypassing access to declarative knowledge and combining those declarative (or descriptive, explicit) rules to form a new, simpler rule (Anderson, 2007).

Although SLA research supports the practice effect, testing studies have shown little support for the effects of preparation or coaching for large-scale American and British academic tests, including the Cambridge FCE, GRE, IELTS, SAT, TOEFL, and other academic aptitude tests (Alderman & Powers, 1980; Bachman, Davidson, Ryan, & Choi, 1995; Green, 2007; Nguyen, 2007; Powers, 1985, 1986, 1993). However, because the preparation programs compared and aggregated in each study varied in length, teaching methods, and content, nil effects based on noneffective preparation in one program were likely to offset potential benefits of effective preparation in another program. A recent, well-controlled large-scale EFL test preparation study (Xie, 2013) showed a small but statistically significant effect of drilling on test scores. This implies that the efficiency of test preparation depends on the extent to which preparation matches the actual test task—whether what is rote-learned is on the test. In fact, the degree of similarity between an actual assessment and classroom instruction may account for this apparent contradiction among research studies (Ruiz-Primo, Shavelson, Hamilton, & Klein, 2002). The effect of test preparation on large-scale, norm-referenced, academic tests could be smaller because what was tested may have been "distal/remote" from what had been instructed in lessons and hence insensitive to student learning. On the other hand, the effect of practice in SLA studies is larger because what the participants repeatedly practiced is identical to what was tested in the studies. In cognitive psychology, this is known as transfer-appropriate processing: learners best transfer skills learned in a certain context to a similar context (Lyster & Sato, 2013).

Although repeated practice potentially boosts immediate test performance, the use of a keyword list—commonly employed in public speaking—may also improve oral performance. However, none of the previous studies in these areas has tested the effects of the availability of a keyword list. Authors of several textbooks on teaching formal speechmaking (e.g., Gregory, 2002; Nation & Newton, 2008) have asserted that brief speaking notes not only encourage natural speaking but also provide the speaker with cues and a sense of security. The keyword use effect (KUE) hypothesis proposed herein states, based on a logical extension of these claims, that the use of a keyword list improves oral test performance. Joe (1998) compared the effect of the presence of the original passage, rather than keywords, on a story-retelling task. In Joe's study, after a 15-minute practice, two groups

orally summarized a passage, but only one had access to the passage while summarizing. Although both outperformed a nonpracticing control group in vocabulary recall, there was no difference between the two practice groups. This suggests that practice, not access to the passage, is important; in other words, once practiced, vocabulary recall no longer benefits from the availability of the passage while retelling. If generalized to the present context, this is contrary to the KUE hypothesis and the belief regarding the usefulness of keywords in story retelling and speech.

Questions still remain regarding the extent to which practiced performance differs from impromptu performance and whether keyword use boosts performance. Furthermore, it is of great interest to examine whether the effects of practice and keyword use are additive.

Hypotheses of the Present Study

Four different conditions to examine the plausibility of the two hypotheses were set up (see Table 1). In the fully assisted condition, participants had a chance to practice and use a keyword list for the task. In the practiced condition, participants had a chance to practice and make a keyword list but did not have access to it for the task. In the keyword-assisted condition, participants did not have a chance to practice, but they did make a keyword list and had access to it during the task. Finally, in the impromptu condition, participants did not have a chance to practice nor to make a keyword list for the task. Performance under these four conditions was compared and predictions generated from the TPE and the KUE hypotheses, as described in Table 2, were tested.

Table 1. Conditions in the Present Study

	Availability	
Conditions	Practiced	Keyword list
1 Fully assisted	✓	✓
2 Practiced	✓	0
3 Keyword-assisted	0	✓
4 Impromptu	0	0

Table 2. Predictions of the TPE and KUE Hypothesis

		Hypothesis		
Contrast	Condition	Test practice effect	Keyword use effect	Condition
1	Fully assisted	=	>	Practiced
2	Fully assisted	>	=	Keyword-assisted
3	Fully assisted	>	>	Impromptu
4	Practiced	>	<	Keyword-assisted
5	Practiced	>	-	Impromptu
6	Keyword-assisted	-	>	Impromptu

Note. > indicates that the condition in the left column is predicted to induce better performance compared to the condition in the right column; = indicates that performances on both conditions are predicted to be equivalent; - indicates that the hypothesis cannot predict performance.

As shown in Table 2, the KUE hypothesis predicts the advantages of keyword use in Contrasts 1, 3, 4, and 6. The KUE hypothesis lacks a prediction regarding Contrast 5 (practiced vs. impromptu) because it does not concern the keyword list, and it predicts equal effects in Contrast 2 (fully assisted vs. keyword-assisted) because of the availability of a keyword list in both conditions.

The TPE hypothesis predicts the advantages of test practice over nonpractice in Contrasts 2, 3, 4, and 5. However, because the TPE hypothesis does not consider the role of a keyword list, predictions for Contrasts 1 and 6 differ from those of other contrasts. The TPE hypothesis lacks a prediction regarding Contrast 6 (keyword-assisted vs. impromptu) because it does not concern practice. Concerning Contrast 1 (fully assisted vs. practiced), it can be assumed that repeated practice may reduce the need for keyword list assistance, as in Joe's (1998) study on oral test performance. A strong version of the TPE hypothesis could then mean that practicing facilitates better performance by participants on the test task, and when ample practice is implemented, a keyword list does not further improve test performance.

Method

Design

This is a repeated-measures study. All participants took a standardized speaking test (Telephone Standard Speaking Test [TSST]; ALC Press, 2016), after which they were exposed to three task conditions—fully assisted, impromptu, and either practiced or keyword-assisted—of a story-retelling task using different passages. Performance in the impromptu condition served as a baseline to which the performance scores of the three other conditions were compared. Critical comparisons were made within subjects; baseline and target conditions were compared *within* each group, rather than to control or experimental groups. However, one between-group comparison (the practiced condition vs. keyword-assisted condition) was necessary because participants in each group performed only one or the other of these conditions.

Participants

Eighty-two native-speaking Japanese university freshmen and sophomores (34 males and 48 females, aged 18-21) participated in the study. Group 1 (n = 29), was made up of students majoring in education who were enrolled at a national university in an English course that met for 15 weeks once a week for 90 minutes. Group 2 (n = 53) consisted of students in two classes, one majoring in education (n = 20) in a different section of the same course as Group 1 and the other majoring in humanities and science (n = 33) at the same university in a general English course that met for 15 weeks twice a week for 90 minutes. The main purpose of these courses was to improve discussion and debate skills. All participants took the TSST approximately 2 weeks before the story-retelling test. Table 3 shows that most participants in both groups performed at Levels 3 and 4 of nine possible levels, except for six students in Group 2 who performed at Levels 5 and 6. The TSST score was regarded as a proficiency factor in the present study and entered as a moderating variable, as in previous studies (e.g., Kawauchi, 2005).

Table 3. The Speaking Proficiency Levels of Participants

Proficiency level	Group 1	Group 2
3 (Novice high)	9	28
4 (Intermediate low)	20	19
5 (Intermediate low plus)	0	5
6 (Intermediate mid)	0	1
Total	29	53

Materials

The three reading passages for this task were selected from a university-level EFL textbook (Day & Yamanaka, 1998). The passages covered interracial marriage, gay rights, and notification to cancer patients, all of which were appropriate debate topics for the participants, whose mean English proficiency was low intermediate or high beginning. Four readability indices confirmed an approximate equivalence of surface linguistic readability of the three passages (see Appendix B). Two graduate students and two university professors of English examined the comprehensibility of the passages and agreed unanimously that all passages were approximately equally comprehensible.

Procedure

Given the course objectives, the use of a story-retelling test—oral summary of a reading passage—was considered appropriate, and all participants practiced the task in pairs four times with a self-prepared keyword list guided by comprehension questions on the worksheet. Earlier studies have also suggested that story-retelling tasks facilitate the acquisition of L2 vocabulary (Joe, 1998) and grammar (Muranoi, 2007), possibly because the text provides repeated opportunities for the learner to encounter and use the target forms. Story retelling has also been a commonly used L2 test method (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010; Underhill, 1987) and has been supported for its appropriateness for university courses (Hirai & Koizumi, 2009). The target construct here is skill in orally summarizing a short reading passage—a necessary preparatory skill for debate.

On the test, the participants were randomly assigned to one of the six possible sequences of the three reading passages (i.e., ABC, ACB, BAC, BCA, CAB, CBA). Assignment of passages was counterbalanced across participants.

One week before the test, the participants were given two new reading passages and were encouraged (on the grounds that the passages would be part of their final exam) to practice using a self-prepared keyword list. They were also informed that in addition to one of the two passages they practiced, they would also retell new passages, which would be chosen by the tester during the test.

During the test session, participants came to the instructor's room individually. As shown in Figure 1, with the exception of the second retelling, both groups underwent the same test procedures. In the first retelling task (the fully assisted condition), both groups orally summarized one practiced passage—chosen by the instructor during the test—using a keyword list. In the second retelling task, Group 1 retold the second passage, which they had also prepared for, but the prepared keyword list was withheld (the practiced condition). The participants were assured, to alleviate any surprise (because they had been told they would have to retell only one of the two practiced passages), that this particular performance would not be included in their final grade. In the second task for Group 2, they were given a new passage and asked to read it and make a keyword list within 5 minutes (the keyword-assisted condition). In addition, they were allowed to use the dictionary and spend an additional 2 minutes to prepare, if needed. In fact, all participants spent 7 minutes reading and making a keyword list. Participants then performed a story retelling using the newly made keyword list. In the third retelling task, both groups retold a new third passage given during the test, with no keywords available. They were given 5 minutes to read the third passage and were permitted to use a dictionary. All participants finished reading within 5 minutes, and 22 participants used the dictionary once or twice. Although there was no time limit for the retellings, nearly all participants completed each retelling within 5 minutes, the only exception being one participant who spent about 5 minutes and 30 seconds on two performances.

In this study, the order of conditions that each participant went through was fixed, because it was believed that participants could feel more relaxed if they started with what they had practiced before performing the impromptu condition. Counterbalancing of the order of conditions was avoided to elicit the best possible performance—that is, "biased for best" (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010, p. 44). The fixed order of three conditions could possibly generate incidental practice and fatigue effects. However, an incidental practice effect—not the deliberate practice effect on which the present study was focused—was unlikely to occur, because all participants

had ample opportunity to practice the same task type before the test. Although the possibility of a fatigue effect could not be eliminated, the fact that the entire test session took only 25 minutes minimized this concern.

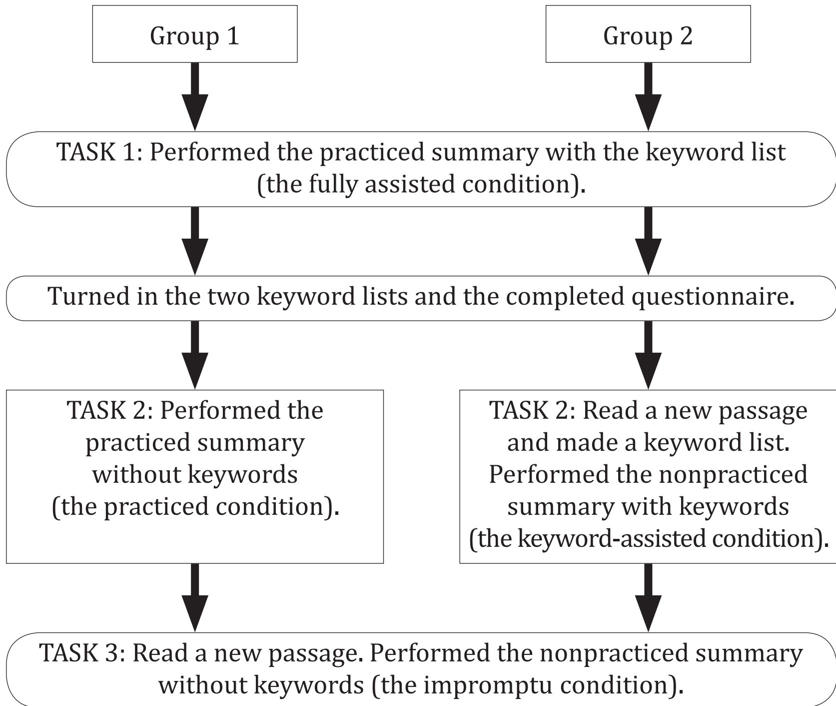

Figure 1. Test procedure of the present study. The only difference between Groups 1 and 2 in the test procedure was the second task.

Participants also completed an open-ended questionnaire investigating how they practiced for the test as well as how long they spent practicing. They returned the completed questionnaire along with the keyword lists to the researcher after the first story-retelling task. When necessary, the researcher asked questions after the test session to clarify participants' responses to the questionnaire. The researcher then asked each participant if he or she had ever read the new passage, to detect leakage from classmates, but all denied having done so.

All performances were audio recorded, and the randomized audio files were subjected to blind evaluation by three raters, all of whom had exten-

sive experience in teaching English at the college level in Japan and were trained for about 2 hours by the author before they started rating. They rated performances on three categories—language (mainly grammatical accuracy), fluency, and content (the adequacy of information covered)—using a 4-point scale (see Appendix A). This test was developed for the course and piloted twice before this research. The Rasch reliabilities of the second pilot test were .89 (examinees), .88 (raters), and .97 (items).

In this study, the participants themselves determined the extent to which they practiced. The instructor advised them to write keywords on the worksheet and to practice speaking aloud using the keyword list, as practiced in the lessons. The practice time thus was at each learner's discretion. It must be acknowledged that this lack of standardization in practice time weakened the internal validity of the study; however, it strengthened the study's ecological validity in that such individual variation in practice time reflected classroom reality.

