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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 offers a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of approximately 2,699 language teachers. There are 32 JALT chapters and 27 special interest groups (SIGs). JALT is a founder of PAC (Pan-Asian Consortium), which is an association of language teacher organizations in Pacific Asia. PAC holds annual regional conferences and exchanges information among its member organizations. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language). JALT is also affiliated with many other international and domestic organizations.

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

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 600 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Each JALT chapter holds local meetings and JALT's SIGs provide information and newsletters on specific areas of interest. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning.

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In This Issue

Articles

This issue contains two articles. The first, by **Akihiro Mikami**, presents the validation of a self-evaluation instrument for teachers of English as a foreign language. The second, by **Blake Turnbull**, explores the possibility of introducing a translanguaging approach to tertiary-level language education in Japan.

Reviews

This issue presents reviews of titles addressing learning contexts from young learners to higher education, highlighting constructs from language usage to policy, and featuring settings inside and beyond the classroom. First, **Andrew Gardner** covers a book on input-based tasks with young learners by Natsuko Shintani, a plenary speaker at the TBLT in Asia 2018 conference. Second**, Jennifer Igawa** examines *English as Medium of Instruction in Japanese Higher Education*. The chapters in the edited volume on usage-based studies reviewed by **Bradley Irwin** include longitudinal studies, corpus-aided studies, experimental studies, and natural setting interactions. In the fourth review, **Steven G. B. MacWhinnie** takes up a coedited collection on collaboration and innovation in a range of team-teaching situations. Next, **Akiko Nagao** looks into text-based research of language in use through the social semiotic tools afforded by systemic functional linguistics. **Michael Parrish** then bridges the merits for language teachers and program administrators found in a title on workforce readiness and employability in the Asia Pacific region. In the final review, **John Syquia** outlines the largely practitioner-based accounts in a Multilingual Matters title on experiential learning such as interning, volunteering, community service, and more.

From the Editor

At *JALT Journal*, we are happy to welcome two new Associate Editors, Gregory Paul Glasgow for articles in English and Natsuko Shintani for articles in Japanese, as well as the new Production Editor, Amy Aisha Brown. I would like to thank all those who make the publication of *JALT Journal* possible, including the members of the Editorial Board and other reviewers, the Production Editor and proofreaders, and those who have submitted their manuscripts to *JALT Journal*.

As I wrote in the last issue, *JALT Journal* is committed to the publication of diverse, high quality research relevant to language learning and teaching in the Japanese context. As Editor, I am hoping to attract rigorous qualitative research, such as research on interaction, including classroom interaction. Of course, rigorous quantitative research will continue to be welcome.

— Eric Hauser, *JALT Journal* Editor

Articles

Validation of Scores From the Self-Evaluation Checklist for EFL Teachers in Japan

Akihiro Mikami
Kindai University

The purpose of this study was to validate scores produced by a reflection tool called the Self-Evaluation Checklist for EFL Teachers (SECEFLT) in the Japanese context. A survey was conducted with 760 EFL teachers in 984 junior high and lower secondary schools throughout Japan. The collected data were divided into 2 datasets for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The EFA results demonstrate that the original model with 32 items should be modified to a new 4-factor model with 18 items, including Content Knowledge and Skills, Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills, Professional Development Knowledge and Skills, and English Language Use by Teachers and Students. The CFA results show acceptable model fit between the new model and the second dataset. Therefore, both the EFA and CFA results provide positive evidence that the revised SECEFLT is a useful reflection tool for Japanese teachers of English in junior high schools and lower secondary schools in Japan.

本研究の目的は、英語教師のための自己評価チェックリストにおける構成概念妥当性と信頼性を検証することである。日本全国の中学校・中等教育学校から無作為に抽出された984校に所属する760名の英語教師を対象に調査を実施した。収集されたデータを2つのセットに分け、それぞれのセットを使用して探索的因子分析と検証的因子分析を実施した。探索的因子分析では、自己評価チェックリストの回答データは、初版の32項目より修正版の18項目から成る4因子構造　(教科の知識・技能、教科を教えるための知識・技能、教師の成長に関する知識・技能、教師と生徒による英語使用)　に修正する必要があることが確認された。検証的因子分析では、修

正版のモデルはデータに適合していることが確認された。したがって、自己評価チェックリスト（修正版）は、日本の中学校・中等教育学校の日本人英語教師の専門能力を測定するための論理的な基盤を持っていることが示唆された。

Keywords: factor analysis; professional development; reflection tool; self-evaluation checklist; validation

As reflective practitioners, teachers are encouraged to develop their professional competencies throughout their careers. Many studies show that teachers should reflect on their teaching practices for professional development (e.g., Richards & Farrell, 2005; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Wallace, 1998). However, few valid and reliable reflection tools are available to language teachers. Mikami (2015) developed a reflection tool called the Self-Evaluation Checklist for EFL Teachers (SECEFLT), but no psychometric analysis of the reliability and validity of scores it produces has been conducted. The purpose of this study was to validate scores produced by the SECEFLT for EFL teachers in the Japanese context.

The Significance of Reflection in Teacher Growth

Despite common agreement that reflection can facilitate teacher growth, it is difficult to determine why or what types of reflection are beneficial. As Farrell (2012) and Rodgers (2002) noted, the vagueness of the definition of reflection makes it difficult to understand it and discuss its effects.

The origin of reflection can be traced to the works of the 20th century American philosopher John Dewey. Dewey (1933) defines reflective thinking as "that operation in which present facts suggest other facts (or truths) in such a way as to induce belief in what is suggested on the ground of real relation in the things themselves" (p. 12). That is, through reflective thinking, people draw meaning from facts. Dewey believed that reflection could lead to learning (Dewey, 1933; Rodgers, 2002).

American philosopher Donald A. Schön (1983), who elaborated on Dewey's findings and discussed the epistemology of practice, pointed out the limits of technical rationality, the view that professional practice is based on the application of scientific theories and techniques. He also identified two types of reflection: *reflection-in-action* and *reflection-on-action*. Reflection-in-action means thinking about one's action while in the middle of it; reflection-on-action means looking back on and analysing one's past action. Schön emphasized the importance of reflection-in-action when professionals take action. He claimed that competent professionals engage in

reflection-in-action to address problems in uncertain situations. This does not mean he downplayed the significance of reflection-on-action. Rather, he showed that professionals use both reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action to improve their performance.

In teacher education, teacher improvement through reflection is called reflective teaching, reflective practice, or action research (Burns, 1999; Farrell, 2015; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). The definitions and usages of these terms are not fully agreed on, but most agree that these terms refer to the improvement of teaching practice through reflection, leading to professional development. Wallace (1998) suggested a model for teacher education that places reflection at the core of the process. According to the model, repeated reflection in everyday situations can promote teachers' professional development.

The Current State and Challenges of EFL Teacher Reflection Tools

Many in-service teacher education programs have introduced reflective practice to teachers, enabling them to reflect on their everyday practices (e.g. Burns, 1999; Farrell, 2015; Mikami, 2011). Through these programs, teachers can reflect on their teaching practices, discover problems in their teaching, and solve them, but it is not clear how they can improve their knowledge and skills for classroom teaching as one of the most important aspects of professional practice through reflection.

It is therefore necessary to develop a tool that enables teachers to focus on their professional competencies because they are difficult to operationalize, in contrast to easily observable teaching practices. The only widely known reflection tool for language teacher competencies is the European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL; Newby et al., 2007). At the heart of EPOSTL are 193 "can-do" descriptors, grouped into seven categories. In Japan, EPOSTL's can-do descriptors were adapted to the Japanese linguistic, educational, and cultural context under the name Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Language (JPOSTL; JACET SIG on English Language Education, 2014).

However, teachers face challenges in using EPOSTL. For example, students often feel overwhelmed by EPOSTL's numerous can-do descriptors (JACET SIG on English Language Education, 2014). Furthermore, teacher educators or supervisors must be well organised, as EPOSTL requires long-term usage to be effective (JACET SIG on English Language Education, 2014). JPOSTL has received similar criticism. A Japanese teacher of English explained that using JPOSTL in long-term teacher education programs is effective but dif-

ficult for teachers with heavy workloads (Koide, 2016). Therefore, a more practical and user-friendly tool should be developed for EFL teachers to use for daily self-reflection. The process of developing such a tool should begin with a discussion of the professional competencies essential for EFL teachers in Japan.

In sum, a user-friendly instrument for comprehensive self-evaluation of EFL teachers' professional competencies can streamline teachers' self-reflection on their teaching practices, allowing them to focus more on the professional competencies that are essential for their practices.

Development of the Self-Evaluation Checklist for EFL Teachers

In the absence of a practical reflection tool for EFL teachers' professional competencies, Mikami (2015) developed the Self-Evaluation Checklist for EFL Teachers (SECEFLT) by drawing upon two major studies on teacher growth, Roberts (1998) and Hatta (2000). As Table 1 shows, the original SECEFLT was comprised of four components: Content Knowledge and Skills, Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills, Classroom Teaching Skills, and Professional Development Knowledge and Skills. All 32 items in the SECEFLT are shown in the Appendix.

The SECEFLT has three predominant features. First, its development process began with the discussion of professional competencies necessary for EFL teachers; in contrast, the development of JPOSTL began with a review of the can-do descriptors of EPOSTL. Second, 32 items related to core professional competencies were selected, taking into consideration the number of items that teachers can reflect on at one time so they can use the checklist without adding to their heavy workloads. Third, the SECEFLT provides EFL teachers with common criteria to self-evaluate their professional growth throughout their careers.

Table 1. The Tentative Structure of the Original SECEFLT

Professional competency (components)	Definition	Number of items
Content Knowledge and Skills	Knowledge and skills of the target language (English). It includes skills necessary to communicate in English; knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, and language usage; and knowledge of the culture of the English-speaking world.	8
Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills	General pedagogical knowledge and professional English language education knowledge and skills. It includes the abilities to select appropriate teaching materials and to change teaching content and methods flexibly depending on student comprehension.	8
Classroom Teaching Skills	Understanding of the context of English language education and teaching techniques used in classroom settings. It includes the abilities to understand learners, curricula, and schools and to promote learners' English use in classrooms.	8
Professional Development Knowledge and Skills	Knowledge and skills necessary for teacher development. It includes the abilities to reflect on one's own classroom teaching objectively and to improve one's own classroom teaching based on feedback from students and other teachers.	8

Validation of the Self-Evaluation Checklist for EFL Teachers

There are many studies on validity in the psychometric and educational measurement fields, but there is not yet a consensus on its definition (Hubley & Zumbo, 1996; Messick, 1989; Sireci, 1998). Since 1950, multiple types of validity have been posed (Messick, 1989). According to Hubley and Zumbo (1996), validity is traditionally conceptualized in the following ways: content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity. Criterion-related validity is subcategorised into concurrent validity and predictive validity. However, a single concept of validity was represented in the Standards

for Educational and Psychological Testing (American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, & National Council on Measurement in Education, 1985), indicating that the traditional categories cannot be distinguished rigorously. Messick (1989, 1995, 1996) suggested that validity is a unified concept with six distinguishable aspects of construct validity: the content, substantive, structural, generalizability, external, and consequential aspects.

Despite these different stances towards validity, it is common to put importance on examining how accurately the results obtained by using the instruments reflect what is intended to be measured. Thus, as the first step for the validation of scores from the SECEFLT, construct validity is verified through statistical data analysis. Construct validity is equivalent to one type of validity in the traditional conceptualization and also to the central part of the unified conceptualization, considered to be a structural aspect. If it can be shown that the data collected with the SECEFLT are consistent with the theoretical construct resulting from the investigations of construct validity in this study, this will demonstrate that the SECEFLT meets the basic conditions of an effective educational measurement instrument.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to verify the validity and reliability of scores from the SECEFLT through a nationwide survey of EFL teachers in Japan. The following three research questions were posed:

RQ1. Does an EFA of the scores produced by the SECEFLT produce a factor model corresponding with the four dimensions originally hypothesized for the instrument?

RQ2. To what extent do the responses to the SECEFLT fit the original or revised model for the sample of EFL teachers in Japan?

RQ3. What are the general tendencies of the professional competencies of EFL teachers in Japan?

Methods

Participants

Junior high schools and lower secondary schools[1] in Japan were randomly selected using the list by Zenkoku Gakkou Data Kenkyuujo (2013). One out of every 11 junior high schools was chosen from 10,547; one out of every two lower secondary schools was chosen from 50. Therefore, the total number of schools in the study was 959 junior high schools and 25 lower secondary

schools, or 984 schools in total. The participants were all Japanese teachers of English working in these 984 schools throughout Japan.

Instrument

Participants were requested to self-evaluate their own professional competencies on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*), making use of the question items in the SECEFLT.

Procedure

The SECEFLT was sent to the randomly selected schools from September to December 2014. The responses of 760 teachers from 369 schools (a response rate of 37.5%) were collected. Forty-four teacher responses were excluded from the data analyses because of missing items or more than one response to the same item. Thus, 716 surveys were used in the analysis. All of the collected data were randomly divided into two independent datasets, based on the participants' school category and years of teaching experience. Two sets of responses from 358 teachers were prepared: Dataset A and Dataset B. Table 2 shows the distribution of school categories in both datasets, with the largest being public junior high schools. Table 3 presents the distribution of the participants' years of teaching experience, showing a wide variety of teaching experience. The distributions in the two datasets were very similar.

Table 2. Categories of Participants' Schools in Both Datasets

	Dataset A		Dataset B	
Categories of schools	*n*	%	*n*	%
National junior high	16	4.5	17	4.7
Public junior high	307	85.8	307	85.8
Private junior high	15	4.2	14	3.9
National lower secondary	5	1.4	5	1.4
Public lower secondary	9	2.5	9	2.5
Private lower secondary	6	1.7	6	1.7
Total	358	100	358	100

Table 3. Participants' Years of Teaching Experience in Both Datasets

	Dataset A		Dataset B	
Years of experience	*n*	%	*n*	%
1 - 5	77	21.5	78	21.8
5 - 10	65	18.2	65	18.2
10 - 15	51	14.2	51	14.2
15 - 20	40	11.2	39	10.9
20 - 25	52	14.5	52	14.5
25 - 30	42	11.7	42	11.7
30 - 35	25	7.0	25	7.0
35 - 40	6	1.7	6	1.7
Total	358	100	358	100

According to Field (2013), factor analysis can be used to identify the structure of a set of variables and develop an instrument to measure an underlying variable. There are two types of factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA; Kline, 2016). EFA is conducted to determine how the observed variables are linked to their underlying latent variables when the links between them are unknown. CFA is conducted to evaluate to what extent the hypothetical structure between the observed and latent variables is appropriate when the researcher has some knowledge of the links between them. By conducting CFA after the underlying structure is established using EFA, it is possible to evaluate how well the EFA models fit the data.

In this study, factor analysis was used to answer the first and second research questions. Specifically, EFA was used to examine whether the four factors in the original model of the SECEFLT were extracted. Following this examination, the theoretical framework was reconsidered carefully, the model was revised, and CFA was used to evaluate this finalized model.

However, as Kline (2016) pointed out, the same data should not be used in both factor analyses because the same chance variation may influence the results. Therefore, in this study, the collected data were divided into two datasets. The data were collected randomly, and each split dataset can be considered to be independent. Dataset A was used to establish the underlying structure of responses to the SECEFLT through EFA, and Dataset B was

used for the CFA to evaluate how well the finalized model fits the data. The reliability of the SECEFLT was also examined using both datasets. Finally, for the third research question, data from both datasets were used separately to uncover the general tendency in the responses of EFL teachers regarding their professional competencies. PASW Statistics 18.0 and Amos 18.0 were used for the data analyses.

