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Contents

Japan Association for Language Teaching

A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and 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 2,600 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.

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In This Issue

Articles

This issue contains two full-length research articles in English. The first, by **Emi Fukusawa**, is a report on a longitudinal investigation of the development of English speech acts by Japanese university students during study abroad. Through this study, the author contributes to the growing body of work on language development during study abroad. The second, by **Chisato Nonaka**, is a report on a qualitative study of desire among teachers at English immersion preschools (EIPs), generally labeled as international schools. Such preschools have become common in Japan but do not seem to have been the object of much research. The author thus contributes to the understanding of a common, but apparently under-researched, site of language teaching and learning in Japan.

Reviews

The November review titles span from the theoretical to research-based to more practical pedagogical applications. **Scott Crowe** opens this issue with a review of Annamaria Pinter's title, *Teaching Young Language Learners*. **Myles Grogan** contributes a review on the increasingly popular mixed-methods form of research. In the third review, **Daisuke Kimura** reviews Gregory Hadley's guide to grounded theory in applied linguistics research. **Jessica Krentzman** looks at the theory and applications of shadowing to support low-proficiency learners in developing listening skills. Next, **Kyoko Kobayashi Hillman** details task-based language teaching principles and practices as presented in a book written in Japanese, タスク・ベースの英語指導―TBLTの理解と実践. **Kris Ramonda** examines an edited volume from international contributors reporting on interventions designed to support more positive effects from overseas studies. In collaboration, **James Ronald** and his Ph.D. student, **Stachus Peter Tu**, cover second language pragmatics as addressed in a volume of that very title from the Applied Linguistics series of Oxford University Press. **Fumie Togano** proposed and presents a review on feedback and assessment in second language writing. And finally, the latest edited anthology on nonformal education in Japan is taken up by **Robert J. Werner**.

From the Editor

The publication of this and all issues of *JALT Journal* is only possible through the efforts of numerous individuals: the authors of research articles and book reviews, the various editors and production staff, and the reviewers. Individuals in each of these groups make valuable and indispensable contributions to the production of each issue, but here I would like to especially thank our reviewers, who may be members of the Editorial Board or additional readers contacted by one of the editors. The names of additional readers are listed on the inside front cover of each issue. Please note, though, that the readers listed in a given issue are not necessarily, and are actually unlikely to be, the reviewers of articles published in that issue.

As I stated in my prior Editor's message, *JALT Journal* is now accepting proposals for special issues. Please see the back of this and future issues for details.

— Eric Hauser, *JALT Journal* Editor

Errata

The article "Teacher Self-Efficacy and Instructional Speech: How Teachers Behave Efficaciously in the EFL Classroom," by Akihiro Omote, which was published in Volume 39, No. 2 (2017) of *JALT Journal*, contains errors in Table 3 and Table 4, both on page 100. The online version of the article contains the corrected tables.

Articles

Changes in Speech Acts During Study Abroad Programs: Japanese Students Studying in the United States and Australia

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This paper details an exploration into changes in speech acts and interactions in English (i.e., requests and refusals) in nonclassroom interactions before and after study abroad programs. I transcribed role-plays of two Japanese students before and after they completed study abroad programs in the United States and Australia, carried out periodic online interviews during their stays overseas, and conducted follow-up interviews once they returned to Japan. The results show that changes in the use of expressions occurred for three reasons: 1) input-initiated changes from noticing form–meaning–function relationships, 2) instruction-initiated changes, and 3) output-initiated changes. Because some of the changes were problematic and led to misunderstandings or impoliteness, I conclude that learning from natural input alone is not sufficient to learn how to navigate between function and situation. Therefore, the results suggest that explicit feedback and instructions in classrooms are important before and during study abroad programs.

　本論文は留学前後の教室外のインタラクションにおける、英語での発話行為（依頼と断り）とインタラクションの変化を探る。アメリカとオーストラリアへ留学前後の2名の日本人学生のロールプレイを書き起こし、留学中に定期的なオンラインインタビューを実施

し、帰国後にフォローアップインタビューを行った。その結果、言語使用の変化には3つの理由があることが示された：1）表現形式・意味・機能の気づきから起こるインプットによる変化、2）指導による変化、3）アウトプットによる変化である。これらの変化の中には誤解や失礼さを招くという問題も見られることから、機能と状況のバランスの取り方を学ぶためには自然なインプットだけでは不十分であると言える。したがって、本研究の結果は留学前と留学中に教室での明示的なフィードバックと指導が重要であることを示唆している。

Keywords: nonclassroom interaction; noticing; speech acts; study abroad programs

One of the advantages to studying abroad is the ability of students to obtain enormous exposure to a foreign language, and previous studies have generally assumed that study abroad programs aid language acquisition because students have daily access to native speakers (Segalowitz & Freed, 2004). The amount of exposure to a foreign language is one of the biggest differences between learning in ESL and EFL contexts; studying abroad, therefore, is a great opportunity for Japanese EFL students.

However, although previous studies have shown studying abroad to be of great benefit to language learners, researchers tend to examine the effectiveness of study abroad programs quantitatively rather than qualitatively, despite the fact that language development varies depending on a learner's characteristics, environment, and so on (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Isabelli-García, 2006; Wilkinson, 1998). Therefore, it can be argued that quantitative studies cannot fully elucidate individual language development during stays abroad. Although some researchers have attempted to understand the importance of environmental factors in language acquisition (cf. Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011; Dewey et al., 2014; Taguchi, 2008, 2012), more detailed studies are needed to fully understand language learners' pragmatic development.

Previous research has shown that language learners' input and actions affect their pragmatic competence (e.g., Hassall, 2006; Matsumura, 2003). However, these studies have not determined what specific input learners can use effectively, as researchers cannot confirm what input learners actually notice. If learners are too focused on the *meaning* of speech interactions outside the classroom, for example, they might not notice the *rules* of language, especially pragmatics, which are usually not obvious. This noticing is important in pragmatic learning; however, as Schauer (2009) noted, it can occur only if learners have already noticed the strategies or expressions used by English speakers.

Noticing and Interlanguage Pragmatics

The process of learning is an important aspect of second language acquisition. Schmidt and Frota (1986) and Schmidt (1990; 1993; 2001) developed the noticing hypothesis, one of the predominant theories in the field, which states that "there is evidence for a relationship between what learners notice and understand about pragmatics and discourse and what is learned" (Schmidt, 1993, p. 29). Likewise, Schmidt (1990; 2001) argues that learners' noticing is a necessary condition for language learning, including the learning of pragmatics. Noticing a form–meaning–function relationship is the most fundamental aspect of noticing, and learners notice something based on the input they receive. The s*omething* refers not only to a vocabulary word or grammatical form but also to the context in which the word is used and its function. Meaning and function are both important aspects of language: Students cannot simply know a word's meaning but must also understand how it is used in a natural setting.

In the field of interlanguage pragmatics, little work has been done on noticing and the development of pragmatic competence. However, there are some exceptions. Cook (2001), for example, demonstrated that Japanese as a Foreign Language students were not aware of contextualization cues in Japanese while taking a listening test. The results suggested that noticing contextualization cues in interactions outside of the classroom is not guaranteed, even if part of an educational curriculum. Likewise, Takahashi (2005) investigated the relationships among motivation, proficiency, and pragmalinguistic awareness and found intrinsic motivation is associated with awareness of the target input. Takahashi (2012; 2013) also investigated the relationships between individual differences (motivation and listening proficiency) and pragmalinguistic awareness. She found that learners' noticing of the target request forms in the input led to the learning of internal modifiers (e.g., "just," "really," and "at all") but did not predict the mastery of biclausal request forms (head-acts). Takahashi's (2015) later study focused more on learners' characteristics that predict awareness and learning and found that awareness of the target forms was constrained by the learners' strong communication-oriented motivation and higher listening proficiency. Takahashi (2017) extended the previous studies and found that learners who had sound grammatical competence (in other words, adequate familiarity with the target forms) could perform well in the dictation task from the beginning and use the target forms in the posttest; however, some of the students could not use the target forms even though they had similar grammatical competence. Therefore, she suggests that structural familiarity

leads learners to detect and produce the target forms. However, the level of analysis of the form–function relationship may differ among students and therefore cause different outcomes.

In summary, even though Schmidt (1990) describes the importance of noticing in applied linguistics, the concept has not been fully discussed in interlanguage pragmatics. As Taguchi (2015) states, very little has been written on the development of noticing and the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge. Various questions remain, including how noticing interacts with the development of pragmatic competence and what kinds of noticing affect students' development of pragmatic competence especially during study abroad programs. Answering these questions could allow the learning trajectory of pragmatics to be revealed, which would promote more effective instruction in classroom settings. Therefore, there is an attempt through study to contribute to existing research by including a consideration of the relevant environmental factors (input from the surrounding second-language environment) during study abroad programs. In this way, I hope to demonstrate that the differences in what learners notice out of the rich input during their study abroad period can vary their language learning outcomes. Moreover, whereas some previous studies (e.g., Kondo, 2008) are focused on examining noticing only within the context of the EFL classroom environment, I also seek to understand whether noticing is related to the development of pragmatic competence outside the classroom in an ESL environment. To that end, this study's research question is as follows: What changes occur in learners' speech act behavior during their study abroad period, and is noticing related to the changes in their speech act behavior?

Methods

Participants

Two female Japanese university students with nonEnglish majors participated in this study. Their pseudonyms are Maki and Tomoko, and they both participated in different language-focused study abroad programs. Both were selected from a larger scale study (N = 4) because their interactions were representative of the typical patterns that occurred. Other participants are not discussed here because of space limitations, but their interactional data also showed the same kinds of characteristics after studying abroad.

Maki was 20 years old (university junior) and majoring in marketing at the time of her participation. Before she studied abroad, her TOEIC score was 630, and she had no previous study abroad experience. Maki's goal

with regard to studying abroad was to be able to speak more English and experience different cultures through homestays and school activities. Maki enrolled in a language program for university students in Australia and stayed with a host family during her 6-month stay. Fortunately, the host family was very engaged and often talked with Maki and the other students living in the house. The presence of other exchange students positively affected Maki's language development as well: Regular meetings with the same people made it easier for her to use English and observe the interactions of people more proficient in English than she.

Tomoko was a sophomore journalism major when she participated in a study abroad program to the United States. Before studying abroad, she had passed the second grade of the EIKEN test, which includes an interview test and is roughly equivalent to Maki's TOEIC Listening and Reading test score (MEXT, 2016). Tomoko had previously participated in several shorter homestays in Russia, Taiwan, and Australia, but this time, she chose to live in a dormitory with roommates of various nationalities for five months. Her goal in studying abroad was to improve her English proficiency. When the program started, she was not happy about her ESL class: Many of the students came from countries where English is not spoken as a first language, and she strongly believed that English should be learned from native speakers. She thus sought opportunities to speak English outside the classroom as often as possible and regularly met with several groups of friends to do so.

Speech Acts

The data are based on part of spoken role-plays consisting of four situations with two speech acts in each: refusal and request.[1] These acts were specifically chosen because they are often studied in the field of interlanguage pragmatics (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1991; Blum-Kulka, 1982; Trosborg, 1995). At the same time, they are often used in situations in which a speaker needs to frequently modify his or her speech to seem polite. This can be a highly demanding task for second language learners, especially if they are of limited proficiency.

An additional variable has been included to differentiate the situations: the interlocutor's status. In some situations, the interlocutor is a professor and in others a friend. The level of the request's imposition, which refers to the difficulty of conducting the request, is the same for each situation. Finally, the distance between the interlocutors is set as "close" in all situations. The participants were told that, for the role-play, they know the interlocutors well and that the relationship between them is good. To confirm that the

situational descriptions were as I intended, several researchers of applied linguistics and interlanguage pragmatics read and approved the descriptions. The role-play situations are presented in the Appendix.

Data Collection

Interlanguage pragmatics uses many different methods of data collection, depending on the research questions. In this study, role-play was used to obtain interactional data. In role-play, each speaker is given a role, and they act as if they were in the imaginary, yet realistic, situation presented. The advantage of this method is that researchers can observe the natural flow of conversation (Roever, 2011), even if it is not the same as natural interaction (Yuan, 2001).

Data collection was carried out in three phases: before, during, and after the students' study abroad period. Before studying abroad, each participant met the interlocutor, whose pseudonym was David, a native-speaking English teacher at their university. He conducted all role-plays, with the exception of Tomoko's pre-study abroad role-play, in which she met with a nonnative-speaking English teacher (E) due to a scheduling conflict. None of the participants were students of E or David's classes.

During the study abroad period, the participants took part in periodic online interviews conducted in Japanese. During these interviews, they were asked about their college life and whether they had had any opportunities to practice the target speech acts. If they answered in the affirmative, they were then asked to explain these in detail. After the study abroad program, the students participated in the same role-play session with David. Finally, the author conducted a follow-up interview in Japanese with each participant. The interview was conducted three or four months after the post-study abroad role-play because the participants were unable to attend the interview during the school holidays, when they returned to their hometowns. They were asked to explain why they chose certain expressions, in which situations they learned new phrases, and so on based on the transcription of their role-play sessions. The author transcribed all the role-plays, translated the interviews, and asked an applied linguistics researcher who was fluent in English to check their accuracy.

Results

The study found that the participants were adapting their language based on three sources: observation, instruction, and output.

Observation

Excerpt 1 is part of Maki's pre-study abroad role-play. She was asked to refuse a teacher's invitation to have lunch with other class members at the end of the semester.

Excerpt 1: [Maki-Refusal-Teacher-Before]

```
1   D: Well, um, it is coming to the end of the semester,
2      and our seminar has I think, um, been very fun
3      because everyone is very friendly, yeah? So, um, we
4      were thinking that we could have some lunch
5      together on Friday.
6   M: Friday.
7   D: Yeah. What do you think? Would you like to have
8      some lunch with us?
9   M: Sorry, but I, have, promise, promise with my friend
10     to eat lunch.
11  D: Oh really?
12  M: So I can't go.
```

At first, in reply to the invitation from David, Maki says that she had made an appointment with other friends before receiving the teacher's invitation (Excerpt 1, lines 9-10). This is both an apology and account before the actual refusal. Then, in line 12 (Excerpt 1), Maki refused explicitly: "I can't go."