Analysis

Because key statistical assumptions (normality, homogeneity of variance) were met, one between-subject and one within-subject (proficiency [TSST test scores] x condition [fully assisted, impromptu, and keyword-assisted or practiced]) analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Rasch performance measures as the dependent variable was run for each group to test the predictions. The Rasch analysis with the Facets program (Linacre, 2008) calibrates rater severity, item difficulty, condition difficulty, and participant performance measures. By taking into account such measurement factors (facets) as raters, items, and conditions, the Rasch analysis generates more plausible performance scores, which would not be possible with raw scores alone. The Rasch analysis allows for comparing measures across test facets on the common logit (log odds ratio) scale. Deviant raters, items, and participants are flagged through associated fit statistics for quality control. The Rasch model requires several strong assumptions, one of which is unidimensionality. The unidimensionality requirement means that all items on the same test measure the same dimension; misfitting items, persons, or both will return extreme fit statistics. The sample size of the present study, 82, was short of the recommended sample size of 120 (30 observations per factor) for achieving stability across samples (Linacre, n.d.), thus limiting generalizability. In addition, as a follow-up analysis, the potential mediating roles of the keyword list and the length of practice time for performance gain were examined through linear regression analyses.

Results

The Rasch analysis indicated high reliabilities of all four facets of raters, items, conditions, and participants (see Appendix C). The separation reliability value, 3.42, of participants indicates that participants can be divided into three groups. Table 4 displays descriptive statistics for the Rasch performance measures for the two groups. In both groups, two notable points are that, first, the differences between the fully assisted and impromptu conditions were greater than three logits with large effect sizes of d = 1.79 (Group 1) and 1.33 (Group 2). Second, the impromptu condition had the largest standard deviation, indicating a wide variation in performance. The Rasch analysis indicated a good fit of the data, with no misfitting items or raters. There was only one strongly misfitting participant based on the proposed criteria (Fisher, 2007), but this participant was retained for the subsequent analyses, because the purpose was descriptive for hypothesis testing rather than prescriptive for measurement construction. The performance measures generated from this Rasch run were then subjected to one between-subject and one within-subject (proficiency levels x condition) ANOVA.

Table 4. Means and Standard Deviations of Participant Performance Measures by Condition

	Group 1 (n = 29)		Group 2 (n = 53)	
Condition	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Fully assisted	2.10	1.36	2.74	2.18
Practiced	0.48	1.74	-	-
Keyword-assisted	-	-	-0.29	1.97
Impromptu	-1.07	2.10	-0.46	2.58

Note. These are Rasch logit measures derived from raw scores.

Table 5 shows the results of the mixed-design ANOVA for Groups 1 and 2. The findings indicated statistically significant main effects of conditions and proficiency but no interaction effect for either group (Figures 2 & 3). This means that performances across conditions differed regardless of proficiency. The post hoc multiple comparisons for Group 1 indicated statistically significant differences among the three conditions (the fully assisted, practiced, and impromptu conditions). The follow-up analysis for Group 2

showed statistically significant differences between the fully assisted and the keyword-assisted conditions, but not between the keyword-assisted and the impromptu conditions. Because of the research design, these ANOVAs did not include a comparison between the practiced and the keyword-assisted conditions. A between-group t-test comparison of the two conditions was thus performed with the Bonferroni-adjusted probability set at .025. To remedy unequal sample sizes between the two conditions, 29 cases of those in the keyword-assisted condition were randomly sampled to match the sample size of the practiced condition. The result showed no statistically significant difference between the practiced and the keyword-assisted conditions, $t(56) = 1.57$, $p > .10$, effect size $r = .16$. To summarize the results, Table 6 displays all contrasts again. The TPE hypothesis is supported in Contrasts 2, 3, and 5; the KUE hypothesis is supported in Contrasts 1 and 3. Both are rejected in Contrasts 4 and 6.

Table 5. Results of Repeated-Measure ANOVAs for Groups 1 and 2

	Group 1				Group 2			
Source	*df*	*F*	*p*	η^2	*df*	*F*	*p*	η^2
	Within subjects							
Condition (C)	2	24.44	.00	.47	2	14.92	.00	.23
Interaction (C x P)	2	0.34	.71	.01	6	0.79	.58	.04
Error	54				98			
	Between subjects							
Intercept	1				1			
Proficiency (P)	1	4.40	.04	.14	3	6.72	.00	.29
Error	27				49			

Table 6. Predictions Supported by the Results of the Present Study

Condition	Hypothesis: Test practice effect	Hypothesis: Keyword use effect	Condition
1. Fully assisted	=	>[2]	Practiced
2. Fully assisted	>[1]	=	Keyword-assisted
3. Fully assisted	>[1,2]	>[1,2]	Impromptu
4. Practiced	>	<	Keyword-assisted
5. Practiced	>[1]	-	Impromptu
6. Keyword-assisted	-	>	Impromptu

Note. Superscript 1 indicates the results of Group 1 supports the prediction; superscript 2 indicates the same for Group 2.

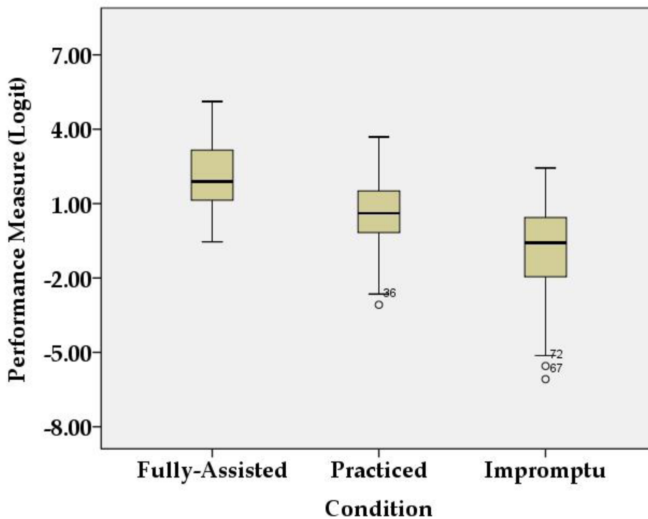

Figure 2. The boxplot of performance measures of three conditions for Group 1.

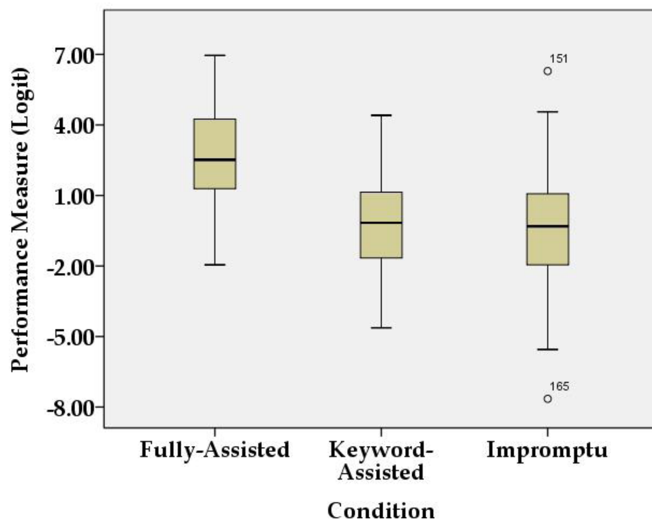

Figure 3. The boxplot of performance measures of three conditions for Group 2.

Further Analysis of the Data

An additional issue was the potential mediating roles played by the keyword list and the length of practice time for performance improvement. Two independent raters checked the total number of words that appeared both on each participant's keyword list and in the actual transcript of the fully assisted and practiced conditions. The keyword-assisted condition was not examined due to the statistically nonsignificant results mentioned above. The rater agreement ratio was 96% for the fully assisted condition and 94% for the practiced condition; and all disagreements were subsequently resolved. The average number of words that participants listed and actually used was 23.64 (*SD* = 15.06) for the fully assisted condition and 24.31 (*SD* = 12.07) for the practiced condition. Average self-reported length of practice was 97.79 minutes (*SD* = 72.20). Both the number of keywords and practice time were positively skewed. Because of the need for normalizing the variables and the power law of learning (Anderson, 2005, p. 188) warranting a strong assumption of a power relationship between practice time or keyword use and gain scores, all variables were log-transformed. Key statistical assumptions (normality, homoscedasticity, nonmulticollinearity) being met, regression analyses were run to test the predictability of the two variables

(time and keywords) for performance gain indicated by the two difference scores: the impromptu/fully assisted scores and the impromptu/practiced scores. Those difference scores were derived by subtracting the measures of the impromptu condition from those of the fully assisted and practiced conditions, which is assumed to reflect gain by practice. Independent variables were the number of keywords along with two covariates: practice time and proficiency (TSST test scores). The results suggested that the number of keywords used, practice time, and proficiency were not statistically significant predictors of either performance difference score, $F(3, 78) = .85$, $p > .05$, adjusted $r^2 = .00$ for the impromptu/fully assisted and $F(3, 25) = .34$, $p > .05$, adjusted $r^2 = -.02$ for the impromptu/practiced. These results suggest that the number of keywords actually jotted down and the number of hours of practice did not proportionately improve performance. One might make the criticism that individual variations in keyword use and practice time in the present study could have influenced the effects of conditions. These statistically nonsignificant results of regression analyses address this concern and suggest that the number of keywords used itself does not matter. They also suggest that longer practice does not proportionately boost performance scores; however, the opportunity to practice still seems to have an impact.

Discussion and Conclusion

In the present study I investigated the effect of test practice and keyword use on story-retelling task performance through testing of the TPE and KUE hypotheses. The results were not conclusive. Neither of the competing hypotheses is clearly superior to the other. In Contrast 1 (the fully assisted condition vs. the practiced condition), the KUE hypothesis is supported because the use of keywords further improves performance compared to performance without them. This benefit disappears, however, in the statistically nonsignificant Contrast 6 (keyword-assisted vs. impromptu), suggesting that performance with the keyword list is no better than performance without it. Although the statistically nonsignificant result of Contrast 4 (practiced vs. keyword-assisted) supports neither hypothesis, the results of Contrasts 2, 3, and 5 support the TPE hypothesis. The TPE hypothesis can explain that test practice helps the participants achieve a higher score than does performance without practice (Contrasts 3, 5) by a margin of more than three logits. It also explains the power of practice observed in Contrast 2 (fully assisted vs. keyword-assisted), such that practice, along with the use of a keyword list, leads to a better performance than does a keyword list alone.

The KUE hypothesis was supported in Contrasts 1 and 3 (fully practiced vs. practiced or impromptu), in which the keyword list was used with practice. This suggests that keyword lists have an effect only when used with practice. The test takers in the keyword-assisted condition constructed an immediate keyword list, which emulates pretask planning in previous studies. Thus, this part of the present study seems to replicate the null effects of pretask planning in language testing contexts (e.g., Iwashita, McNamara, & Elder, 2001; Wigglesworth & Elder, 2010).

Although explaining the exact cognitive mechanisms of the differential roles of the keyword list is beyond the scope of the present study, a reasonable speculation is that students at this level (i.e., lower intermediate and upper beginners) could not take advantage of the keyword list without practice. Each condition presented competing demands of cognitive processing to perform the task. In the keyword-assisted condition, the test takers needed to read and understand the passage, plan the retelling, and select and write down the keywords. The keyword list-making task, which should have helped the actual story retelling, might have backfired in the keyword-assisted condition because the test takers were busy making a list rather than planning what to say in the story retelling. In the fully assisted condition, the test takers already understood the story and had practiced for the story retelling and were thus able to save their cognitive resources for the on-line demand of articulating the well-practiced speech to which the keyword list provided cues. In sum, the findings suggest that the keyword list-making task in the keyword-assisted condition may hinder language planning; the dual purposes of the task in anxiety-provoking test contexts limit the availability of cognitive resources for optimal speech performance. This may be the main reason why the keyword list did not help and served only as a security blanket in the keyword-assisted condition. In contrast, the same keyword list facilitated performance in the fully assisted condition. Compared to practice alone (the practiced condition), the test takers had saved their cognitive resources due to practice, thus affording the benefits from the keyword list. A caveat, however, is that this may be true only for learners at this level.

The present study shows that the TPE hypothesis is supported when the test task is identical to the prepared task, which corroborates the bulk of SLA studies on task repetition. Nevertheless, even if the same type of task is used, benefits from practice may not be transferable to different topics, as suggested by the fact that the worst performances occurred in the impromptu condition. One could argue that this is broadly consistent with the

small effects found in test preparation studies, which have indicated that even if the test takers practice using similar types of questions, transferability to the real test is negligible. However, because of the lack of a pretest, it is unclear whether the impromptu performance improved when compared to performance *before* practice. This is one limitation of the present study.

Another limitation is the restriction of sample size and task, which limits the generalizability of the results. In addition, there were limitations regarding research design. The study did not include any analyses using discourse measures, mainly because of their inherent problems in meeting statistical assumptions. This, however, certainly limits the interpretation of the results beyond rated performance.

Finally, it is worth commenting on the role of practice in the classroom performance test. Without the help of practice and the use of a keyword list, the participants in the present study could have demonstrated worse performance, as shown in the impromptu condition. This classroom assessment has thus encouraged the learner to practice to learn, fulfilling its purpose. In the context of a standardized test, test preparation using even part of what is going to be on the test—also called current-form preparation (Popham, 1991)—is claimed to be educationally unjustifiable. However, this assertion needs to be reconsidered in light of performance tests in classroom contexts, because test preparation allows students (a) to feel comfortable by knowing what needs to be practiced; thus, (b) to work hard for practice (positive washback); and (c) to demonstrate their upper limit of performance or the zone of proximal distance in the test. The present study provided at least some support for (b) and (c). For language skills development, preparation for performance tests in the classroom should be used wisely. Further research into the transfer effects of practice in a pre- and posttest design and generalizability of the findings across different proficiency levels will help inform better test preparation for both students and teachers.