Results

Following Field's (2013) recommendations, the normality of the collected responses to each item in both datasets was checked. As a result, five items (8, 12, 19, 24, and 31) were excluded from the analysis because their absolute skewness *z* scores or their absolute kurtosis *z* scores were above 3.29 and the shapes of the distributions were also not visually normal. The absolute skewness *z* scores or the absolute kurtosis *z* scores of four items (25, 26, 28, and 30) were slightly above 3.29 only in Dataset B, but their distributions were not visually different from a normal distribution, so these four items were not excluded. The values of the final available items for the analysis varied as follows: skewness ranged from -0.44 to 0.07, kurtosis ranged from -0.19 to 0.95, skewness *z* scores ranged from -3.42 to 0.54, and kurtosis *z* scores ranged from -0.75 to 3.68, raising no questions about the normal distribution of the data. Moreover, it was found that two respondents wrote on the margins of their questionnaire sheets "I have very few opportunities to observe other teachers' classroom teaching" and "I am the only English language teacher at my school." Thus, Item 32 was also removed from the analysis because its content was not appropriate. Neither ceiling effects nor floor effects were detected. Finally, a total of 26 items were available for analysis.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

To determine empirical support for the hypothesised four-factor structure model based on the 26 items in Dataset A, EFA was conducted using the maximum likelihood method with promax rotation. Following Zwick and Velicer (1986) and Hori (2005), both the parallel analysis and MAP methods were conducted on Dataset A using the SPSS script developed by Hori (2001) to determine the number of components. The results of both methods suggested retaining four components. Therefore, it was determined that the final number of components was four. The minimum item-loading threshold was set at .50. This stringent criterion was used to select items that accounted for more variance, which suggested their importance. In the

EFA process, Items 15, 16, 17, 29, and 30 were not found to load on any factor at greater than .50, so they were removed from the subsequent analyses. Items 3 and 20 cross-loaded on two factors and were thus discarded. Item 18 loaded on a different factor than the hypothesised one at greater than .50; therefore, this item was deleted. In all, eight items were removed during the EFA, yielding four factors with 18 items. Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics of the 18 individual items retained after the EFA.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of 18 Individual Items (Dataset A)

Question item	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
1	3.68	0.98	-0.11	0.31
2	3.85	1.04	-0.30	-0.00
4	3.86	0.99	-0.25	0.50
5	3.72	0.96	-0.24	0.45
6	4.09	0.95	-0.34	0.56
7	3.81	0.98	-0.05	0.01
9	4.12	0.90	-0.20	0.28
10	4.20	0.85	-0.25	0.42
11	4.14	0.89	-0.36	0.55
13	4.26	0.96	-0.25	-0.01
14	4.15	0.89	-0.27	0.17
21	4.02	1.04	-0.05	-0.19
22	4.01	0.96	-0.23	0.29
23	3.82	0.90	-0.06	0.19
25	4.16	0.88	-0.07	0.15
26	4.05	0.88	-0.00	0.26
27	4.13	0.91	-0.21	0.29
28	4.34	0.89	-0.38	0.73

As shown in Table 5, four factors were extracted. According to the content of the loading items for each factor, Factor 1 was named Content Knowledge and Skills, Factor 2 was named Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills, Factor

3 was named Professional Development Knowledge and Skills, and Factor 4 was named English Language Use by Teachers and Students. All factors except for Factor 4 matched the hypothesized categories. Table 6 shows the correlation between these factors.

Table 5. Pattern Matrix of EFA Results

Question item	Factor 1 (α = .93)	Factor 2 (α = .93)	Factor 3 (α = .91)	Factor 4 (α = .88)	Communality
4	**.95**	-.07	.06	-.02	.87
5	**.94**	-.00	-.02	-.03	.84
1	**.92**	-.09	.01	.07	.84
2	**.88**	-.03	-.05	.03	.73
6	**.66**	.23	.03	-.07	.62
7	**.54**	.21	-.06	.00	.44
11	-.01	**.95**	.04	-.07	.84
10	.00	**.90**	-.04	.02	.80
9	.01	**.76**	.06	.07	.73
13	.11	**.69**	.03	.08	.71
14	.01	**.67**	.15	-.03	.61
27	.00	-.03	**.95**	-.04	.82
25	.09	-.04	**.83**	.05	.78
26	-.02	.16	**.76**	.02	.78
28	-.08	.07	**.74**	-.03	.54
22	-.03	-.01	-.01	**.96**	.86
21	.08	.04	.03	**.72**	.66
23	-.02	.19	.19	**.54**	.69

Note. The numbers in bold indicate factor loadings of .50 or above. Factor 1 = Content Knowledge and Skills; Factor 2 = Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills; Factor 3 = Professional Development Knowledge and Skills; Factor 4 = English Language Use by Teachers and Students.

Table 6. Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4
Content Knowledge and Skills	1.00			
Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills	.60	1.00		
Professional Development Knowledge and Skills	.49	.73	1.00	
English Language Use by Teachers and Students	.56	.73	.71	1.00

According to Kline's (2016) criteria for describing internal consistency, coefficients around .90 are excellent, values around .80 are very good, and values about .70 are adequate. Reliability coefficients for each factor (Cronbach's alpha) varied from .88 to .93 and are sufficient to confirm internal consistency.

Based on the EFA results, the original structure model for the SECEFLT was revised and updated. Figure 1 summarizes the changes from the original version to the revised one.

The original version (32 items in total)	**The revised version (18 items in total)**
1. Content Knowledge and Skills (8 items)	1. Content Knowledge and Skills (6 items)
2. Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills (8 items)	2. Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills (5 items)
3. Classroom Teaching Skills (8 items) **→ (not extracted)**	**3. English Language Use by Teachers and Students (3 items)**
4. Professional Development Knowledge and Skills (8 items)	4. Professional Development Knowledge and Skills (4 items)

Components of professional competencies narrowed down from EFA results		
Professional competencies (components)	Definitions	Number of items
English Language Use by Teachers and Students	In classroom settings, teachers can use English, encourage students to use English, and evaluate students' English use appropriately.	3

Figure 1. Changes to the SECEFLT: Different components and item numbers between the original and revised versions.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

To test and evaluate the revised four-factor model with the 18 items supported by the EFA results, CFA was conducted using Dataset B. Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics of these 18 individual items using Dataset B.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of 18 Individual Items (Dataset B)

Question item	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
1	3.75	0.99	-0.01	0.10
2	3.89	0.99	-0.20	0.04
4	4.00	1.01	-0.27	0.16
5	3.82	1.00	-0.31	0.27
6	4.19	0.96	-0.35	0.37
7	3.82	0.98	-0.21	0.01
9	4.13	0.83	-0.00	0.09
10	4.22	0.80	-0.25	0.28
11	4.16	0.81	-0.16	0.25
13	4.28	0.90	-0.17	0.23
14	4.21	0.88	0.01	0.01
21	4.01	1.00	-0.40	0.28
22	4.01	0.91	-0.21	0.42
23	3.87	0.83	0.07	0.35
25	4.19	0.85	-0.24	0.89
26	4.10	0.84	-0.39	0.95
27	4.15	0.89	-0.13	0.28
28	4.36	0.90	-0.44	0.56

Multivariate distribution was checked using Mardia's normalized estimate of multivariate kurtosis. The *z* statistic of 37.29 is suggestive of nonnormality in the sample. The maximum likelihood method was used, so the degree to which the estimates are statistically significant may be overestimated (see Byrne, 2010, for further details).

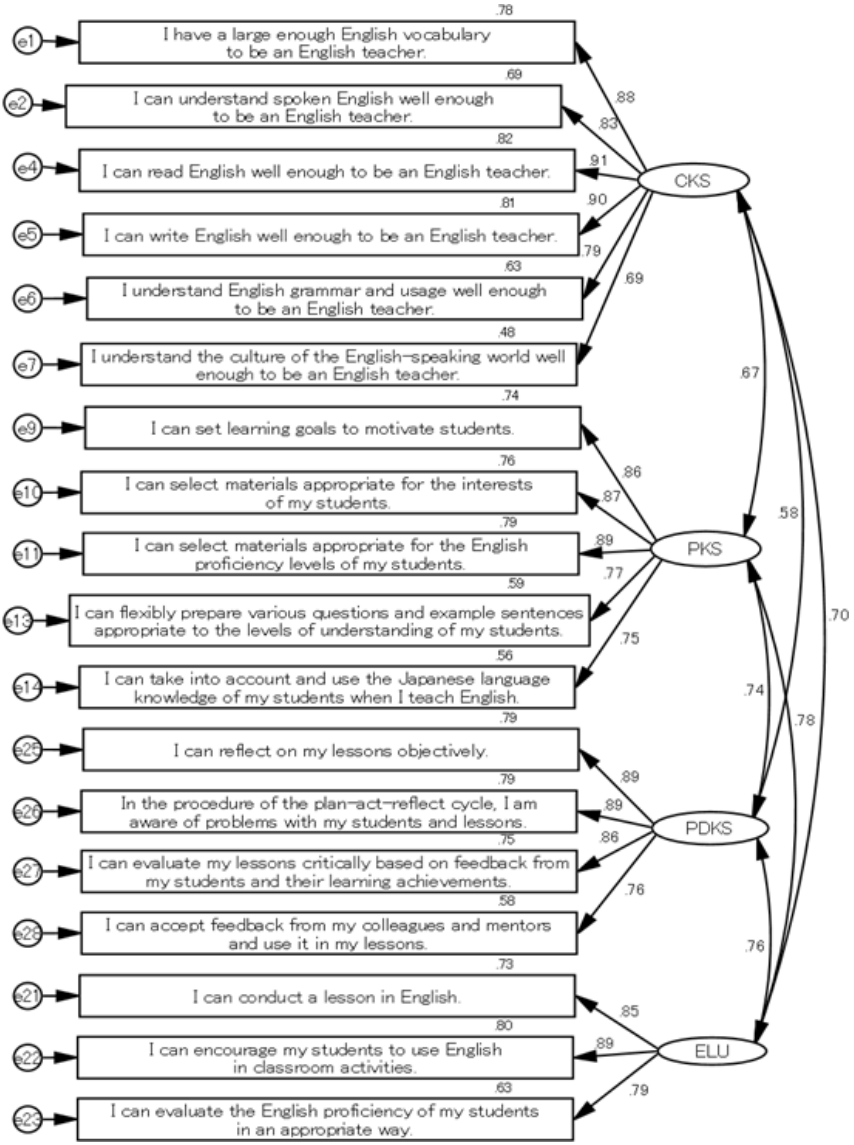

Figure 2. CFA model with standardized estimates for the revised SECEFLT. Ellipses represent latent variables and squares represent observed variables. CKS = Content Knowledge and Skills; PKS = Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills; PDKS = Professional Development Knowledge and Skills; ELU = English Language Use by Teachers and Students; e = measurement error.

The CFA model with standardized estimates for the revised SECEFLT is presented in Figure 2. All the loadings between the indicators and the latent variables as well as the covariances among the factors were statistically significant ($p < .001$).

To evaluate the fit between the CFA model and the observed data, many goodness-of-fit indices are available. Brown (2015) recommended considering at least one fit index from each out of the three following categories: absolute fit (e.g., standardized root mean square residual [SRMR]), parsimony correction (e.g., root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA]), and comparative fit (e.g., comparative fit index [CFI] and Tucker-Lewis index [TLI]). Table 8 shows the fit indices' values calculated from Dataset B. Another goodness-of-fit index, chi-square, is rarely used as a sole model fit index because a large sample size inflates it (Brown, 2015). Schumacker and Lomax (2010) pointed out that it is notoriously difficult to meet the criteria for chi-square, especially for sample sizes over 200. The chi-square value was 447.49, and chi-square/*df* was 3.47 ($p < .001$). Although this result is unacceptable, it is likely influenced by the relatively large sample size.

The cutoff criteria for goodness-of-fit indices are hotly debated, and it is difficult to specify clear criteria for model fit because they depend on model conditions such as sample size, model complexity, and estimation method (Brown, 2015). This study used the cutoff criteria suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999), which proposed the recommended value for a relatively good fit as .08 or below for SRMR, .06 or below for RMSEA, and .95 or above for CFI and TLI. As Table 8 shows, the SRMR value showed good model fit. The RMSEA value exceeded the cutoff, but it was less than 0.10, so it was not rejected (Brown, 2015). Both the CFI and TLI values were slightly below the cutoff, but Bentler (1992) originally considered a well-fitting model to have a CFI of greater than .90, and so, these values were considered an acceptable degree of fit.

Goodness-of-fit indices are interpreted on a continuum according to cutoff criteria and not as absolutes. Therefore, these statistics showed acceptable model fit between the CFA model and the data of Dataset B. That is, it was demonstrated that the construct validity of the revised four-factor model in Dataset B was appropriate. As Table 9 shows, reliability coefficients for each factor (Cronbach's alpha) varied from .88 to .93, sufficient to confirm internal consistency.

Table 8. Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the CFA Model

Categories	Absolute fit	Parsimony correction		Comparative fit	
Index	SRMR	RMSEA	90% CI	CFI	TLI
Values	.045	.08	.075, .092	.94	.93

Note. CI = confidence interval; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index.

Table 9. Reliability Coefficients for Each Factor (Dataset B)

Factors	α
Content Knowledge and Skills	.93
Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills	.91
Professional Development Knowledge and Skills	.91
English Language Use by Teachers and Students	.88

Subscale Values in Participants' Self-Evaluation of Professional Competencies

Regarding the four factors extracted based on the results of both the EFA and CFA, the mean scores of all the items included in each were computed as subscale values. Table 10 shows the descriptive statistics of the subscale values in both Datasets A and B.

Table 10. Descriptive Statistics of the Subscale Values in Datasets A and B

	Dataset A		Dataset B	
Subscales	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Content Knowledge and Skills	3.83	0.85	3.91	0.85
Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills	4.17	0.79	4.20	0.73
Professional Development Knowledge and Skills	4.17	0.79	4.20	0.77
English Language Use by Teachers and Students	3.95	0.87	3.97	0.82

Discussion

Regarding Research Question 1, the results of the EFA and CFA indicated that EFL teachers' responses to the SECEFLT can be classified into four components of professional competencies, as hypothesised. However, there are some differences from the theoretical framework for the original SECEFLT. The most remarkable difference is that only three items out of eight for the hypothesised factor Classroom Teaching Skills were retained through the EFA, and a new factor named English Language Use by Teachers and Students emerged. When the SECEFLT was created, it was believed that two components included in the framework, namely Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills and Classroom Teaching Skills, were clearly distinguishable for respondents, because the latter can be interpreted as the techniques used by teachers in actual classroom settings. However, through the EFA process, it was found that the items hypothesised for Classroom Teaching Skills had relatively high loadings on a different factor (Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills), or cross-loadings on two factors (Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills and Classroom Teaching Skills). Thus, some of the items designed for these two factors were not clearly distinguishable for the respondents. That may be why Classroom Teaching Skills was extracted.

On the other hand, it is noteworthy that English Language Use by Teachers and Students was extracted. A reason why this factor was extracted may be the influence of national policy on English language education in Japan. In 2003, Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) formulated *An Action Plan to Cultivate "Japanese With English Abilities."* The Commission on the Development of Foreign Language Proficiency (MEXT, 2011) also presented *Five Proposals and Specific Measures for Developing Proficiencies in English for International Communication*. Behind these concrete plans and proposals by MEXT lay the rapid advance of globalisation in fields such as politics, economics, and industrialisation. As such, reinforcing English language skills and the teaching abilities of EFL teachers is seen as critical. In light of this situation, participants in this study may have had a strong awareness of the emphasis of increasing the English language use of teachers and students in the classroom, which may have caused the new factor of English language use by teachers and students to be extracted.

As for the second research question, the results of the CFA showed that the SRMR value indicated good model fit, the CFI and TLI values indicated fit very close to satisfactory, and the RMSEA had mediocre fit. Although it is difficult to judge the CFA results, it is clear that EFL teachers' responses in Dataset B adequately fit the four-factor structure model for the revised SE-

CEFLT. Moreover, Cronbach's alpha coefficients in this study show that participants' responses to the items for each factor were internally consistent. Overall, therefore, the results provide positive evidence for the four-factor revised model of the SECEFLT.

As for the third research question, as shown in Table 10, the results of both data sets showed that the means of two subscales (Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills and Professional Development Knowledge and Skills) were higher than those of the other subscales, but the mean of Content Knowledge and Skills was the lowest. This implies that EFL teachers in Japan are more confident in their professional competencies related to teaching and professional development than in their content knowledge and skills, at least among those who responded to the survey. The fact that the participants were all Japanese teachers of English may have contributed to this result.

This study has several limitations. First, only the construct validity of the scores from the revised SECEFLT, specifically, the structural aspect of the unified concept, was examined. Future research needs to be conducted to accumulate various types of evidence for the validity of the revised SECEFLT. For example, content validity should be examined by asking professionals to evaluate to what extent the content of each item in the revised SECEFLT is related to what it is supposed to measure. Second, the participants in this study were only Japanese teachers of English in junior high schools and lower secondary schools in Japan. Further research should be done to confirm whether the SECEFLT can be used for different populations, such as high school teachers or English-speaking assistant language teachers in Japan. If it is confirmed that the structural properties of scores from the revised SECEFLT are stable among different populations, it can be used to examine the different trends in each population's evaluation of their own professional competencies.

Notes

1. Lower secondary schools in Japan are schools that have educational continuity through 6-year secondary levels, whereas 3-year junior high school and 3-year senior high school levels are integrated.