 After her study abroad program, Maki uses a different expression to refuse the invitation (Excerpt 2):

Excerpt 2: [Maki-Refusal-Teacher-After]

```
1   D: Yeah, ah, I wanted to ask you a question about ah
2      this Friday.
3   M: Hum.
4   D: Uh, since, um, oh, our class is gonna be finishing
5      soon,
6   M: Yeah.
7   D: I was wondering if you'd like to join us in our
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8      seminar uh for lunch.
9   M: For lunch?
10  D: Yeah.
11  M: Ah, but on Friday lun, Friday, right? Um, I have an
12      appointment with my friend to have a lunch with
13      with them,
14  D: Oh really.
15  M: so I can't make it.
16  D: Oh, oh, you know, it's our last time to really meet
17      everyone together.
18  M: Yeees.
19  D: So ... it would be really good if you could come.
20  M: Um ...
21  D: It's sad if you didn't come.
22  M: Ah, yeah, I'm, I also sad, I also sad, but yes, I
23      did promise with my friends, so, I'm sorry.
24  D: All right. Fine. Yeah. Well, see you in next class.
```

In lines 11-13 (Excerpt 2), Maki gave a reason for not attending, and in line 15 (Excerpt 2), she followed this with an explicit refusal: "I can't make it." This is a new expression that only appears after her study abroad program in place of the "I can't go" she used before studying abroad. It sounds like she wanted to go but could not, unlike "I can't go," which is more abrupt. When asked about this phrase in her follow-up interview, Maki said,

> I used it to mean "I cannot go." During the study abroad period, I had a similar experience. When I emailed my classmate "can you come today?" and she replied "I can't make it." Then I understood the meaning of this expression by context.

According to her comment, she learned this phrase from an experience with her friend. It was not due to direct classroom instruction, but she understood the way to use the phrase from observing the context. Therefore, it can be said that this occasion was an example of noticing a form (Schmidt, 2001; Schmidt & Frota, 1986).

After David replied, "It's sad if you didn't come" (Excerpt 2, line 21), Maki repeated part of his utterance, saying, "I also sad, I also sad" (Excerpt 2, line 22). In this utterance, we can see that she accepted his feeling of regret by repeating his phrase. It shows that even if she understood how he was feeling, she still, regrettably, needed to refuse the invitation. I also asked her about this phrasing in the follow-up interview, and she said,

> I meant "I wish I could go." I wanted to express my feeling of being sorry, that is why I used this phrase. I started to use "also" quite often after I left Japan. I noticed it is used frequently from the conversations of my roommates and friends.

This explanation suggests that she wanted to express regret by using this phrase. She could have used other, similar phrases, like "I wish I could go, but . . . ," which would have expressed the same idea. However, perhaps this was the best she could do at that time. It is interesting to note that the use of "also" (Excerpt 2, line 22) is something she learned via input during her stay, according to her comment. Although she did not mention any specific information about situational use of the word "also," it seemed that she understood the word to convey a feeling of empathy and that it could be used as a politeness strategy.

Instruction

The participants learned other new expressions as they were explicitly taught by others, whether in the classroom or by English speakers. Unlike the examples in the previous section, these words and phrases were specifically taught, not merely observed.

Use of "I Understand What You Say" Before a Refusal

Excerpt 3 is part of Maki's pre-study abroad role-play of a refusal to a friend's invitation to attend a party.

Excerpt 3: [Maki-Refusal-Friend-Before]
```
1   D: I was thinking about, um, I was thinking about you
2      today, because there is going to be a party Friday
3      night.
4   M: Yeah.
5   D: I think it would be nice if you could come.
```

```
6   M: Oh ... Sorry, but I ... have to do my report in
7      library tonight, so I can't go that party. Sorry.
```

Maki uses the word "sorry" in refusal; however, after her study abroad program, instead of an apology, she uses a new phrase before giving her refusal, "I understand what you say" (Excerpt 4, line 10):

Excerpt 4: [Maki-Refusal-Friend-After]

```
1   D: Oh, well there is a party, Friday night. Why don't
2      you come?
3   M: But I have to submit report until next week so I
4      have to do research on Friday night so ...
5   D: Um Friday night is the end of the week, so why
6      don't you do something on, why don't you do on
7      Sunday and Saturday?
8   M: Hahahahaha.
9   D: Well it's Friday.
10  M: I understand what you say, but this report is so
11     big.
12  D: Uh huh
13  M: And I have, I need, I need um a lot of research to
14     do my report so I'm sorry but I can't go.
15  D: All right, well, enjoy your study.
```

   In the follow-up interview, Maki explained that she had learned this phrase of acknowledgement—"I understand what you say"—in her language class when talking about how to conduct discussions. She learned that she should accept the other person's idea before expressing her own opinion and applied this same strategy to refuse the invitation in the role-play. She realized that objecting in a classroom discussion and refusing an invitation are similar in that they both involve expressing an oppositional idea. It was her idea to apply the same strategy in a different situation.

Use of "Can I" to Make Requests

Excerpt 5 is part of Maki's post-study abroad role-play in which she asks her friend if she can borrow his notebook to copy class notes after an absence.

Excerpt 5: [Maki-Request-Friend-After]

```
1   M: Hi, David.
2   D: Oh hello.
3   M: Um, I wa, uh I want to borrow your note of last
4      last week? Because I was absent on last week's
5      class? So could you borrow, could you borrow, can I
6      borrow your note?
7   D: Ah, yeah, sure. Hold on a second. Here you go.
```

She begins the request and then gives a reason for her request (Excerpt 5, lines 3-6). In the follow-up interview, I asked about her use of the phrase "can I," which she did not use in the pre-study abroad role-play. Maki told me of two episodes related to the phrase:

> During the study abroad, there was a poster in the library instructing foreign students how to ask for books: "Use '*can I borrow*.'" I used the expression when I borrowed books. . . . I also learned that requests are expressed in the question form during the study abroad. I noticed it when my host mother asked me something.

These comments show how she learned to use the phrase "can I": She both noticed its use in requests and others instructed her in its use. This is different from Schmidt's (1990; 1993; 2001) proposed noticing due to input described in the previous section: Noticing is based on implicit input and requires the language learner to make an effort to notice and to be actively involved. On the contrary, Maki noticed the word's use when receiving instruction. It was more like a guided noticing, where she was shown the answer (in this case, an appropriate phrase in a particular situation).

Output

Use of "Can I" to Make Requests

Other new expressions were used that could be traced to neither observation of input nor explicit instruction. Tomoko, for example, reported that she successfully learned new expressions during actual conversations. In the role-play after her study abroad program, Tomoko uses the phrase "can I" when making a request to a friend (Excerpt 6, line 3):

Excerpt 6: [Tomoko-Request-Friend-After]

```
1   T: Hi David?
2   D: Ah yes?
3   T: Can I borrow your note, notebook, book? Because I
4      missed the last class.
5   D: Ah sure, it's a ... my notebook is, yeah you can
6      borrow, um, it's a little messy.
7   T: No problem.
```

In the follow-up interview, she told me that she knew this phrase before her study abroad program but only started to regularly use it when living in the United States:

Question:	Why did you use "can I"?
Tomoko:	I knew this phrase, but I started to use it in the study abroad. I used "can you" before the stay, but now I use "can I" because "can you" sounds too roundabout.
Question:	Why do you think so?
Tomoko:	Well, because when I wanted to ask something, just saying "can I?" "may I?" worked perfectly. Of course I knew these phrases but I started to use them after I knew these phrases are useful during the stay.

The comment above shows that Tomoko indeed used "can I" frequently during her study abroad program and that she was confident about her efficient use of both "can I" and "may I." Therefore, she became comfortable using these phrases through her experiences (i.e., output), which is consistent with Swain's (1985) output hypothesis.

Use of an Introductory Remark before Making a Request

Excerpt 7 is from a pre-study abroad role-play in which Tomoko asks to borrow a book from her teacher for a writing assignment.

Excerpt 7: [Tomoko-Request-Teacher-Before]

```
1   T: Excuse me.
2   E: Yes.
3   T: But could you ... give me ... your book about the
4      paper?
5   E: Uh huh.
6   T: I want to read the book.
7   E: OK, you want to, ah, read this book?
8   T: Yes.
```

Tomoko uses two separate utterances (Excerpt 7, lines 3-4 and 6) that come together to make a request, but, her meaning remains ambiguous because of her use of the verb "give" (Excerpt 7, line 3). After her study abroad program, however, Tomoko structures her request differently as shown in Excerpt 8.

Excerpt 8: [Tomoko-Request-Teacher-After]

```
1   T: Hi, Mr Snow.
2   D: Hello.
3   T: Hello. Can I ask you, ah, may I ask you a favor?
4   D: Ah sure. What what is it?
5   T: Um, I want, I wanna borrow your book to write the
6      paper.
7   D: Oh, OK. Yeah, that's fine. Ah what is the topic
8      that you are looking for?
9   T: Um ... I wanna write, about, cul, the culture of
10     the U.S.
11  D: Oh, OK.
```

This includes a new strategy: Tomoko makes an introductory remark before her request (Excerpt 8, line 3). I asked her about this in the follow-up interview:

Question: Where did you learn, "Can I ask you, may I ask you a favor?"

Tomoko: I learned it at junior or high school in Japan. It was in the textbook. However, I had never used it before the study abroad.

Question: Why did you use it in the role-play?

Tomoko: Well, I think the phrase can make the counterpart expect what I want to say. During the stay, I said it once or twice. And I realized that the responses were very positive, I mean, they looked more cheerful saying "yes!" than when I said "excuse me" before making requests. So I thought "may I ask you a favor?" worked better than "excuse me."

Tomoko noticed that she got different reactions to requests when using different phrases and that "may I ask you a favor" worked better than "excuse me." Therefore, she learned from actually using the phrase, in other words, through her output. This was one of her learning strategies: She used trial and error to confirm whether she was using a phrase correctly. Despite making mistakes along the way, this was an effective strategy, especially when learning in a second language context, because it was easy to determine if she was using a word correctly by the reaction of native English speakers.

I also noted that her request in Excerpt 8 seemed very casual, especially when talking to a teacher, due to her use of the phrase "I wanna" (line 5). Tomoko and I also discussed this in the follow-up:

Tomoko: I heard all of my friends use it during the study abroad.

Question: The situation was to make a request to the teacher. Did you feel any differences when you did the same with your friends?

Tomoko: Well, I did not feel it much.

This implies that she learned the word "wanna" through input but could not apply it correctly to different situations. This suggests that natural input is

not enough to notice situational differences and, therefore, instruction is also necessary.

Discussion

As stated above, the research question was: What changes occur in learners' speech act behavior during their study abroad period, and is noticing related to the changes in their speech act behavior? The role-plays and follow-up interviews revealed that students noticed some language expressions when they produced speech acts and that this was due not only to their observation of input but also due to instruction and their output experiences. Of these, learning from instruction can be more helpful or effective for study abroad students because it allows them to connect strategy (expression) with the situational context. The observation of input can be understood as noticing a form–meaning–function relationship (Schmidt, 1993). Learning from output is also very useful for study abroad students because it allows them to learn by using a phrase in a real conversation. This finding is consistent with those of Swain and Lapkin (1995), who determined that noticing occurs both in a learner's internal and external feedback as a result of producing the target language.

During the study abroad period, students experience input and output regarding specific speech acts and other interactional elements of speech (e.g., using introductory remarks). Input allows them to notice the use of specific words or phrases from other English speakers, while output provides them with situational knowledge that they can apply in different situations. At this point, if they have enough pragmalinguistic competence, which, based on Leech's (1983) distinction, refers to the linguistic resources required for performing language functions, they can choose the expressions that are appropriate to the situation in order to be polite. On the other hand, if this competence is lacking, students may end up failing to adapt to the situation, resulting in the use of somewhat strange expressions or negative transfer. Moreover, I found that, in some situations, the participants did not learn the appropriate situational uses of expressions based merely on input (e.g., Tomoko's use of the word "wanna" when speaking with her teacher). This would show a lack of sociopragmatic competence, which is the ability to choose and perform appropriate pragmatic strategies in a particular context. Therefore, natural input is limited in its ability to impart the appropriate situational use of expressions, which suggests the necessity of classroom instruction, especially negative feedback from others: Learners are not always aware of problematic language use unless they are explicitly told.

Previous second language acquisition studies have suggested the necessity of negative feedback (e.g., Gass, 1997) and the effectiveness of explicit feedback over implicit feedback in grammar acquisition (for an overview, see Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006), which has also been argued in relation to interlanguage pragmatics (e.g., Alcón Soler, 2012; Fukuya & Martínez-Flor, 2008; Takahashi, 2001). On the other hand, there are some studies that show the positive effect of implicit feedback (e.g., Takahashi, 2010a, 2010b; Takimoto, 2006) and the combined effects of both (Martínez-Flor, 2012), which suggests that learners have different intervention preferences, and it would be effective to give various types of feedback in the classroom.

To maximize the effectiveness of studying abroad, it would be ideal to include some classroom instruction or a series of instructional sessions before and during the study abroad period. Prior to departure, a pre-study abroad instruction session would be valuable in terms of employing instruction and raising students' awareness of input. In these sessions, students could perform role-plays related to some situations with a special focus on the difficulty of expressing their intention in a situationally appropriate way. Teachers would then be able to provide feedback, including metapragmatic information, to help their students realize what they did well and what they could change along with reasons explaining why the relevant aspects should be changed. By doing so, students' awareness could be raised so that they would be able to take advantage of input and output opportunities while studying abroad.

Conclusion

This study revealed three reasons why the learners changed their production of speech acts after completing a study abroad program: observation of input, instruction, and learning from responses to output. Although input is important, it is not the only way to learn new expressions; rather, instruction and providing opportunities for output are also necessary. Indeed, relying solely on input has some limitations and can lead to misunderstandings or impoliteness when the meaning and implications of a word or phrase is not clearly communicated by English speakers. Therefore, classroom instruction that includes negative feedback is also an integral part of language learning.

This study has some limitations. First, the setting of the role-play required more concrete description to precisely control the scenario, especially the relationship between interlocutors. Each human relationship imagined by the participants might be different and might affect language production. Second, the follow-up interviews should have been conducted immediately

after the role-play to guarantee the validity of the data. Moreover, it would have been better to ask the participants to review their performance by watching the video recording. Last, the paper only discussed two participants in detail due to space limitations. Further research should be done to include data from other participants who were not included in this paper to verify the results of the current study.