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Appendix A

Rating Scale and Main Points of Passages

Table A1. Rating Scale

<table>
<tr><th>Level</th><th>Score</th><th>Grammar & vocabulary</th><th>Fluency</th><th>Content</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Upper</td><td>4</td><td>• Makes small errors that never affect comprehensibility
• Uses complex structures (e.g., subordinate clauses, relative clauses)
• Uses a wide range of vocabulary and phrases, sophisticated vocabulary</td><td>• Uses natural pauses
• Speech flows smoothly and quickly
• Uses natural fillers for coping with silence
• (Pronunciation much less influenced by L1)</td><td>• All main points* are covered</td></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td>• Makes occasional small errors, which do not affect overall comprehension
• Able to produce longer stretches of sentences (complex structures)
• Uses adequate vocabulary</td><td>• Speech flows smoothly but contains occasional unnatural pauses
• Uses a small amount of repetition, pauses</td><td>• All main points* but one are covered</td></tr>
</table>

Level	Score	Grammar & vocabulary	Fluency	Content
Lower	2	• Makes numerous small errors that may affect comprehensibility • Sometimes the listener needs sympathy to understand him/her • Uses basic structures • Unable to use rich vocabulary	• Unnatural repetition and reformulation (self-correction) dominates in the speech • Speech contains occasional unnecessary pauses, hesitant • Unnatural intonation and pronunciation • Occasional smoothness may begin to emerge, but not stable • Unable to use appropriate fillers or may use Japanese fillers	• Two points* are missed or not clearly covered
	1	• Makes a lot of local errors, even on basic structures, and some global errors that hinder comprehensibility • The listener needs a lot of sympathy for comprehension, but it may not be comprehensible	• Speech contains a lot of pauses including long pauses of 3.0 seconds or more; Frequent repetition, reformulation, breakdown can be observed; Speech is very choppy • Uses unnatural intonation, pronunciation • Has difficulty in continuation • Discards turns • Shows uncertainties in the choice of words • Unable to use fillers or uses Japanese fillers	• All three points* are not clearly covered or missed

Note. *Main points of each passage are described in Table A2.

Table A2. Main Points of Passages

Content: International Relationship • Amir & Sachiko are international college students in the U.S., and her boyfriend asks Sachiko to marry him. • Sachiko hasn't yet decided to get married with Amir because she's very confused. • They have several problems such as parents' disapproval, where to live, where to work, and disadvantages that their children might have. • (at least two of these problems should be mentioned)
Content: Doing the Right Thing • Yumi's father is dying because of stomach cancer. • Yumi is confused now, and she seeks advice from Dr. Aoki. • They haven't told the truth to her father, because her mother thinks it would shock him and may shorten his life, but Yumi thinks they should tell the truth.
Content: Why Don't You Accept Us? • Wing & Jay are a gay couple. • They want to be accepted by society and hope to live an ordinary life. • They have problems in their life because they have to hide the truth from friends, parents, and others.

Appendix B

Readability Indices of the Three Passages

	Dale-Chall readability formula					Fry	Flesch	Lexile
Passages	Sentence	Word	Diff Wd	D-C score	Grades			
Why	30	371	18	5.3	5&6	4	4.3	650L
Doing	30	354	22	5.3	5&6	3	3.3	520L
Int'l	30	353	14	5.2	5&6	4	3.9	510L

Note. Why = "Why Don't You Accept Us?"; Doing = "Doing the Right Thing"; Int'l = "An International Relationship"; all three passages were taken from Day and Yamanaka (1998). Sentence = the number of sentences; Word = the number of words; DiffWd = the number of difficult words; D-C = Readability scores from the Dale-Chall formula (appropriate for the fourth grade and beyond); Grades = Grade level; Fry = Based on the Fry graph (appropriate for early elementary grades through college); Flesch = the Flesch Grade Level formula (appropriate for upper elementary and secondary levels); Lexile = lexile measures from Meta Metrics Institute.

Appendix C

Summary Statistics of the Rasch Analysis of the All Facets Run

Facets	*RMSE*	*Adj. SE*	Separation	Reliability
Raters[1]	.06	0.18	2.72	.88
Participants (performance)	.35	1.20	3.42	.92
Passages	.06	0.35	5.45	.97
Conditions	.08	1.06	13.51	.99
Items	.06	1.19	18.38	1.00

Note. RMSE = root mean square standard error; *Adj. SE* = adjusted standard error; separation = a measure of the spread of the estimates. [1]Exact agreement among raters was 53.2%. *n* (raters) = 3; *n* (participants) = 82.

A Comparison of Introductions in Japanese-Authored Japanese Articles, Japanese-Authored English Articles, and Articles by English Native Speakers

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According to Swales's (2004) analysis of research articles (RAs), introductions generally involve three "moves," with Move 1 (M1) establishing a research territory, Move 2 (M2) identifying a gap in existing research, and Move 3 (M3) discussing how the current research addresses this gap. Some cross-linguistic studies have suggested that Asian writers organize introductions differently from English writers, with less use of M2, less employment of direct criticism of previous research, and more cycling of moves. The current study examined 75 applied linguistics RAs written during the last decade: (a) in English by English native speakers, (b) in Japanese by Japanese native speakers, and (c) in English by Japanese native speakers. Analysis showed that the RAs written by these three groups exhibited only minor differences. The results suggest that Japanese-authored RAs and English native-speaker RAs are converging around an agreed-upon set of disciplinary expectations.

Swales（2004）の文献研究における分析によると、序文には一般的に次の3つの「ムーブ（動き）」が含まれる。ムーブ1（M1）では研究領域について述べ、ムーブ2（M2）では先行研究では明らかでないことを特定し、ムーブ3（M3）では当該研究においてM2を如何に明らかにするかを示す。既存の交差言語的研究では、アジアの研究者による序文の構成は英語を母語とする研究者のそれとは異なり、M2や先行研究の直接的な批評が少なく、ムーブの繰り返しが多いことが示唆されている。本研究では、過去10年間に発表された応用言語学の研究論文75本を（a）英語を母語とする者の英語の論文、（b）日本語を母語とする者の日本語の論文、（c）日本語を母語とする者の英語の論文の3つに分け分析した。その結果、この3グループ間にはわずか

な相違しか見られなかった。このことから、論文執筆者の母語が日本語か英語かに関わらず、双方によって書かれた研究論文は、合意された当該研究領域の期待の範囲内にまとまっていると示唆される。

Within the field of genre studies (e.g., Swales, 2004), researchers have attempted to provide a detailed picture of the rhetorical structure of research articles (RAs). The academic interest in this text genre is understandable given the central role of RAs in disseminating and constructing scientific knowledge and in establishing personal and institutional reputations (Hyland, 2016). Descriptions of RAs are of tremendous practical importance as they form the basis of pedagogical materials aimed at advanced L2 learners who must become proficient readers and, in many cases, producers of research. Genre studies in this area can also be helpful to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instructors, who are often unfamiliar with discipline-specific and culture-specific rhetorical patterns.

For the purposes of this paper, RAs will be defined as reports of empirical research that have a conventional IMRD (introduction, method, results, discussion) structure. Studies of RA introductions have largely employed Swales's Create a Research Space (CARS) model (1990, 2004), which analyzes introductions in terms of rhetorical "moves." According to Swales (2004), moves are discoursal or rhetorical units that perform a coherent communicative function in written or spoken discourse and are realized by a clause or, at the other extreme, a series of sentences. In the 1990 and later versions of Swales's model, Move 1 (M1) establishes an initial research territory, Move 2 (M2) describes a gap in the research that is to be addressed in the research paper, and Move 3 (M3) states how the paper will address this gap. In his 2004 revision, Swales's model incorporates the possibility of iterating M1 and M2 sequences. The model also includes a series of "steps." The moves and steps in the 2004 version of Swales's model that will be used in the analysis in this paper are as follows:

Move 1: Establishing a territory (citations required)
via
Topic generalization of increasing specificity

Move 2: Establishing a niche (citations possible)
via
Step 1a: Indicating a gap
or

Step 1b: Adding to what is known

Step 2: (optional) Presenting positive justification

Move 3: Presenting the present work (citations possible)
via
Step 1: Announcing present research descriptively, purposively, or both
Step 2: Presenting research questions (RQs) or hypotheses
Step 3: Definitional clarifications
Step 4: Summarizing methods
Step 5: Announcing principal outcomes
Step 6: Stating the value of present research
Step 7: Outlining the structure of the paper

In M3, Step 1 (S1) is said to be obligatory; Steps 2, 3, and 4 optional; and Steps 5, 6, and 7 probable in some fields and unlikely in others.

In the last three decades, extensive research has examined RA introductions. Much of this has been empirical research using either Swales's 1990 or 2004 model to analyze a small corpus of texts (generally, between 20 and 60 texts for each level of the independent variable). One strand of this research has examined linguistic or rhetorical elements within introductions (e.g., Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011) sometimes with a particular focus on one move (e.g., Shehzad, 2008). Another strand has examined practices within (e.g., Milagros del Saz Rubio, 2011) or between disciplines (e.g., Martín Martín & León Pérez, 2009) and subdisciplines (e.g., Atai & Habibie, 2009).

A third strand has compared introductions in RAs written in different languages. One assumption motivating this cross-linguistic research is that L2 writers, due to influence from L1 writing practices and culture, will often produce texts that violate the expectations of native speaker readers (Kaplan, 1966). Many of these studies have compared Romance languages with English (e.g., Hirano, 2009; Mur Dueñas, 2010) or Chinese with English (e.g., Loi, 2010; Loi & Evans, 2010).

Although the main focus of cross-linguistic research has been on the differences in rhetorical practices within diverse L1 communities, some researchers have asked whether L2 writers alter their rhetorical practices to converge with those of Anglophone academic communities. To answer this question they have examined, in addition to texts produced by nonnative researchers

writing in their L1, texts by nonnative researchers writing in English. For example, Sheldon (2011) examined the texts produced by Spanish-L1 researchers writing in Spanish, Spanish-L1 researchers writing in English, and English-L1 researchers writing in English. She found that whereas Spanish RAs, unlike their English counterparts, diverged from the CARS (2004) schema, the English RAs written by Spanish writers showed greater convergence.

Employing a similar research design, Ochi (2004) analyzed 180 Japanese-authored RAs from the fields of biology, medicine, and physics. Her corpus consisted of 60 articles from each field, half in English and half in Japanese. One strength of her study was the use of a large corpus, which was probably representative because it consisted of RAs from a wide range of journals. On the other hand, the analysis was very coarse-grained, consisting of sorting the introductions into three categories based on whether they strictly adhered to Swales's (1990) model, deviated from the model, or were missing key moves. For the most part, Ochi found few differences related to the language of the text with the exception of the biology RAs, in which case the number of English RAs following the standard model was roughly double that of the Japanese RAs. It should be noted that Ochi's study focused on RAs written mostly in 1999, so the findings may not provide a fully accurate picture of current rhetorical practices.

A general finding in previous studies is that in English RAs, M2 is generally common (e.g., Shehzad, 2008, found it in 94.6% of computer science RAs) and that according to some authors (e.g., Loi, 2010), within M2 English writers tend to critique specific authors more often than do writers of other language groups. Lower use of M2 has been found for a number of languages including Arabic (Alotaibi, 2013), Brazilian-Portuguese (Hirano, 2009), Chinese (Loi, 2010), Korean (Lee, 2001), Spanish (Burgess, 1997; but cf. Sheldon, 2011), Swedish (Fredrickson & Swales, 1994), and Thai (Jogthong, 2001), whereas similar use of M2 has been reported in one study on Persian (Mahzari & Maftoon, 2007). In research that has compared non-English RAs, English RAs written by the same L1 group and L1 English RAs (e.g., Al-Qahtani, 2006; Taylor & Chen, 1991), the nonnative writers often exhibited a tendency to use M2 more when writing in English, but even so, to use it less than their English-L1 counterparts.

The omission of M2 has been explained in a number of ways, particularly in terms of cultural factors. More collectivist cultures are said to place greater emphasis on group harmony and avoidance of overt disagreements (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002), and therefore M2 (especially, an explicit M2S1a) may be avoided by writers from these cultures as it is indicative

of an adversarial style of discourse (Belcher, 1997, 2009). In short, rhetorical moves that explicitly identify shortcomings of specific authors could be viewed within some cultures as an unacceptable affront to other members of one's academic community (Taylor & Chen, 1991). Echoing these views, Loi and Evans (2010) specifically mention Confucian values (which have also been influential in Japan, Korea, and Vietnam) as an explanation for Chinese reticence to criticize specific authors. It may be contended that this line of argument overlooks the diversity of the Confucian tradition, exaggerates its significance in understanding current Asian practices, and is somewhat odd when applied to M2, given the prevalence of direct criticism of other authors within the Confucian tradition itself (see also Kubota, 1997; McKinley, 2013; Ryan & Louie, 2007; Vandermensbrugghe, 2004). Another possibility mentioned by Loi (2010) is that there is less competition in some non-English academic communities and thus less pressure to carve out a unique research space through direct criticism. A third plausible explanation is that researchers in non-English environments may have less access to sources and may also have only limited ability to read sources in English, which is often the preferred language for academic publication.

Turning to the more general question of whether Asian authors adapt to a new set of rhetorical practices after working in a Western academic setting, the research is unclear. Many anecdotal accounts (e.g., Fox, 1994) report that nonnative speakers find it difficult to adapt to English academic expectations within their discipline. However, several qualitative studies have suggested less difficulty. Cheng's (2006) study of a Chinese graduate student at a U.S. university reported that he had little difficulty in becoming a consumer and producer of academic criticism. Shi (2003), in a study of nine Western-trained TESOL professionals, found that the teachers adapted to Western practices and even promoted these practices in their teaching of both English and Chinese writing after they returned to China. Casanave's (1998) research on Japanese scholars returning to Japan also found that they were keenly aware of rhetorical differences.