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Appendix

Items of the Self-Evaluation Checklist for EFL Teachers in Japan (Originally in Japanese)

1. I have a large enough English vocabulary to be an English teacher.
2. I can understand spoken English well enough to be an English teacher.
3. I can speak English well enough to be an English teacher.
4. I can read English well enough to be an English teacher.
5. I can write English well enough to be an English teacher.
6. I understand English grammar and usage well enough to be an English teacher.
7. I understand the culture of the English-speaking world well enough to be an English teacher.
8. I can explain the meaning and benefits of English language learning.
9. I can set learning goals to motivate students.
10. I can select materials appropriate for the interests of my students.
11. I can select materials appropriate for the English proficiency levels of my students.
12. I can predict the learning difficulties of my students.
13. I can flexibly prepare various questions and example sentences appropriate to the levels of understanding of my students.
14. I can take into account and use the Japanese language knowledge of my students when I teach English.
15. I am knowledgeable of the differences between English and Japanese language acquisition.
16. I am knowledgeable of teaching methods and teaching theories.
17. I can plan and conduct a lesson based on the Course of Study.
18. I can plan and conduct a lesson based on the needs of my students.
19. I can plan and conduct a lesson based on the actual status of my classes.
20. I can create an effective classroom atmosphere for English language learning.
21. I can conduct a lesson in English.
22. I can encourage my students to use English in classroom activities.
23. I can evaluate the English proficiency of my students in an appropriate way.
24. I can use whole class, small group, and pair activities effectively.
25. I can reflect on my lessons objectively.

26. In the procedure of the plan-act-reflect cycle, I am aware of problems with my students and lessons.
27. I can evaluate my lessons critically based on feedback from my students and their learning achievements.
28. I can accept feedback from my colleagues and mentors and use it in my lessons.
29. I can use related theories and research findings to improve my lessons.
30. I can evaluate the learning growth of my students in an appropriate way.
31. I can plan my lessons with other teachers.
32. I can give constructive feedback by observing the lessons of my colleagues.

Is There a Potential for a Translanguaging Approach to English Education in Japan? Perspectives of Tertiary Learners and Teachers

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Despite recent policy reforms by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) emphasising a change towards a predominately target-language (TL)-based EFL classroom environment, studies have suggested that desire for L1 use by both English learners and many teachers remains prevalent in Japan. The question, then, becomes whether a resolution exists to balance the rising conflict between government policy and actual classroom practice in Japanese EFL education. The purpose of this study was to investigate the opinions of both Japanese EFL students (n = 373) and teachers (n = 261) regarding the use of the L1 (Japanese) in the L2 (English) learning process and the ensuing potential to introduce a bilingual translanguaging approach to Japanese EFL education on the whole. The findings suggest that, although there appears to be a space for a translanguaging approach to EFL education in Japan, the success would depend largely on how willing both teachers and students are to take it up and by the level of training and education provided to both sides.

英語の授業は主に英語で行われるべきだということを強調する文部科学省の政策にも関わらず、授業における日本語使用はまだ日本人学習者にも日本人教師にも好まれているという研究報告がある。これによる大きな問題は、日本の英語教育において、政府の政策と実際の授業実践の格差に解決策があるのかということだ。本論文は、第二言語（英語）を学習する際の第一言語（日本語）の使用に関する学習者（373名）と教師（261名）の意

見、そしてそれに基づいたトランスランゲージングの可能性を調査した研究を報告する。分析の結果、日本の英語教育においてトランスランゲージングの可能性はあるが、その成功は学習者と教師がそれをどのように受け入れるかと両者が受ける教育と研修に大きく影響されることが示された。

Keywords: English as a foreign language; Japanese EFL education; student perspectives; teacher perspectives; translanguaging

The use of learners' L1 in L2 education has received much criticism in the past. Ever since the deposition of the traditional grammar-translation method due to its inability to develop students' communicative competence through L1 translation alone, there has been a sense of uneasiness held towards the use of the L1 in L2 learning. Even today, these ideologies of distrust towards the L1 may continue to prevail in many dominant L2 teaching approaches (see Cummins, 2007). However, some researchers have suggested that exclusion of the L1 in favour of the exclusive use of the L2 is a politically driven act that has little grounding in pedagogical research or theory and, therefore, may not be as beneficial to L2 teaching and learning as is commonly portrayed (see Auerbach, 1993). Accordingly, the beneficial role of the L1 in L2 learning has begun to receive increased attention amongst scholars of SLA in recent years (see, e.g., Butzkamm, 2011; Carless, 2008; Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2007; Hall & Cook, 2012; Storch & Aldosari, 2010; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009; Turnbull & Sweetnam Evans, 2017). Strategic and judicious use of the L1 has been identified as both a social and cognitive tool that facilitates L2 learning and remains active at the learner's disposal throughout the L2 learning process.

Research investigating the perspectives of L2 learners (e.g., Brooks-Lewis, 2009), teachers (e.g., Yavuz, 2012), and even preservice teachers (e.g., Turnbull, 2018) towards the use of the L1 has been seen in the past, often showing mixed results. Studies in Japanese contexts have also investigated perspectives regarding L1 use in the education of EFL, which have, in general, shown a positive attitude towards L1 use (see, e.g., Burden & Stribling, 2003; Hawkins, 2015; Saito & Ebsworth, 2004). However, recent policy reforms by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) have emphasised a change towards a predominately target-language (TL)-based classroom environment to maximise students' exposure to English (see MEXT, 2011): a call in direct opposition to the favourable attitudes and desire for the L1 by Japanese EFL learners and many teachers alike. This raises a pivotal and, as of yet, unanswered question: Is there a balanced resolution to benefit both sides? The answer may be yes, but it would

involve the introduction of a new pedagogical approach—translanguaging, or the integrated use of all languages in which learners' hold proficiency in a systematic, multimodal, and semiotic manner—one that has been largely unseen in a Japanese context; its potential, therefore, remains unknown. In fact, very little, if any, discussion of translanguaging in EFL contexts such as Japan, where L1 vs. L2 use remains a contentious issue for a variety of sociocultural and policy-related reasons, has occurred thus far in the literature. The first barrier to successfully introducing a new approach such as translanguaging to an EFL education context, especially one such as Japan, which has long perpetuated a traditional exam-based grammar system in which the use of the L1 is frequent, is ensuring that those involved in the learning process (i.e., the teachers and the learners) are themselves willing to accept it. The aim of the present study was thus to investigate the opinions of both Japanese EFL teachers and students regarding the use of the L1 (Japanese) in the L2 (English) learning process and the potential for a bilingual translanguaging approach to balance the rising conflict between government policy and actual classroom practice in Japanese EFL education.

English in Japanese Education

It has been widely recognised that the English language abilities of Japanese students are relatively low (see Aoki, 2017; Butler & Iino, 2005). EFL education in Japan has faced major criticism throughout the past 50 years in particular for failing to produce proficient English-speaking Japanese people. To address this issue, MEXT took a step towards internationalisation and improving the nation's English ability in their (2003) Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities. Unfortunately, this was widely ignored until MEXT made it a central part of their (2011) revision to the national course of study guidelines, in which they stipulated that "English classes should be conducted principally in English in high school" (p. 8). MEXT's (2014) English Education Reform Plan Corresponding to Globalization stipulates English classes at the junior high school level to be conducted "basically" in English as well as the introduction of new English Language Activities at the lower elementary level and English Language as a subject at the upper elementary level in the lead up to 2020. Even tertiary level policies, such as MEXT's Top Global University Project, have advocated for English-medium courses in the promotion of internationalisation of select tertiary institutions, although the use of Japanese in such programmes is still reported (see Bradford & Brown, 2018). Thus, the suggestion to largely remove Japanese from the EFL classroom, particularly at the junior and senior high school

levels but also at the tertiary level, has been met with some resistance, and even today many classrooms are yet to fully exclude the L1, despite the governmental policies in favour of doing so.

Japanese has been, and in most cases continues to be, the traditional language of instruction in Japanese EFL classrooms (Terauchi, 2017). This is perhaps because of the grammar- and vocabulary-based system in use at the high school level (see Butler & Iino, 2005), where L1 use is high, and Japan's national culture of learning, which may play a significant influential role on the psychological mindset and actions of both Japanese EFL teachers and students. Samimy and Kobayashi (2004), for example, claim there to be "cultural mismatches" (p. 253) between theoretical foundations of TL-based communicative language teaching (CLT) and the Japanese culture of learning. Hobbs, Matsuo, and Payne (2010) agreed, suggesting that certain forms of CLT are "incompatible" (p. 46) with EFL in contexts such as Japan because the culture of learning is different to that of the western countries in which said CLT methods were developed (Littlewood, 2007). If we take this as true, we understand that developing EFL abilities in Japanese students through TL-exclusive CLT approaches will likely prove ineffective, and we must, therefore, look at ways to balance traditional methods (in which use of the L1 is common) with new and more effective means of improving learners' overall EFL abilities. One such potential for this is a translanguaging approach.

Translanguaging and Emergent Bilinguals

García (2009) propagated the term *emergent bilinguals* to refer to "students who are in the beginning stages of moving along a bilingual continuum" (p. 397, Chapter 2, Note 2): in other words, those in the process of acquiring an additional language to their first. Turnbull (2016) extended the term to specifically include FL learners in their own right, redefining an emergent bilingual as "any person who is actively in the process of acquiring knowledge of a second language and developing bilingual languaging skills for use in a given situation relevant to their individual needs to learn the TL" (p. 3). The inclusion of FL learners within this framework is significant as it recognises FL learners as possessing unique bilingual language skills and practices and not as being failed or insufficient speakers of the TL as was traditionally the case under the monolingual principle (see Howatt, 1984).

One of these unique language practices with which both bilingual and emergent bilingual speakers engage is translanguaging. The term translanguaging has become increasingly popular in research on bilingualism in

recent years (see, e.g., Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García & Wei, 2014; Hornberger & Link, 2012). Translanguaging was originally a term used in reference to the "planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012, p. 643), whereby the languages of classroom input and output were alternated to promote bilingualism in Welsh education programmes. The concept has since been expanded upon to include the naturally occurring languaging practices of bilingual speakers who transcend the systems in their linguistic repertoires. Under this perspective, García (2009) defined translanguaging as the "*multiple discursive practices* in which bilinguals engage in order to *make sense of their bilingual worlds*" (p. 45, emphasis in original). A key idea within this notion is that the boundaries separating languages are transient and a construction of the nation-state (see Makoni & Pennycook, 2007). These "named languages" (e.g., English, Japanese, French, Spanish) are thought to be comprised of linguistic features that belong to a single, expanded linguistic system. Speakers then draw upon features that correspond to a certain "named language" to communicate relevant to given contexts.

Translanguaging, therefore, differs greatly from the simple concept of L1 and L2 use in the FL classroom. The notion of L1 vs. L2 use treats learners' languages as separate entities between which little to no interaction occurs. In a classroom setting, this may involve having learners translate a vocabulary list or reading passage from Japanese to English, or vice versa. Translanguaging, on the other hand, allows for the natural integration and use of all languages in a learner's linguistic system when fit to do so. For example, teachers may allow learners to plan an essay in their language of choice before writing it in English or to engage in a topical discussion in one language before presenting back to the class in English. In such cases, the teacher is not required to understand the language with which learners engage but instead gives control to the students and evaluates the final output in English. For this reason, translanguaging is available to all teachers in bilingual, multilingual, and monolingual classrooms as a tool to help leverage their students' bilingualism, which could be at a whole-class or an individual student level.

Under a translanguaging approach, L2 learners are not considered to be acquiring a new additional language, but are instead adding to the integrated linguistic system of which their native language, and any additional languages, are already a part. In ESL and EFL learning, then, all of the languages in a learner's repertoire are encouraged and utilised in the classroom for

the purpose of developing the weaker TL (see Baker, 2011). Furthermore, because translanguaging allows learners to engage all of the systems in their linguistic repertoire, learners are able to break free of traditional acts of language separation and, in doing so, establish identity positions (Creese & Blackledge, 2010) in relation to language learning to make meaning and to learn. This is particularly relevant in the tertiary-level EFL education in Japan as we look at MEXT's Top Global University Project supporting the internationalisation of select universities throughout the country. McKinley (2018) discussed the required shift to treat Japanese tertiary students as users of English instead of learners of English. In doing so, we would also see a change from teaching English as a foreign language to teaching English as a global language, in which use of the L1 is seen as a bilingual resource at the learners' (and by extension, the teacher's) disposal, and learners' language abilities are not tested against native-speaker norms. A bilingual translanguaging approach has the potential to help this paradigm shift in the Japanese EFL context.

Methodology

The present study was aimed at answering the following two research questions:

RQ1. To what extent and for what functions do teachers and students employ Japanese in the EFL classroom?

RQ2. What are the opinions of teachers and students regarding the potential for a translanguaging approach to EFL education in Japan?

Participants

The participants in the present study were 373 tertiary-level Japanese students of EFL (M = 224, F = 149). The vast majority of the participants were aged between 18 and 20 (90.4%), 7.0% between 21 and 23, 1.6% between 24 and 26, and 1.0% over 27. All students were native Japanese speakers. They had been studying EFL for a mean average of 7.6 years. Of the participants, 20.9% had experience studying abroad in countries such as America, Australia, Canada, England, the Philippines, and Singapore for an average of 16.9 weeks. Most (83.4%) were from private universities; 13.3% were from national universities; 2.3% were from public universities; and 1% were from other tertiary institutions including junior colleges. The level at which students were studying EFL courses varied: Most were studying at the lower intermediate level (29.8%), followed by beginner (26.4%), intermediate

(18.1%), upper intermediate (15.7%), and advanced (10.0%). The most common types of EFL classes the students were undertaking were general English (69.9%), English conversation (60.9%), English reading (58.2%), English listening (51.8%), and English grammar (40.1%).

261 tertiary-level EFL teacher participants (M = 189, F = 66) also participated in the study. The participants varied in age but covered a relatively equal spread across the age spectrum from below 25 to above 60, with an average of 43 years old (see Table 1).

Table 1. Teacher Participant Ages

Age	*n*	%
< 25	4	1.1
26-30	10	2.8
31-35	24	6.6
36-40	47	13.0
41-45	48	13.3
46-50	43	11.9
51-55	34	9.4
56-60	33	9.1
> 60	18	5.2

The majority of the teacher participants (67.9%) were native English speakers; 26.3% were native Japanese speakers; and 5.8% were native speakers of other languages including French, German, Romanian, Russian, Filipino, Dutch, and Finnish. Of the 193 nonnative Japanese speakers, 46.3% claimed to speak Japanese fluently. A further 30.9% claimed they could get by comfortably in Japanese; 16.5% could hold a basic conversation in Japanese; and 6.2% claimed they could understand some things but could not converse well. No participants claimed to have no proficiency in Japanese. The teacher participants had been teaching EFL in Japan for between 1 and 43 years, for an average of 13.6 years. Most (63%) taught at private universities, 17.5% at public universities, 13.6% at national universities throughout Japan, and 5.9% at other tertiary-level institution types including junior colleges. The participating teachers taught various English classes, the most common five of which were general English (59.2%), English reading (43.5%), English

conversation (42.3%), English writing (39.2%), and English for academic purposes (EAP; 28.1%). The majority of teachers taught at the intermediate level (63.8%), followed by lower intermediate (58.1%), upper intermediate (51.5%), advanced (32.3%), and beginner (31.9%). Some teachers taught at multiple levels, which are included in these totals.

Procedure

Two separate questionnaires (one teacher version and one student version: Appendix A and B, respectively) were devised by the researcher and posted on the Internet, where they could be easily distributed to participants via an online system. An appeal for participation in the project was made to English language educators currently employed at tertiary level institutions throughout all 47 prefectures in Japan and to their EFL students to fill out the respective questionnaires. The researcher contacted teachers directly via email and also posted on online forums. Each appeal message contained two links to separate online questionnaires: the teachers' version and the students' version. An appeal was made in the message for teachers to forward the student questionnaire to their students. The researcher did not actively seek student participants due to the logistical difficulties of acquiring students' private email addresses. The responses were collected, and responses in Japanese were translated into English by the researcher for analysis and checked by a Japanese-English bilingual peer.

Questionnaires

Initial versions of both the teacher and student surveys were piloted with a small group of students and instructors in order to refine each accordingly. Based on the subsequent comments, changes were made to the wording of several items, and some items, which were determined to provide little information, were deleted altogether. The resulting student and teacher questionnaires (each of 32 items) were split into four major sections. The first section sought basic demographic information. Sections 2 and 3 were designed to help answer the first research question: The second section focused on the teachers' use of Japanese, and the third section focused on the students' use of the Japanese in the EFL class.

The fourth section was designed to help answer the second research question, introducing the concept of translanguaging. In this section, the participants were provided with the following brief explanatory definition of translanguaging in both English and Japanese as a reference. This definition

was derived by the researcher based on previously established definitions and scholarly works on the topic. It was felt that this definition provided a brief look at translanguaging from both a theoretical and classroom-based perspective to provide an overview of the concept as a whole:

> Translanguaging is a developing concept in which the deliberate and systematic use of two "languages" is encouraged for education and learning purposes. Translanguaging views all of the "languages" in a speaker's linguistic repertoire as belonging to a single integrated system, whereby speakers select and use the most suitable elements of each language for communicative use in a given context. Second language learners are not considered to be acquiring a new second language, but adding to the integrated linguistic system of which their first language is already a part. In second language learning, then, an important concept within a translanguaging approach is the idea that both learners' first and the target language are encouraged and utilised in the classroom for the purpose of developing the weaker target language.
>
> 「トランスランゲージング」(translanguaging)とは、授業の中での教育と学習に対する計画的、尚且つ構造的な言語使用の概念である。トランスランゲージングでは自分の言語レパートリー全体を一つの集合体と見て、そこからその場のコミュニケーションに最適な言語要素を選んで使う。そして、第二言語の学習者は言語を新しく習得するのではなく、第一言語が既に属している統合された言語システムに加える。従って、トランスランゲージングを用いた第二言語の習得では、学習者の第一言語と対象言語の両方を使用すること、そしてそれが授業の中で奨励されて利用されることが大切である。

The participants were then asked questions concerning whether a translanguaging approach is something they would be willing to try in their EFL classroom and for explanations as to their answers.