Note

1. Complaints and apologies were also part of the original study but were removed due to space limitations.

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Appendix

Descriptions of the Situations Given to the Students in the Role-Play (Original in Japanese)

友人に 断る	あなたは大学生です。来週はレポートの提出日があるのですが、まだ終わっていません。金曜日の夜は図書館で調べ物をしようと思っています。大学の友人、デイビッドが話しかけてきます。
Refusal to friend	You are a university student. You are working on a report. Next week the submission is due, but you have not finished it yet. You are thinking that you will do research in the library on Friday night. Your friend, David from university is going to talk to you now.
先生に 断る	あなたは大学生です。大学であなたのゼミの先生である、スノー教授と偶然会いました。金曜日のお昼は友人と食べる約束をしています。スノー教授が話しかけてきます。
Refusal to teacher	You are a university student. At university, you just come across Professor Snow, who is your seminar teacher. You already have a plan to eat lunch with your friends on Friday. Professor Snow is going to talk to you now.
友人に依頼する	あなたは大学生です。あなたは先週の授業を休みました。そこで、休んだ授業のノートを、同じクラスを取っている友人デイビッドに借りたいと思っています。デイビッドに話しかけます。
Request to friend	You are a university student. You were absent from the last class. You want to borrow the notebook from your friend, David, who is taking the same class. You are going to talk to him.
先生に依頼する	あなたは大学生です。もうすぐレポートの提出日が来ます。あなたはレポートを書くために必要な本を探しています。そこで、スノー教授にレポートで使う本を借りたいと思っています。先生に話しかけます。
Request to teacher	You are a university student. The deadline of your report is soon. You are looking for a book to write the essay. Then you want to borrow the book from Professor Snow. You are going to talk to him.

Negotiating Desire and Identity at English Immersion Preschools in Japan

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In Japan, English immersion preschools (EIPs) have become a popular choice for parents who wish to raise their children to be fluent in English. Despite their increasing share of the market, EIPs have received little scholarly attention. In this paper, I aim to help situate EIPs against the backdrop of Japan's English education market. In doing so, I draw from the concept of desire (cf. Motha & Lin, 2014), which has been widely discussed as one of the key facets to understand English language education in Japan. Specifically, this study showcases multiple dimensions of desire in the context of two EIPs, through the eyes and voices of teachers. Their narratives, coupled with seminal studies on desire (e.g., those on *akogare*), help demonstrate how and why desire may exist at EIPs. This study is intended to add a layer to the existing body of literature on desire while also providing a springboard for further research on EIPs in Japan and larger global contexts.

　近年日本ではバイリンガル（日・英）教育を望む保護者の間で英語プリスクール（以下EIPsとする）が好評だ。このブームの一方、EIPsを対象とする研究はまだ萌芽期の段階である。本稿では、日本の英語教育を理解する上で度々用いられる「欲求」 (cf. Motha & Lin, 2014) の概念を使用し英語教育産業におけるEIPsの位置付けを図る。具体的には、２校のEIPsを対象に教師の視点からどのような欲求が存在するか検証する。「憧れ」など様々な欲求の先行研究をベースに教師らのナラティブを分析し、EIPsにおける欲求の存在理由および方法を示す。よって、本稿は欲求をテーマとする研究分野の新たな知見に寄与し、日本だけでなくグローバルなコンテクストでのEIP研究のたたき台を提起する。

I n light of the fast-approaching 2020 Tokyo Olympics, the Japanese government has been advancing mega projects to "prepare the nation to welcome the world" (Prime Minister Abe, cited in Prime Minister's Office of Japan, 2017). These projects include both architectural and ideological enterprises from erecting athletic complexes to training volunteers to brush up their *omotenashi* [Japanese hospitality] skills. Within these projects, the English language is frequently being treated as the default foreign language.

In fact, Japan has a long and complex history with the English language, to the extent that it was considered for official recognition as a national language in the late 1800s (Hall, 1999; Swale, 2000). More recently, the government implemented a major education reform which included the introduction of English as a formal school subject at an earlier grade level (MEXT, 2014). Although there is a long-standing debate over the developmentally appropriate age for foreign language acquisition, education-minded parents have already started sending their children to English immersion preschools (EIPs) to kick-start their exposure to English.

Despite their increasing share of the English education market of Japan in recent years, EIPs have received little scholarly attention. This study offers a response to this scholarly gap by presenting qualitative research findings on the EIPs in Japan. Specifically, utilizing the framework of desire (cf. Motha & Lin, 2014), I discuss and present multiple dimensions of desire and identity narratives collected from TESOL professionals at two EIPs in Japan. By so doing, the findings of this study add a new layer to the existing body of literature on desire while also providing a potential springboard for further research on EIPs in Japan and larger global contexts.

The Framework of Desire in the TESOL Field

While it still remains a relatively new construct within the TESOL field, more and more scholars are paying attention to desire for its powerful and complex effects on language learners and teachers (Benesch, 2012; Motha & Lin, 2014). Historically speaking, desire has been understood as an emotion and, as such, a broadly intrinsic characteristic (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Buss, 1994). However, one's desire to belong to a community, which may derive from a shared sense of nationality, ethnicity, race, class, gender, or a combination of them, might even be an "imagined" one as argued by Anderson (1983/2006). This suggests that desire can be understood beyond the intrinsic realm. For instance, for a person of mixed heritage such as a *hafu* [person of half-Japanese heritage], their desire to belong to an imagined "Japanese" community might be both intrinsically and extrinsically

motivated. It might be intrinsic in that, if they themselves feel Japanese, they may wish to belong to such a community. It could also be extrinsic as they may benefit more by focusing on their Japanese heritage than not, for employment or tax purposes. As such, desire needs to be carefully examined while taking into account the context in which desire emerges, develops, or disappears.

In a recent TESOL study, Motha & Lin (2014) grappled with the concept of desire as being multilayered. Similar interpretations of desire are found in a number of TESOL studies (see next section), which mainly engage with the process of identity negotiation in English learning and/or teaching. These studies demonstrate how desires may be multilayered, thus requiring intersubjective understandings.

To build upon the existing body of literature on desire while also exploring the understudied realm of EIPs in Japan, I utilize Motha and Lin's (2014) framework. The authors have developed the *desire as multilayered* framework to help us to study and understand desire within TESOL contexts. Their framework includes the following five interconnected layers:

1. desires of learners;
2. desires of communities in which learners are embedded, including parents of young learners;
3. desires of teachers, including their desires for students and their desires for themselves;
4. desires of institutions; and
5. desires of the state or government. (pp. 335-336)

As the authors argue, these layers should by no means be rigidly defined. Rather, each layer is fluid and in constant negotiation with the other four and must be treated flexibly and contextually. Additionally, on the importance of desire within the TESOL field, Motha and Lin (2014) state,

> At the center of every English language learning moment lies desire: desire for the language; for the identities represented by particular accents and varieties of English; for capital, power, and images that are associated with English; for what is believed to lie beyond the doors that English unlocks. (p. 332)

Building upon this, desire can be viewed as a site of identity negotiation overlapping the above mentioned five layers. In this light, I leverage Motha and Lin's framework as a tool to examine, interpret, and report the data

collected for this study. In what follows, I review desire-related studies in the context of Japanese TESOL to establish why Motha and Lin's framework is suitable for this study.

Desiring "Native English Speakers" and "the West" in General as Well as in Japan

The relationship between English and desire started to attract scholarly attention in the late 1990s to early 2000s (e.g., Kelsky, 2001; Manderson & Jolly, 1997). More recently, an increasing number of studies in TESOL have explored the intersection of English, desire, and identity. For example, Cho (2012) reveals, through his interviews with Korean American male English teachers in South Korea, the conundrum of "to be or not to be a 'native speaker'" (p. 227). He explores the identity complex of Korean American men who, on the one hand, receive an endless (and unprecedented) amount of female attention, and on the other, often feel "used up" as though they are "English prostitute[s]" (p. 233). Focusing on desire in the field of transnational higher education, Chowdhury and Phan (2014) expound at length on how multifaceted desires exist among the idea of English, learners or clients (international students), and service providers (universities). In her subsequent work, Phan (2016) further discusses the irony of hyperromanticized transnational education and questions the quality (i.e., mediocrity) of such transnational programs.

In Japanese TESOL, there have been a number of studies that examine layers of desire. From a historical perspective, the nation has long held a type of desire (i.e., *akogare*) for things and people seen as from the West including the English language, Christianity, and the United States (Ike, 1995). As an epitome of sociopolitically-instigated desire, there are historical accounts of the romantic relationships in postwar Japan between American soldiers who embodied victory and wealth and Japanese women who were in juxtaposition subservient and highly sexualized (Dower, 1999; Sakamoto, 2010). Applying this to the present day, Appleby (2014a) expands on how such historical experience and collective memory may have shaped the Japanese notion of Western masculinity and its implications for English education in Japan. Similar to the above study by Cho (2012), Western male English teachers in Japan are often perceived as masculine as well as *authentic* as English speakers (Appleby, 2014a).

This notion of authenticity is widely discussed by scholars, including Seargeant (2005), Rivers (2015), and Ruecker and Ives (2015). Based on their findings, one's nativeness or nonnativeness of English is often

perceived through one's appearance rather than linguistic background. In other words, those who look authentic as English speakers are idealized as *native* English teachers in Japan, because "authenticity need not necessarily equate with reality itself but with a quality that allows one to believe that something has the authority to truthfully represent reality" (Seargeant, 2005, p. 330).

However discursive, this imagination of authentic English speakers as native speakers seems to continually shape the Japanese desire for the West, which further informs dominant ideologies and specific practices of English education in Japan. For example, online job advertisements for native English teachers in Japan and its neighboring countries appear to target "young, White, enthusiastic native speaker[s] of English coming from a predominantly White country where English is the official language" (Ruecker & Ives, 2015, p. 2). This practice helps confirm the public's image of native speakers of English as being specific individuals while undermining other native speakers of English as less authentic or undesirable. On this note, from the perspective of those identified as native English-speaking teachers, other studies in Japan (see Kubota & Fujimoto, 2013; Kusaka, 2014) foregrounded how different Japanese American teachers' experiences are compared to those of White teachers.

Connecting the Japanese desire for the West with race and gender, scholars have also investigated romance between Western men and Japanese women (e.g., Appleby, 2013; Bailey, 2002; Kelsky, 2001; Takahashi, 2013). Depicted as free-spirited individuals living overseas, Japanese women in transnational contexts are occasionally understood as those who desire the West or are using English as leverage to mobilize their otherwise underprivileged womanhood in Japan (Kelsky, 2001). These women seem to desire White men as an embodiment of the liberating, empowering, and masculine West (Appleby, 2013; Takahashi, 2013). In the same vein, Kubota's (2011) study helps expand the understanding of desire beyond race and gender. She shows that "white native speakers are constructed as an exotic icon to be consumed" (p. 486) and carefully unpacks how a target of desire may be negotiated within the racial, cultural, and linguistic ideologies of the learner.

As a heuristic tool to understand empirical studies, Motha and Lin's (2014) framework encourages a critical engagement with how and why an embodiment of desire is enacted. Most importantly, their framework helps to visualize how even a seemingly gender-triggered (e.g., sexual) desire of the learner may be motivated by or consist of other complex desires that have been shaped by a set of ideologies of the learner or of the community.

Further, although the English word *desire* may often allude to something provocative, for the purpose of this study, I use the construct of desire in a more open manner. That is, for the most part, I discuss desire expressed by teachers and students in an asexual or platonic fashion. For example, it may be a desire for the teacher to provide the best learning experience for his or her students and, similarly, a child may desire to become a teacher's favorite student. With this expanded understanding of desire, I will now introduce the field of study: EIPs in Japan.

The EIPs in Japan

Broadly speaking, EIPs in Japan are early childhood education institutions where English is the primary language of instruction (ASSION, 2018; Imoto, 2011, 2015). Each institution varies in its legal standing: some are recognized by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; others are licensed as nursery schools by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare; and the rest are nonaccredited schools. Although there is no official report on EIPs, a little over 500 schools in Japan classify themselves as an EIP (ASSION, 2018). Because many EIPs operate outside government regulations, hence receiving few to no subsidies, one of the most prominent characteristics of EIPs is their relatively high tuition fees. Although most early childhood education institutions in Japan collect approximately $100 to $350 (US Dollars) per child as monthly tuition fees, EIPs charge significantly more, ranging from $400 to $1,300 per child per month (ALC, 2013; ASSION, 2018). The children attending EIPs, therefore, tend to be of high socioeconomic background.

Despite the skyrocketing popularity of English immersion programs (e.g., My Gym: Children's Fitness Center, n.d.) and EIPs in Japan (Nakamura, 2005; Toi, 2013), few scholarly works have documented them. Although there is some discussion of their business model (Kato, 2009) and their role in fostering a Japanese–English bilingual child (Babineau, 2013), Imoto's (2011, 2015) studies are distinct in offering ethnographic accounts of an EIP in Tokyo. Over the course of 12 months, Imoto conducted ethnographic fieldwork on the EIP where she worked as a Japanese bilingual assistant for 8 months. The findings suggest that although fostering the *international child* is a unanimously agreed mission of the EIP, its operation is much more complex, often involving multiple and competing language ideologies negotiated among the parents, teachers, and even children (Imoto, 2011, 2015). Imoto's studies concisely capture the complex apparatus of an EIP as a research subject in Japanese TESOL. Accordingly, the aim of this study

is to build upon Imoto's research and to invite further research on EIPs as a unique site of investigation.

The Study Participants and Methodology

For the study, Yoko and John, former English teachers with over five years of experience, were asked to reflect on their experience working at EIPs, using an instant messaging app through which private and reflective conversations were held over a period of two months. During this period, the author was granted access to the reflective writing (i.e., messages) exchanged between Yoko and John. About a month into the reflective writing period, a 90-minute face-to-face joint interview was arranged by the author and her research associate to follow up on Yoko and John's reflective writing. Overall, via the instant messaging app and 90-minute interview, Yoko and John shared with each other their experiences teaching at the EIPs in Japan, in which multiple aspects of English, desire, and identity were revealed and reiterated.

Yoko and John

Yoko (pseudonym) is in her 20s and was born and raised in Japan. The other study participant, John (pseudonym), is an Asian American male in his 20s with a background in Science. The two have been together for over 10 years and recently married.

John was already working at EIP-1 when Yoko came onboard. Because John rotated among three different campuses, he often endured a commute of over 2 hours one way. Yoko, on the other hand, was assigned to one campus where she gradually built close relationships with the students and their parents. The expectations for John as a self-identified native English-speaking (NES) teacher and Yoko as a self-identified nonnative English-speaking (NNES) Japanese teacher were different in nature and intensity. John was responsible for all lessons throughout the day whereas Yoko's duties ranged from teaching a lesson to changing young students' diapers. Although in an interview (see below for details) Yoko claimed she "worked as hard as John," her salary was barely 60% of what John was earning as an NES teacher. John eventually switched schools (to EIP-2) whereas Yoko, after working at the EIP-1, decided to seek a different career path.