To sum up the current state of research, at least two dozen articles have been written on cross-linguistic comparisons of RA introductions focusing on a wide range of languages. However, few English-language studies have examined the structure of introductions in Japanese-authored RAs. The current research makes a contribution to this area in four ways: (a) the examination of both Japanese articles and Japanese-authored articles provides insights into whether nonnative authors' rhetorical practices are primarily shaped by conventions of the L1 or L2 academic community; (b)

as Japan is within the Confucian cultural sphere of East Asia, the study helps determine the plausibility of suggestions that East Asian rhetorical conventions diverge from Anglophone practices due to cultural values associated with conflict avoidance; and (c) by providing an up-to-date and fine-grained cross-linguistic comparison, the study clarifies practices in applied linguistics and identifies potential areas of divergence between Japanese and English speakers that may need to be highlighted in pedagogical materials used in EAP courses targeting Japanese learners; and finally, (d) the analysis extends previous research through an examination of moves and steps in terms of occurrence and length, as well as cycling (i.e., recurrence of moves and steps). The discussion section of the paper provides a review of the findings within the context of previous research and outlines possible factors underlying the observed results as well as pedagogical implications.

The current research tested the following hypotheses regarding RAs written by English-L1 authors (E-RAs), RAs written in Japanese by Japanese authors (J-RAs), and RAs written in English by Japanese authors (JE-RAs).

H^1: The three subcorpora will differ in their use of M2, with more E-RAs and fewer J-RAs containing M2.

H^2: The three subcorpora will differ in the relative amount of text used to realize M2, with the E-RAs containing the longest M2s, the J-RAs the shortest M2s, and the JE-RAs at a middle position (i.e., with M2s shorter than those of the E-RAs but longer than those of the J-RAs).

H^3: The three subcorpora will differ in terms of their use of critiques of specific authors, with more E-RAs containing such critiques and fewer J-RAs containing such critiques.

H^4: There will be more cycling of moves in the J-RAs relative to the E-RAs and JE-RAs.

H^5: There will be more cycling of moves in the JE-RAs relative to the E-RAs.

Method

To compare E-RAs, J-RAs, and JE-RAs, a corpus of 75 applied linguistics RAs, 25 from each group, was compiled. All the texts were peer-reviewed RAs published during the 10-year period between 2005 and 2014. To ensure that the RAs were representative and were not simply reflecting the idiosyncratic editorial policy of a particular journal, the articles were selected from a wide range of journals. The E-RAs (see Appendix A) came from 15 different journals, the J-RAs (see Appendix B) from 13 different journals, and

the JE-RAs (see Appendix C) from 17 different journals. To ensure greater representativeness, the selection procedure stipulated that each author only appeared as the lead author in one RA in each subcorpus. The E-RAs and JE-RAs were selected from Google Scholar (<https://scholar.google.co.jp>), whereas the J-RAs were selected from the CiNii (<http://ci.nii.ac.jp/>) database. Only full-length RAs reporting empirical research were selected. All of the J-RAs came from journals that were published in Japan, whereas the E-RAs and JE-RAs came from journals published in English in Western countries. To control for the potentially confounding influence of different publication dates across the corpora, selection procedures stipulated that the publication dates of RAs in each subcorpus must range from 2005 to 2014 with a median of 2009. To measure the proportion of the introduction devoted to each move and step, the lines in the introduction of each article were counted and the percentage of space devoted to each move and step was calculated as a percentage of each RA's introduction. Partial lines were measured and were counted as a percentage of a full line depending on their length relative to full lines of the text.

During the coding process, there were several issues that had to be resolved. A preliminary issue when analyzing RA introductions is defining where an introduction begins and ends. As just one example, one of the JE-RAs had an introduction section that also contained the entire description of the method. This "Introduction" was followed by a section labeled "Results." Unconventional headings were less of an issue in the English RAs (the E-RAs and JE-RAs) because many English-language journals require standard IMRD labeling of RA sections. For the purposes of this study, the introduction was defined as the initial section of the paper that occurs prior to the section of the paper detailing the method.

There were also some issues when coding M2. This move highlights gaps in current knowledge that will be filled by the current research. In the English RAs, the move is often clearly marked with words such as *few* (e.g., "few studies have examined . . .") or with contrasting statements, which are often preceded by *however*. In some cases, a statement is only clearly identifiable as M2 after the reader encounters M3 and realizes that the particular gap in knowledge highlighted earlier in the RA is being addressed by the study's research. For the purposes of the current study, any explicit statement of a gap in knowledge that was later addressed in M3 was regarded as part of M2.

The coding of M3 involved some minor issues, with M3S3 (definitional clarifications; see Table 5 for a list of M3 steps) in particular presenting some conceptual difficulties. Definitions are often taken from previous sources

and are often presented as accepted knowledge within a field, in which case the definition may quite naturally occur embedded within M1. In other cases, the definition may represent the author's own formulation and clarification, and it may be more naturally presented as part of M3. Bunton (2002) describes similar coding issues in his analysis of PhD theses. To complicate matters even further, in many papers, the line between what should count as a definition and a discussion of key concepts associated with the topic (part of M1) is quite vague. In light of these issues, M3S3 may be regarded as an ambiguous and problematic step within the current CARS model.

M3S4 (summarizing methods) also presents some coding issues. Identifying the method is generally straightforward: The method can be viewed as the procedural means of answering the research question. Yet in some research, the theoretical framework and, in many cases, the individual categories used in the analysis, are the primary focus of this step. To provide a more fine-grained analysis of M3S4, in this paper I will identify introductory sections that focus on procedures as M3S4a (summarizing methods), and sections that focus on clarification of theoretical frameworks, approaches, and categories as M3S4b (summarizing framework).

Results

All 75 RAs contained M1, which occurred as the initial move in all but one of the E-RAs. Five JE-RAs and seven J-RAs began with a different move (usually M3). M1 is typically the longest move as it must introduce the topic and discuss the relevant literature. This was also true of the three subcorpora, in which M1 accounted for two-thirds of the introduction, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Proportion of Introduction Devoted to M1 (Establishing a Territory) in the Three Subcorpora

E-RAs (*n* = 25)	J-RAs (*n* = 25)	JE-RAs (*n* = 25)
M (*SD*)	*M* (*SD*)	*M* (*SD*)
67.8% (22.0%)	63.8% (22.9%)	69.9% (21.4%)

Note. M1 = Move 1; E-RAs = research articles written by English-L1 authors; J-RAs = research articles written in Japanese by Japanese authors; JE-RAs = research articles written in English by Japanese authors.

As shown in Table 2, M2 occurred in most of the RAs. The overall use of M2 in the three subcorpora is in line with that found for English-L1 RAs in previ-

ous research. Atai and Habibie (2009), for example, in their analysis of 60 applied linguistics RAs, found that M2 occurred in 93% of the RAs, whereas Sheldon (2011) found it in all 18 of the applied linguistics RAs in her study. In the current study, M2S1a (indication of a gap to be filled) was the most common step. The descriptive statistics show that more E-RAs contained a critique of a specific author. This requires some further explanation. In two of these RAs, the authors were actually noting shortcomings in their own previous research. In other instances, rhetorical devices often mitigated the author's criticism. One observed strategy was to put the criticism in a new paragraph with a vague reference to the work discussed earlier in the literature review. Many of the critiques, rather than finding actual fault with previous authors, used gap statements that simply highlighted areas that have yet to be explored. As shown in Table 2, roughly a fifth of the critiques of previous researchers were softened through the addition of offsetting praise placed either immediately before or after the critical comment (for a discussion of critique-mitigating strategies, see Hyland & Hyland, 2001).

Table 2. Occurrence of M2 (Establishing a Niche) in the Three Subcorpora

	Occurrence (percentage of subcorpus)		
Move (step)	E-RAs (n = 25)	J-RAs (n = 25)	JE-RAs (n = 25)
M2	23 (92%)	22 (88%)	24 (96%)
M2S1a (Indicating a gap)	18 (72%)	22 (88%)	22 (88%)
Critique of specific author(s)	10 (40%)	7 (28%)	5 (20%)
Use of offsetting praise	2 (8%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)
M2S1b (Adding to what is known)	3 (12%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)
M2S2 (Positive justification)	11 (44%)	8 (32%)	11 (44%)

Note. M2 = Move 2; S1 = Step 1; S2 = Step 2; E-RAs = research articles written by English-L1 authors; J-RAs = research articles written in Japanese by Japanese authors; JE-RAs = research articles written in English by Japanese authors.

To determine whether there was a relationship between Corpus Type (with three levels, i.e., the E-RAs, J-RAs, and JE-RAs) and M2 occurrence (with two levels, i.e., occurrence and nonoccurrence), Fisher's Exact Test was conducted. The nonsignificant result (p = .865) showed a lack of sup-

port for H[1]. A chi-square test of independence (see Table 3) was conducted to determine whether there was a relationship between Corpus Type (with three levels) and Critique of a specific author (with two levels, i.e., occurrence and nonoccurrence). The relation between these variables was nonsignificant at the .05 significance level, X^2 (2, N = 75) = 2.44, p = .295. H[3] was therefore also not supported.

Table 3. Chi-Square Test on Relation Between Corpus Type and Critique of Specific Authors

		Critique of specific author	
Subcorpus		Occurrence	Nonoccurrence
E-RAs	Count	10	15
	Expected count	7.3	17.7
J-RAs	Count	7	18
	Expected count	7.3	17.7
JE-RAs	Count	5	20
	Expected count	7.3	17.7

Note. E-RAs = research articles written by English-L1 authors; J-RAs = research articles written in Japanese by Japanese authors; JE-RAs = research articles written in English by Japanese authors.

Table 4 shows the proportion of the introduction devoted to M2 and M2 steps in the three sets of RAs. As can be seen, M2 accounts for roughly a tenth of the introductions. Contrary to expectations, it is actually slightly longer in the J-RAs. That said, there are few differences between the three subcorpora.

Table 4. Proportion of Introduction Devoted to M2 (Establishing a Niche) in the Three Subcorpora

	E-RAs (*n* = 25)	J-RAs (*n* = 25)	JE-RAs (*n* = 25)
Move (step)	*M* (*SD*)	*M* (*SD*)	*M* (*SD*)
M2 (Establishing a niche)	9.4% (11.3%)	13.5% (13.4%)	9.7% (9.1%)
M2S1a (Indicating a gap)	6.2% (8.8%)	8.0% (8.1%)	5.6% (4.8%)
M2S1b (Adding to what is known)	0.1% (0.4%)	0.2% (0.9%)	0.0% (0.1%)
M2S2 (Positive justification)	3.0% (6.0%)	5.4% (11.6%)	4.1% (8.8%)

Note. M2 = Move 2; S1 = Step 1; S2 = Step 2; E-RAs = research articles written by English-L1 authors; J-RAs = research articles written in Japanese by Japanese authors; JE-RAs = research articles written in English by Japanese authors.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with Corpus Type as the independent variable with three levels (E-RAs, J-RAs, and JE-RAs) and the percentage of the introduction devoted to M2 as the dependent variable. At an alpha of p = .05, the differences between the three subcorpora were nonsignificant, $F(2,72) = 1.0$, p = .359. H^2 thus did not receive support.

Table 5 shows the use of M3 in each subcorpus. As can be seen, all but one paper contained M3. The one JE-RA that omitted M3 contained a single sentence in the introduction stating the aims of the research (equivalent to M3S1) at the beginning of the paper's method section. Regarding the M3 steps, virtually all the papers described the current research (M3S1).

Table 5. Occurrence of M3 (Presenting the Present Work) in the Three Subcorpora

	Occurrence (Percentage of subcorpus)		
Move (step)	E-RAs (*n* = 25)	J-RAs (*n* = 25)	JE-RAs (*n* = 25)
M3 (Presenting the present work)	25 (100%)	25 (100%)	24 (96%)
M3S1 (Announcing research)	24 (96%)	24 (96%)	25 (100%)
M3S2 (RQs/hypotheses)	15 (60%)	6 (24%)	14 (56%)
RQs (Research questions)	10 (40%)	5 (20%)	13 (52%)
Hypotheses	6 (24%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)
M3S3 (Definitional clarifications)	5 (20%)	8 (32%)	7 (28%)
M3S4a (Summarizing methods)	7 (28%)	4 (16%)	3 (12%)
M3S4b (Summarizing framework)	5 (20%)	7 (28%)	5 (20%)
M3S5 (Announcing outcomes)	2 (8%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)
M3S6 (Stating value of research)	4 (16%)	4 (16%)	4 (16%)
M3S7 (Outlining structure of paper)	4 (16%)	5 (20%)	3 (12%)

Note. M3 = Move 3; S1 = Step 1; S2 = Step 2; S3 = Step 3; S4 = Step 4; S5 = Step 5; S6 = Step 6; S7 = Step 7; E-RAs = research articles written by English-L1 authors; J-RAs = research articles written in Japanese by Japanese authors; JE-RAs = research articles written in English by Japanese authors.

One of the more salient differences between the subcorpora involved the presentation of research questions and hypotheses (M3S2). This step occurred in over half of the English-language RAs (in both the E-RAs and JE-RAs) but occurred in only a quarter of the J-RAs, suggesting a potential difference in disciplinary expectations within the Anglophone and Japanese academic

communities. To test whether this difference was statistically significant, a chi-square test of independence was conducted (see Table 6) with Corpus Type as one factor with three levels and the occurrence of M3S2 as the other factor with two levels (occurrence and nonoccurrence). The test found that the relation between the variables (i.e., Corpus Type and M3S2 occurrence) was significant at the .05 significance level X^2 (2, N = 75) = 7.82, p = .020.

Table 6. Chi Square Test on Relation Between Corpus Type and Occurrence of M3S2

		M3S2 (RQs/hypotheses)	
Subcorpus		Occurrence	Nonoccurrence
E-RAs	Count	15	10
	Expected count	11.7	13.3
J-RAs	Count	6	19
	Expected count	11.7	13.3
JE-RAs	Count	14	11
	Expected count	11.7	13.3

Note. M3 = Move 3; S2 = Step 2; E-RAs = research articles written by English-L1 authors; J-RAs = research articles written in Japanese by Japanese authors; JE-RAs = research articles written in English by Japanese authors.