Analysis

The data analysis for both questionnaires was twofold. First, closed-ended quantitative questions were coded by converting each response into a numerical score corresponding to a list of predetermined variables, which were entered into SPSS (Version 23) for a multifaceted analysis. A descriptive analysis was used to determine the frequencies, percentages, and means of

the data for the responses to each question. The short-answer open-ended qualitative questions underwent inferential analysis with subjective interpretation by the researcher. The responses to each open-ended question were categorised according to emerging themes and analysed through content analysis relevant to the overall purpose of the study. A combination of quantitative statistical analysis and qualitative interpretation was used because, according to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000), it provides the researcher with the "freedom to fuse measurement with opinion, quantity and quality" (p. 253), adding a more illustrative dimension to the overall data analysis. A reliability analysis for both questionnaires was also conducted using SPSS, and Cronbach's alpha coefficient was determined to be .80 for the teacher survey and .85 for the student survey, suggesting a satisfactory reliability overall.

Findings

Teachers' Use of Japanese

To determine how often Japanese is used by EFL teachers, the student participants were asked to report on the frequency of their teachers' use, and the teachers were asked to self-report on their own use of Japanese in the EFL classroom. The results are presented in Figure 1.

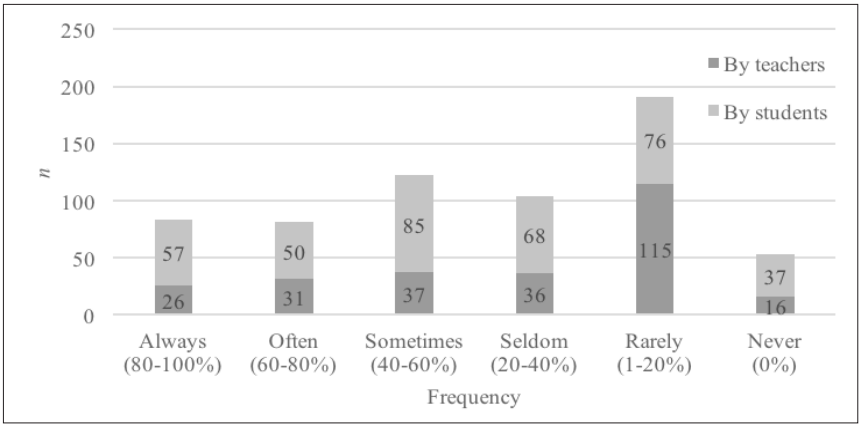

Figure 1. Student and teacher reports of the frequency with which teachers use Japanese. Student *n* = 373; Teacher *n* = 261.

Although nearly one third of the participants reported the teachers' use of Japanese to be rare (1-20% of the time), it is interesting to note the dif-

ference between the reports from students and teachers for this category (a difference of 23.7%), which may be due to problems associated with self-reporting by the teacher participants. The student and teacher participants were then asked to report on the functions for which EFL teachers employ Japanese in the English classroom (see Figure 2).

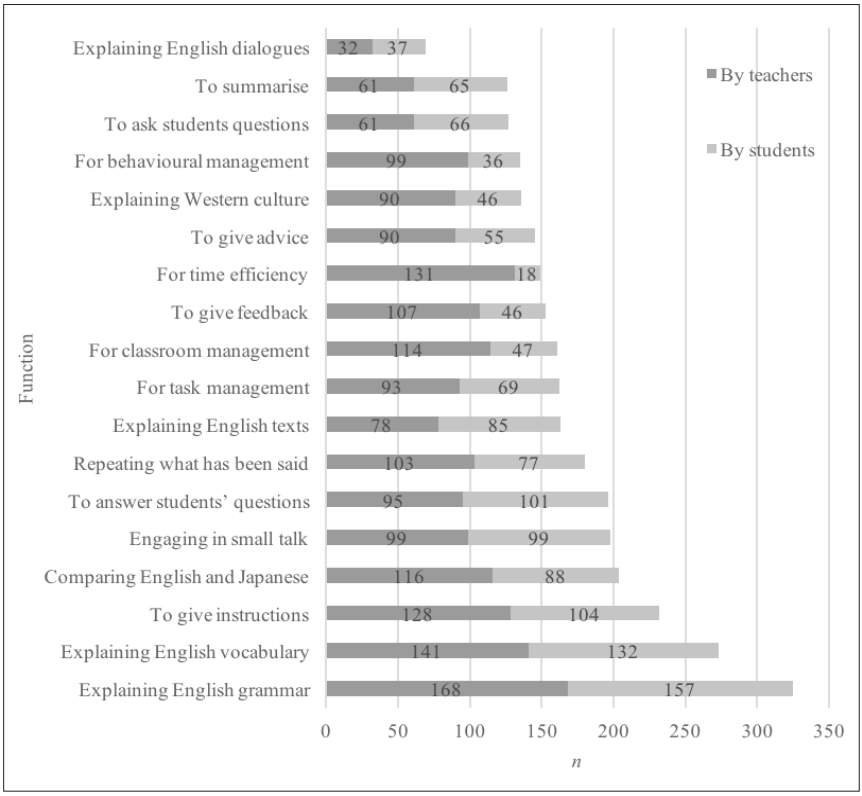

Figure 2. Student and teacher reports of the functions for which teachers use Japanese. More than one response was possible. Student $n = 373$; Teacher $n = 261$.

The three most common functions were reported to be employed by more than one third of all teachers, and the 10 most common functions were reportedly used by one quarter. Vast differences can be seen between what the teachers and students reported in some instances, particularly for the functions of classroom management (a difference of 31.1%), behavioural management (28.2%), and time efficiency (45.4%). These differences may

be attributed to the fact that such tasks are generally the sole responsibility of the teacher, and thus the student participants may not have recognised their enactment because they themselves are not required to use these functions.

Students' Use of Japanese

Both the student and teacher participants were asked to report on how often students use Japanese in the EFL classroom. The results are presented in Figure 3.

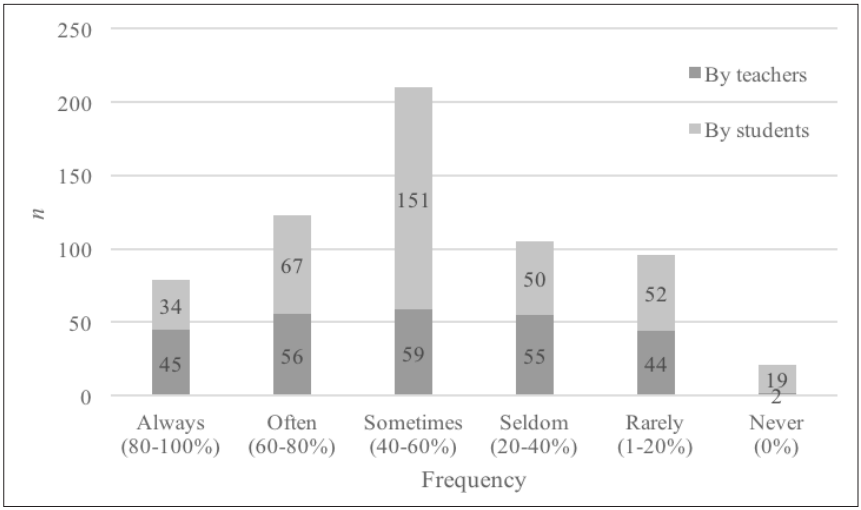

Figure 3. Student and teacher reports of the frequency with which students use Japanese in the EFL classroom. Student *n* = 373; Teacher *n* = 261.

One third of all students reported or were reported as using Japanese some of the time (40-60%), with close to another third of respondents (31.9%) claiming students' use of Japanese to be more than 60%. The functions for which students most commonly employ Japanese in the EFL classroom, according to both categories of participants, are presented in Figure 4.

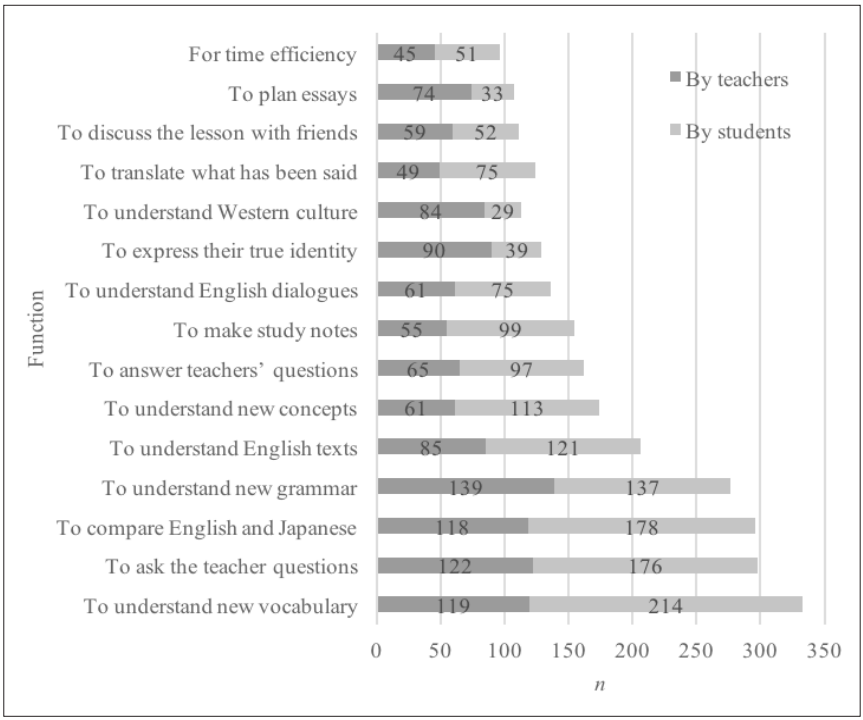

Figure 4. Student and teacher reports of the functions for which students use Japanese. More than one response was possible. Student n = 373; Teacher n = 261.

The five most common functions for which students employ Japanese were reported to be employed by one third of all EFL students. Remarkably similar reports can be seen from both the students and teachers for almost all functions, with the exception of *to express their true identities* and *to understand Western culture*. Such low frequencies from the students regarding their expression of identity through the use of Japanese may suggest that few see Japanese, or language in general, as contributing to their overall identities. It may also be attributed to the fact that few see a connection between language use and identity in general or language as a means through to which to understand content indirectly related to language such as culture.

Bilingualism in FL Education

The student and teacher participants were asked the extent to which they agreed with the idea that *FL education should be thought of as bilingual education*. This question was included to address the fact that the term bilingual education can be interpreted in several different ways, and it was thus important to determine where Japanese EFL students and teachers stood on the matter. A relatively equal ratio of student to teacher opinions was observed for each level of agreement, except for level 3, which an overwhelming number of teachers chose compared to the smallest number of students. The results are presented in Figure 5.

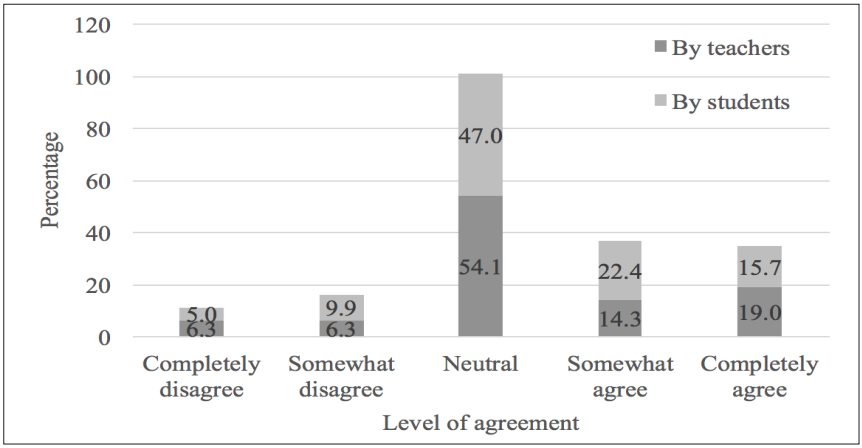

Figure 5. Percentages of agreement among teachers and students with the idea that FL education should be thought of as bilingual education. Student n = 373; Teacher n = 261.

Although the majority of students and teachers took the middle ground and reported a 3 for their agreement towards the idea, more subsequently opted for a higher agreement than a lower agreement. A total of 36.7% and 34.7% answered 4 and 5 respectively, compared to just 11.3% and 16.2% who answered 1 and 2 respectively. This suggests that, at least among those surveyed, more EFL teachers and students in Japan are accepting of the idea that FL education is a form of bilingual education than are not, which provides support for the notion of introducing bilingual pedagogies, such as translanguaging, into mainstream EFL education in the Japanese context.

However, the participants were then asked where the students would place themselves and where the teachers would place their students on a 10-point scale for level of bilingualism (where 1 meant *not at all bilingual* and 10 meant *bilingual*). The results are presented in Figure 6.

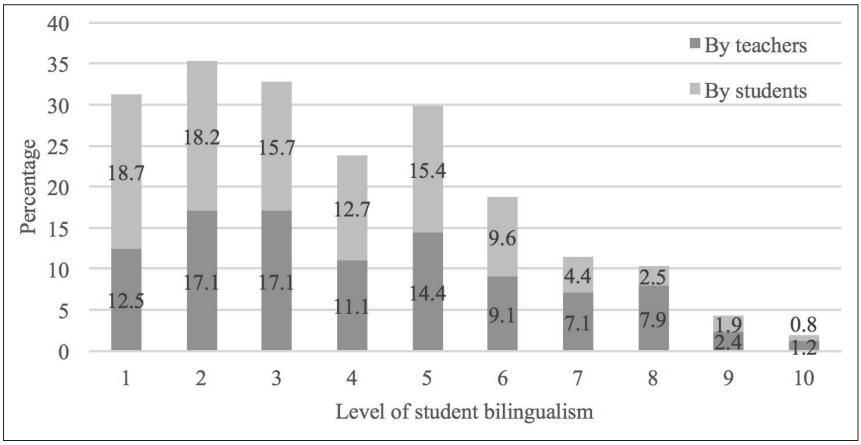

Figure 6. Percentage of teachers and students reporting to view students as bilingual on a 10-point scale, where 1 represents *not at all bilingual* and 10 represents *bilingual*. Student *n* = 373; Teacher *n* = 261.

The majority of students and teachers (76.5%) judged EFL learners to be 5 or below on the bilingual scale, compared to just 23.4% who rated them above 5. On the one hand, this view could be seen as in opposition to the views presented in Figure 1 concerning the bilingual nature of FL education, but what this also suggests is that, despite perceiving FL education to be a form of bilingual education, the students educated in Japan are not thought of as fully bilingual. This is perhaps due to their reported low levels of English, the manner in which they are taught, and/or the manner in which they study and learn as individuals.

When asked why they thought this to be the case, the teacher participants took two stances. Those who disagreed with students' bilingualism (i.e., Levels 1-4 on the bilingualism scale) focused on students' lack of English abilities (grammar, vocabulary, collocational knowledge, pronunciation, etc.). However, those who recognised their students' bilingualism (i.e., Levels 6-10 on the bilingualism scale) focused on the flexibility that the term bilingualism allows; for example, one teacher commented, "Being bilingual means being able to use two languages, not necessarily fluently. My students

can do this." When asked the same question, the student participants also focused on their inability to speak or think in English. One interesting comment focused on the relationship between the use of English and bilingualism: "英語は, 何かを学ぶための手段だと考えているので, バイリンガルと認識していないため (Because I think English is a means to learn something, I don't recognise it as bilingualism)."

The majority of the teacher participants (46.1%) had never heard of a translanguaging approach to language education; 16.4% knew *very little about it*, followed by 14.1% who *had heard of it, but do not know much about it*. Only 16% claimed to know *a little about it*, compared to just 7.4% who claimed to know it *very well*. In other words, 76.6% of the teacher participants may have been suggesting that they did not know enough about translanguaging to engage in its practices without training. Interestingly, 56.0% of the teacher participants claimed they would like to know more about translanguaging, 24.1% expressed that they might like to learn more, and just 19.8% claimed they would not like to know more. The fact that almost 45% of the teacher participants were not openly eager to learn more suggests the potential for noninterest in translanguaging, which may be due to factors such as satisfaction with current methods, a lack of desire for L1 use in the classroom, institutional policy restrictions, and/or a lack of understanding or education regarding a translanguaging approach. Future research would be required to determine the exact reasons for this.