Details on Methodology

To maintain the anonymity of the study participants as well as that of the schools (i.e., EIP-1 and EIP-2), I must omit some key information such as

how I recruited the study participants or why I was granted access to their personal (reflective) writing on the instant messaging app. Nevertheless, I emphasize that I, as an NNES Japanese female myself, have worked in multiple English education contexts in Japan over the course of several years which prompted me to employ both emic and etic positionalities throughout this study.

To follow up on Yoko and John's reflective writing (in the form of instant messages, labeled as IM hereinafter) using the instant messaging app, I, along with a research associate who was present to ensure the ethics and integrity of the research, held a 90-minute joint interview with Yoko and John. During the interview, I was allowed to take notes, which were used to reconstruct the narratives of Yoko and John for analysis. The narratives labeled as IC (i.e., interview conversation) hereinafter are from the interview and have been confirmed with Yoko and John for accuracy. After the interview session, Yoko and John resumed their reflective writing to elaborate on some of the topics that surfaced during the interview.

In one of the follow-up emails, Yoko and John communicated to the author that they "enjoyed the whole process where [they] could openly discuss and challenge one another." Although their openness and reflectiveness may have been affected by the research arrangements (e.g., their reflective writing to be used as data and joint interview instead of one-on-one), for this study, I placed emphasis on the *collaborative process* in which Yoko and John reviewed and evaluated specific incidents rather spontaneously. This spontaneity appeared to stem largely from the dynamics of Yoko and John's relationship over the years from working together to maturing as a couple.

In what follows, I present some of the findings from my analysis of Yoko's and John's reflective writing as well as of the narratives reconstructed based on my notes from the interview.

Findings: Layers of Desire at the Two EIPs in Japan

Drawing from Motha and Lin's (2014) theorization of desire and Imoto's (2015) contextualization of an EIP, desire in this study is to be examined as a product of a larger "ideology of internationalism that places the 'West' (and 'authentically' western international schools) as the superior and authentic Other" (Imoto, 2015, p. 94). Indeed, this ideology of internationalism is both discursively and nondiscursively shaping social, cultural, economic, and political practices within the nation (Seargeant, 2009). In this section, I focus on the context of select EIPs and delve into Yoko's and John's desire and identity narratives starting from the macro levels.

Operating under a framework similar to what Imoto (2011, 2015) calls the *"authentically" western international school* model, the two EIPs in Japan seem to manifest institutional desires through their employment processes. Specifically, the criteria for potential NES teachers appear somewhat erratic because previous teaching experiences of the applicants were not necessarily the highest priority. John commented on this point as follows:

> Obviously, it would be better [for schools] to have [a licensed NES] teacher. But are there even that many *real* [emphasis added] English teachers in Japan? I was probably in the minority [of those with a teaching certificate], and English was not even my area [of expertise]. (IM: John)

Being a so-called "native" English speaker from the United States seemed to have legitimized John as an English teacher in Japan more than did his teaching certificate.[1] Also interestingly, although the *racialization* of NES teachers within Japanese TESOL contexts has been widely discussed (e.g., Kubota & Fujimoto, 2013; Rivers & Ross, 2013), John as an Asian American male did not recall a firsthand experience in which he felt disadvantaged being of Asian descent nor did he recall his privilege of being an "emasculated Asian American" male (Cho, 2012, p. 220):

> I never felt privileged or disadvantaged, sometimes I felt bad knowing that I was getting paid more than the Japanese teachers . . . NES teachers need to be paid enough not to leave. Even then, there's no guarantee they'll stick around. (IM: John)

Although Yoko as an NNES female experienced difficulty finding a teaching position at EIPs, John's above comment suggests that NES teachers are, on the other hand, in high demand and provided with competitive salaries. On being an Asian American teacher in Japan, John continued:

> I'm somewhat skeptical [about the racialized tradition of Japanese TESOL]. But I wouldn't be too surprised if that was a factor in Japan. (IM: John)

When asked why he felt this way, John responded:

> That's just the way I *imagine* [emphasis added] they operate and what I heard or maybe read. And it makes perfect sense. The schools are businesses and foreign teachers are part of the product they are trying to sell. (IC: John)

Without firsthand experience, John expressed his mixed feelings about how EIPs may perceive their teachers' race. Certainly, John's lack of a racialized experience should not be taken at face value as his nationality, gender, age, and other factors may have influenced his overall experience. Also, John's perceptions may have been shaped by participating in this study and by Yoko's insight.

Nevertheless, within the scope of Yoko's and John's experiences at the EIPs, the NES or NNES status does appear to privilege or condemn the teacher. Yoko added how NNES Japanese female teachers were treated at EIP-1 as follows:

> I felt exploited at times. My pay was much lower [than that of NES teachers] which really doesn't make sense because [in comparison] Japanese teachers work harder, taking the job seriously and putting in longer hours. (IM: Yoko)

This comment resonates with the sentiments shared by the Japanese female teachers in Imoto's (2011, 2015) ethnographic studies who questioned the abilities and work ethics of NES teachers. Although John noted that Yoko could probably have "passed as an NES teacher" (IM: John), the sense of being on the NES–NNES border greatly influenced Yoko's professional identity. Though discursively constructed, the native speaker ideology not only manifested itself in the two EIPs' institutional desires for *idealized* English teachers (Rivers & Ross, 2013), but it also rewarded some (e.g., John earning 1.7 times more than his Japanese colleagues) while undermining others (e.g., Yoko being stripped of the right to earn as much as John).

Moreover, ideologies concerning the West and its authenticity were not only consumed by the EIPs, resultantly shaping an institutional desire for NES teachers with specific backgrounds, but they were also intertwined with the identity construction of Yoko as a teacher who in one way or another consumed, resisted, and worked around such ideologies.

Desire Surrounding Attractive Parents and Teachers

In what follows, I would like to pay close attention to the desires of individuals and their communities such as teachers and parents as outlined in Motha and Lin's (2014) framework. At the same time, I aim to carefully acknowledge the interconnectedness of different layers.

Delving into desire narratives, Yoko and John recounted private conversations with their colleagues at work. For example, it was common for

male teachers of different nationalities including American, Australian, British, Canadian, and Japanese to engage in the "whose (which student's) mom is hot?" conversation at the two EIPs. Such gossip occurred among colleagues in private spaces and in an amicable manner, rarely to be taken seriously:

> Yeah, [the male teachers] are amazingly observant of the "hot moms" and we would joke about their length of skirts or figure-revealing clothes, especially in the summer. I mean, some of those moms are around our age or younger. It's perfectly natural. And yeah, some moms are pretty . . . . That's what we talk about. (IC: John)

To John, gossiping seemed to mean *bonding* with his colleagues and bosses. Nevertheless, there had been an exception wherein a single mother of a student at an EIP became romantically involved with an NES teacher at the school. After this event came to light, the principal put in place solid measures and the NES teacher in question eventually resigned from the school. The series of such events implicitly helped to police the desires that may otherwise be deemed unprofessional and unethical in school settings.

Yet to add to the gender-triggered desire in TESOL, another case was shared by John. Paul (pseudonym) was the most popular teacher at one of the two EIPs. Although he met all the criteria of being what might be understood as the *ideal* NES teacher (Kubota & Fujimoto, 2013; Rivers & Ross, 2013), John felt that it was not a simple matter of Paul being an NES teacher from the West:

> John: He was pretty funny. I think he was a good entertainer and he was a fairly good-looking guy.
>
> Yoko: Yeah, for [house] wives, he must've been eye-candy and proudly "single."
>
> John: I guess. It probably helped most that he was better looking than everyone else. We made him look better, haha. (IM: John & Yoko)

If stripped of his NES teacher profile, Paul was a handsome, sweet, and witty young man. He was naturally attractive to the mothers at the EIP. During the interview, John described another teacher at the same EIP who was "popular" among the Japanese female teachers and mothers:

> I think the Japanese PE teacher was also popular. He was a
> young guy and handsome enough, I suppose. (IC: John)

Whether in preschool settings or not, NES or NNES, when the stage is set, romantic attractions, feelings, and behaviors seem to surface. This gently reminds us that one's NES-ness is simply one of the many qualities of the person (such as the personality, sense of humor, or age) that come into play in the workings of desire.

Mothers' Desire to Speak English Fluently

While working at EIP-1, Yoko frequently experienced a sense of admiration from the students' mothers, many of whom were highly regarded professionals (e.g., medical doctors, diplomats, lawyers, university professors) or were at least married to one. Yoko was at first puzzled by these mothers' affections towards her and regarded their kind words as merely lip service. Over time, Yoko grew closer to some of the mothers who eventually confided in her that they wished they could speak English like her:

> Some of the mothers treated me nicely. They complimented
> me like "*Kakkoii* [so cool]!" I wondered [if] without my English
> skills, they might not have liked me as much. (IM: Yoko)

These mothers' desire to "speak English like Yoko" seemed to have amplified their trust in Yoko despite her lack of childcare training or experience. Although most parents seemingly entrusted their children to Yoko's care, in one instance, Yoko recalls experiencing what could be described as harassment by a student's father because she was unable to properly handle the student's injury that had occurred at EIP-1:

> Japanese teachers were always responsible [for accidents]
> even if the injury had been caused right in front of the [NES]
> teacher's eyes. It was unfair. I remember I was working with
> [a male NES teacher] and even though I BEGGED him to back
> me up [when the said father was threatening to sue Yoko for
> physical and emotional damage on his child], [the NES teacher]
> didn't step in to help me out of the situation. (IM: Yoko)

On one level, the desire of some parents helped to idealize Yoko as their children's bilingual teacher, allowing them to overlook her lack of childcare training. On another, Yoko was reprimanded if an accident occurred at school

while NES teachers were often excused from issues of liability ("because they were not *Japanese*," said Yoko). What is critical here is not simply about the way in which the NNES Japanese teachers were held solely responsible for accidents or unexpected injuries. It also implies that NES teachers were merely expected to fulfill *performative* roles of English teachers (Kubota, 2011), implicitly being led to "hit the glass ceiling" (Garnova, 2015, para. 15) or be stripped of their professional integrity (cf. Appleby, 2014b).

Parents' Desire for Children's Well-Being

Another type of desire emerged from John's narrative. Recollecting the time when one of the students' mothers made a *kyaraben* of John (cf. Figure 1), he mentioned that "Most mothers were nice and friendly, and they seemed to like me" (IM: John). The mothers at both schools bestowed their children's liking of a particular teacher by expressing gratitude through words or small gifts to the teacher. These were likely intended to sustain a good relationship between the child and his or her favorite teacher, on which John reflected:

> I guess there were [students who favored John]. . . . Lots of kids would say they like me, but their English [was] limited . . . [and also] they would say that to almost everyone I think. Some kids may say they don't like me possibly because I am large and look scary. They're so honest at that age. (IC: John)

Showered with hand drawings, love letters, and other handmade crafts on a daily basis, John enjoyed being some students' favorite teacher. Although this type of affection expressed by students may be temperamental, it was closely monitored and reinforced by their mothers who most likely harbor a desire for their children's best learning experience.

Figure 1. Kyaraben of John (digitally reproduced based on the photo of the *kyaraben* shown by John). *Kyaraben* is a portmanteau of *character* and *bento*, a style of Japanese boxed lunch decorated to resemble famous anime characters, animals, or people.

Heterosexual Desire Among Teachers on a Valentine's Day

In the following accounts of Valentine's Day by John, I attempt to present another dimension of heterosexual desire negotiated at the EIPs. Romantically involved or not, it has become a custom for women to give chocolate to their peers, colleagues, or family members on Valentine's Day in Japan (cf. Appleby, 2013). This tradition has also served as an opportunity for the mothers at the EIPs to express gratitude to their children's teachers.

In the case of EIP-2, the Japanese female teachers collectively present chocolate gifts to their male colleagues each year. Although most NES male teachers at EIP-2 are married or in a serious relationship, many look forward to the special day of the year when they get to openly enjoy the attention from young Japanese female teachers. John excitedly shared one Valentine's Day in detail during the interview:

> The Japanese [female] teachers anonymously rated [the male teachers] by connecting dots from "I wish you were my . . ." husband, boyfriend, friend, uncle, or whoever to our names (cf. Figure 2). Those heart-shaped papers were enclosed with the chocolate. Some of us were grumpy because they were chosen as "just a friend" or "coworker," but I cleaned up the popularity contest; most of the female teachers chose me as "husband" or "boyfriend." (IC: John)

Despite John being the "only Asian" NES male teacher at EIP-2 (IC: John), he managed to endear himself to the young Japanese female teachers.
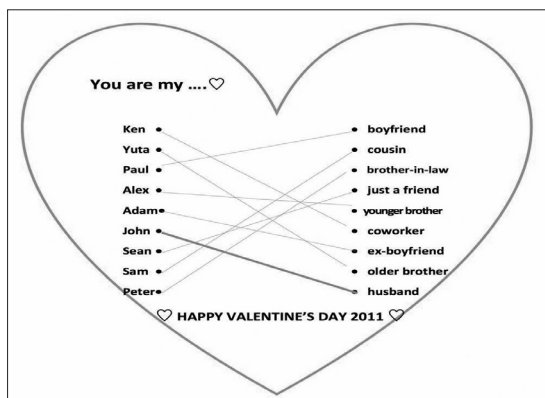

Figure 2. A sample of the Valentine's Day notes attached to chocolate prepared by the female teachers.

Discussion: Reframing Desire in the Japanese EIP Contexts

In the above narrative, I have attempted to illuminate desire on or beyond the boundaries of gender in Japanese TESOL contexts. In addition, although I have examined different layers of desire based on Motha and Lin's (2014) framework, the ways in which desires were articulated and negotiated seem to vary greatly, suggesting the need for further investigation. For the scope of this study, however, I would like to focus on the following two facets through which desires may have been expressed at the two EIPs.

Desire as Performance

The lens of *gender as performance* (Butler, 1990) helps better explain John's participation in the whose mom is hot? gossip, which he claimed had more to do with forging male bonds (also see Appleby, 2014a) than with engaging in promiscuity. In the simplest sense, John may have been performing his hypersexual desire to fulfill his other desire, the desire to belong or cement bonds with his male colleagues.