Both M3S3 (definitions) and M3S4 (summary of methods) occurred in approximately one quarter of the RAs in all three subcorpora. M3S5 (announcing main outcomes) virtually never occurred, suggesting that this is not a standard step in applied linguistics. M3S6 (stating the value of the present paper) was also rare, reflecting perhaps the fact that the value of much applied linguistic research is obvious to the readers. M3S7 (outlining the structure of the paper) was also rare, likely reflecting the fact that the RAs usually had standard IMRD labels for sections that are in fact required in most applied linguistics journals. Because applied linguistics readers are familiar with the IMRD structure, writers probably feel less need to explain the structure of their papers.

Turning to the amount of text devoted to M3 and M3 steps (see Table 7), the three subcorpora show many similarities. However, the E-RAs devoted less space to describing the present research (M3S1) and more space to describing current methods (M3S4). The low occurrence and short length

of Steps 5, 6, and 7 suggest that these steps are not so common in applied linguistics RA introductions (cf. Shehzad, 2010).

Table 7. Proportion of Introduction Devoted to M3 (Presenting Present Work) in the Three Subcorpora

	E-RAs (n = 25)	J-RAs (n = 25)	JE-RAs (n = 25)
Move (step)	*M* (*SD*)	*M* (*SD*)	*M* (*SD*)
M3 (Presenting present work)	22.8% (21.5%)	22.7% (15.7%)	20.4% (20.3%)
M3S1 (Announcing research)	4.8% (4.1%)	10.6% (7.6%)	8.3% (6.7%)
M3S2 (RQs and/or hypotheses)	3.2% (3.8%)	1.0% (2.6%)	2.1% (2.4%)
M3S3 (Definitional clarifications)	2.8% (6.8%)	3.4% (7.8%)	0.6% (1.3%)
M3S4a (Summarizing methods)	2.3% (5.5%)	3.2% (9.1%)	1.6% (5.2%)
M3S4b (Summarizing framework)	8.6% (21.0%)	3.0% (8.2%)	7.0% (17.1%)
M3S5 (Announcing outcomes)	0.6% (1.7%)	0.1% (0.7%)	0.1% (0.4%)
M3S6 (Stating value of research)	0.2% (0.6%)	0.3% (0.8%)	0.4% (1.0%)
M3S7 (Outlining paper's structure)	0.3% (0.7%)	1.0% (2.6%)	0.3% (0.9%)

Note. M3 = Move 3; S1 = Step 1; S2 = Step 2; S3 = Step 3; S4 = Step 4; S5 = Step 5; S6 = Step 6; S7 = Step 7; E-RAs = research articles written by English-L1 authors; J-RAs = research articles written in Japanese by Japanese authors; JE-RAs = research articles written in English by Japanese authors.

When writing an introduction, writers face an inherent dilemma. If each move appears only once in the typical CARS model sequence with the long M1 appearing first, the reader must go through a significant portion of the introduction without a clear sense of the specific objectives of the research. One solution for writers is to cycle the moves so that a more general over-

view of the paper is provided initially with moves and steps repeated later as the paper's focus narrows. This strategy of cycling moves, generally as a telescoping strategy to proceed from the general to the specific, was employed in all three subcorpora as can be seen in Table 8. In the table, the total number of move tokens represents the number of moves that are preceded, followed, or both by a different move. For example, an introduction in which M3 occurred first and was followed by M1, M2, and then a recurring M3 would be said to have a total of four move tokens. The total step tokens likewise represent the number of steps preceded, followed, or both by a different step.

Although there was considerable variation, the initial move was almost always M1 and the final move M3. The 2004 CARS model incorporates the idea of cycling M1 and M2, but many papers also included an early M3 informing the reader of the paper's general aim, which was then restated in more detail at the end of the introduction.

Table 8. Amount of Cycling in the Three Subcorpora (Total Tokens Including Recurring)

Move or step	E-RAs (n = 25)	J-RAs (n = 25)	JE-RAs (n = 25)
	M (*SD*)	*M* (*SD*)	*M* (*SD*)
Move tokens	8.0 (3.8)	8.4 (4.9)	7.0 (3.9)
Step tokens	9.7 (3.4)	9.8 (5.5)	9.0 (4.8)

Note. E-RAs = research articles written by English-L1 authors; J-RAs = research articles written in Japanese by Japanese authors; JE-RAs = research articles written in English by Japanese authors.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the differences in the number of move tokens in the three subcorpora. Analysis revealed that at an alpha level of $p = .05$, the differences between the subcorpora were nonsignificant, $F(2,72) = 0.7$, $p = .507$. Another one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the differences in the number of step tokens. Again, analysis revealed that at an alpha level of $p = .05$, the differences between the subcorpora were nonsignificant, $F(2,72) = 0.2$, $p = .807$. H^4 and H^5 were thus unsupported.

Discussion

Viewed broadly, this study suggests that Japanese scholars writing in both Japanese and English currently structure RA introductions in applied lin-

guistics in much the same way as their English-L1 counterparts. The research revealed only minor differences between the three subcorpora, such as the greater tendency for both English-L1 authors and Japanese authors writing in English (relative to Japanese authors writing in Japanese) to explicitly state research questions and hypotheses. Sheldon (2011), in an examination of applied linguistics RAs, similarly found greater use of M3S2 among English-L1 writers, but in her study, Spanish authors used M3S2 less in both Spanish and English RAs. In the current study, another minor difference between the subcorpora was that the Japanese-authored RAs showed a greater tendency to begin the introduction with M3 or occasionally with M2. It could be that Japanese writers, who have often undergone intensive training in English essay writing, are influenced by admonitions in pedagogical materials regarding the importance of stating one's position "early on in the paper" (for a typical example, see Weida & Stolley, 2013).

In earlier contrastive rhetoric research, there was speculation that Japanese writers of academic English might be heavily influenced by Japanese rhetorical structures, particularly the *ki-sho-ten-ketsu* (introduction, development, abrupt topic shift, and conclusion) pattern (Hinds, 1983). Later researchers (e.g., Kubota, 1997) have questioned this assumption. Although some more recent research written in the past two decades (e.g., Oi, 1999) has continued to find different rhetorical organization in the argumentation patterns of native English and native Japanese writers, other research (e.g., Hirose, 2003) has identified many similarities. The current study suggests that at least for the applied linguistics field and the area of introductions, academic writing styles are converging. Other researchers (e.g., Kowalski, 2014, examining Polish RAs in linguistics) have also reported a trend for non-Anglophone writing to converge toward English RA rhetorical norms.

A key finding in previous research was that M2 was often missing from the introductions of many non-English RAs. The current research finds no evidence for this in Japanese. It has also been said that non-English writers, especially Asian writers, tend to avoid critiquing specific authors in M2. The current study suggests that this avoidance is, in fact, the norm in applied linguistics for both Japanese authors writing in either Japanese or English and for English-L1 authors. In fact, authors in all three subcorpora generally avoided the critiquing of specific authors, and even when they put forth critical remarks, they employed a wide range of stylistic devices to downplay the face-threatening nature of their critiques. Generally speaking, critiques of specific authors were mitigated by one or more of the following strategies: (a) offsetting of the critique with praise, for example, by noting how

the critiqued author's contribution spurred progress in the field; (b) mentioning outstanding questions instead of directly focusing on shortcomings in previous work; (c) including critiques of one's own previous research; (d) distancing the critique of the author's idea from the actual mention of the author earlier in the paper; and (e) diffusing the personal nature of the critique by critiquing more than one author or by stating that the critiqued authors are examples of an undesirable trend associated with multiple authors in previous research.

One of the more unexpected findings in the current study was the prevalence of the cycling of moves. In this respect, the findings differ in some important ways from those of Ochi (2004), who found less use of cycling. This may be related to the disciplines investigated (in the Ochi study, biology, medicine, and physics). The RAs analyzed in Ochi's study were published at an earlier time, but it seems unlikely that greater cycling in the current study reflects changes in rhetorical practices among Japanese writers over the course of a single decade.

One factor that may explain the homogeneity in introductions across the three subcorpora is the nature of applied linguistics. Many of the Japanese scholars writing in Japanese were probably trained in English-speaking countries. Even if educated in Japan, much of the key literature in the field is written in English, so these scholars' reading of RAs in graduate school would have included heavy exposure to RAs written in English. For this reason, caution is warranted when generalizing these findings to Japanese-authored RAs in other disciplines.

The results have some clear pedagogical implications. First and foremost, the occasionally encountered advice that nonnative students learning to write about research in English must overcome their qualms about harshly criticizing previous researchers would appear to be misguided. The current research suggests, at the very least, that harsh critiques are not common in some disciplines. More importantly, students who venture to offer critical comments must be introduced to the diverse and subtle rhetorical means used to soften the tone of their critiques. The use of offsetting praise is one such strategy that is easy to convey to students. Other, more indirect strategies, such as directing of criticism at a tendency in the research may be more difficult to teach. Even so, instructors focusing on English research writing may want to do more to make students aware of some of these stylistic options.

The research also suggests that at least for Japanese students, the greatest obstacle to mastering English research writing might not be interference from L1 rhetorical practices. If this is the case, pedagogy, instead of focusing

predominantly on cultural differences, may more fruitfully draw attention to rhetorical structures in research writing and on how these structures are realized linguistically in the L2 within specific disciplines (for an example focusing on M2 in management, see Lim, 2012). In light of the considerable variation across disciplines observed in previous research, instruction aimed at students entering different fields may also need to introduce some of the abstract concepts associated with genre analysis, which students can then use as they examine and reflect on rhetorical practices in their own field. When introducing research writing to homogeneous classes of students entering the same discipline, instruction and pedagogical materials should ideally be more closely tailored to the specific practices of the discipline (for an example, see the description of M2 in discrete mathematics in Moghaddasi & Graves, 2017).

The current research has a number of limitations. The tallying of rhetorical features is likely to miss some of the subtle differences among the subcorpora. In some cases, such as the adoption of an adversarial stance toward previous researchers, qualitative assessments of the stylistic devices employed by writers may yield more insights than the quantitative measures used in the present study. Furthermore, an analysis of written products cannot provide direct insights into the decision processes of writers. It could be, for example, that nonnative writers modify their texts significantly based on feedback from native proofreaders and article reviewers.

Future research needs to address several remaining issues. At the more general level, decades of cross-linguistic comparisons and examination of specific disciplines have produced the needed groundwork for more general descriptions of RA introductions in a number of fields. Broad comparisons of findings are needed to establish which variables (e.g., discipline, language of the text, individual, and idiosyncratic differences) are more predictive of rhetorical differences (see Dahl, 2004). Moreover, because cycling of moves is a prevalent strategy in many introductions, more research needs to examine and classify such strategies with attention to the purposes of cycling within texts. At the same time, more research needs to be conducted on the learning processes associated with rhetorical structures in writing along with related research on the effectiveness of various pedagogical interventions. Finally, caution is warranted when making blanket characterizations of Asian cultural values and the way these values influence writing (Kubota, 1997). Academic research occurs within a dynamic international setting in which collaboration and interaction are the norm, so we may expect to witness increasing convergence in the practices of academic writers in the future.

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Appendix A

List of Articles in the English Subcorpus (E-RAs)

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Appendix B

List of Articles in the Japanese Subcorpus (J-RAs)

Fujita, Y. (2007). 日本人学生とのやり取りを通した作文授業の影響 —PAC分析による学習者理解 [Exchanging Japanese e-mails with Japanese university students: Understanding language learners through personal attitude construct analysis]. *JALT Journal, 29*, 81-97.

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Appendix C: ***List of Articles in the Japanese-Authored English Subcorpus (JE-RAs)***

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Book Reviews

Literature and Language Learning in the EFL Classroom. Masayuki Teranishi, Yoshifumi Saito, and Katie Wales (Eds.). Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 2015. xxi + 329 pp.

Reviewed by
Scott Bean
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Literature and Language Learning in the EFL Classroom is a volume of articles on the subject of using literature in EFL teaching. Editors Teranishi, Saito, and Wales list in the Introduction the various themes of the collection: the justification of using literature (also referred to as "literary texts") to teach EFL, the influence of multimedia and technology, and the use of noncanonical texts (graded readers, postmodernist texts, and pop song lyrics). Many of the contributors introduce their articles by acknowledging the traditional role of literature in language teaching (associated with the grammar-translation method, as Kyoko Kuze notes in Chapter 12), and its subsequent decline in popularity with the advent of communicative approaches and the use of authentic texts that focus more on practical, everyday English. However, several authors note the reemergence of literature in recent years in the EFL classroom, perhaps because many teachers would agree with Kazuko Takahashi's assertion in Chapter 2 that "literary works *are* authentic materials for L2 learning" (p. 37).

The book contains 19 chapters and is divided into two broad themes. The first six chapters present current issues and approaches, and the remaining 13 articles focus on more specific classroom activities under the heading of "Empirical and Case Studies." The merits of these activities are explained through analysis of achievement tests, student written work (such as reports, essays, and translations), questionnaires and surveys, student reflections, and interviews. Fourteen of the articles are written by Japanese contributors, and the majority of the investigations are carried out in Japa-

nese educational contexts, but many of the topics—such as stylistics, creative writing, materials, testing, discussion groups, and teacher training—are relevant for a global audience.

Teranishi (Chapter 11) outlines the different purposes of language instructors who use literature. Some teachers may wish to emphasize the linguistic value of studying literary texts, such as analysis of vocabulary, idioms, and grammar ("language skills"). Other teachers may wish to use literature more as a means of developing students' creativity and critical thinking ("literary skills"). Teranishi argues that these two approaches can naturally reinforce each other, and this collection contains articles that will appeal to teachers who adopt either or both of these approaches.