When asked whether they would be willing to try a translanguaging approach to EFL education, the teacher and student participants answered as shown in Figure 7. Many of the teachers' comments in favour of attempting a translanguaging approach centered on concepts such as "I'm always open to trying a new approach" and "I would try anything to improve my teaching." Some commented on similarities between translanguaging and their current approach and reported a desire to learn more about how better to structure it. Others referred to the motivational benefit translanguaging may have for their students who are insecure about their English abilities.

On the other hand, those teachers who were against attempting a translanguaging approach made such comments as "I don't know enough about it yet" and "I don't quite support the idea." Reasons provided against the implementation of translanguaging included teachers' concern that the use of Japanese would dominate students' English use, satisfaction with their current pedagogical approach, and certain institution policy restrictions against the use of the L1.

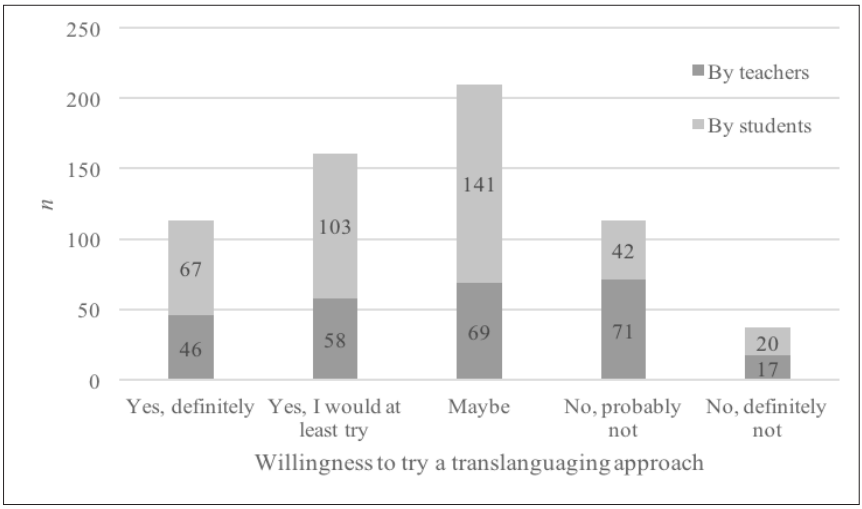

Figure 7. Student and teacher reports of their willingness to try a translanguaging approach to EFL education. Student *n* = 373; Teacher *n* = 261.

However, some teachers seemed to have misunderstood the concept altogether, as can be seen in comments such as "it seems that the teacher must know the students' L1 very well to try this, and my Japanese isn't good enough" and "I occasionally teach students in multilingual classroom. The approach wouldn't work out in that setting."

Those student participants who were in favour of trying a translanguaging approach to EFL education provided comments with relatively less substance than their teachers, simply stating that translanguaging would allow them to better learn or understand English without any indication of how, suggesting a relatively shallow understanding of the benefits of translanguaging overall. That said, two particularly interesting comments were very much in line with some of the underlying foundations of a translanguaging approach: "完璧な英語を使わないといけないという考え方が嫌いだから (Because I hate the idea that you have to use perfect English)" and "良いことだと思います。トランスランゲージを行うことで、言語能力が第一言語と第二言語のどちらかに偏らないと思うからです (I think it is good. Because I think that by using translanguaging, one's language ability does not show bias to either the first or second language)." These comments highlight the noncompetitive linguistic freedom that a translanguaging approach can afford, suggesting a relatively deep understanding of how translanguaging may be of benefit towards the

development of EFL learners' overall bilingualism. Such comments, however, were not common.

On the other hand, those student participants who were against translanguaging commented that the approach would lead to an excessive use of Japanese and that because learners already have few chances to speak English, they want to speak English in class. One particular comment reflected a misunderstanding of translanguaging similar to that of some of the teacher participants: "日本人と違う母国語を持つ人がいる場合その人が不利になる (In situations where there are Japanese and people with different mother tongues, those people are at a disadvantage)." Once again, these comments shed light on the general misunderstandings surrounding the concept of translanguaging and the associated need for comprehensive training and/or education for both teachers and students alike before it can be successfully introduced to EFL education in Japan.

Discussion

Analysis of the data answers the first research question: "To what extent and to what purposes do teachers and students employ Japanese in the EFL classroom?" Despite the government policies emphasising a predominantly English-based classroom, it is clear that Japanese is employed in the EFL classroom in Japan by both the teachers and students to varying degrees. Very small margins of differences were reported between the mean percentages of Japanese usage by both the students and teachers in most categories, suggesting a constant and reliable response overall. The high-level reporting of a "rare" usage by the teachers may be due to problems associated with self-reporting bias, whereby the teachers may have claimed their use of Japanese to be lower because of preconceptions that use of the L1 is undesirable in L2 learning.

Three out of the top five functions for which students were reported to employ Japanese were the same as those for which teachers were reported to use Japanese. Close to one half of all participants who reported to employ Japanese are said to employ it for the functions of better understanding or teaching grammar and vocabulary and to compare English and Japanese. The other functions comprising the top five most common (for both teachers and students) have been noted by researchers in the past, including to give instructions (Tang, 2002) and to engage in small talk with students (Littlewood & Yu, 2011) by teachers and to ask the teacher questions (Norman, 2008) and to understand English texts (Turnbull & Sweetnam Evans, 2017) by students. However, it seems that many of the functions for which

Japanese is employed in EFL education in Japan may, in fact, perpetuate the monolingual principle (see Howatt, 1984), in which the two languages are viewed as separate entities in the learners' minds and the learners themselves are regarded as double monolinguals rather than multicompetent bilinguals (Cook, 1999).

The manner in which Japanese is currently employed for various functions in the EFL classroom in Japan is what is important as we look towards the possibility of introducing a translanguaging approach to help improve the current state of EFL learners' English abilities. For example, a simple vocabulary translation task from one language to the other is not considered within the beneficial framework of a translanguaging approach (see García & Wei, 2014). Active employment of both languages is required if learners are to become competent bilingual speakers through translingual practices. The commonly reported teachers' function of employing Japanese to engage in small talk with their students may teach learners how to effectively engage in fluid bilingual languaging practices if the teacher is able to do so. The fact that all 261 teachers reported themselves to hold some proficiency in Japanese, with over 3 out of 4 claiming to have a relatively high proficiency, suggests they may be able to engage in fluid bilingual practices, but even in such cases, a translanguaging approach is likely to fail in Japan if both the students and teachers are unwilling to accept its implementation. This, then, answers the second research question: "What are the opinions of teachers and students alike regarding the potential for a translanguaging approach to EFL education in Japan?"

A much larger number of the participants were in favour of the idea of FL learning as bilingual education than those who were not, providing some support towards the potential of introducing bilingual pedagogies, such as translanguaging, into mainstream EFL education in Japan. That said, less support was given for the notion of EFL students being bilingual despite research in favour of the claim (see Turnbull, 2016), although it was noted that some students did recognise the noncompetitive nature that a translanguaging approach can afford: one that may help to alleviate the hegemonic perceptions that continue to surround the English language in the minds of some Japanese (see McVeigh, 2002).

Both the teacher and student participants who were against the implementation of a translanguaging approach commented on their concern that reliance on Japanese would increase in the classroom and the use of English would decrease. This has been questioned by some scholars (see, e.g., Gaebler, 2014), who have found that learners generally recognise the

importance of using the TL in the classroom and thus show no reluctance to do so when given the opportunity to also use their L1. Others questioned the use of the L1 in general. Indeed, native speakerism (see Holliday, 2006) as reflected in policy, institutional practice, and teacher cognition is a hurdle that must be overcome for a translanguaging approach to take hold in Japan. Some students and teachers may see the use of the mother tongue as a deficit in EFL education, believing the notion that English is best learnt in English-only environments. Such teachers may thus be hesitant to allow learners to engage in bilingual languaging strategies that allow such practices; however, this issue can be overcome with proper education and training regarding the benefits of mother tongue inclusion and how to engage in approaches such as translanguaging to leverage students' bilingualism overall.

Some student participants also commented on the lack of opportunities they have to speak English and that a translanguaging approach might minimise that further. However, it must be pointed out that translanguaging does not promote the use of one language over the other but rather works to break down the hierarchies between languages to provide an equal opportunity for the use of each in a noncompetitive environment. Further misunderstandings towards the concept of translanguaging were also reported, such as teachers needing to know the students' mother tongue well and the impossibility of implementing translanguaging in a multilingual classroom with learners of different mother tongues. In fact, it is not a requirement for the teacher to speak the students' native language nor for the students to all share the same native language (as is the case in multilingual classrooms) under a translanguaging approach. So long as the teacher is willing to relinquish some power and authority to the students so that they may employ their home language themselves to help develop the weaker TL, a translanguaging space can be created in any classroom, regardless of the students or teachers involved (see García & Wei, 2014).

Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the theoretical potential of introducing a translanguaging approach to EFL education in Japan to improve the reportedly low standards of students' English abilities and to bridge the gap between government policy and actual classroom practice. The findings show that, although Japanese is used to various degrees and for various functions by both teachers and students in EFL education in Japan and the bilingual nature of EFL education was acknowledged to some extent, the emergent bilingual status of FL learners was less com-

monly recognised, which may prevent the successful implementation of a translanguaging approach.

Due to the limited structure of the survey employed in the present study, it is acknowledged that the participants were only provided with a brief definition of what a translanguaging approach entails without concrete evidence (although a link was provided that directed them to more information), and this may have affected their views towards the approach either way. It must also be pointed out that the definition provided was largely academically based, providing few practical examples upon which participants could ground the theoretical explanation. In the case of the learner participants, this definition may have exceeded their understanding and thus weakened the validity or applicability of their responses. Furthermore, it is acknowledged that, due to the style of the questionnaire, it is possible that some participants may have understood the questionnaire to be a promotion of translanguaging and thus answered favourably in an attempt to placate the interests or wishes of the researcher.

However, based on the reported use of Japanese in the English classroom and the conflicts that exist between government policy and classroom practices, there certainly does appear to be a theoretical space for a translanguaging approach to EFL education in Japan, and its introduction would not be overly difficult. A small change in the government's FL policies is the first step. Based on the results of the present study, it would seem as though the use of, and preference for, the L1 is still high in the Japanese EFL context. This suggests that perhaps the jump from a Japanese-dominated EFL classroom to an immersive, predominantly English-based classroom is too large for a society that has, for so long now, relied on their native language in the learning of an FL. An intermedial step is required to bridge the overwhelming gap between MEXT's policy ideals and the realities of the current Japanese EFL classroom, and a translanguaging approach is one such pedagogy that could provide that. Future research would look at the potential for a translanguaging approach from an empirical and, ideally, longitudinal perspective, examining the actual in-class effects of the approach in action. Furthermore, although the present study centered on the tertiary level, that is certainly not to say the findings do not apply to junior and senior high school in which the use of the L1 is more frequent. Future research would also examine the empirical effects of a translanguaging approach across various institutional levels to gain a broader perspective of how the approach may affect EFL education in Japan on the whole.

That said, speaking from a theoretical perspective, the manner in which Japanese is currently employed for various functions could be strategically morphed into a translanguaging approach if some important conditions can be filled. First, a change in the mindset surrounding FL education and, in particular, FL learners is required, so that the bilingual nature of both are recognised. In doing so, the manner in which Japanese is currently employed could shift towards more translingual practices that involve the active and strategic use of learners' complete linguistic repertoires to develop the weaker TL. The success of this would depend largely on how well teachers and students alike are willing to accept it and would be further influenced by the level of training and education provided to both parties. The present study suggests that some teachers and students are at least willing to attempt a translanguaging approach in Japan; sufficient training for teachers, and the subsequent in-class training to be provided to students, would help to alleviate the misconceptions and misunderstandings surrounding the notion of translanguaging that were found in this study.

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Appendix A

L1 Use in Japanese EFL Education: Teacher Questionnaire

Section 1: Introduction

1. What is your gender?
   (a) Male (b) Female
2. To which age group do you belong?
   (a) < 25
   (b) 26-30
   (c) 31-35
   (d) 36-40
   (e) 41-45
   (f) 46-50
   (g) 51-55
   (h) 56-60
   (i) > 60
3. What is your native language?
   (a) Japanese (go to Question 4)
   (b) English (go to Question 6)
   (c) Other (go to Question 6)
4. For how long have you studied English?
   _____
5. Have you ever studied overseas? If so, where and for how long
   _____
6. Do you speak Japanese?
   (a) Yes, fluently
   (b) Yes, I can get by comfortably
   (c) Yes, I can hold a basic conversation
   (d) I can understand some things, but cannot speak very well
   (e) No, not at all
   (f) Other _____
7. For how long have you been teaching EFL in Japan?
   _____
8. At which type of institution do you currently teach EFL?
   (a) Public university
   (b) Private university
   (c) National university
   (d) Other _____

9. Which level of English do you currently teach?
   (a) Beginner
   (b) Lower intermediate
   (c) Intermediate
   (d) Upper intermediate
   (e) Advanced
10. What kind of English class do you currently teach?
   (a) General English
   (b) English reading
   (c) English writing (general)
   (d) Academic writing
   (e) English for Academic Purposes (EAP)
   (f) English for Specific Purposes (ESP)
   (g) English conversation
   (h) English listening
   (i) English grammar
   (j) Other _____
11. What is the main pedagogical approach you choose to employ in your EFL classroom?
   (a) Communicative language teaching (CLT)
   (b) The Direct Method
   (c) Grammar Translation
   (d) Immersion
   (e) PPP (presentation, practice, production)
   (f) No method in particular
   (g) Other _____

Section 2: Teacher's Use of the L1

12. How often do you utilise your students' first language (L1) in the English classroom?
   (a) Always (80-100% of the time)
   (b) Often (60-80% of the time)
   (c) Sometimes (40-60% of the time)
   (d) Seldom (20-40% of the time)
   (e) Rarely (1-20% of the time)
   (f) Never (0% of the time)

13. In what situations do you utilise the students' L1?

- ☐ Explaining English grammar
- ☐ Explaining English vocabulary
- ☐ Explaining English texts
- ☐ Explaining Western culture/ideologies
- ☐ Explaining English listening passages
- ☐ Comparing English and Japanese structures
- ☐ Repeating something in Japanese after saying it first in English
- ☐ Engaging in small-talk with your students
- ☐ To give instructions
- ☐ For time efficiency
- ☐ To provide feedback
- ☐ To give students advice on effective studying methods
- ☐ For classroom management (administration, discussing the course, etc.)
- ☐ For behavioural management (discipline, student organisation, etc.)
- ☐ For task management (instructions, ensure comprehension, maintain task flow, etc.)
- ☐ To ask students questions
- ☐ To answer students' questions
- ☐ To summarise what has been covered
- ☐ Other _____

Section 3: Students' Use of the L1

15. Do you allow your students to utilise their L1 in the EFL classroom?

(a) Yes, often
(b) Yes, sometimes
(c) No, not really
(d) No, never
(e) Other _____

16. How often do you allow your students to use their L1 in class?

(a) Always (80-100% of the time)
(b) Often (60-80% of the time)
(c) Sometimes (40-60% of the time)
(d) Seldom (20-40% of the time)
(e) Rarely (1-20% of the time)
(f) Never (0% of the time)

17. For what purposes do you allow your students to use their L1? (continue to question 21)
    - ☐ To discuss grammar
    - ☐ To discuss vocabulary
    - ☐ To discuss culture
    - ☐ To understand new concept better
    - ☐ To ask questions to the teacher
    - ☐ To answer questions from the teacher
    - ☐ To compare English and Japanese
    - ☐ To translate what has been said
    - ☐ To plan L2 writing tasks
    - ☐ To aid L2 reading comprehension
    - ☐ To aid L2 listening comprehension
    - ☐ For time efficiency
    - ☐ To discuss the lesson with classmates/friends
    - ☐ To make study notes
    - ☐ To allow students to express their true identities
    - ☐ Other _____

Section 4: A Translanguaging Approach to EFL Education

18. To what extent do you agree with the idea that foreign language education could/should be considered bilingual education?

    Not at all (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) Completely agree

19. Why do you think this?

    _____

20. If you were to place your students somewhere along this bilingual continuum, whereby 1 means 'not at all bilingual' and 10 means 'bilingual', in general, where would you place your students?