Within and beyond the gender boundaries, the EIP-1 mothers' desire to speak English like Yoko may be understood as performance also. Although some parents may have sincerely wished to master the language, others may have been posturing to help build a positive parent–teacher relationship with Yoko, indirectly fulfilling their other desire for their children's best learning experience.

On a related note, mothers at EIP-2 have actively expressed gratitude to the teacher through words or small gifts (such as making a *kyaraben* of John) hoping to sustain a good relationship between the child and his or her favorite teacher. As such, based on the examples presented in this study, desire as performance may be both intentional and unintentional while at the same time remaining in a complex interplay of other desires.

Heterosexual Desire Beyond the Boundaries of Race or Language

Elucidated in the case of Paul (NES) and the Japanese PE teacher, young and attractive men seemingly appeal to their heterosexual counterparts, possibly mediating the otherwise overplayed racial or linguistic cards to explain desire in Japanese TESOL. In other words, although the existing desire discourse in Japanese TESOL tends to attribute such a heterosexual attraction to a rather simplified racial (white) and/or linguistic (NES) character of the desired target, Yoko's and John's desire and identity narratives helped to reveal a more complex picture.

Conclusion

In TESOL studies, scholars have increasingly paid attention to the popular discourse of desire (i.e., *akogare*), which most famously transpires between Japanese women and the West. To build upon the existing body of literature as well as to introduce the underexamined context of EIPs in Japan, I drew from Motha and Lin's (2014) framework of desire for this study. Based on the framework, desires at the EIPs were examined, interpreted, and reported on different and interconnected layers including those of learners, communities, and institutions.

As the findings show, sticking to labels such as NES or NNES may obscure the reality wherein desires are in fact constructed beyond the simple NES–NNES binary of the individuals involved. At the same time, in the case of Yoko, the NES–NNES label not only defined her professional identity but also debilitated her economic mobility. Japan's discursive desire for English, NES teachers, or for fluent English speaking constantly surfaced in Yoko's and John's narratives and seems to manifest itself at different interconnected spaces of the five layers (cf. Motha & Lin, 2014).

Finally, two specific facets through which desires may have been expressed at EIPs were proposed in this study. By reframing desire as performance or beyond the boundaries of race or language, this study not only added a layer to the existing body of literature on desire, but suggests that further research on EIPs as a unique site of investigation will benefit the wider TESOL community.

Note

1. To protect the identity of study participants, the specific subject John is licensed to teach has been withheld.

Acknowledgments

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Reviews

***Teaching Young Language Learners*. Annamaria Pinter. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press, 2017. xvii + 217 pp.**

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Annamaria Pinter has taken on a great challenge in writing *Teaching Young Language Learners* for the Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers series. The book has been written to include as many teaching situations as possible, thus not all of the content is appropriate for each teacher, but it does offer value overall for both inexperienced and experienced instructors. For novice instructors, this book gives an overview about what you need to do to carry out professional lessons and also how you can positively influence less-than-ideal teaching situations. For instructors with experience, this book serves as a guide to further reading and research in areas that are specific to their situation. In each chapter, Pinter lists further readings and briefly summarizes the content of each recommended book. This alone makes it a great resource for those seeking to broaden their knowledge through more quality research about teaching young learners.

At the end of each chapter, there are tasks that can deepen the readers' understanding of this book and help them put into practice that which is covered in the chapter. Having such actionable tasks is very useful for all teachers, particularly busy ones who are planning the multiple activities needed to keep young learners engaged. Each chapter, quite sensibly, includes tasks at various levels of difficulty, so instructors can select the tasks that are most appropriate to their context and of greatest benefit in their situation.

In Chapter 1, Pinter summarizes research that has led to modern language teaching. She presents the advantages of those schools of thought and then offers findings from present-day research and insight into how that research can be useful in the classroom. While offering research-based evidence to support the various views, Pinter is deft at allowing the reader to reach their own opinion about each theory of learning. She introduces the main challenges that are faced in classrooms around the world to set the stage for the following chapters that offer a broad spectrum of suggested solutions to these issues. This opening chapter is most useful for new teachers or teacher trainers.

In Chapter 2, Pinter examines research on how the first language is learned and how this relates to learning a second language. She targets both language use at school and at home and describes the various stages of language development that children go through. Pinter suggests that generally knowing how children's first language develops can be of benefit to teachers of young learners. This chapter can help teachers who want to create a program that leads to more natural language use.

In Chapter 3, Pinter discusses the difference between learning a second language at home as opposed to at school. She presents research as to how bilingual children learn languages and how that research can be of use in teaching English as a second language. This chapter is important for teachers to understand how much language can be realistically taught given the time available and the amount of contact time the students have with the language outside the classroom. She shows research on the various milestones of language learning and what is realistic to expect from each age. Pinter includes examples of positive ways to teach various ages as well as various abilities. She lists digital tools and some free online resources that can be of great help to teachers to improve learning at both school and home.

In Chapter 4, Pinter introduces various models of ELT programmes around the world. She covers student motivation in relation to their own learning and how important it is to include activities that motivate students to learn. She lists various types of English programmes and emphasizes how important it is for each teacher to be familiar with the English programmes of the country in which they are living so that they can support the students or at least understand what the students are going through at school. This chapter is useful for private sector teachers but also for public school teachers to understand the types of programs there are in other countries as well as their own.

Chapters 5 and 6 cover the four skills followed by a dedicated chapter for vocabulary and grammar. These chapters are a fantastic summary of various practical activities that can be implemented with relative ease in addition to some that are longer term projects for instructors who want a deeper and more profound experience with their students. Samples from various textbooks are used to demonstrate the activities and lists of free resources for instructors are included. These chapters also contain clear explanations of the fundamental skills to teach students at each age (e.g., reading and writing during preschool years or at public school and specific methods for teaching young learners) in addition to ways to support students and techniques to adapt materials to meet the needs of each class. These chapters are great for teachers with any level of experience as Pinter provides examples of activities implemented by teachers in various countries and situations. Vocabulary and grammar are looked at more deeply in Chapter 7 and the author identifies various ways in which both can be taught more effectively. For example, on page 104 she gives the link to one or her favorite websites and shows how to generate a word cloud to visually show the most frequently used words in a story, and page 106 shows how to use colour coding to increase students' awareness of metalanguage.

In Chapter 8, Pinter addresses the very important topic of l*earning to learn*, which she defines as "equipping students with learning strategies that can be used outside of school" (p. 111). In this chapter, Pinter demonstrates the importance of learning to learn and some strategies that can be implemented to encourage higher level thinking. For teachers in Japan, this is a very good chapter to read because contact time with the language is often limited in public and private English schools. Furthermore, in many cases, native speaking teachers are told not to use Japanese (the students' L1). I believe teachers should read this chapter in order to find creative ways to encourage learning to learn despite the challenge of time and language constraints.

In Chapter 9, Pinter discusses the challenges of creating materials and how to evaluate materials. The author provides various checklists that can assist with the evaluation of materials and then follows that up with suggestions on how to supplement materials to adjust to the specific needs of each class. The author covers suggestions for authentic texts (e.g., *The Grasshopper and the Ants*), topic-based planning (e.g., families), and lesson planning and offers hints for teachers interested in creating their own class materials.

Pinter looks at the importance of assessing students' abilities and the various ways to do that in Chapter 10. She explains CEFR (the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages; see http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/jp/exams-and-tests/cefr/) and its influence on assessment as well as its growing influence on standard test types such as the Young Learners English (YLE) tests from Cambridge English. In addition to practical suggestions for assessments and examples of each, she covers in detail the challenges of assessing the abilities of young learners as well as the dangers of some types of assessment in relation to their (de)motivation.

Chapter 11 deals with intercultural awareness. This chapter may seem less relevant to some teachers working in Japan, yet as the number of foreigners continues to grow, this topic will become increasingly more relevant. Pinter highlights issues related to students from various countries such as learners with lower language ability or a different appearance trying to integrate into a new school and shows activities done by teachers that create positive language and culture learning opportunities for children.

Chapter 12 covers the two main types of research that can be conducted in a young learners classroom: classroom research and action research. The author discusses the role of children in the research and shows a few examples of the benefits of having children play a more active role in research. She shows some examples of surveys for children about their learning experience as well as a student-created survey.

Despite the significant challenge of creating a text that covers the vastly different types of classroom situations around the world, Pinter has brought together research, practical examples, and actionable tasks for instructors to implement. Due to the wide range of situations teachers find themselves in and their various levels of experience, it is understandable that not all of the content can be implemented. However, the book is arranged in a way that will allow each instructor to assess their situation and find the input they need to improve it.

Mixed-Methods Research in Language Teaching and Learning. A. Mehdi Riazi. Sheffield, England: Equinox, 2017. xviii + 316 pp.

Reviewed by
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Mixed methods research (MMR) has become increasingly visible in journals and research texts in many academic fields. Second language teaching and learning are no exception, with an increasing number of studies reporting the use of mixed methods rather than a simply qualitative or quantitative methodology. It is, however, easy to oversimplify the core ideas of mixed methods approaches to research, and Medhi Riazi's text is a timely introduction to the breadth of knowledge and skills required to both recognize and do high-quality MMR. Although the claim that this is the "first volume to examine MMR in language teaching and learning" (back cover) may be questionable—volumes already exist for TESOL (Brown, 2014) and second language assessment (Moeller, Creswell, & Saville, 2016)—Riazi presents a unique contribution to both second language acquisition and MMR.

The book comprises 13 chapters that are divided into three parts. In the first part, the author explores the theory and background of MMR. This is followed by the practical aspects of research in Part Two, such as ways of mixing methods, designing research, and writing research proposals. The book concludes with a final part that introduces a framework for analyzing research from different aspects of language teaching and learning. Useful boxes highlight or summarize the key points, making the work even more accessible and helping readers to easily preview or review each chapter.

MMR is, first and foremost, a broad movement from many disciplines in social research. As a result, many of the ideas presented in this volume are, by necessity, not originally from the field of language teaching and learning. Language teachers attending a mixed methods conference would find presentations from health studies, economics, policy studies, and various other areas of social inquiry. For this reason, it can be challenging for language teachers or researchers to relate to more general MMR texts. However, Riazi supplies examples from language research to illustrate potentially new or key concepts. Moreover, the studies introduced are used multiple times to better anchor these concepts by nurturing familiarity. The

MMR novice may still need to review previous chapters from time to time to fully understand some of the material while advancing through the book, but the most relevant concepts are presented in a clear and comprehensive fashion. Chapter 7, for example, provides point-by-point guidance on the many issues that those making proposals for MMR studies may face as well as strategies for dealing with the issues involved.

Although it only covers the first 52 pages, Part One is perhaps the most important section of the book for the general reader. Riazi presents a detailed look at the underlying logic of qualitative and quantitative approaches before discussing mixed approaches. He also considers the types of data each approach uses, as well as how each tradition is represented, in greater depth than may be typical in some methods texts. Perspectives on integrating qualitative and quantitative data vary and these are explored comprehensively in Chapter 2, which looks at the different philosophies of mixing research methods. The approaches presented in Part One have very technical-sounding names, such as *dialectical pluralism* and c*ritical realism*. However, despite the complex terminology and vocabulary, the text remains accessible. In addition, the ideas represented are useful in considering research methodologies in general, be they qualitative, quantitative, or mixed. As such, this section represents a valuable resource for new and experienced researchers alike.

Part Two deals with the "Practical Aspects of Mixed Methods Research" by meshing teaching and learning with some of the interdisciplinary roots of MMR. Riazi presents five reasons why qualitative and quantitative research might be mixed in Chapter 3. The qualitative and quantitative strands of research are usually presented diagrammatically in MMR, and these diagrams start to appear in Chapter 4, as the author explains the different typologies and notation systems commonly used. Different ways of mixing methods and the resulting inferences possible are all illustrated with examples or research. Some of these examples presage the content of Part Three, where some of the same studies are re-examined in more depth. Riazi concludes Part Two with guidance on writing research proposals, such as for a graduate thesis or grant. This marries the theoretical side of research questions and literature reviews with practical issues, such as budgets or timing estimates, creating an invaluable conclusion to this part of the book.

The final part is made up of six chapters and in Chapter 8 Riazi introduces his framework for analyzing MMR studies, or *FRAMMR*, as he calls it. This chapter also contains a more concrete guide to the use of diagrams in MMR design (p. 182), building on the typologies presented in Chapter 4. After

presenting this framework, the next four chapters each contain two pieces of research from specific areas of teaching and learning, such as motivation and attitude or assessment and testing, as completed examples of review and analysis using the FRAMMR framework. Examples open with extended abstracts before considering the design of the research. These designs are reviewed diagrammatically to analyze the qualitative and quantitative strands, honouring the emphasis on visual representation presented in previous chapters. Riazi concludes the examination of the studies with conceptual, methodological, and inferential commentaries. These include considering whether the reasons for mixing methods are made clear (or can be inferred), which of the five purposes for mixing methods a study might fulfil, or whether mixing is for pragmatic reasons or is more theory driven. These chapters then conclude with recommendations for two further studies that readers could analyze using the framework. A final chapter summarizes the book overall and discusses future challenges for MMR.

I would be reluctant to propose this as the first book for true novice readers of research methodologies, although it would be a good coursebook for those new to researching the teaching and learning of languages. There is simply too much here for it to be considered an entry-level text. Other guides may lay a better MMR foundation for the inexperienced or independent reader. An introductory guide to MMR, such as that by Creswell (2014), for example, is both simpler and shorter. The merit of Riazi's book lies in that it is field specific and addresses language-related issues and topics in depth. As such, it presents a solid foundation for further work rather than an introduction for the curious. For that reason, after having read one of the easier guides, those wanting to go further with mixed methods should probably make this the second book on their reading list.

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Grounded Theory in Applied Linguistics Research: A Practical Guide. Gregory Hadley. Abingdon, England: Routledge, 2018. xiii + 183 pp.

Reviewed by
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In this monograph, Gregory Hadley provides much-needed insights into how to effectively conduct grounded theory (GT) studies within the field of applied linguistics (AL). As the author explains on multiple occasions, although GT represents one of the most prominent research traditions in social sciences, its application in AL has been largely inadequate, and this is epitomized by partial adoption of data analysis strategies, confusion with ethnography, and, worse yet, misrepresentation as "a trendy catchphrase [rather] than a means of inquiry" (p. 61). To remedy this adverse situation, Hadley sets out to offer extensive yet focused accounts of GT's historical evolution, philosophical roots and diversity, and analytic affordances, with a myriad of illustrative examples pertinent to language education and research.