On the linguistic side, a fair number of the authors focus on the role of stylistics in the study of literary language. Teranishi in Chapter 11 encourages the use of original (authentic) English texts (such as excerpts from canonical novels), rather than retold (or graded) versions, to appreciate fully the "stylistic, narrative and literary devices" (p. 169) of the text. Teachers of advanced students of literature and linguistics may be inspired to focus on conceptual metaphors after reading Michael Burke's (Chapter 5) analysis of metaphors in poetry, idioms, and drama. Tetsuko Nakamura's stylistic analysis (Chapter 10) of indirect speech and thought in English literature compared to Japanese translations will help teachers present this English grammar and style to their Japanese students with the goal of having students produce their own indirect speech and thought in English.

Bridging the two approaches, Geoff Hall (Chapter 1) and Saito (Chapter 4) both point out the importance of studying stylistics as preparation for creative writing. Similarly, Kuze (Chapter 12) focuses on the use of short stories as inspiration for creative writing in a composition course. In Chapter 6, Gillian Lazar brings together the language and literary camps by suggesting the use of postmodernist picture books to develop linguistic knowledge and cultural awareness in students as well as to elicit their critical responses.

Some of the later chapters focus on activities that are in some respects more on the literary side. In particular, the use of book clubs (Chapter 16), reading circles (Chapters 14 and 18), and a similar activity called "World Café" introduced by Motoko Fukaya in Chapter 17 are cited as beneficial in eliciting more evaluative and critical responses from students.

These later chapters may also appeal to teachers who focus on reading skills and discussion through extensive reading (ER). Proponents of ER programs that make use of graded readers will appreciate Fukaya's conclusion (Chapter 17) that extensive reading of graded readers is good for increasing

students' reading speed and comprehension as well as Mark D. Sheehan's conclusion (Chapter 18) that graded readers are effective in motivating students to read more in English and in increasing their confidence.

The fact that so many of the articles are from the perspective of Japanese teachers will be of interest to many native English-speaking teachers (NESTs). Although some NESTs may have the view that Japanese education is focused on rote learning, Aiko Saito's article (Chapter 3) on literature education in the L1, which is to say in Japanese schools, challenges this view. She points out that Japanese literature teachers encourage students to share their interpretations with textual support, consider themes, imagine themselves in the characters' shoes, or even perform scenes in class. Such approaches often adopted by NESTs to teach literature in the L2 should therefore already be familiar to Japanese students.

At the same time, some NESTs may be critical of certain practices described in this volume. As many of the articles reflect, Japanese teachers may utilize translations in Japanese (Chapter 16), conduct lessons in Japanese (Chapter 11), have students discuss in Japanese (Chapters 7, 14, and 17), or allow students to produce written responses in Japanese (Chapter 7). Nishihara provides a rationale for these practices: "Answering [questions] in English was often beyond their capabilities" (Chapter 7, p. 121). Conversely, it is probably safe to assume that most NESTs, at least at the university level, conduct lessons in English, have students read texts in English, discuss the texts in English, and produce written assignments in English in accordance with communicative approaches to teaching. Tomohide Ishihara and Akira Ono (Chapter 9) compare the ability of students to recognize sentences from literary texts after doing comprehension tasks versus doing translation tasks; some NESTs may wonder whether students' ability to identify sentences has the same value as other stylistic analyses.

Another criticism that could be made is that some of the contributors make conclusions based on a small number of research subjects. For example, Marina Lambrou (Chapter 19) determines that microteaching in a teacher-training course helps with student confidence, based on the results of a questionnaire submitted by 10 students. Masako Nasu (Chapter 15) admits the shortcoming of small subject numbers in qualitative studies, such as her interviews of 35 highly successful language learners; however, she interprets her results fairly and does not overstate the role of literature study in the success of her interviewees. Similarly, Nakamura's study (Chapter 10) on teaching speech and thought presentation involved merely nine students. Perhaps in accordance with this small number, and with mixed results, she

does not make sweeping conclusions. Despite the weakness of small subject numbers in some of the studies, the contributors still provide readers with a plethora of ideas for their teaching, which may be the most important takeaway from the volume. It must also be recognized that other studies do have larger sample sizes (such as the 141 students in Ishihara and Ono's study).

One challenge in putting together an edited book is integrating the chapters based on a particular theme (Davis & Blossey, 2011). In this sense, *Literature and Language Learning in the EFL Classroom* is mostly successful. With respect to the themes listed in the Introduction, the collection does feature noncanonical literary texts to a great degree (as well as some canonical texts to a smaller degree), and the majority of the articles do aim to justify the use of literature in language teaching. The theme of technology does not, however, appear very frequently, though Soichiro Oku's study of print versus digital texts in Chapter 8 stands out as an exception. Nevertheless, articles within the volume are cross-referenced, which demonstrates a cohesive editorial approach. In the end, the volume feels well conceptualized and executed.

All in all, *Literature and Language Learning in the EFL Classroom* has something for teachers in different teaching contexts and with different pedagogical approaches, providing plenty of inspiration for readers to try out new methods and activities for students of varying levels of language proficiency. Most of the articles feature clear use of examples to illustrate these approaches and methods. Teachers looking for texts and materials to use will find many suggestions among these pages. Perhaps because some of the assertions in the book are based on research with small sample sizes, Ronald Carter in the Epilogue concedes that "further qualitative classroom research . . . needs to continue" (p. 318). He also touches on a variety of technologies that may play a larger role in future language classrooms. In the end, the book underscores the conviction of many language teachers that literature has an important role in developing students' language skills, creativity, cultural understanding, and critical thinking.

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Where is Language? An Anthropologist's Questions on Language, Literature and Performance. Ruth Finnegan. London, UK: Bloomsbury, 2015. x + 165.

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For those who wish to question the nature and interaction of language, literature, and performance, Ruth Finnegan's book offers a deeply personal meditation commencing with the Preface, in which she reflects informally and argues that "we need a more multiplex, challenging, but more contextually situated understanding of language, literature and performance" (p. ix). Finnegan initially positioned herself as an ethnographer in the 1960s among the Limba people of Sierra Leone, where her previous beliefs about language were challenged, eventually dismantled, and later reconsidered. Through her research, she has highlighted the need to acknowledge less formal and more interactive aspects of communication and particularly performance.

The book is divided into nine chapters; there is neither Introduction nor Conclusion. Rather, Finnegan immediately brings the reader into her narrative world through her confident and fluid writing style.

Chapter 1 titled "What is the Art of Language?" is where Finnegan describes the absolute certainty of what language consisted of in her undergraduate days, during which she studied Greek and Latin. This ethnocentric view, based on two languages heavily reliant on the written word, was challenged by her anthropological fieldwork with the Limba people who focused on the "richness and subtlety of narration" (p. 3) through stories and storytelling traditions. Whereas in traditional Western literary text language is a corpus, for the Limba the reality of language lies in the performance, and Western texts miss "the subtle characterizations, the drama, the way the tellers used volume, pitch, tempo, repetition, emphasis, dynamics, silence, timbre, onomatopoeia, and a whole plethora of nonverbal indications to convey humor, pathos, irony, atmosphere" (p. 3). The holistic nature of performance makes language dynamic, multidimensional, and interactive. In contrast, in the Self-Other colonial discourse of written and oral language traditions, the Western perception of written language is as literate, rational, scientific, civilized, and modern; the oral tradition is considered communal, emotional, nonscientific, traditional, and primitive. Finnegan argues that the

documentation of concrete data about oral traditions is notoriously complex and further points out that in cultures that place emphasis on the oral tradition, language is used "to do things rather than describe them: to recognize and form friendships, ratify contracts, issue orders, assert a position, strike an attitude, show off as a performer" (p. 7).

In Chapter 2, "Playing With the Heroes of Human History," Finnegan challenges "the linguistically driven narrative . . . so pervasively and consistently deployed that it might indeed be described as a foundational myth of the West" (p. 17). She then explores the binary nature of colonial discourse, utilizing dynamic figures in colonial discourse theory such as Ngũgĩ wa Thiong'o to argue for the "multiple modes of human life—touches, sounds, sights, smells, movements, material artefacts—and of shared experience, dynamic interactions and bodily engagements" (p. 19).

In Chapter 3, "Artisting the Self: A Tale of a Personal Journey," Finnegan takes the personal stories from interviews to show the importance of the personal narrative as artistic performance and as a viable academic method of data collection. The author proposes that all humans seek to reach existential understanding through a narrative framework. This is, in turn, said to be performed in the retelling of the personal story, which has been shaped by cultural constructs through generic conventions, yet remains a uniquely creative and individual chronicle.

"Forget the Words. . . . It's *Performance*!" (Chapter 4) is the shortest chapter in the book and in it the author discusses "the significance of a performance approach to human expression and experience" (p. 53) through the oral traditions of the Limba people, the public reading of poetry, and the performative traditions surrounding Christmas carols.

To identify the relationship between writing and speaking, Finnegan traces the work of Jack Goody in "Reclothing the 'Oral'" (Chapter 5). As in Chapter 1, she argues that a more holistic approach is necessary for successful human communication to occur.

With "Song. What Comes First: Words, Music, or Performance?" as the title of Chapter 6, Finnegan puts forth that the order of these does not matter but posits that the words and music are integral components of the performance.

In her answer to the question, "Competence and Performance: Was Chomsky Right After All?" (Chapter 7), Finnegan refutes Chomsky's theory on generative grammar and structure but accepts his idea of language as cognitive and, therefore, performative.

In Chapter 8, "Poem and Story: The Arts of Dreaming and Waking to Sweet Words," Finnegan offers the idea that although language is natural and innate, human beings have been carving out their own meanings to reflect their cultural realities. Through the stories of others expressed in words, Finnegan's own dreamscape has been profoundly altered. She gives examples of writers throughout history who have used their own dream narratives as impetus for the creation of poetry and song.

In the closing chapter, "Where is Literature?" (Chapter 9), Finnegan points out that although Western scholars traditionally perceived literature as written text and therefore static, the actual aim of many fields of literary arts (such as theatre, opera, poetry, and storytelling) is actually about dynamic performance. Subsequently, she uses Homer to give evidence that the static nature of the written word is not the complete picture, and that the performative aspect to literature must be included. She then references this argument within the contemporary context of English poetry performances that take place in the public domain, such as pubs and colleges, as well as the "slam" performances in the United States. She argues that literature is multidimensional, multisensory, interactive, and rich. To support her case, Finnegan quotes Shirane (2005) on Japanese poetry that "exists not only as performed but also as physical object, realized through the calligraphy, the colour of the paper, and the sketches that illustrate it: the poem is meant to be seen as material" (p. 134). Finnegan closes the book by acknowledging that the realm of the verbal can be elusive, but by understanding the multiplexity in literature, human nature and cultural practices can meet their optimal potential and we are able to gain understanding and truly appreciate the literatures of the world.

Throughout this uniquely structured book, Finnegan provides an extraordinary blend of the everyday with the world of academia. She fulfills her aim to author a book that approaches language, literature, and performance as a complex, multidimensional, and evolving entity and this title will appeal to readers with an interest in all three.

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Literature in Language Education (2nd ed.). Geoff Hall. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 2015. xi+340 pp.

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In *Literature in Language Education*, Geoff Hall provides an overview of current research into how literature has been and is being used in second language education and also outlines areas for relevant research projects in the future. Literature is often regarded as a source of authentic language input, a way of exposing language learners to other cultures, and a means of motivating language students. As Hall points out, however, many of these ideas rest on assumptions with little in the way of empirical support. Hall also acknowledges that there is little research into the use of literature in second language specific contexts. Therefore, he frequently draws upon L1 literature studies as providing potential insight into the usefulness of literature in second language education as well as models for future research. In this thoughtfully written work, Hall has updated his first edition by addressing new research in the fields of language education and literature. In addition, he provides a list of expanded teaching resources that have appeared since the first edition in 2005.

The book is divided into three parts, each of which is made up of three chapters. The first part, "Language, Literature, and Education," examines the three fields identified in the title of the book. The first chapter includes a detailed exploration of the language of literature. Hall opens the chapter with a question, asking if there is a distinct language used in literature that is different from other, "ordinary" language uses. The answer to this question, convincingly argued by Hall, is that there is not. One important consequence of this for second language teachers is that the language of literature is more varied than those of conversations contrived for use in ESL textbooks. He then identifies key areas of research in literary language, including (among others) creativity, style, and narrative.

In Chapter 2, Hall turns his attention to the reading of literature. Again, he frames the chapter around a set of questions about what the dominant models for reading literature are and how the experience of second or foreign language students of literature might differ from those of L1 students. The reading of literature is a transactional process between the reader and the

text, but as Hall points out, there is considerable disagreement on whether the text or the reader is the more important factor in the equation. After summarizing this debate, the author more deeply addresses the idea of a reader and explores the question of what makes a good reader.

In Chapter 3, Hall looks into what is to be gained from the study of literature and more specifically how literature and language relate to culture. Hall initially provides a broad historical overview for the teaching of literature. He then cites three kinds of arguments made in favor of the use of literature in the language education context: *affective arguments* (reading literature is fun), *cultural arguments* (reading literature expands understanding of other cultures), and *psycholinguistic arguments* (reading literature helps improve language and inferencing skills). Nevertheless, Hall points out that the current research supporting these claims is inconclusive.

In the second part of the book, Hall explores more specific approaches to the teaching of literature in language education and identifies important studies—both in the sense of what these studies make clear and what needs to be further explored. Chapter 4 is focused primarily on the language of literature itself, and in it Hall identifies specific aspects of language that can be problematic for second language students. An example is the role of metaphor and figurative language, which can prove challenging for non-native speakers. Hall cites studies by Lindstromberg and Boers (2008) and Picken (2005; 2007) who argue that second language learners need to be able to deal with figurative language. Other areas of research identified in this chapter include foregrounding and corpus stylistics, as well as simplification, readability, and graded readers. Hall points out that although research in the field of language education suggests graded readers may assist with vocabulary development, they are less useful as a vehicle for literary discussions because, in his view, the act of simplifying the language alters the potential meanings of the original text. Additionally, Hall perceives the transition from graded readers to authentic texts as a difficult challenge even for advanced second language learners.