    Not at all bilingual (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (10) Completely bilingual

21. How much do you know about a 'translanguaging approach' to foreign language education?
    - (a) I know it very well
    - (b) I know a little bit about it
    - (c) I've heard of it, but do not know much about it
    - (d) I know very little about it
    - (e) I have never heard of it
    - (f) Other _____

22. Based on the above definition of translanguaging, does it sound like a pedagogical concept you would like to know more about?
    (a) Yes, definitely
    (b) Yes, a little bit
    (c) Maybe
    (d) No, probably not
    (e) No, definitely not
23. Would you be willing to try out a translanguaging approach to L2 education in your EFL classroom?
    (a) Yes, definitely (go to Question 24)
    (b) Yes, I would at least try it (go to Question 24)
    (c) Maybe (go to Question 24)
    (d) No, probably not (go to Question 25)
    (e) No, definitely not (go to Question 25)
24. Please explain why you would like to try a translanguaging approach to EFL education in your classroom?

    _____

25. Please explain why you would not like to try a translanguaging approach to EFL education in your classroom?

    _____

Appendix B

L1 Use in Japanese EFL Education: Student Questionnaire

Section 1: Introduction

1. What is your gender? 性別は何ですか。
    (a) Male (男性)
    (b) Female (女性)
2. To which age group do you belong? どの年齢層に入りますか。
    (a) < 17
    (b) 18-20
    (c) 21-23
    (d) 24-26
    (e) 27+
3. What is your native language? 母国語は何ですか。
    (a) Japanese (日本語)
    (b) Other (その他) _____
4. For how long have you been studying English? どのくらいの期間英語を勉強していますか。

    _____

5. Which type of institution do you currently attend? 現在どのような大学で英語を勉強していますか。
   (a) Public university (公立大学)
   (b) Private university (私立大学)
   (c) National university (国立大学)
   (d) College (専門学校)
   (e) Other (その他) _____
6. What level of English classes do you currently take? 現在どのレベルの英語の授業を受けていますか。
   (a) Beginner (初級)
   (b) Lower intermediate (準中級)
   (c) Intermediate (中級)
   (d) Upper intermediate (中級上)
   (e) Advanced (上級)
7. What kind of English class(es) do you currently take? 現在どのような英語の授業を受けていますか。
   (a) General English (一般英語)
   (b) Reading (読解)
   (c) General writing (作文)
   (d) English academic writing (アカデミック・ライティング)
   (e) English for academic purposes (EAP) (学術英語)
   (f) English for specific purposes (ESP) (特定の目的のための英語)
   (g) Conversation (会話)
   (h) Listening (聴解)
   (i) Grammar (文法)
   (j) Other (その他) _____
8. Have you studied overseas before? 海外で英語を勉強したことがありますか。
   (a) Yes (ある) (go to Question 9)
   (b) No (ない) (go to Question 10)
9. Where, and for how long, did you study overseas? どこ・どのくらいの期間海外で勉強しましたか。

   _____

Section 2: Teacher Use of L1

10. What nationality is your English teacher? あなたの英語の先生は何人ですか。
    (a) Japanese (日本人)
    (b) Native English speaker (ネイティブ)
    (c) I have both (どちらもいます)
    (d) Other (その他) _____

11. How often does your English teacher utilise your first language (L1) in the English classroom? あなたの先生は英語の授業でどれほど日本語を使用していますか。

(a) Always (いつも) (80-100%)
(b) Often (よく) (60-80%)
(c) Sometimes (ときどき) (40-60%)
(d) Seldom (あまり) (20-40%)
(e) Rarely (めったに) (1-20%)
(f) Never (ぜんぜん) (0%)

12. For what reasons does your teacher use Japanese in your English classroom? あなたの先生は英語の授業でどのような場面で日本語を使用しますか。

☐ Explaining English grammar (英語の文法を説明する時)
☐ Explaining English vocabulary (英語の語彙を説明する時)
☐ Explaining Western culture/ideologies (英語の文化などを説明する時)
☐ Explaining English texts (英文を説明する時)
☐ Explaining English listening passages (英語の聞き取りパッセージを説明する時)
☐ Comparing English and Japanese structures (英語と日本語を比べる時)
☐ Repeating something in Japanese after saying it first in English (最初に英語で言ってから日本語で繰り返す時)
☐ Engaging in small-talk with your students (生徒と世間話をする時)
☐ To save time (時間を節約する時)
☐ To give instructions (指示を出す時)
☐ To give feedback (フィードバックする時)
☐ To give advice on study methods (勉強方法についてアドバイスをする時)
☐ For classroom management (administration, discussing the course, etc.) (学級経営の為。例えば、コースについて話したりするなど)
☐ For behavioural management (discipline, student organisation, etc.) (行動管理の為。例えば、規律や生徒の管理など)
☐ For task management (instructions, ensuring comprehension, maintaining task flow, etc.) (タスク管理の為。例えば、指示や理解の確認など)
☐ To ask students questions (生徒に質問をする時)
☐ To answer students' questions (生徒の質問に答える時)
☐ To summarise the lesson (授業を要約する時)

Section 3: Own Use of L1

13. Does your teacher allow you to use Japanese in your English classroom?
英語の授業で日本語を使っても、先生は構いませんか。
(a) Yes (はい、かまいません) (b) No (いいえ、かまいます)

14. How often are you allowed to use Japanese in the English classroom?
英語の授業で、どのくらい日本語を使ってもいいですか。
(a) Always (いつも) (80-100%) (d) Seldom (あまり) (20-40%)
(b) Often (よく) (60-80%) (e) Rarely (めったに) (1-20%)
(c) Sometimes (ときどき) (40-60%) (f) Never (ぜんぜん) (0%)

15. For what purpose(s) do you use Japanese when studying English?
授業以外で自分で英語を勉強している時に、何のために日本語を使用しますか。
☐ To translate and better understand new vocabulary
(新しい語彙を訳してもっと深く理解するため)
☐ To translate and better understand new grammar items
(新しい文法を訳してもっと深く理解するため)
☐ To better understand difficult concepts
(難しい概念をもっと深く理解するため)
☐ To better understand cultural items (文化をもっと深く理解するため)
☐ To translate and better understand reading texts
(英文を訳してもっと深く理解するため)
☐ To translate and better understand listening passages
(英語のリスニングを訳してもっと深く理解するため)
☐ To compare English and Japanese (英語と日本語を比べるため)
☐ To plan my essays (英語のエッセイを計画するため)
☐ To translate and better understand what I hear
(聞いたことを訳してもっと深く理解するため)
☐ To save time (時間を節約するため)
☐ To ask the teacher questions (先生に質問をするため)
☐ To answer the teacher's questions (先生の質問に答えるため)
☐ To discuss with friends about our English class
(友達と英語の授業について話すため)
☐ To easily make study notes (簡単に勉強のノートを取るため)
☐ To express my true identity (自分の本当にアイデンティティーを表すため)
☐ Other (その他) _____

Section 4: Translanguaging

16. To what extent do you agree with the idea that "foreign language education should be thought of as bilingual education"? 「外国語教育とはバイリンガル教育である」という考えについて、どれほど賛成しますか。

Not at all (賛成しない) (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) Completely agree (賛成する)

17. If you were to place yourself somewhere along this scale from 1 to 10, where would you place yourself? このスケールの１から１０まで、どこに自分を置きますか。

Not at all bilingual (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (10) Completely bilingual
(全然バイリンガルじゃない) (バイリンガル)

18. Why do you think this? なぜそう思いますか。

_____

19. Would you like to try a translanguaging approach to studying English in Japan? 日本の英語教育でトランスランゲージングをやってみたいと思いますか。
    (a) Yes, definitely (はい、ぜひやりたいと思います) (go to Question 20)
    (b) Yes, I would at least try it (はい、少なくともやってみたいと思います) (go to Question 20)
    (c) Maybe (多分) (go to Question 20)
    (d) No, probably not (いいえ、あまりやってみたくないと思います) (go to Question 21)
    (e) No, definitely not (いいえ、全然やりたくないと思います) (go to Question 21)

20. Why do you think a translanguaging approach to studying English in Japan would be beneficial? 日本の英語教育でトランスランゲージングを使用することは良いことだと思いますか。それはなぜですか。

_____

21. Why do you think a translanguaging approach to studying English in Japan would be bad? 日本の英語教育でトランスランゲージングを使用することは良くないことだと思いますか。それはなぜですか。

_____

Reviews

Input-Based Tasks in Foreign Language Instruction for Young Learners. Natsuko Shintani. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins, 2016. xi + 198 pp.

Reviewed by
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Natsuko Shintani's text is an account of the author's research into the use of a modified form of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) with young learners, which she suggests as an alternative to traditional pedagogical approaches such as presentation, practice, production (PPP). The author's term, *input-based tasks,* refers to "listen and do tasks" (p. 7) that do not require verbal responses. Dissatisfaction with traditional language teaching methodology influenced the development of Shintani's strong interest in TBLT as a method to teach language to her young learners and raise their communicative competence. This book, Shintani's first as the sole author, builds upon much of her earlier research, with many of her previously published articles touching upon the key topics found in this text.

Shintani first discusses input-focused TBLT and considers both the research context and the theoretical foundations of TBLT. She then details her method-comparison study and research questions before presenting the results for these. In closing, both theoretical and pedagogical implications are considered prior to the author's conclusions.

In Chapter 1, on page 4, Shintani refers to Ellis's (2003) definition of TBLT, in which language is an outcome-achieving tool, meaning takes precedence over form, learners depend upon their own resources rather than a specified target language, and a need to communicate exists. The influence of Rod Ellis is prominent throughout the text: His work is frequently referenced, and he is acknowledged for his assistance in developing this research. However, Shintani does take the TBLT methodology beyond that envisioned by Ellis, as TBLT was initially developed for learners with specific linguistic needs.

However, as Cameron (2001) noted, many learners' circumstances provide no needs-related syllabus. The learners in this study are such a case: Japanese beginners, aged 6, who are unlikely to need English beyond the classroom. As beginners, these learners would likely have limited conversational skills and therefore would encounter difficulties completing tasks in which spoken output is necessary. The author notes that most tasks featured in TBLT literature require learner output (p. 7), and therefore refines her TBLT approach, concentrating this study upon noncollaborative, input-focused tasks, in which learners must respond with appropriate actions to teacher instructions. These tasks were largely information-gap, focused primarily on meaning, and had clearly defined outcomes. An example of a task used is the *Help the Animals* task (p. 68): To complete the task, learners were required to match animal cards with target item cards in response to the teacher's statements. Spoken output was not necessary to enable task completion, yet it was not discouraged.

In Chapter 2, Shintani summarizes the language-learning circumstance in Japanese education, describing it as a "difficult context" (p. 11) for teachers or curriculum designers to introduce and implement TBLT. Complications discussed range from factors such as an exam-oriented system to prevailing negative attitudes towards TBLT in the wider teaching community. Though TBLT aims to foster communicative skills, circumstantial difficulties hinder the progress towards achieving the government target of developing learner communicative competence (see MEXT, 2014).

In Chapter 3, Shintani addresses key questions regarding the theoretical basis of TBLT, focusing particularly on input-derived language acquisition. The research of Krashen (1982) into language *acquisition*, which is defined as the unconscious learning of language distinct from intended *learning*, features frequently because it is a central issue for Shintani.

In the next four chapters, Shintani covers the study design and the results collected. She begins Chapter 4 by listing four research questions that consider (a) how classroom process features differ between PPP and TBLT methods, (b) which method results in greater vocabulary acquisition, (c) which method more effectively facilitates incidental grammar acquisition, and (d) what relationship is suggested between process and product for both methods. The author then attentively documents the comparative study conducted at her private language school, in which two groups of young learners studied the same target vocabulary and grammar via two different teaching methods. The lessons with the PPP group had clearly specified learning goals and the teacher followed standard PPP procedure

to target these goals. However, in the lessons with the TBLT group, learners performed various input-focused tasks (e.g., information-gap activities) that had specific task goals rather than language goals.

The author presents the results of the first three research questions over the next three chapters. Chapter 5 is focused on instruction-giving and the repair of mistakes for both treatment groups. Through conversation analysis, the author concludes that instructions in her PPP classes were largely form focused, whereas in TBLT classes they were predominantly meaning focused, with tasks having created the contexts through which learners could process meanings. Chapters 6 and 7 provide a substantial volume of statistical data through which the author shows that TBLT was more successful for vocabulary acquisition, which is attributable to such factors as more contextualized input for vocabulary; that is, target language was embedded in sentences rather than learned in isolation from context. The author also reports that incidental grammar acquisition only occurred for TBLT learners, because successful task completion for these learners depended upon them correctly understanding the grammatical content.

In Chapter 8, Shintani presents her theoretical implications of the study, which relate to the foundations of TBLT discussed in Chapter 3. In these implications, she indicates possible directions for future research into TBLT, in particular the need to conduct research with older or more advanced learners, because as Shintani concedes, her research was limited to young beginners. She speculates that older, more cognitively mature students may be able to gain benefits from PPP (p. 153).

This is followed in Chapter 9 by the pedagogical implications, which relate to the contextual issues discussed in Chapter 2. Regarding pedagogy, the author analyzes the use of TBLT with young learners and considers a number of contextual issues concerning English teaching in Japan. Many of these implications depart from a comparison of methods and instead focus upon possible TBLT implementation. This contribution is notable considering the lack of TBLT awareness and training in Japan. Shintani then considers the potential next stage for teachers wishing to further their use of TBLT by presenting two examples of more advanced tasks involving both input and output. These tasks, which relate to the same principles upon which her tasks were based, involve more demanding topics (p. 166) and a greater emphasis on learner collaboration.

There are two particularly positive aspects of this book. First, the author presents materials in depth. In particular, the context and background are extensively researched and discussed in a highly readable manner. Sec-

ond, though primarily focusing on her research, the author includes many thought-provoking comments and ideas that stimulate contemplation beyond the initial scope of the study. For example, topics such as how a teacher's role varies depending upon the teaching method or how views of language learning manifest themselves in class resonate throughout the text without necessarily being the immediate focus in question: whether TBLT is a viable alternative to PPP.

With the broader introduction of English at the elementary level of Japanese education, research such as this will prove valuable in devising a curriculum suitable for young learners. Though this thoughtful and detailed text would be useful for curriculum designers and policy makers, most likely it will gain attention chiefly from those already favoring and/or exploring communicative approaches such as TBLT. As such, it may not receive the full audience it deserves. This text is, however, a welcome addition to the ever-growing selection of TBLT literature because it highlights key circumstantial features for young learners and their teachers before developing an appropriate form of TBLT to suit them.

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English as Medium of Instruction in Japanese Higher Education: Presumption, Mirage or Bluff? Glenn Toh. London, England: Palgrave Macmillan, 2017. xi + 213 pp.

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As the Japanese government calls for expanded English instruction as a means to creating *guroubaru jinzai* (global human resources), more and more English medium instruction (EMI) programs are being created at the university level. In 2014, undergraduate degree programs taught exclusively in English were offered in 48 faculties at 24 universities. These numbers increased to 73 and 40, respectively, in 2015 (MEXT, 2017). *English as Medium of Instruction in Japanese Higher Education: Presumption, Mirage or Bluff?* is an examination of the status quo of EMI and an assessment of its effectiveness. Toh seems to answer the question posed in the title when he identifies at the outset that one of the reasons he wrote the book was to "call . . . the bluff" (p. 2) of the administration of a university at which he had an unfortunate experience. However, this may result in the reader sensing from the start that this text is more subjective than objective; as the reader moves through the book, this suggestion is confirmed.

The book, an amalgamation of several of the author's previously published articles and book chapters, begins with an extensive discussion of the various underlying symptoms of what Toh describes as "an extremely difficult, if not unsustainable, undertaking" (p. 2)—the implementation of EMI in the Japanese university context.

In Chapter 2, Toh identifies two contributing factors to the failure of the EMI program in the aforementioned university: the underlying purpose of the EMI and the profile of the students in the program. The EMI program was devised as a marketing tool to attract foreign students in an attempt to address the domestic demographic trend, which is an issue especially critical for smaller and lower ranking universities. This plan failed though, and in order to meet enrollment numbers, the university had to enroll more domestic students. Many of those students were later found to lack the English proficiency necessary to study in an EMI curriculum. Chapter 3 is a survey of sociopolitical developments, including the rise of the "insular[ly] conservative" Liberal Democratic Party and *nihonjinron*, the post-WWII

ideological positioning of Japan as a linguistically, ethnically, and culturally homogenous country (Liddicoat, 2007). Toh explains how this perpetuation of the Japanese language and culture as unique has necessitated the careful control of the English language curriculum, in effect preventing the development of students who could or would benefit from a university-level EMI program.

In Chapter 4, Toh explores the concept of power as a social construct and how power is exercised on foreign instructors through employment practices. Toh also presents a valid argument that high scores on standardized English language tests (TOEFL, TOEIC, etc.) do not necessarily equate with the ability needed to participate actively and effectively in EMI at the tertiary level with its demands for critical thinking and communication skills.