The three chapters in Part I lay the foundation for later, more hands-on chapters by examining various research paradigms within which GT has been used and by providing an overview of GT's origin, evolution, and contemporary application. In Chapter 1, Hadley introduces major research paradigms in social scientific research (e.g., positivism, constructivism, critical realism, and postmodernism). Throughout the chapter, he takes care to help the reader grasp abstract concepts by advancing analogies and spelling out concrete implications of paradigmatic differences for making research decisions. Particularly laudable in the chapter is his portrayal of research paradigms as interrelated and complementary, rather than isolated and mutually exclusive. Such an understanding of paradigmatic differences is a helpful one for novice researchers and graduate students in AL, as the field presents an ever-greater diversity of perspectives, and there is an increasing need for communicating one's ideas and findings across such differences.

Chapters 2 and 3 provide comprehensive accounts of GT's developments, spanning from its inception in nursing research to its current state characterized by conceptual and methodological diversity. Contrary to the

common misunderstanding of GT as being a mere data analysis procedure, Hadley follows Dey (1999) in treating GT as an encompassing research enterprise, composed of a cyclical process of research initiation, data selection and collection, data analysis, and research conclusion. To illustrate how the process may be materialized in AL research, Hadley gives a narration of a hypothetical teacher–researcher project.

In addition to the cyclical process shared among researchers, the author brings into light some areas of divergence in contemporary GT, pertaining to coding procedures, the use of scholarly literature prior to data collection, and the relationship between GT findings and the macrosocial context. Hadley clarifies that such differences are not a sign of weakness. Quite the contrary, he returns to the earlier discussion on the complementarity of paradigms and contends that such diversity represents GT's dynamism and is a driving force for its further evolution. One powerful support for his argument is found in the treatment of the macro context in GT. Although neither Glaser nor Strauss (i.e., the founders of GT) devoted adequate attention to this issue under the assumption that a theory derived from the micro context is self-sufficient, recent proponents of GT (e.g., Bryant & Charmaz, 2010; Charmaz, 2006) maintain otherwise. This reflects the realization that inattention to the macro context would run the risk of inadvertently reinforcing the status quo. In concluding the background chapters in Part I, Hadley compares GT with other forms of qualitative research (e.g., ethnography, action research, and phenomenology) and stresses that a deliberate focus on ground-up theorization from data, rather than top-down theory confirmation or thick description of cultural practices, is what distinguishes GT from the others. It is to the nitty-gritty of the process leading up to this ground-up theorization as well as to theory dissemination that the author turns in Part II.

In Chapter 4, Hadley homes in on some key considerations prior to data collection and analysis. Particularly thought-provoking in the chapter are the anecdotal episodes of *ethicism*—oppressive oversight of research by managerial centers and government organizations. Although ethical considerations are undeniably essential, the author echoes other scholars in cautioning the reader that in some cases institutional review boards are designed to protect universities and not researchers or research participants and that these bodies do not always consider cultural appropriateness. For example, insistence on obtaining written consent (as opposed to oral or implied consent) can get in the way of building rapport with research participants from certain cultural backgrounds. As these issues are relevant to a great number of researchers in AL, not limited to those employing GT,

Hadley's critical discussion of ethicism as well as his advice on negotiating institutionally imposed constraints are of particular value to the AL community.

Chapters 5, 6, and 7 offer practical advice on the selection, collection, and analysis of data as well as the dissemination of research. Reflecting the iterative model introduced in Chapter 2, Hadley shows how the researcher moves flexibly across these stages of research. Although space limitations preclude a detailed discussion here, his guidance features thorough and accurate insights, including strategies for creating descriptive codes (e.g., *use of gerunds*, p. 88), utilizing descriptive codes in soliciting further data from participants (e.g., *repertory grid*, p. 91), transitioning from the descriptive to the interpretive mode using analytical memos, to engaging in constant comparison, and performing theoretical coding (e.g., *dimensional analysis*, p. 120). Through these nuggets of wisdom, Hadley guides the reader expertly towards the creation of a GT that explains the phenomenon under investigation. Furthermore, in Chapter 7, he offers advice on how to effectively communicate one's research to an AL audience by means of highlighting the resonance between one's findings with current concerns of the field, anticipating potential criticisms and responses, and establishing clear evaluation criteria for GT studies.

Despite the numerous positive qualities highlighted thus far, the book also exhibits several shortcomings that the reader should be made aware of. First, the author's portrayal of the field of AL appears to be somewhat overgeneralized, if not misrepresented, when he states that most researchers consider quantifiable *hard data* more legitimate and prestigious than qualitative data. To the contrary, the current state of the field reflects an enhanced appreciation of qualitative research and its value in counterbalancing quantitative findings (see Canagarajah, 2016, for a survey of research in TESOL over the past 50 years). Second, although the author devotes considerable space to providing advice on data analysis, his discussion of the nature of interview data and the resulting implications for research findings is severely limited (see Talmy & Richards, 2011 for a further discussion on the topic). Third, the use of multimodal forms of data, such as cultural artefacts and video recordings, is mentioned only in passing. To help the reader keep up with current developments in AL, such considerations merit closer attention.

These shortcomings notwithstanding, the scholarly contributions of Hadley's work are of exceptional value, especially given that AL, on the whole, has not taken full advantage of the potential of GT. Written accessibly

and featuring a myriad of illustrative anecdotes and examples pertinent to AL, Hadley's book is sure to become an invaluable resource for both novice and advanced researchers in our field.

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Teaching EFL Learners Shadowing for Listening: Developing Learners' Bottom-Up Skills. Yo Hamada. New York, NY: Routledge, 2017. xvi + 188 pp.

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Yo Hamada is an associate professor at the Center for Promotion of Educational Research and Affairs at Akita University, Japan. This book, consisting of seven chapters, provides a substantial overview of the shadowing technique, takes an in-depth look at the theory of shadowing, and examines its usefulness for the classroom. Additionally, Hamada reports on surveys into learner psychology, motivation, and self-efficacy. The first three chapters deal with the theory behind shadowing and detail past case studies on shadowing in the classroom. The remaining chapters focus on the practice of shadowing and its application in the EFL classroom while

providing readers with limitations on the current research. Although Hamada presents research from a Japanese EFL classroom experience, the shadowing techniques outlined can be beneficial to students in ESL environments as well as in other foreign language contexts.

Chapter 1 provides a definition of shadowing, its history and development, and a breakdown of the types of shadowing. Hamada outlines how shadowing developed as a practice from studies in selective attention, was then adapted into training practices for simultaneous interpretation, and finally evolved into usage in EFL environments. He differentiates the cognitive processes within *pure listening* (a focus on listening and comprehension), *interpretation* (a focus on listening, comprehension, and reiteration), and *shadowing* (a focus on pronunciation and prosody), citing studies from Gerver (1974) and Lambert (1992). Both studies found higher cognitive processing with pure listening and interpretation, but that shadowing showed the least cognitive load. This suggests that shadowing could lead to a greater focus on pronunciation and prosody, allowing learners to focus on phoneme perception rather than comprehension. Hamada suggests that, because shadowing exercises do not invoke the use of top-down processing, it is possible to strengthen bottom-up processing, which ultimately contributes to improved listening skills. Overall, this chapter is beneficial to both current and future teachers as it provides a detailed explanation of the theoretical underpinnings of shadowing and demonstrates why shadowing is effective for bottom-up processes.

In Chapter 2, Hamada begins with recommended procedures for shadowing in the EFL classroom with a sample exercise and a step-by-step outline of tasks. The chapter introduces the primary function of shadowing in terms of listening skill development, with empirical data obtained from case studies. On page 25, Hamada provides a table noting different studies on shadowing research and their durations. Although the lack of labeling of the durations is a bit confusing, the three studies described in the chapter are explained clearly. Through these studies, Hamada demonstrates that shadowing exercises can improve low-level listeners' phoneme perception skills. Through strengthening their phoneme perception skills and reinforcing their bottom-up processes, there is less demand on the cognitive load associated with top-down processes and the overall listening level for low-proficiency listeners improves.

In Chapter 3, Hamada presents details of five classroom studies demonstrating how shadowing can be used effectively in the EFL classroom. The studies cover different materials that can be used, situations to

implement shadowing, various difficulty levels, and the use of smartphones. This chapter will be especially of interest to researchers who would like clear information on studies, materials, and the implications of those studies. For educators, it also details how to apply the theories behind shadowing into pedagogy and delineates practical use with examples and data.

Chapter 4, "Shadowing in and out of the classroom," covers the psychological implications of shadowing and discusses motivational strategies. Hamada examined the learner perceptions of shadowing activities and found that if the learners perceived the shadowing exercise as easy, they did not feel it was beneficial. Due to this, Hamada contends that explaining the strategy and its effectiveness to the learners is necessary to maintain motivation. This chapter features mention of the need for comprehension questions before and after shadowing practice to sustain learner involvement and motivation when implementing shadowing strategies into lessons. In addition to a discussion on motivational factors, Hamada proposes that self-efficacy, or one's belief in their ability to accomplish a task, increases through shadowing training. Adapting Matsunuma's (2006) English self-efficacy scale (ESE) to listening self-efficacy, Hamada found that levels of self-efficacy increase as the learners become accustomed to the shadowing activity and are able to identify phonemes better. Additionally, a sense of accomplishment upon the completion of each task increases perceived efficacy as well. In the study, Hamada also found that self-efficacy increased regardless of an increase in ability to recognize phonemes. This information can be helpful to researchers and teachers as they examine factors contributing to learner motivation.

In Chapter 5, Hamada discusses implementing shadowing at the curriculum level, language course level, and lesson level with specific examples from EFL contexts in Japan. Although the cultural setting might not be applicable to all audiences, the discussion on course and lesson design can benefit teachers who would like to implement shadowing. At the curriculum level, Hamada's study found that learner attitudes and the perceived complexity of shadowing should be evaluated in the needs analysis as these will affect the results of shadowing exercises. At the course level, Hamada stresses that shadowing exercises work best in language-focused learning strands (Nation, 2007) as shadowing helps to raise consciousness and puts a focus on implicit learning. At the lesson level, Hamada again suggests the use of pre- and postlistening comprehension activities to reinforce motivation and broader learning objectives.

In Chapter 6, Hamada addresses the limitations and future of shadowing research. Specifically, he categorizes limitations by research design (lack

of control group, design parameters, low-level vs. low-listening level, and sample types) and shadowing research (classroom obstacles, simultaneous/delayed shadowing, perfectionism, meaning involvement, *i*-1 materials, and assessment). Although Hamada does not identify accent as a limitation in his studies, he does note that in future studies, researchers may want to include native speakers of various origins to enhance learner phoneme skills with different varieties of English. He also discusses the possibility of shadowing research in other foreign languages and notes that current studies in the field are limited. Finally, he discusses the possibility of future studies that could further the research in this field, namely, shadowing and speaking skills improvement, World Englishes, and visual-auditory shadowing.

Chapter 7 answers questions regarding shadowing, including the topics of theory, research, psychology, practice, language, and materials. Of particular note, he explains how other researchers measure improvements from shadowing training, describes how shadowing and repetition differ, and further clarifies audio speed and materials.

In sum, I thoroughly recommend this book to educators and teachers who are looking to increase L2 listening skills in low-level listeners. I enjoyed the author's personal introduction and reflection on his own language learning experiences and feel they help the reader more fully understand his research motivation as well as his perspective. The book provides fundamental information on the history and practice of shadowing in the EFL classroom and the findings are supported by a number of studies. Although the research focuses on EFL learners in Japan and almost all of the studies take place within Japan, the concepts, theories, and strategies for shadowing are applicable to all EFL contexts as well as ESL environments.

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タスク・ベースの英語指導―**TBLTの理解と実践** [*Task-Based Instruction of English as a Second Language: Principles and Practices of TBLT*]**. Masanori Matsumura (Ed.). Tokyo: Taishukan Shoten, 2017. xii + 256 pp.**

Reviewed by
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In two parts and nine chapters written by five authors, this book introduces task-based language teaching (TBLT), covering both the theoretical background or "Principles" in Part 1 and the implementation of TBLT in classrooms as "Practices" in Part 2. Although it is targeted towards those interested in teaching English in Japan, the content is applicable to language classrooms everywhere. A notable strength of the book is the completeness of its coverage of both research and teaching. In this way, it reflects how TBLT has generated a growing literature in SLA and applied linguistics in which both researchers and teachers explore the effective use of tasks for teaching and learning second and foreign languages.

The first part of the book explores TBLT's foundations with both cognitive models of language learning and educational philosophy. In Chapter 1, the editor, Masanori Matsumura, proposes TBLT as a way of producing students capable of using English for meaningful, authentic communication in response to current criticisms of conventional English education in Japan such as classes that focus solely on preparing students for university entrance examinations. In Chapter 2, Junya Fukuta introduces readers to key concepts in TBLT such as corrective feedback, task sequencing, and cognitive complexity along with empirical research findings. In Chapter 3, Fukuta then evaluates TBLT's educational philosophy from a critical perspective, recognizing advances made in TBLT while noting that the approach previously lacked a strong educational perspective because it focused on cognitive perspectives for L2 learning and instruction. Drawing from Long (2015), Fukuta also introduces TBLT's core principles including learning by doing, individual freedom, rationality, learner-centeredness, and egalitarian teacher–student relationships. Subsequently, he discusses possible issues with these core principles when implementing TBLT in the Japanese educational context. For instance, one of the challenges he highlights is finding a middle ground between creating learner-centered classes based on

needs analysis and working within the Japanese school system where study goals must be set by teachers for all students. He argues that it is necessary to reconsider the educational purposes and goals in public education so that the teaching methodology better coheres with those purposes and goals. Yu Tamura dedicates Chapter 4, the final chapter focusing on theoretical principles, to responses to frequently asked questions about TBLT. Those questions involve task, grammar instruction, and the use of L1. By adding further theoretical information, Tamura clarifies several possible doubts and concerns teachers may have about implementing TBLT in their classrooms.

Chapter 4 also segues into the second half of the book, which explores how to implement TBLT in a variety of classroom situations. In Chapter 5, Matsumura provides practical information and ideas for teaching English with tasks, a brief summary of task types available for classroom use, and a list of resources, such as publications and websites for teaching materials.