In Chapter 5, Hall returns to the idea of skilled readers first raised in Chapter 2. Specific aspects of readers and reading covered in this chapter include: (a) cognitive studies, (b) protocol studies in relation to the reading of poetry, (c) the reading of stories, and (d) affect in literary reading. This chapter contains an interesting analysis of the reading of poetry—comparing skilled (L1) readers of poetry, "ordinary" (L1) readers of poetry, and second language readers of poetry. The conclusion is that the second language learners, once they had achieved a certain level of proficiency, responded

in a similar fashion as did the nonexpert, ordinary (L1) readers in that they focused on the same vocabulary and surface features of the language. This suggests that there is a skill to literary reading that is developed independently of language.

Hall next examines how education has attempted to integrate literature into high school and university classrooms (Chapter 6). This includes efforts to define a canon of works, both in Britain and the United States. The discussion then moves into means by which schools and teachers assess students, ranging from comprehension type questions that can be taken directly from the text to more personal-response, essay-type questions. At the classroom level, Hall cites an admittedly small-scale study by Kim (2004) that suggests reading circles and discussion groups show more promise than traditional, teacher-centered literature discussions in fostering student appreciation of literature. The chapter finishes with a cautionary note on the idea of using literature to promote intercultural awareness. Research by Naidoo (1994) has shown that attempts to use literature for such purposes has the potential to backfire and reinforce, rather than challenge, students' previously held attitudes.

The third part provides a guide for research into literature and language education. Much of this section will be redundant for experienced researchers, but for those less experienced it provides a useful and relevant starting point. In Chapter 7, Hall identifies strategies that might be employed in such research, looking specifically at experimental research, verbal protocols, surveys, case studies, narrative inquiry, and ethnographic studies. Each strategy is further broken down with an overview, followed by more specific IMRD (introduction, method, results, discussion) subpoints dealing with Aims, Methodology, Results, and Commentary. Chapter 8 is in part a research miniguide and in part a list of potential research projects that might provide insight into important areas of literature in language education. Finally, Chapter 9 contains a list of useful resources (e.g., key journals, websites, and professional organizations) for those aspiring to undertake such research projects.

Although Hall provides useful information and insight into the field throughout, the manner in which the book is organized makes it a challenging read at times. In fairness, the interrelated nature of the topics probably means that some repetition is unavoidable. However, the inclusion of key points, questions, and quotes in text boxes at various points on the page can be distracting. These formatting tools sometimes serve to effectively highlight important information, but at other times they disrupt the flow

of the argument and could be better integrated. An example of this can be seen on pages 56-57, which begins with a text box containing a quote from Jonathan Culler, includes a highlighted explanation of Culler's concepts at the bottom of page 56, and then, in the middle of the facing page, there is another text box with a bullet-point list of Culler's ideas regarding the reading of literature. Interspersed amongst these boxes is the nonhighlighted, nonboxed main prose. These are, however, fairly minor quibbles and do not take away from the overall merits of the book.

As was his aim, Geoff Hall provides a wealth of ideas for research projects to further develop our understanding of the potential uses of literature in language development. Teachers looking for an action research project will find *Literature in Language Education, 2nd Edition* an invaluable resource; however, even those who are only interested in using literature as part of a second language class will find this book worth a look.

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Contemporary Task-Based Language Teaching in Asia. Michael Thomas and Hayo Reinders (Eds.). London, UK: Bloomsbury, 2015. xxiv + 387 pp.

Reviewed by
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At the third biennial "TBLT in Asia" conference in Kyoto, Marcos Benevides, one of the plenary speakers and author of one of the first published textbooks using a task-based approach, strongly suggested that if task-based language teaching (TBLT) is to become widely used in Japan and Asia, it needs to branch out from the language of SLA experiments to something tangible that teachers can put into practice. *Contemporary Task-Based Language Teaching in Asia* is an attempt to address this, a mix of classroom-based experimental studies and descriptions of the practical implementation of tasks in a variety of contexts throughout Asia. At 387 pages, it is not a short book, but even at that, it can only be expected to be a very rough overview of the subject. To expect comprehensive coverage of the various manifestations of TBLT across multiple teaching and language level contexts, in a geographical area that contains over 60% of the world's population, would be unrealistic. It does, however, focus on the teaching of only one language: Although the authors do not specify that English teaching is the only target, it is the only language discussed throughout.

One consistent theme concerns the importance of the role of teachers. Students' voices do come through in a number of chapters, and there is some talk of curriculum and government policy, but the vast majority of discussion concerns teachers. David R. Carless, in the final chapter of the book, sums this up nicely when he argues that "whilst policymakers and educational ministries may set directions and form proposals, it is what teachers do in classrooms that directly affects the success of any reform agenda" (p. 367).

The book is divided into six parts, each on a different theme, the first focussing on a geographical area, South East Asia (although only one chapter, by Nicole Takeda, focusses on a specific South-East Asian country, Cambodia). The section starts with a good general introduction to issues of TBLT implementation across Asia by Chun Lai. In Chapter 3, Shaoqian Luo and Yafu Gong investigate current approaches to ELT in Chinese schools (which they summarise as focussing on native-speakerism and relying on a content-

based approach), and the feasibility of implementing an "adapted" TBLT. They conclude that there are three obstacles to the successful implementation of TBLT: (a) the testing system (generally high-stakes grammar-focussed tests), (b) top-down curriculum implementation (without sufficient teacher input and training for teachers), and (c) the lack of development of suitable course books. An important question raised in this chapter also concerns whether teachers are consistent in their understandings of TBLT. Unfortunately, at times, the reader is made to wonder whether there is even a consistent understanding of TBLT among the contributors of this book, so varied are the descriptions.

One very positive aspect of the book is that many of the writers (with a couple of unfortunate exceptions) avoid essentialism in their descriptions and interpretations of teachers and learners in Asia. It is not uncommon for writers to unquestionably, and often without reference to anything more than personal opinion, describe passive learners with a lack of creativity, autonomy, or critical thinking skills. As Chun Lai states in Chapter 2, "Essentialist statements abound in the literature" (p. 12) and she highlights the inappropriateness of such blanket statements when "the sociocultural landscape of Asia is constantly changing" (p. 13). She goes on to give some good examples of Asian learners happily and successfully accepting TBLT approaches, and as such contributes in a small way to dispelling this persistent myth.

Part 2 begins with Nguyen Gia Viet, Le Van Cahn, and Roger Barnard (Chapter 5), who found large discrepancies between what Vietnamese teachers think they are doing and the actual classroom reality. One of the teachers described in the chapter followed a "TBLT" approach that consisted of 40 minutes of introducing language form, followed by a 5-minute communicative activity. Chapter 6 continues the theme of misunderstandings in a very literal sense. Writer Yuefeng Zhang points out that mistranslations of policy documents have resulted in teachers' misunderstandings of "task." Different translations of the term task (hard enough to do in English it seems) have resulted in one of the three primary school teachers in her study in South China equating task with "conducting surveys" (p. 94). Another teacher described in the chapter "confused task with teaching objectives" (p. 93), leading to deductive grammar teaching. The author suggests that two of the teachers conducted classes in line with the "weak" form of TBLT, but from her descriptions of what the teachers were doing, it could as well have been a Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) approach or possibly even grammar translation.

In Part 3, "Teachers' Perspectives," Bao Trang, Thi Nguyen, Jonathan Newton, and David Crabbe (Chapter 11) present an interesting multiple-case study into the pretask part of the lessons of nine EFL teachers and their students (they neglect to say how many) in a Vietnamese high school. Teachers were divided on whether pretask work should be more structured or freer (which the authors align with the weak and strong versions of TBLT respectively). However, two thirds of the students stated they preferred freer pretask work.

The fourth part features four chapters that look at teaching with technology, an area that Thomas and Reinders (2010) have previously edited an entire book on. Three out of the four chapters report on new research, and Thomas provides an overview of ICT in Japan (Chapter 14). In Chapter 12, Aloesnita Nik Mohd Alwi investigates the effect of prior knowledge on the occurrence of language-related episodes during text chat. Mark R. Freiermuth and Hsin-chou Huang (Chapter 13) explain how online text chat can allow students to contribute more equally in discussions, without more vocal or confident students taking over, while providing solid technology-based task ideas. Lastly, in Chapter 15, Reinders, Onuma Lakarnchua, and Mark Pegrum look at mobile augmented reality (AR) tasks, a promising area for TBLT to embrace.

Part 5 of the book focusses on materials, an area arguably vital to the success or failure of TBLT. In Chapter 20, Brian Tomlinson provides an overview of his vast experience introducing TBLT materials to learners in Asia. His basic argument is that a strong TBLT approach is possible with learners throughout Asia, and that in his own personal experience students have both responded positively to the approach and outperformed students using more traditional methods. His chapter includes a very practical seven-step guide on how to sequence activities for a TBLT class. Tomlinson's preference for the strong version of TBLT is clear when he criticizes some of the locally based contributors to the present volume for promoting weaker versions. At the same time, he admits that he has no empirical evidence to back up his assertions and that he was fortunate to have higher level learners in some situations. Moonyoung Park (Chapter 16) returns to the theme of inconsistency between national curriculum and student needs. His needs analysis of 185 middle school students and nine teachers in South Korea suggested that many of these stakeholders feel that a heavy emphasis on writing in the national curriculum is unnecessary, understandably because college entrance exams focus on reading and listening. In Chapter 17, Pornapit Darasawang provides an interesting overview of how a TBLT learning curriculum was

introduced and subsequently evolved to suit the local context in Thailand. However, descriptions of the locally situated version sound a lot like PPP, in which the students' need for explicit language instruction is provided by language form input through regular commercial language textbooks.

The last part is about an area that might be the most important for many and is in need of further research: task-based language assessment (TBLA). It is also the least satisfying section, perhaps an indication of the complexity and difficulty of the topic. In the two chapters in this section, only Yuko Goto Butler in Chapter 21 describes new empirical research into TBLA in Asia, comparing paired assessment and individual assessment approaches with young language learners.

At "TBLT in Asia" in 2016, the other plenary speaker, Rod Ellis, reaffirmed his position that TBLT is an approach, not a method, and as such is not as inflexible as some believe it to be. In his Epilogue, Ellis also states his position that teachers should not "adapt TBLT to the local context by opting for task-supported rather than task-based instruction" (p. 383) because that leads to an end result of Presentation-Practice-Production (although he does admit that there is a place for PPP in language teaching). The different interpretations appearing throughout the book suggest that this may indeed be the case and the results illustrate how difficult it may be to implement TBLT from the top down without full teacher support and understanding.

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***Researching Translation and Interpreting*. Claudia V. Angelelli and Brian James Baer (Eds.). Abingdon, UK: Routledge, 2016. xvii + 291 pp.**

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Translation and Interpreting Studies (TIS) is probably one of the most interdisciplinary fields in the broad realm of linguistics. As the editors note in the introduction to *Researching Translation and Interpreting*, even though the practice of translation and interpreting has a very long history in human civilization, it has only been half a century since it gained a position as an academic discipline in its own right. Consequently, TIS had to borrow from other, more established disciplines—such as sociology, anthropology, and applied linguistics among others—to investigate not only the products of interpreting and translation, but also the processes, the actors involved in these processes, and in the last few decades, the technologies behind the translational phenomena as well. However, as Angelelli and Baer point out in Part I of the volume, this borrowing is not, and cannot be, carried out blindly—theories and research paradigms developed in other fields need to be "adapted and infused with a deep sensitivity to language(s)" (p. 7). As a result of this, the interdisciplinarity of TIS presents both "the greatest challenges and opportunities" (p. 5).

Given the wide variety of disciplines contributing to TIS, compiling a volume that covers a myriad of research topics and foci in the field and that would address the needs of a broad and diversified readership is no easy task. However, this is exactly what *Researching Translation and Interpreting* is aimed at. It is meant for not only undergraduate and graduate students in the TIS field, but also interpreting and translation practitioners, as well as scholars in other disciplines who recognize "the importance of considering questions of translation/interpreting in the generation of knowledge but may not be familiar with the methods for studying those questions that have been developed in the field" (p. 4).

The book accomplishes this goal exceptionally well due to the variety of issues addressed and the easy-to-follow structure. It is divided into three parts: "Exploring Translation and Interpreting"—an overview of the TIS field and its research traditions; "Mapping the Field"—an exploration into various aspects and elements of the translational phenomena; and "Re-

search Methods"—a discussion of not only the past and present research trends in the field but also prospects for its further development.

One of the more interesting aspects of *Researching Translation and Interpreting* is that contributors take on the intrinsic elements of interpreting and translation, which are frequently either overlooked or underresearched in similar publications. For example, the authors in Part II explore such themes as agency and role (Chapter 1, Sergey Tyunelev), bilingualism and multilingualism (Chapter 2, Angelelli), fictional representations of interpreters and translators (Chapter 5, Klaus Kaindl), gender and sexuality (Chapter 6, Baer and Françoise Massardier-Kenney), and power and conflict (Chapter 9, Anna Strowe). These topics are of utmost importance in translational practice, so their exploration in scholarly work is likewise crucial.