Chapter 5 is theoretically based, in which Toh examines the concept of academic literacy, which the author explains as knowledge that emerges from a social context through negotiation amongst actors within the context. This contrasts with "closed knowledge"—a government-controlled, acontextual list of facts and information that does not promote intellectual development. Toh argues that students who have completed the Japanese education system based on closed knowledge are ill-equipped to participate in EMI, in which students are expected to "interact with and dialogize existing configurations of knowledge in their area of study" (p. 77). Toh contends that, without a student body with both the linguistic and the critical inquiry skills demanded by more rigorous academic programs, EAP courses within those programs will be reduced to remedial English lessons. Toh's concerns about thrusting unprepared students into programs where they will be expected to question and debate are valid, as is his thinly veiled criticism of some EAP instructors who he suggests are lacking the requisite academic literacy themselves.

In Chapter 6, Toh calls for the de-anglicization of the English used in EMI programs. He argues that the incorporation of various varieties of English, including the hiring of native speakers from nonwestern countries and also nonnative speakers for teaching positions, would expose learners to the "plural and hybridized character" of English (p. 94). Toh suggests this would also present English as a tool for communication rather than a single correct set of norms to achieve, subsequently creating an environment in which students would feel less pressured to perform prescriptively. Students, he argues, would open up more in class, indeed be more willing to voice their opinions, and in turn become better English speakers. The main thrust of Chapter 7 is that "EMI is appropriated" (p. 122) for various uses or purposes

by institutions, resulting in a loss of its value as a tool for academic inquiry, the pursuit of knowledge, and intellectual debate. This argument, however, is based on a survey of EMI program websites, which as a genre are likely designed for marketing purposes. Toh's argument would be stronger had he examined the actual programs themselves. Instead, the writer relies on the example of his own failed program to make claims more broadly about EMIs in Japan.

This regular reliance on only one example to support his otherwise valid points is one weakness of the book. Another weakness is the consistent perception that he is the victim of "palpable paternalistic incompetence and egoism" (p. 2). The book begins to lose focus in Chapter 8 as the author denounces (a) the rejection of one of his manuscripts by a publication, (b) the ambiguous use of linguistic terminology by professionals in Japan, and (c) the oppression of Japanese speakers of English by "social policing" (p. 150). The source of the author's tenable frustration is explained in detail in Chapters 9 and 10—the auto-ethnological story of the pseudonymous Chishiki Faculty of Universal Leadership is good reading, and its rise and fall is easy to understand. In Chapter 11 Toh concludes that it is audacious to attempt to use EMI to coyly recruit students from outside of Japan to fill the enrollment deficits resulting from a declining population (p. 196) and that the superficial use of the EMI label to market any parts of Japan's tertiary education system as internationalized reveals a lack of morals, ethics, and professionalism (p. 198).

Toh has clearly researched well the influences of history and politics on education in Japan and presents his main points of dissention deliberately and logically. The early chapters, highly reliant on secondary sources, read at times like a literature review. Unfortunately, however, the reader can clearly sense from early on resentment on the author's part. Readers familiar with the Japanese education system in general, and the Japanese university climate in particular, will likely be able to ignore or pass over this overt subjectivity. However, Toh's real and sincere criticism of a half-baked EMI program gone bad greatly risks misleading less knowledgeable readers into thinking that this is an inevitable scenario or even just the norm. In addition to laying the blame for the failure of the EMI described in the book on institutional failures within a stubborn nationalist environment, Toh suggests that EMI is a nonstarter for higher education in Japan.

The inclusion of an auto-ethnography results in an overlap of the personal and the professional and risks inviting vulnerability for the writer across both personal and professional spheres. However, it also creates "opportu-

nities for radical reworking of categories of thought and action, including those that cross boundaries between fields or professions" (Denshire, 2014, p. 841). Nevertheless, the defensive tone used throughout this book may prevent the reader from accepting Toh's argument as genuinely objective. Furthermore, although Toh offers a detailed analysis of how Japan has institutionalized forces that in essence preclude the legitimization of EMIs, the author fails to consider changes occurring in Japanese education that might eventually cultivate students with the skills he has identified as necessary for EMI. Such changes include the expansion of English instruction at the elementary level and the introduction of International Baccalaureate programs at the secondary level, not to mention the eventual retirement of both bureaucratic and academic actors who have been resistant to change. Without such considerations, Toh has seemingly prematurely closed the door on the future of EMI in Japan.

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The Usage-Based Study of Language Learning and Multilingualism. Lourdes Ortega, Andrea E. Tyler, Hae In Park, and Mariko Uno (Eds.). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press, 2016. xvi + 290 pp.

Reviewed by
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The Usage-Based Study of Language Learning and Multilingualism is an edited volume that brings together language experts in the exploration of the notion that meaning and structure emerge from language use. Editors Ortega, Tyler, Park, and Uno contribute to the investigation of language acquisition and multilingual development by compiling 13 original usage-based studies drawn from diverse target languages, including Cantonese, English, Finnish, French, French Sign Language (FSL), German, Hebrew, Hokkien (a Chinese dialect from the southern part of Fujian province), Malay, Mandarin, Spanish, and Swedish.

The first chapter serves as an introduction to the collection, and the remaining 13 chapters are divided among four broad themes: (a) longitudinal studies of language interactions, (b) corpus-aided studies of learner language, (c) experimental studies of usage-based processing and learning, and (d) studies of human communication outside of laboratory or educational settings.

In the introductory chapter, Ortega and Tyler succinctly define the concept and key notions of usage-based language learning and establish the importance of this perspective in the study of language development. The chapter is rounded out by thorough descriptions of the four general themes and the studies that address each of them.

The first theme, longitudinal studies of language interactions, is addressed in five wide-ranging chapters that explore various aspects of multilingual language development. The first study under this theme by Aliyah Morgenstern, Pauline Beaupoil-Hourdel, Marion Blondel, and Dominique Boutet (Chapter 2) follows the French, British English, and FSL language development of four children from birth to 3 years of age. The authors conclude that parental communicative pressure and frequency of input affect each child's learning trajectory. In Chapter 3, Ursula Kania examines whether children interpret indirect speech acts in English and German as commands or as

requests for information. The results indicate that not only can the children understand the nonliteral meaning of indirect speech acts, they can also reproduce them. Gilad Brandes and Dorit Ravid (Chapter 4) look at Hebrew prepositional phrases of manner in a cross-sectional study of 80 written narratives from participants ranging from fourth graders to university students. Their findings indicate that age and schooling increase the prevalence and internal complexity of the prepositional phrases. The next study by Taina Tammelin-Laine and Maisa Martin (Chapter 5) explores the development of the Finnish L2 negation utterances of four women who are L1 illiterate. The findings show that, rather than learning by general rules, usage-based evidence emerges because these women had all learned negative speech patterns from exemplars. In the final study under this theme, Amy S. Thompson (Chapter 6) develops the construct of *perceived positive language interaction* to better understand how multilingual college students view their own language learning. Thompson finds that some language learners believe that knowing multiple languages facilitates learning additional languages.

The next four chapters of the book cover corpus-aided studies of learner language, which have employed corpus techniques to compile cross-sectional data from language instruction situations. Stefanie Wulff (Chapter 7) analyzes the spoken and written variable use of the *that* complementizer by German and Spanish learners of English. She concludes that variation in the use of the complementizer is derived from exemplar-based input rather than rules taught during foreign language instruction. In Chapter 8, Bret Linford, Avizia Long, Megan Solon, and Kimberly L. Geeslin explore L1 and L2 Spanish speakers' use of subject forms. Their findings indicate that, because this topic does not receive much attention during language instruction, differences in the subject expression frequency of these two groups can be due to usage-based input. Monika Ekiert (Chapter 9) studies article usage in written L2 English narratives by Polish speakers. Past researchers have focused on L2 article acquisition, but Ekiert examines the language patterns that learners use in lieu of correct article usage. Helen Zhao and Fenfen Le explore in Chapter 10 how frequency, semantic transparency, and L2 learner proficiency impact the phrasal verb comprehension of Chinese L1 learners of English. Their findings indicate that low proficiency English learners show a better understanding of high-frequency phrasal verbs than would normally be expected and that teachers should try to increase exposure to lower frequency phrasal verbs.

The third theme, experimental studies of usage-based processing and learning, consists of two chapters that move away from the previous sec-

tions' explorations of language development at home or in the classroom and into the realm of experimental approaches to understanding usage-based language learning. Silvia Marijuan, Sol Lago, and Cristina Sanz (Chapter 11) investigate whether L1 word-order transfer effects cause advanced Spanish learners difficulty when processing subject-verb-object (SVO) versus object-verb-subject (OVS) sentences. Their findings indicate that even these emerging bilinguals misinterpret the OVS sentences because they rely too heavily on generating meaning from the grammatical word order of their L1. In Chapter 12, Maryia Fedzechkina, Elissa L. Newport, and T. Florian Jaegar use miniature artificial languages, which are researcher-constructed languages designed for laboratory use, to expose participants to cross-linguistic language patterns that frequently occur. The authors explain that gradual changes in language occur because adults tend to simply reproduce the miniature artificial languages, but children are more likely to alter the language in some ways.

Two chapters cover the final theme, studies of human communication outside of laboratory or educational settings. Unlike the previous studies in the book, these researchers focus on conversations produced through human interaction in natural settings. In the first study (Chapter 13), authors Diana Slade, Christian M. I. M. Matthiessen, Graham Lock, Jack Pun, and Marvin Lam analyze audio recordings of two doctor–patient conversations employing very different communication strategies. Their discovery shows that information exchanges using closed questions lead to less effective hospital consultations, a reduction in patient satisfaction, and a decrease in patient safety. Michel Achard and Sarah Lee (Chapter 14) study the code-switching patterns of multilingual speakers in Kuala Lumpur where there is a high rate of cross-linguistic contact. Their findings show that since the multilingual environment of Kuala Lumpur influences the code-switching accommodations and use of blended grammar units in spoken language, even in monolingual conversations, the usage-based language learning model is strongly supported.

The diverse range of target languages presented in this book contribute to the usage-based language learning notion that it is "interpersonal communicative and cognitive processes that everywhere and always shape language" (Slobin, 1997, p. 267). Moreover, the central theme of the usage-based approach to language acquisition, that humans have a unique ability to understand the intention of language through its symbolic dimension (Tomasello, 2005), is reaffirmed by the diverse backgrounds and experiences of the subjects in each study. Another important aspect of this text is

that although certain topics, such as phrasal verbs, articles, or code-switching, have been studied extensively elsewhere, they are viewed here from a rarely addressed, usage-based perspective. Finally, this book shows that the usage-based perspective of language learning can be applied to a variety of language learning and language use contexts for both native and nonnative speakers.

Unfortunately, there is a shortcoming in *The Usage-Based Study of Language Learning and Multilingualism* that should be mentioned. Although some of the studies use clear and concise language to describe their research methods and findings and provide the necessary detail to make replication possible, others assume that the reader has a deep and firm understanding of linguistic jargon. The result is that their discussions would seem only accessible to the most ardent linguists. On that basis, this book may not be for all researchers interested in usage-based approaches to language learning. Readers looking for a more fundamental entry point into understanding usage-based language learning may want to read Tomasello's (2005) *Constructing a Language: A Usage-Based Theory of Language Acquisition.* Despite this concern, the editors have largely succeeded in presenting a thoughtful and thought-provoking volume on how language is acquired through meaningful input.

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Team Teaching and Team Learning in the Language Classroom: Collaboration for Innovation in ELT. Akira Tajino, Tim Stewart, and David Dalsky (Eds.). New York, NY: Routledge, 2016. xx + 196 pp.

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For those who are just beginning to team teach and are looking for ideas or for those who are interested in learning more about the current state of team teaching, *Team Teaching and Team Learning in the Language Classroom: Collaboration for Innovation in ELT* provides an important discussion of collaboration and innovation in the language classroom. The book focuses on the ways in which team teaching has developed and is being applied in classroom settings in various contexts. One overarching theme in this book is that innovation, both in and out of the classroom, can be used to create social awareness. This is expressed throughout the book as the authors discuss ways to develop collaboration between teachers and teachers, and teachers and students. The authors focus on different aspects of team teaching, basing their analysis on theoretical underpinnings while explaining how those theories work, or fail to work, in real classroom settings. From the success of the Peace Corps (Chapter 5) to the failure of virtual collaboration (Chapter 11), this book covers a range of teaching situations and highlights their strengths and weaknesses.

The book is broken up into three sections. In Part 1, "Characterizing ELT Collaboration and Innovation," what collaboration and team teaching are in an ELT context is explained. Stewart begins by introducing the issues facing collaboration in the classroom and outlines the basis for team teaching. This first chapter details the benefits of team teaching and collaboration which are expanded upon in the following chapters. Tajino and Craig Smith (Chapter 2) discuss the issues facing team teaching in Japan, giving examples of team teaching working in different patterns of interactions between the two teachers and the students and how those different patterns can have different results. Team learning (as proposed by Tajino and Tajino, 2000) and collaboration are said to be the keys to creating successful learning environments. The chapter ends with the explanation that collaboration by all stakeholders places a "priority on enhanc[ing] 'quality of life' in the classroom" (p. 24). Several suggestions on how to do this are given, such as holding small group evaluations throughout the lesson to discuss thoughts and feelings related to classroom experiences.

Part 2, "Team Teaching Collaborations," includes specific examples involving several learning contexts. In Japan, Tatsuhiro Yoshida looks at the current state of team teaching in the JET Programme (Chapter 3), and Francesco Bolstad and Lori Zenuk-Nishide discuss the deficit model, in which the limitations of nonnative language teachers are compensated for by native speakers, and how that has shaped teaching dynamics (Chapter 6). In Chapter 4, Chris Davison evaluates collaboration and professional development at three different schools in Hong Kong using a multidimensional framework. On a related matter, in the seventh chapter, Chaoqi Fan and Yuen Yi Lo investigate the interdisciplinary collaboration between an English teacher and a science teacher at a secondary school in Hong Kong and how that collaboration influenced the writing of academic science texts. The English teacher provided support for students whose English was at a lower level and assisted them in improving their English writing skills as was required by the school. In Chapter 5, Bill Perry explains the team-teaching dynamic of those working in the US Peace Corps by covering the challenges of working with educators from diverse backgrounds in approximately 65 developing countries.

Part 3, "Collaborative Innovations Beyond Team Teaching," contains examples of collaboration implemented in different situations, from the use of technology to facilitate professional growth (Julian Edge and Mariam Attia, Chapter 8), to technology for collaborations between students (Dalsky and Mikel Garant, Chapter 11). Edge and Attia discuss the value of technology for professional development as a way to share ideas and information among educators. Dalsky and Garant detail the difficulties faced when students in different countries used email as the primary means of communication in a writing task. In Chapter 9, Stewart explains the difficulties in getting content teachers and ELT teachers to collaborate in a university context by highlighting the elements of personality and cultural differences that can hinder collaboration. This chapter shows the possible disconnect that can occur between mainstream content instructors and EFL specialists. David Rehorick and Sally Rehorick (Chapter 10) explain the concept of *leregogy*, a term which denotes the changing relationship between learner and teacher, wherein the learner and the teacher exchange roles. The chapter goes on to cover how this concept was implemented in the development of curricula. Finally, Hoa Thi Mai Nguyen (Chapter 12) ends the book by detailing professional development in Vietnamese schools that employ peer monitoring. This author stresses the cultural norms that are challenged through peer monitoring and the role that relationships between the mentors and new teachers have on professional growth.

The chapter authors and editors of this book have extensive experience in team teaching and collaboration with peers, and this is clear in their understanding and presentation of the complex issues that arise when trying to apply theory to the classroom. Rehorick and Rehorick, in particular, provide details on the method they used to design a multidimensional curriculum for university students grounded in content and language-integrated learning (CLIL). This curriculum was further integrated with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), and the European Language Portfolio (ELP; pp. 156-157). They show how theory can be used effectively in the creation of classrooms where collaboration and team learning thrive, and Table 10.1 (p. 148-149) shows the framework of their multidimensional curriculum.

Another good example is given in Chapter 3 by Yoshida, who takes a teaching situation (the JET Programme) similar to those across Japan and applies the framework created by Tajino and Tajino (2000) to explain what is happening in the classroom. This chapter examines a video-recorded team-taught lesson and the collaboration between the students and teachers to show how the classroom is socioculturally constructed.

Although the authors endeavor to provide a solid explanation of how theory and practice mesh, it is apparent that in many situations the interpersonal relationships can play a large role in the success or failure of team teaching. Although this issue is raised, little empirical evidence is presented to address it. Indeed, some evidence presented is based solely on the past experiences of the writers in different contexts (e.g., Chapters 6 and 8).

Overall this book succeeds in its purpose: The connection between practice and theory and how theoretical models can be applied to team teaching are explained. The importance of creating social awareness is evident in the overarching theme of collaboration. Throughout the chapters, it is made clear that communication and collaboration between educators can be a powerful tool for learning. Using some of the ideas outlined in this book, teachers can develop ideas for collaboration with their students and fellow teachers.