Subsequent chapters deal with the feasibility of implementing TBLT at various school levels. For the elementary school level, Kazuyo Kawamura reports in Chapter 6 on the use of input and comprehension-based tasks along with the child's L1 as effective ways of teaching, based on empirical findings from studies conducted in children's English classes in Japan, Spain, Hungary, and South Korea. For the secondary level, due to the time constraints imposed by preparations for the university entrance system, in Chapter 7 Tamura suggests the use of a TBLT module in conjunction with an assigned textbook. Tamura first acknowledges the dilemma faced by secondary English teachers: producing students capable of communicating in English while meeting the requirements for university entrance examinations. Subsequently, he proposes TBLT as a solution, suggesting specific ideas such as the use of the Can-Do list from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) as an alternative method of needs analysis. Also, he argues that activities in assigned textbooks can be revised into comprehension and/or production tasks, including a step whereby students are required to make judgements in order to complete the tasks. For the college level, Ken Urano shows in Chapter 8 how to design a TBLT course and how to teach, focusing on the specific task, "Writing a business message in English." These specific examples suggest that English for specific purposes classes constitute fertile terrain for TBLT. The chapter provides clear descriptions of target tasks and pedagogical tasks based on needs analysis. Urano also provides an alternative solution for using a relevant textbook when it is difficult to conduct any needs analysis due to the sensitivity of the target discourse.

The book concludes by reemphasizing the importance of learner-centeredness in teaching and learning L2. In the final chapter, Matsumura underscores the significance of providing learners with opportunities to organize, synthesize, and analyze information actively while letting learners make their own judgements. Furthermore, he urges readers to consider L2 ability as an asset, not a limited competence, and encourages learners to be confident with using their L2 to make contributions to real-world communications. Matsumura argues that TBLT frees learners from conventional social systems and frameworks and that it provides future L2 users with opportunities to learn how to use their language abilities to develop their own ideas and values while expanding their perspectives.

This book provides readers with an in-depth treatment of its subject matter in which the authors present TBLT as an innovative approach that can bring about positive changes at all levels of English education in Japan. However, they also support Long's view that TBLT is still a work in progress (Long, 2015). In Chapter 1, Matsumura highlights this by noting that perspectives of TBLT researchers and practitioners on various aspects of tasks and the specific steps to take for implementation are still inconclusive. Fukuta also mentions in Chapter 2 that some empirical findings in TBLT research have led to ongoing discussions calling for clearer pedagogical implications. The authors show throughout the book that, although TBLT is a promising approach in L2 teaching that utilizes SLA research findings, it is not a one-size-fits-all approach. As Matsumura indicates, while maintaining TBLT principles, we need to customize various teaching aspects, such as ways of intervention and incorporation with learner needs, to fit the most appropriate instruction into our own teaching contexts.

Nonetheless, although the book accurately points out the caveats for TBLT, introducing it to a wider audience through the publication of this book comes at the ideal moment in Japan, when vital solutions in L2 teaching, including Japanese as a second language, are eagerly being sought, as they are in many countries around the world. Due to its balanced look at principles and practices and breadth of information, there is no doubt that many will be inspired by this book as it guides readers from an overview to a deeper understanding of TBLT.

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Intercultural Interventions in Study Abroad. Jane Jackson and Susan Oguro (Eds.). New York, NY: Routledge, 2018. xvi + 215 pp.

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Over the past several decades, the growing importance of intercultural understanding and communication in a globalized world has been reflected in the increase in students who take part in international educational experiences such as study abroad. Yet, it is well known that study abroad alone, in the absence of critical reflection, often does not result in meaningful changes to a student's intercultural competence. *Intercultural Interventions in Study Abroad* is a timely compilation of studies that attempts to address this problem by reporting on interventions that implement tasks, workshops, and a variety of other mediums, which seek to augment the positive effects of the study abroad experience through meaningful and sound practices. This book is an edited volume with contributors from wide-ranging backgrounds and educational contexts, including researchers based in Asia, Oceania, North America, and Europe. What unites this diverse collection of scholars, teachers, and program administrators is their interest in the understanding and advancement of sound pedagogical practices in study abroad programs through carefully devised interventions at the different stages of study abroad. This book is aimed at informing the reader about key concepts and theories, sound methodological practices, and guiding principles for conducting research or designing programs in a study abroad context.

The introductory chapter serves both as an excellent resource and as a road map to understanding the book's overarching organization and objectives. In terms of resources, valuable information such as related journals and professional organizations, including descriptions of some of the well-known conferences in study abroad, are provided, which will be highly useful for those who are new to the field and seek to go beyond the scope of the book. This chapter also succinctly lists what the reader is expected to gain after having read the book and concludes by summarizing the contributions of each subsequent chapter, which allows readers to both survey the scope of the studies and easily skip ahead to those chapters that are most relevant to their interests.

The remaining chapters are each written by different authors and thus the presentation and writing style does vary somewhat, but by and large the chapters are well written and follow a similar prescribed organization. For instance, each chapter effectively presents the relevant literature and appropriately defines key terms. This allows readers who are relatively new to study abroad research to better understand the context of the studies that follow. Importantly, all the chapters include a section on pedagogical implications, most of which are highly concrete, practical, and actionable. For example, on page 133 of Chapter 8, Jane Jackson concludes that direct intervention by mentors is often warranted in order to raise awareness about key concepts that would otherwise be missed opportunities in student-centered interactions.

Though the aforementioned chapter structure is consistent throughout the book, it is important to note that the methodologies and stages of intervention are quite different, so that the content is rarely repetitive or redundant. The data collection tools include written reflections, journals, recorded interviews, focus groups, and class interactions, among others. Also impressive was the wide array of technological platforms and tools that facilitated some of the data collection and analyses, such as the various online learner management systems, telecommunication software, statistical packages, and validated data collection instruments. Although many readers will already be familiar with some of these, such as Blackboard and Skype, readers may also learn about other useful software to collect and analyze qualitative data (e.g., NVivo) and validated instruments to measure intercultural competence (e.g., the Intercultural Development Inventory). These give the reader a sense of what tools are available to exploit for the learner's and researcher's benefit in study abroad research. Furthermore, as there were multiple studies reported for the presojourn, sojourn, and postsojourn stages, researchers and administrators involved at any point in the study abroad cycle can glean some insights specific to their context. Finally, although most of the studies in the book focused on interventions involving students, some also included teachers. Chapter 12, for instance, details how cultural immersion impacted the teachers' intercultural competence. This adds a welcome balance that provides a perspective from the lens of those who are often in a position to effect change in the curricula.

Although the overall quality of the studies reported in the book is acceptable, there are two significant and related criticisms: small sample sizes and the overreliance on anecdotal data. To be fair, several of the chapters report on studies with a sufficient number of participants and provide quantitative

data that is triangulated with the qualitative data, which allows the reader to be more confident about the validity of the results. However, other chapters rely solely on anecdotal evidence but are not then accordingly modest in the interpretation of those results. Somewhat surprisingly, some chapters do not contain a single figure or table, relying entirely on quotations from individuals to address the study's research questions. Although there is absolutely nothing wrong with conducting smaller exploratory or case studies, the reporting of these findings should be accompanied with the necessary caveats so as not to mislead the reader.

In spite of these shortcomings, and on the whole, *Intercultural Interventions in Study Abroad* delivers an up-to-date and informative examination of study abroad research. The content of the chapters is sufficiently scaffolded so that those unfamiliar with study abroad research can gain a broad understanding of the key concepts and essential theoretical frameworks underpinning many of the current studies in the field. Aside from satisfying research-related aspirations, the book also provides a good deal of practical advice on how to improve the quality of study abroad programs by implicating tasks and activities intended to enhance the benefits of the study abroad experience. In sum, this book is a worthwhile read for researchers, teachers, and administrators who seek to deepen their knowledge of study abroad research, especially in a second-language learning environment.

Second Language Pragmatics. Naoko Taguchi and Carsten Roever. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press, 2017. viii + 328 pp.

Reviewed by
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Just as pragmatics is defined as much by considerations of appropriateness as linguistic content, our aim in this review will be to consider *Second Language Pragmatics* not only in terms of its content generally but also with a particular context for use and a particular type of user in mind. With this review being cowritten by a teacher of graduate level pragmatics classes and a graduate student who has taken such classes, we will consider this book not as a work

of reference (a role it does fulfil superbly, by the way) but rather as a core text for use in postgraduate classes for students who are likely to become English teachers. To give a little more background on the imagined users of this book in the way we have framed this review, the majority of students would already have studied something about pragmatics, such as having read George Yule's (1996) still excellent introductory text, *Pragmatics*.

As for the organization of this review, the first half is written by Jim Ronald and the second half largely by PhD student Stachus Peter Tu.

The book opens with a fresh and exciting introduction, first to pragmatics and then to second language pragmatics. Rather than getting bogged down in a swamp of historically and geographically varied definitions, it starts with illustrative examples then moves quickly to the circumstances of second language users and the risk of pragmatic failure: communication difficulties arising from misinterpreting or being misinterpreted. Only then are we shown how the meanings of pragmatics have developed in the few decades of the field's existence before going on to a description of three interconnected subfields in second language pragmatics: cross-cultural pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, and interlanguage pragmatics. The chapter ends with an overview of the scope of second language pragmatics and research.

With the second chapter, "Disciplinary domain and history," we come to realize something of the complexity of this discipline-straddling field, with pragmatics, second language acquisition, philosophy, anthropology, sociology, and various other disciplines having a part in the history, development, and current circumstances of second language pragmatics. Taguchi and Roever introduce areas of pragmatics that relate to these various disciplines: speech acts and implicature, politeness theory, and conversation analysis. This is achieved in language that is not overly academic and again with examples or illustrations that are clear and to the point.

In Chapter 3, the authors report on research into L2 pragmatic development: what the learning of pragmatics involves. Starting with the two-dimensional model of, simply put, knowing and using, the next focus is on learning in noninstructional environments, with attention, awareness, and noticing being necessary conditions for intake, even for frequently encountered pragmalinguistic forms or sociopragmatic factors. More classroom-oriented perspectives follow, with skill acquisition theories and collaborative dialogue showing great potential but still in their infancy in regard to research. Returning to L2 environments, we are given a quick overview of sociocultural theory and language socialization before finishing with conversation analysis.

Chapter 4's focus on research methods explains in more detail the various data collection methods that have already been mentioned in previous chapters. These include learner assessments of acceptability or pragmatic meaning, noninteractive production data such as from discourse completion tasks (DCTs), interactive production data as from role-play, elicited conversation, or natural interaction, and verbal (or think-aloud) protocols. Evaluations of each of these are given, from the limited usefulness of DCTs to the gold standard of natural interaction, together with practical guidance about employing these methods and dealing with resulting data.

Chapters 5 and 6, "What learners have in common" and "What differentiates learners," are both concerned with pragmatic competence and pragmatic development of learners of other languages. We learn that despite native speaker pragmatic competence in their first languages, lower level learners of other languages typically lack both the linguistic tools needed for using language in pragmatically appropriate ways and awareness either of the pragmatic devices they do have at their disposal or of the need for pragmatically appropriate language. For English, the belief that the word *please* magically turns an order into a polite request is an example of this. In the chapter on learner differences, the authors consider factors that affect the extent or speed of individual second language learners' production and comprehension of pragmatic language: L2 proficiency, motivation, and personality together with identity, subjectivity, and agency. With little attention paid here to the effect of instruction or changing contexts, the reader may sense, wrongly, that these factors are fixed for the individual.

Much of Chapter 7, "Contexts for pragmatic development," places strong emphasis on the role of natural contexts for learners' pragmatics development but downplays the role of classroom-based instruction. We receive the message that it is the "abroad" aspect of study abroad that accounts for increased pragmatic competence, rather than the "study" element, even though in many cases the study abroad may be predominantly language classes. The assumption that may be taken from this is that pragmatic development is more easily facilitated via an actual environment versus a simulated one.

In Chapter 8, the authors introduce the role of teaching and assessing L2 pragmatics and note the considerable gains reported through explicit instruction. They also lament the poverty of L2 classrooms in this regard, with little structured pragmatics teaching or assessment. This circumstance is also reflected through this chapter; based as the book is on research, it gives little advice other than to recommend explicit, rather

than implicit, instruction and to point to the lack of research into inductive or deductive teaching.

The thorny issue for the pragmatics of native-like or similar pragmatic targets is left unaddressed until Chapter 9, where the authors round off the book with an excellent discussion of globalization and language change, focusing mainly on English as a lingua franca and intercultural competence. Although generally for lingua franca use, there may be an agreed goal of clarity and effective communication, and pragmatic considerations clarify this by including interactional success, mutual considerateness, and the confirming of meaning when in doubt.

There is no doubt that in terms of its scope, detail, and organization, *Second Language Pragmatics* is a masterly work in the area of SLA-oriented pragmatics. Returning to our initial question of whether it would be a suitable core text for a Master's level pragmatics course, the answer would have to be an enthusiastic, yet well-hedged, yes. The book covers much of the research in the field, even pointing out areas where research is sorely lacking. The authors also discuss a wide range of issues and provide excellent examples to illustrate these, together with a very impressive list of roughly 800 references.

On the other hand, with its rather strong SLA orientation, the book tends to downplay the role or contribution of classroom instruction for learners' pragmatic development. For graduate students, most of whom will typically become language teachers, this orientation together with just one chapter focusing on their primary interest may leave them feeling left out. One other important issue is that this book is hard work; there is a lot to digest and, with no diagrams, tables, or discussion questions to guide the reader, little support or scaffolding to help the reader. No doubt graduate students are one key target readership for this book and the others in the Oxford Applied Linguistics series, and with that in mind, the publishers may want to consider what support such a book should offer.

These are both important issues, but neither is beyond resolution. Regarding the SLA natural context focus of the book, for a course over two semesters, we might imagine this book for the first semester being balanced by Ishihara and Cohen's (2010) *Teaching and Learning Pragmatics*, for the second semester. As for the lack of scaffolding, students and teacher could share the tasks of creating diagrams, tables, discussion questions, and a glossary of key technical language: a hard but worthwhile task for the first group of students studying with this book and a very helpful set of resources for students in subsequent years.

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***Classroom Writing Assessment and Feedback in L2 School Contexts.* Icy Lee. Singapore: Springer, 2017. xx + 157 pp.**

Reviewed by
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English writing skills are becoming more and more important in this globalized world, where communication through English emails, for example, is a common daily activity. In addition, with the recent shift in English education in Japan to well-balanced teaching of the four skills, effective teaching of writing is an urgent topic especially for English teachers at junior and senior high schools. However, probably due to a lack of training in teaching writing, many secondary school English teachers in Japan may not have sufficient knowledge about how to use feedback and assessment to improve students' writing skills. Personal observations have revealed conscientious teachers spending hours correcting all of the mistakes in their students' writing, although research shows that such corrective feedback is not necessarily effective (Hendrickson, 1980; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009). Problems like these are addressed in this book, *Classroom Writing Assessment and Feedback in L2 School Contexts*, by Icy Lee, who explores alternative, more effective ways of giving feedback and assessment, based on theory and research.