As Strowe observes in Chapter 9, "translation and interpreting, like any other socially imbedded process, are shaped by vectors that influence communicative choices on the part of the language mediators, as well as the reception of both the source and the target text" (p. 118). However, these communicative choices are often insufficiently recognized by persons and institutions working with or hiring interpreters and translators, resulting in certain constraints and demands being imposed on this occupational group. One example of such demands is the notion of interpreter's or translator's transparency, which is often argued for but rarely attainable. As Angelelli rightly points out, "Translation/interpreting is not transparent because it mediates between different semiotic (including linguistic) codes and different sociocultural systems, all of which are unique, and so mediation between them inevitably requires selection, reduction, and augmentation, making shifts inevitable" (p. 19). Nonexistent or insufficient understanding of the role of interpreters and translators and the processes involved in the translational phenomena often leads to situations whereby those in the profession are reported to be "poorly treated, underpaid, and underrated manpower in the industry of text production and business firms, or in community service contexts" (Chapter 10, Rakefet Sela-Sheffy, p. 136).

In Part III, a wide range of different academic traditions and disciplines that have contributed to the research into translation and interpreting are introduced and explored. With a logical and accessible structure, each of the authors of the 13 chapters in this part (Chapters 12 through 24) start with a short definition and the origins of the paradigm in question, then discuss its application in other disciplines, and finally explore its use or its potential for use in TIS. In addition, the chapters introduce sample studies pertaining to translation and interpreting in which the paradigm discussed

is implemented, and the authors contemplate the potential of or difficulties and obstacles to further applications in the field. Some of such paradigms, such as conversation analysis (Chapter 15, Laura Gavioli), critical discourse analysis (Chapter 17, Ian Mason), and narrative analysis (Chapter 22, Mona Baker), are well-established and widely applied methodological approaches in other linguistic disciplines. Others take advantage of the technological progress of the past few decades, thus allowing scholars to apply tools such as key-stroke logging, eye-tracking, or think-aloud protocols to conduct more in-depth research into the processes (cognitive and otherwise) taking place during the translational phenomena (Chapter 23, Claudio Baraldi and Christopher D. Mellinger).

The wide variety of topics and issues covered and the in-depth exploration of the scholarly traditions contributing to TIS are definitely some of the most noteworthy features of the volume. In addition to the editors, the diverse expertise and theoretical backgrounds of the contributors, including well established names in TIS such as Mona Baker, Daniel Gile, and Ian Mason, make this book a remarkable resource for those engaged in research into translation and interpreting. However, one must not mistake this volume for an introductory course book on the study of translation and interpretation. It is not meant to be one. Exploration of basic concepts and paradigms or a general introduction to the field should be sought elsewhere, such as from *In Other Words: A Coursebook on Translation* (Baker, 2011), *Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and Applications* (Munday, 2016), or *Introducing Interpreting Studies* (Pöchhacker, 2016). This volume is meant to broaden the readers' perspectives on translation and interpreting and encourage them to start or expand their research. It is fair to say that *Researching Translation and Interpreting* is exceptionally useful to those with at least some background in the field of TIS or linguistics in general, but may be somewhat challenging for readers seeking to gain basic knowledge of interpreting and translation from either practical or scholarly perspectives.

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Language for Specific Purposes. Sandra Gollin-Kies, David R. Hall, and Stephen H. Moore. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 2015. xvii + 276 pp.

Reviewed by
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Globalization and advancements in digital technology have increased the demand for the learning and teaching of language for communication in subject-specific environments. In *Language for Specific Purposes*, Gollin-Kies, Hall, and Moore provide a complete overview of the history and concepts, classroom application and pedagogy, and research of language for specific purposes (LSP). Written by three LSP experts with global experience in teaching and an extensive background in course design and materials development, this book serves as a comprehensive text for LSP and is particularly useful for graduate students and those seeking to learn more about the field.

The book is organized into four parts: in Part I (Chapters 1-3) the authors introduce the concepts and issues for LSP, Part II (Chapters 4-9) addresses LSP in the classroom, Part III (Chapters 10-12) is focused on conducting applied research in LSP, and Part IV (Chapter 13) provides valuable resources for readers, including recommended readings and a list of software that can be used for data analysis in LSP research. Throughout the book, key concepts are highlighted and summarized, but Chapters 1-3 do particularly well in providing the reader with background information on LSP's history and theories while highlighting key trends.

In Chapters 2 and 3, the authors explain that social constructionist ideas have underpinned ethnographic and genre-based approaches in LSP teaching. Furthermore, the key to negotiating and understanding relations among aspects of language, power, and discourse is critical language awareness, an important feature of LSP. The authors elaborate that "the LSP practitioner has to be able to identify the 'owner' of the specific purposes and has to address related issues such as who has a say in how the purposes are defined, prioritized, neglected and so on" (p. 77).

In Chapter 4 on course planning, the authors outline the contexts LSP can take place in:

- Situation A, where there is no immediate need to use the target language but which is taught in an environment where the language is the most common or primary means of communication;

- Situation B, where there is an immediate need and opportunity in the local community for immediate use;
- Situation C, where there is immediate need but which is taught in a nontarget-language environment;
- Situation D, where there is no immediate need for the language and little or no use in the local environment.

These four situations form a two-axis coordinate system of need and opportunity (p. 79) that can aid course designers in assessing the constraints and opportunities of a specific program. This approach in turn can then help establish realistic expectations for both the learners and the employers or other program sponsors. LSP practitioners are advised to keep the context and needs in mind and also integrate needs analysis, program delivery, and program evaluation as a continuous process, not an end in itself.

Although technology has made it easier for material and curriculum developers to access and share resources, there are major issues that practitioners have faced in course design and implementation. Such problems are related to organizational structure, academic respectability, disciplinary suspicion, and institutional inertia and are covered in Chapter 5. Validity and reliability are crucial features of LSP assessment and are taken up in Chapter 6. A key concern for many teachers has been that assessment should closely resemble the demands of the target context without sacrificing reliability. Although improving learners' capacity to deal with the challenges they will face in their target environment is the ultimate goal of an LSP course, the authors explain that it is still rare for learners to be assessed on their linguistic performance after they enter the target environment (p. 116).

Specificity, interdisciplinarity, and multidisciplinarity are explained in Chapter 7; LSP teacher practices and research-informed pedagogy practices are discussed in Chapter 8. The authors highlight the differences between general language teaching and LSP teaching by stating that to devise classroom activities and curricula, LSP practitioners need a combination of research and pedagogical expertise because the practices, routines, and assumptions of the targeted workplace or discipline are necessary in developing classroom methodology.

The focus of Chapter 9 is on working in an LSP environment, managing classrooms in LSP, and addressing professional development in LSP. In terms of managing LSP classrooms, the main issues are (a) who the learners are, (b) what their proficiency level in the target language is, and (c) how much they know about the subject or specific purpose area. The authors

claim that LSP practitioners do not need to have been professionals in the subject area, but to fulfill their role as teachers, they need to have at least a "threshold" level of knowledge of the subject. The authors further advise that such knowledge can be acquired by closely collaborating with a subject specialist in a team-teaching relationship (p. 136).

In Chapter 10, the authors present research practices in LSP. Research trends include the importance and prevalence of corpus-based research and genre studies, identity issues, advanced academic literacies, English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), and researchers' recognition of a progressively interconnected world (Belcher, Johns, & Paltridge, 2011; Paltridge & Starfield, 2011). Specifically, greater attention has been given to ethnographic methods providing rich contextualized information. Chapter 11, on case studies in LSP research and researchable projects, seems particularly useful for graduate students and anyone wishing to carry out projects and research. The summary of a needs analysis done by Cowling (2007) regarding workplace English at Mitsubishi Heavy Industries may be of particular interest to JALT readers as it takes place in a Japanese corporate environment. The volume closes with a wealth of resources such as a list of LSP publications, making it a valuable section for readers seeking further study and research.

As each chapter serves as a stepping-stone to the next, it is recommended to read the book chapters in order. However, for those with a narrow focus, concentrating on the chapters of a specific part is certainly feasible. The book is clearly organized and user-friendly throughout with concise writing. Each chapter begins with bullet points of what the chapter will accomplish, highlights key concepts and quotes from prominent scholars with different perspectives, and ends with concluding comments and discussion questions for further thinking. Diagrams and charts are also used effectively to help readers organize information, as is the case with Figure 2.1 (p. 30), which neatly summarizes the key trends affecting the learning, teaching, and researching of LSP. *Language for Specific Purposes* can be used as required or supplemental reading material for graduate-level courses and is highly recommended to all scholars interested in learning more about LSP.

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Canadian English: A Sociolinguistic Perspective. James A. Walker. New York, NY: Routledge, 2015. xiv + 147 pp.

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Canadian English: *A Sociolinguistic Perspective* is a unique and practical analysis of the English spoken in Canada and provides both a linguistic and sociolinguistic perspective. The volume starts with an outline of issues of identity and the problems involved in distinguishing Canadian English as a specific dialect. Following this, the author provides an overview of English as it is spoken around the world and offers a short rationale for applying a sociolinguistic approach to the study of language. The aim is to provide a sample of important research and an explanation of the rationale for and difficulties in conducting an in-depth study of Canadian English.

The book is divided into seven comprehensive chapters that describe the origins and foundations of Canadian English and analyze the geographical, structural, linguistic, social, and cultural aspects of the language found north of the 49th Parallel. Each chapter is clearly written and organized with relevant examples and also includes a glossary, list of references, and an easily accessible summary.

In Chapter 1, to help readers fully understand the challenges of a sociolinguistic analysis, Walker notes several problems in distinguishing Canadian English as a dialect. Identifying a national dialect implies greater differentiation from other language varieties than might actually exist and assumes a higher degree of internal consistency than may be present. Superficial differences between American and Canadian English per se may be either political or have greater variance east to west, rather than north or south

of the border. However, Walker's rationale for a sociolinguistic analysis of Canadian English is that most studies of North American English tend to ignore Canada altogether. Therefore, a comprehensive analysis of Canadian English as a variation in its own right is warranted. Walker further explains that dialects are not just regional constructions but contain psychological, political, and social meaning for speakers of those dialects and should be given proper consideration. He therefore advocates a sociolinguistic approach to encompass and accurately describe the variables and relevant factors regarding the distinguishing features of Canadian English. According to Walker's analysis, Canadian English is more than just a structural variation in pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammar; rather, it is the social, cultural, and historical elements that define the language as unique and worth considering.

Following this thorough introduction to what Canadian English is, how it should be studied, and why a sociolinguistic approach is being used, Chapter 2 continues with a brief overview of the field of linguistics and the methodology of sociolinguistic inquiry. This overview includes an introduction to phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics with examples and an analysis of how they apply to the study of Canadian English. As these components of language analysis vary based on context, Walker prefers the sociolinguistic rather than purely linguistic approach to fully understand the nuances and qualities of Canadian English.

Chapter 3 provides a detailed description of the origins of Canadian English and focuses on the language-external historical events that led to its development. By exploring theories of new dialect formation such as language transmission and diffusion, founder effects, dialect mixing, and language contact, Walker aims to characterize the unique qualities that make up Canadian English. A further analysis of Canada's rich and diverse history puts these theories in perspective to give a complete picture of the development of the dialect. The author describes settlements in Newfoundland, British and loyalist immigration after the war of 1812, as well as the mass immigration and population shifts of the 19th and 20th centuries, and documents how Canadian English became a socially evolving variation that is historically and demographically diverse.

Chapters 4, 5, and 6 focus on the linguistic elements of Canadian English and describe the lexical, phonological, and grammatical differences that make it a distinct dialect. The Canadian lexicon is quite diverse and multicultural as it is not only a blend of Americanisms and British English, but also of Aboriginal languages and language introduced by immigrants and other

minorities. To highlight this diversity, in Chapter 4, Walker focuses not only on Canadian English as it differs from other national varieties but also how it varies regionally within Canada. This lexical analysis reflects Canada's colourful history and illustrates the common heritage Canadian English speakers have as a result of borrowing, innovation, and semantic shift.

With respect to phonetic and phonological variations, the sound system of Canadian English is characterized primarily by a great degree of diversity in vowel phonemes. This diversity includes Canadian Raising (the raising of diphthongs before voiceless consonants in words like *about* or *house*), the Canadian Vowel Shift (the pronunciation of words like *pasta* or *drama*), and the Low-Back Merger (the blurring or merging of the vowels in words such as *pin* and *pen*). In addition to General Canadian English, the phonetics of the Canadian dialect are said to include the regional dialects of Quebec English, Maritime English, and Newfoundland English.

The grammar of Canadian English is much less salient or regionally identifiable than are the grammars of other varieties of English. Most Canadians may be aware of regional, lexical, or phonetic differences, but they would find it harder to distinguish differences of usage. To help readers understand these usage differences, Chapter 6 focuses on morphological, syntactic, and discourse-pragmatic features of the dialect. Most differences are those of a general North American English variety and are not uniquely Canadian, but Canadian English is uniquely different in two significant regions: Newfoundland and Labrador English and African Nova Scotian English (p. 108). As such syntactic variation is difficult to distinguish, Walker questions whether regional variations are indeed valid or whether variation in grammar extends across any particular language. To study this empirically, the author considers the examples of variable agreement in existentials and in the grammaticalization of quotative *be like*.

The final chapter looks at the future of Canadian English. The author predicts that language change will be determined by social rather than regional or internal linguistic factors in the future. As a result of increasing ethnolinguistic diversity, Canadian English will continue to evolve and change socially. This chapter concludes with suggestions on how to accurately study and document this change by applying the sociolinguistic methodology proposed in the introduction.

In conclusion, the author suggests that the fear that Canadian English is being Americanized or heavily influenced by speakers with different linguistic or ethnic heritage is largely unfounded. Although the frequency of usage or rate of change may vary, users of Canadian English, regardless of their

background or heritage, seem to acquire the standard features of Canadian English, especially in lexical and phonetic categories such as regional vocabulary and aspects of pronunciation, in particular the characteristic vowel shifts, raising, and mergers.

Overall, the book is an interesting, comprehensive, and highly relevant introduction to the study of Canadian English. It offers many clear examples, descriptions, and explanations of regional and linguistic differences. Of particular interest to those in the field of applied linguistics are the sociolinguistic framework and the empirical methodology for conducting research and quantifying the range of social influences that make their their mark on Canadian English.

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