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Text-Based Research and Teaching: A Social Semiotic Perspective on Language in Use. Peter Mickan and Elise Lopez (Eds.). London, England: Palgrave Macmillan, 2017. xxiii + 372 pp.

Reviewed by
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This book clarifies how the concept of systemic functional linguistics (SFL)—language as a semiotic tool that allows people to negotiate, construct, and organize human experiences—is grounded in daily life, schools, and language education (see Halliday & Hasan, 1989). SFL researchers and practitioners such as Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) understand that language and its use should not be viewed in terms of the correctness based on grammatical rules but rather how social activity is expressed in communication and how language is shaped by social action. When individuals interact with each other, texts act as mediators and are consciously or unconsciously chosen according to the specific setting, with grammatical functions, structures, and vocabulary found therein.

The many studies in *Text-Based Research and Teaching* are underpinned by a linguistic theory in which not only the functioning of language but also language itself are viewed as being deeply related to the societal context in which the language is practiced. This book is an intriguing collection of 19 research articles that apply the concept of "language as a resource for the expression of meanings"—that is, a "social semiotic resource"—to teaching and learning (p. 16). In the Introduction, editors Lopez and Mickan introduce the concept of text-based research and teaching with texts in SFL. Text-based research refers to studies on both written and spoken texts that are contextualized language used for social purposes and situations.

Part I, entitled "Text-Based Research in Everyday Social Settings," comprises six chapters. In Chapter 2, Mickan discusses "researching authentic texts and teaching texts as acts of meaning" (p. 15), from a social semiotic perspective with the aim of renewing and transforming language teaching and curricula. He also discusses the study of texts and the reasons for adopting text-based and semiotic perspectives on language research. Although modified written and spoken target language texts are usually used in EFL classrooms, one of the essential concepts of the genre-based approach in SFL is for teachers, instructors, learners, and researchers to work with authentic

written and spoken texts. Using a corpus-driven analysis, Elizabeth Robertson Rose (Chapter 3) explores online media discourse in spoken texts. In the fourth chapter, Coral Campbell looks at "action" and "inaction" (p. 4) in how Federal Reserve Chairman Alan Greenspan semantically and syntactically encoded this experience during the 2007/8 financial crisis. Next, Amanda Janssen looks at a social semiotic multimodal analysis of discourse in banking in a chapter of the same name. Then, in Chapter 6, Lopez clarifies the link between linguistic and creative writing perspectives to analyze the narrative voice in memoirs. In the final chapter of Part I, Ribut Wahyudi explores calls for papers emailed from predatory publishers, which *JALT Journal* readers are likely receiving at an increasing rate.

Part II, entitled "Text-Based Language Pedagogy," consists of 12 research chapters. First, Celine P. Y. Chu analyzes teacher–student talk in ESL Year 6 and 7 classrooms, focusing on questions asked by new arrival students from migrant and refugee backgrounds during picture book reading. Although there is abundant research on applying an SFL- or text-based approach, also known as a genre approach, to learning English, in Chapter 9, Maggie Gu reports on observations and challenges in the analysis of Chinese language education classes at a high school in Adelaide in which a text-based teaching methodology is used. Ruth Widiastuti, in Chapter 10, evaluates a section from an Indonesian EFL textbook from the point of view of opportunities for meaning-making by learners. In Chapter 11, Melissa Bond explores how learners in a Year 10 German class at a high school came to understand the idea that texts are social semiotic tools through a combination of text-based teaching methods including extensive reading. Ten learners were exposed to different formats of written texts—letters, postcards, maps, and posters—related to a unit of work on World War II from the German perspective. Classroom observation data, book logs, assessment data, and surveys were analyzed, with the results suggesting that the average word length of learners' written texts increased across three writing tasks.

Jonghee Lee, in Chapter 12, examines how washback from the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) English in South Korea is reflected in high school English teaching and testing practices and explores the nature of the CSAT English spoken texts from the perspective of SFL. Lee claims that these examinations tend to have a low degree of interpersonal meaning and determined that these modified spoken texts usually include unnatural intonation and slower speaking speeds, which could impact learners' knowledge of how to respond to authentic English interaction. Sharif Moghaddam (Chapter 13) outlines text-based teaching and research into spoken argumentative texts

developed in the classroom by learners preparing for the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) examination. Moghaddam's research focused on three objectives: to explore verbal argumentative classroom texts for IETLS exams, to elaborate verbal argumentative texts which EFL learners develop, and to provide implications for IELTS preparation by learning to structure, stage, and organize target genre texts.

After 16 weeks of study, Raelke Grimmer (Chapter 14) reflects upon her own understanding of the Czech language in short spoken conversations and written micro stories. She finds that learning from authentic texts is beneficial from day one. In Chapter 15, Debbie G. E. Ho examines the move structure of target language texts written by her learners on tourist attraction places in Brunei and the thematic choices that the students made in their writing. Then, in Chapter 16, Hasti Rahmaningtyas, Yusnita Febrianiti, and Nina Inayati report on the use of a text-based approach in a speaking class and the implementation of "the teaching and learning cycle" by Feez and Joyce (1998). One of their findings is that text-based teaching provides an explicit framework for students' work.

In Chapter 17, Clare Knox records and observes ESL learners' lexicogrammatical practices and responses to multimodal texts over 10 weeks in an out-of-class Facebook group. Results show increased language and culture awareness and changes in identity as language learners. Tiffany Seok Yee Wong (Chapter 18) explores the changes in the academic discipline literacies of one international student in an Interior Architecture class where specific semiotic resources (e.g., drawing, sketching, tracing, wall pin-ups, and feedback exchange from lecturers and peers) were used for both knowledge building and skill development. In the final chapter, Mickan and Lopez summarize the potential for investigations of language use in different contexts of human experience and reveal the scope of text-based studies in business, media, and teaching.

SFL is a linguistic theory related to the relationship between social context and linguistic phenomena in which languages are considered to be shaped by users within social contexts. By meeting the aim to represent this theory in practice through empirical studies, *Text-Based Research and Teaching: A Social Semiotic Perspective on Language in Use* can provide a new perspective for literacy pedagogy. In Japan, where learners and researchers may not be aware of how to unpack or incorporate this social aspect of language in their classrooms, this book can enlighten EFL teachers and learners about new prospects for writing, reading, speaking, and listening skills.

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Transitions From Education to Work: Workforce Ready Challenges in the Asia Pacific. Roslyn Cameron, Subas Dhakal, and John Burgess (Eds.). London, England & New York, NY: Routledge, 2018. xii + 249 pp.

Reviewed by

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At first glance, a book on workforce readiness and employability in the Asia Pacific region would seem an odd fit for this journal, as it focuses neither on Japan nor language teaching. However, there are several salient issues discussed in this volume that could be applied to the situation of language teaching in Japan, particularly at the tertiary level. In particular, the nexus of "soft" skills—communication, English, critical thinking, and adaptability (pp. 22-24, p. 177)—commonly cited by employers as lacking in new recruits, can be readily accommodated into a language teaching curriculum.

The book is divided into three sections. It begins with two chapters that provide a broad overview of the problem of workplace readiness in the Asia Pacific region and a review of the relevant literature. The second section consists of nine country case studies examining Taiwan, Vietnam, Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore, India, Australia, Nepal, and Laos. Each case study discusses the social and economic factors that affect workplace readiness in the respective countries. The book concludes with two short chapters written by the editors where they consolidate the information presented, provide predictions of future trends, recommend ways to improve work readiness, and suggest avenues of future research.

The bulk of the book comprises the country studies that outline the educational system, demographic trends, key economic features, and a history of how the issue of workforce readiness has been or is being addressed. A snapshot of each country's labor market, educational structure, workplace-readiness issues, current initiatives and policies to address the issue, and suggested remedies is included in a convenient summary table at the end of each chapter to facilitate easier cross-national comparison. The research methodology of the chapters was basically a review and interpretation of information from secondary sources. The majority of the discussions were based on data obtained from reports on government labor statistics and industry surveys conducted by local governments, local or regional research institutions, and international organizations (e.g., UNESCO, OECD, or World Bank). The one exception (Chapter 6 covering Indonesia) included an original case study that effectively showcased, in an easy-to-comprehend way, the issues in workforce readiness and how two companies have faced the challenges of meeting their labor needs. The case study approach showed how the issue of work readiness can be related to interpersonal factors in management style and the specific nature of an industry. Particularly useful from the case study were the descriptions of the specific measures used to improve work readiness such as an internship program with a local vocational education institute, company-wide coaching on proper procedures, and recruitment based on specific rubrics of skills rather than personal connections.

The country studies span nations at several stages of economic development, from emerging economies such as Nepal and Laos, to rapidly developing nations such as Vietnam and Indonesia, to more mature economies such as Taiwan and Australia. In spite of differences in culture and economic development, there are striking similarities between the nations discussed in the book in terms of the issues regarding the mismatch between the set of abilities employers need and the skills being taught in universities. Rigid hierarchical structures and stagnant educational traditions and curricula that do not match with current economic or technological realities were common complaints as well as the quality and legitimacy of universities (particularly in emerging economies). These issues with university curricula have created a paradoxical situation in which there are a sufficient number of qualified people in terms of formal education but an insufficient number of candidates who are employable and have the necessary skills required by industry (p. 22). These complaints are also familiar here in Japan. For example, Kaneko (2011) found that 75% of graduates did not use the skills

or knowledge gained at university in their current jobs. This lack of practical skills, in turn, costs employers time and money in training, only to have the people they have developed poached by other companies once their skills improve.

Another barrier to workforce readiness was a willingness to work or continue to work. In Taiwan, youth who leave the workforce early are described as the "flash generation" and the "strawberry generation" because although they obtain employment, they frequently quit after a year or two because they are easily bruised (like a strawberry) by the realities of workplace pressures (p. 55). A similar situation regarding workforce readiness and willingness to work exists in Japan where, despite a recent positive report that 98% of new college graduates in Japan received employment offers ("Record 98%," 2018), there remain an estimated 1.7 million NEETs—youth not in education, employment, or training—representing 10% of the 15- to 24-year-old population (Osumi, 2017). Other Asia Pacific graduates prefer to remain unemployed after graduation rather than take a job perceived as difficult or with low status. This leads to a widespread phenomenon: Many of the youth seeking education, particularly tertiary education, as a way to social and economic advancement also find themselves with the highest levels of unemployment or underemployment even in countries with rapidly growing economies.

One of the shortcomings for many *JALT Journal* readers is that the book focuses largely on broader policy-level suggestions. Nevertheless, it does provide a useful international context to the issues facing new graduates. Although there are few hands-on, practical suggestions for implementing avenues to develop workforce readiness skills at the program or classroom level, the general conclusions and the trends and areas of further research shown indicate some ways to improve the work readiness of graduates. Furthermore, the editors emphasize the need for evidence-based decisions on the analysis, planning, and monitoring of skill gaps and the employment of new graduates by government and universities. There also needs to be increased cooperation and coordination between stakeholders (governments, educational institutions, industry, and students) to ensure that the skills fostered are not only those that are currently necessary but also the ability to learn new ones. University and vocational school administrators in Japan can attempt to increase industry–academic cooperation through internships and collaboration on curricular content. With a bit of creativity, individual instructors can adapt their language curriculum or the 3rd-year job-hunting and seminar classes (*zemi)* common at Japanese universities to

develop some of these key survival skills in their students. As the authors of the conclusions note, paraphrasing a 2017 report from the management consultancy McKinsey Global Institute, "resilience, flexibility, and the ability to respond with dexterity will be essential attributes when jobs are likely to change over time" (p. 238).

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Creating Experiential Learning Opportunities for Language Learners: Acting Locally While Thinking Globally. Melanie Bloom and Carolyn Gascoigne (Eds.). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters, 2017. xxi + 270 pp.

Reviewed by
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"How can I get my students to practice more outside of the classroom?" is a question that every language teacher has asked. This is an especially pertinent question for teachers in Japan because students often lack opportunities to communicate in a second language outside of class. Well-known options for language learners include study abroad, conversation school classes, and language exchange. However, students might lack the financial resources or initiative necessary for these choices. An increasingly popular

method for increasing student exposure to the target language is through experiential, or service, learning (Furco, 2004, p. 14). Experiential learning is based on the educational reformer John Dewey's (1938) theory of an "organic connection between education and personal experience" (p. 24). In other words, learning that occurs in the classroom should be connected with real-life experiences out in the community.

Creating Experiential Learning Opportunities for Language Learners: Acting Locally While Thinking Globally thoroughly examines the many forms that experiential learning can take and its benefits to both service providers and recipients. Some of the benefits to students include more practice with the target language, greater intercultural awareness, and increased motivation. Editors Bloom and Gascoigne preface this collection of 13 research studies by highlighting the growing popularity of experiential learning in university second language programs despite the scant amount of literature on this topic. The book is divided into three sections focusing on experiential learning through community engagement, professional engagement, and other unique, context-specific opportunities.

The first chapter by Adrian J. Wurr begins with a review of the literature on experiential learning and describes the variety of forms it can take such as interning, volunteering, and community service. In Chapter 2, Josef Hellebrandt discusses community engagement and common requirements for such programs. The author notes that service learning is an increasingly common component of American university courses; however, this is largely not reflected on the websites of Spanish departments. In the next chapter, "Civic Engagement and Community Service Learning: Connecting Students' Experiences to Policy and Advocacy," Annie Abbott states that the majority of service learning programs in the United States involve Spanish and work with immigrant communities. Abbott describes how students' perceptions of which issues are important to immigrants often differ vastly from immigrants' actual concerns. Chapter 4 by Cecilia Tocaimaza-Hatch and Laura C. Walls covers the benefits of service learning for both second language learners and heritage language learners (somewhat bilingual individuals who speak a language other than English at home) and how these are similar and different.

The second section of the book contains research related to experiential learning and professional engagement. Chapters 6 and 7 by the editors Gascoigne and Bloom, respectively, offer plenty of practical advice for beginning an internship program at a university. Similarly, Chapter 8 by Carmen King de Ramírez and Barbara A. Lafford is another practitioner-based account of

an internship program that focuses on how mentor and intern expectations often differ. This chapter highlights the need for goal setting and careful preparation for selecting and preparing interns before creating a program.

The final section of the book describes experiential learning in various local contexts. In Chapter 10, Brigid Moira Burke describes what she refers to as "expeditionary learning" (p. 183), based on Outward Bound programs (see www.outwardbound.org). She describes how the principles that guide this outdoor, task-based approach to life education can be adapted by language teachers for the classroom. In the following chapter, Jessica S. Miller shares how a university-based experiential program had a real impact in helping to revitalize a small rural town in the United States. Sabine Marina Jones (Chapter 12) then examines foreign language dormitories and the factors necessary for success. Finally, in "Language Camps: By Teaching We Learn," Jacqueline Thomas looks at both day camps and weeklong immersion camps and their respective advantages and disadvantages.

Creating Experiential Learning Opportunities for Language Learners presents the reader with a well-balanced look at many forms of experiential learning. For educators or administrators thinking of starting their own programs, this book could provide them with a useful road map to follow and capitalize on the experience of other practitioners. Taken as a whole, this book presents a convincing argument for why experiential learning should be incorporated into language classes because of the benefits to both service providers and service receivers.

However, there are a few shortcomings of this collection. The first, noted by the editors themselves in the conclusion, is the lack of statistical analysis in these papers. Out of the 13 studies, only one includes statistics to document student gains through a mixed-methods approach. Evidence of benefits is largely anecdotal, although some studies do use qualitative data in the form of survey comments. Perhaps statistical analyses are not so necessary because these papers are largely practitioner-based accounts detailing the goals, challenges, and successes of service learning programs. Another point is that a few studies are overly detailed, going as far as listing sentences that were used in certain activities. Perhaps these studies are best approached by skimming and saving the expanded content for later reference. Also, it should be noted that none of the programs described are located in Japan, although that should not stop resourceful teachers from applying the same concepts to their own contexts.

An experiential learning component in language classes can give students additional practice outside of the classroom and increase their intercultural awareness. Furthermore, knowing that they will have to actually use their language skills can be a tremendous motivator for students (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). In a country where students spend years learning a language for potential future interactions or possible benefits to their career, perhaps it is time for teachers to create opportunities where genuine communication will occur. This volume can give teachers advice toward doing just that.

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Information for Contributors

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JALT Journal, the refereed research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (*Zenkoku Gogaku Kyouiku Gakkai*), invites empirical and theoretical research articles and research reports on second and foreign language teaching and learning in Japanese contexts. Submissions from Asian and other international contexts are accepted if applicable to language teaching in Japan. Areas of particular interest include but are not limited to the following:

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JALT Journal follows the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 6th edition (available from APA Order Department, P.O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784, USA; by email: <order@apa.org>; from the website: <www.apa.org/books.ordering.html>). Consult recent copies of *JALT Journal* or *TESOL Quarterly* for examples of documentation and references. A downloadable copy of the *JALT Journal* style sheet is also available on our website at <http://jalt-publications.org/jj/>.

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