The book consists of 10 chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction, in which Lee explains the difference between *assessment of learning* (AoL), whose main focus is scores, and *assessment for learning* (AfL) and *assessment as learning* (AaL). AfL and AaL focus more on student learning and are fully discussed in later chapters. Chapter 2 provides an examination of the theoretical principles of AfL/AaL, which are framed by social constructivism. Lee writes, "Learning is socially and culturally constructed, with learners shouldering

the responsibility of learning and the teacher playing the role of facilitator" (p. 12). Then she discusses practical principles for effective assessment such as focusing on the process of writing and offering descriptive and diagnostic feedback in order to help students recognize their strengths and weaknesses.

Chapter 3 focuses on AfL, in which assessment is used to promote learning and improve teaching. Lee argues that although it might be difficult to change the examination-driven system in many L2 school contexts, the implementation of AfL needs to be school based. This innovation requires teachers to collaborate with a shared vision and for students to play an active role in writing processes with a clear understanding of the learning objectives and the assessment criteria of the writing tasks. Then, in a summary of the pedagogical principles underlying effective AfL practices, Lee suggests setting the genre-specific goals of writing and familiarizing students with the language features of the genre as well as the success criteria through prewriting activities. She also refers to the importance of drawing students' attention to teachers' comments before scores are presented so that feedback can make a positive impact on student learning. In Chapter 4, Lee states that as a subset of AfL, the main focus of AaL "is to develop learners who are capable of self-reflection, self-assessment, and self-regulated learning" (p. 41). She then discusses strategies for effective AaL practices in L2 writing classrooms, such as having students actively involved in establishing the learning goals and success criteria and helping one another through peer assessment.

In Chapter 5, Lee examines perspectives on feedback in writing. Viewing feedback from a sociocultural perspective, she argues that in order to provide students with mediated learning experiences, feedback needs to be focused, purposeful, and in line with instruction and students need to engage actively with the feedback through interactions with their teacher and peers. The focus of Chapter 6 is on teacher feedback. Lee asserts that "overall, L2 school teachers' feedback practices deviate largely from feedback principles recommended in the literature" (p. 72). For example, Furneaux, Paran, and Fairfax (2007) found that secondary school EFL teachers focused heavily on correcting grammatical errors instead of providing well-balanced feedback on language, content, and organization and tended to give unfocused written corrective feedback (WCF) on student writing, not focused WCF, which research findings recommend especially for students with a lower level of English proficiency. Lee discusses several possible reasons for the research–practice divide, which include the institutional context that requires teachers to adopt a comprehensive approach to WCF, the examination culture (in

which grammatical accuracy is emphasized), and a lack of teacher training, hence a lack of knowledge on best practices. To help promote teachers' feedback literacy, Lee presents eight guiding principles for effective feedback. One of them, "Less is more" (p. 75), could serve to reduce the burden on both teachers and students. Chapter 7 deals with peer feedback. Citing a number of theoretical perspectives and research findings, Lee maintains that peer feedback is an essential strategy to promote L2 students' writing development. She then points out that in L2 school contexts, however, peer feedback tends to be undervalued, especially with younger, less proficient L2 learners and in cultures where teachers play a dominant role and students avoid criticizing their peers. Lee addresses teachers' possible questions, concerns, and suspicions about peer feedback in the form of FAQs and offers practical tips to help teachers implement it effectively.

In Chapter 8, Lee introduces portfolio assessment in L2 writing. Portfolios are collections of students' writing samples, and portfolio assessment is characterized by student centeredness, multiple writing opportunities, and delayed evaluation. Lee argues that portfolio assessment, which promotes students' self-reflection, self-assessment, and self-regulation, is suitable for L2 school contexts, adding that for its successful implementation, however, teachers need to learn how to use writing portfolios effectively as teaching and assessment tools.

Chapter 9 details the use of technology for assessment and feedback in L2 writing classrooms. Technology appears to be a promising tool to supplement instruction and assessment by human teachers, and this chapter introduces various technological resources and examples of their use. First, Lee introduces digital storytelling, blog-based writing, and collaborative writing on wikis. Then she examines automated writing evaluation and screencast feedback as possible teacher evaluation tools as well as tools for self- or peer evaluation, like Microsoft Word and concordancing (p. 133). She refers to the importance of teachers choosing tools suitable for their own contexts and of learners being provided with sufficient training in using technologies. At the end of the chapter, Lee introduces a project called the "Writing ePlatform," designed for upper primary and lower secondary students in Hong Kong and consisting of tools such as eLab, in which students submit their writing and get instant corrective feedback, and eTutor, which helps students learn about common errors. Lee describes this as an example of technology use with the potential to promote AfL/AaL.

Chapter 10 is devoted to discussing teachers' assessment literacy. Research shows that in general, L2 writing teachers lack and need training

to effectively use feedback and assess students' writing for the ultimate goal of promoting student learning (Crusan, Plakans, & Gebril, 2016; Lam, 2015). Lee argues that exposure to the literature and critical reflection are crucial for teachers' literacy development.

This book is neatly organized and readable and provides L2 school teachers practical tips and suggestions on classroom writing assessment and feedback. Regarding teacher feedback, Lee mainly focuses on written feedback, which may well be the major type of feedback in many L2 school contexts. However, as Langer and Applebee (1986) stated, in a social constructivist view of learning, tutorial interactions between the teacher and students are a critical part of instructional scaffolding. Therefore, one-on-one oral feedback could have been elaborated upon further.

Nevertheless, with lots of specific examples given, this book appears to be useful for many L2 classroom writing teachers. Lee repeatedly emphasizes the importance of collaboration among teachers; she writes that, ideally, teachers should "gather together in professional learning communities in the workplace to discuss ways to develop effective classroom writing assessments and feedback amidst all the challenges they face in their own work contexts" (p. 154). If teachers form such a study group, this book could be used as a kind of textbook to build common ground for discussion. Despite its title, this book is not just about assessment and feedback; it actually deals with how to teach writing, where teaching, learning, feedback, and assessment are all connected.

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Nonformal Education and Civil Society in Japan. Kaori Okano (Ed.). Abingdon, England: Routledge, 2016. xi + 201 pp.

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Learning beyond the classroom is a vital aspect of education, and this is especially true in Japan, with its multitude of self-study, training, and cram school courses offered independently of formal schools. *Nonformal Education and Civil Society in Japan* describes "intentional teaching and learning activities that occur outside formal schooling" (p. 1) and which supplement or, in some cases, act as alternatives to government-sanctioned schools. In this illuminating volume, Kaori Okano brings together nine different themes that help to form a complete picture of nonformal educational opportunities available to various individuals in Japanese society. Programs range from after-school care for children to lifelong learning for senior citizens, and the majority are run by NGOs and/or volunteers.

This is the third English language volume on nonformal education in Japan. However, it has been more than 20 years since the first two (Rohlen & LeTendre, 1996; Singleton, 1998) were published. Okano and the contributing chapter authors add a valuable element to the previous literature by linking the currently relevant government policy to each type of program discussed. The book is key not only to making a large quantity of Japanese-language work accessible to monolingual English audiences, but also to incorporating chapters by authors widely published (in Japanese) in the field.

The chapters all follow the same general structure. First, there is a review of the literature, followed by a case study, and lastly, the author's conclusions, including challenges and necessary improvements. The chapters are well organized and easy to read and information is concisely summarized in the conclusions to each chapter. In this review, I group chapters by themes, rather than in numerical order.

In Chapter 1, Okano provides a history of nonformal education in Japan (known in Japanese as *shakai kyouiku*, or "social education"). She also discusses the major social changes that have been occurring over the last few decades and gives an overview of new educational opportunities that have arisen.

Chapters 2, 3, 4, and 6 deal with supporting school-age children (elementary through high school). In Chapter 2, Tomoko Nakamatsu discusses community volunteer-run after-school programs that provide Japanese language support and a family-like environment to linguistically and culturally diverse (CALD) students, many of whose parents are migrants. In Chapter 6, Hideki Ito gives an overview of alternative schooling for long-term absentees. These schools provide a supportive and nurturing environment, so students with psychological problems can gain a sense of belonging and complete their compulsory (junior high) and postcompulsory (high school) formal education. In a similarly caring setting, Eiji Tsuda (Chapter 4) discusses *ibasho* (places where students can play freely and safely while developing friendships) run by community volunteers. These after-school programs cater to vulnerable elementary school-age children, especially those with disabilities.

In Chapter 3, June A. Gordon tackles a taboo subject in discussing *burakumin* and ways the government has been attempting to break down stereotypes through education. (*Burakumin* are ethnic Japanese whose ancestors held undesirable jobs, and as a result, they have been marginalized and discriminated against for generations, including in employment and marriage.) With this undertaking, *douwa kyouiku* ([formal] schools for integration) were founded to empower *burakumin* youth to match their mainstream peers' academic achievement levels. These formal schools have their roots in nonformal practices with the involvement of social activists and programs to educate students' parents.

Chapters 5 and 8 cover programs that many mainstream Japanese students experience. In Chapter 5, Thomas Blackwood describes extracurricular sports clubs (*undoubu*) at high schools and the positive effects these clubs have on participants' nonacademic education. In Chapter 8, Jeremy Breaden

provides an overview of the strictly formal job hunting process completed during the final year of university and goes into detail on intercultural competence (IC) training. Graduates seeking international-related jobs are expected to possess IC skills, even though, as Breaden notes, the meaning of this catch-all term is often unclear.

In Chapter 7, Okano looks at the ever-changing relationship between formal schools and schools for foreigners (Chinese, Korean, Latin American, several European countries, and English language international schools), noting that these schools have gained wider acceptance and more funding in recent years. (The term *schools for foreigners* can be misleading, as significant numbers of Japanese students are often enrolled, but the primary medium of instruction is a language other than Japanese.)

Chapters 9 and 10 complete the nonformal education spectrum in describing various civil programs. In Chapter 9, Chizu Sato details *kouminkan*, or local civic centres, where programs have expanded in recent years to fill a variety of roles for adults of all ages. Finally, in Chapter 10, Koji Maeda discusses lifelong learning programs for the elderly. He focuses on those that help retired corporate warriors, who had been so dedicated to their companies that they felt "not only at a loss personally but socially isolated" (p. 181) after retirement. The programs help members of this predominantly male group gain a social life outside the workplace and become active members of the community, often for the first time in their adult lives.

Although the book provides a clear and complete picture of nonformal education in Japan, there are two areas where the organization and clarity might be improved. First, the chapters might have been arranged in a different order. Although chapters are currently in order of target learners' ages, there is a large range of program types. Therefore, it might make more sense to group by theme (e.g., support (2, 3, 4, & 6), mainstream students (5 & 8), lifelong learning (9 & 10)), while keeping chapters in age order wherever possible. Chapter 7 describes programs for school-age foreign and Japanese students, so it might fit nicely between the support and mainstream sections.

Next, there is one area that might be better clarified. The definition of *kouminkan* in Chapter 9 is a little confusing. These are defined as "comprehensive and composite community centres" (p. 161) and "local civic centres" (p. 159), but the author also states that community centres threaten to replace *kouminkan*. A lot of the Japanese literature cited in this chapter mentions *kouminkan* without defining precisely what is meant by

the term. The issue might be caused by vaguely worded government policy, but an explicit definition could have eliminated any confusion.

Overall, this book provides an excellent overview of nonformal education in Japan, describing in detail the history, policy, and background of various programs as well as positive effects they have had on participants and/ or the community at large. It also delves into challenges programs have faced, in terms of government policy limitations or how a lack of funding has curtailed projects or forced creative solutions. For these reasons, I wholeheartedly recommend this volume to anyone with an interest in various types of nonformal schooling, including scholars in the fields of social or comparative education (especially with a focus on Japan or East Asia), future participants or would-be volunteers, and finally, parents who might benefit from a detailed description and background information on aspects of their child's education.

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日本語論文投稿要領

*JALT Journal*では日本語で執筆された論文、研究報告、実践報告、書評等を募集しています。
文体:一般的な学術論文のスタイルを用い、章立ての仕方や参考文献のデータの書き方などは、*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (6th ed.)*の定める方式に合わせて下さい。不明の場合は、2019年以降に発行された*JALT Journal*の日本語論文を参考にするか、日本語編集者までお問い合わせ下さい。なお、*JALT Journal*の読者は現場の教師が主なので、特殊な専門用語や統計的手法は、わかりやすく定義するか説明を加えるなどして下さい。
原稿: 長さは、参考文献リストも含め18,000字（書評の場合は 2,500字）以内です。A4の用紙に横書きで、1行40字、1ページ30行で印刷して下さい。手書きの原稿は受け付けません。

提出するもの:
以下の原稿を電子メールの添付書類、あるいは郵送でお送りください。

- 執筆者の名前と所属機関名を書いた表紙
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査読:編集委員会で投稿要領に合っているかどうかを確認したあと、少なくとも二人の査読者が査読を行います。査読者には執筆者の名前は知らされません。査読の過程では特に、原稿が*JALT Journal*の目的に合っているか、言語教育にとって意味があるか、独創性はあるか、研究計画や方法論は適切か等が判定されます。査読は通常二か月以内に終了しますが、特に投稿の多い場合などは審査にそれ以上の時間がかかることがあります。

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投稿原稿送り先またはお問い合わせ:

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The WINC: <https://jalt.org/conference/jalt2019/access>

GETTING THERE

To help you out, here are some simple directions. JALT2019 will be held in Nagoya—centrally located between Tokyo and Osaka.

Air Access

- From Chubu Airport (Centrair): *Central Japan International Airport is 28 minutes from Nagoya Station via the Nagoya Railroad (Meitetsu).*
- From Narita International Airport: *Take the Narita Express from Narita Airport to Tokyo Station (60 min.), then take the Shinkansen to Nagoya Station.*
- From Haneda International Airport: *Take the Keikyu Express train from Haneda Airport to Shinagawa Station (22 min.), and then take the JR Shinkansen to Nagoya Station.*
- From Kansai Airport: *Take JR Haruka to Shin-Osaka station (48 min.), then take the Shinkansen to Nagoya Station (53 minutes).*

For all information regarding JALT2019 please visit
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