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Contents

Articles

Reviews

JALT Journal Information

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 2,300 language teachers. There are 32 JALT chapters and 28 special interest groups (SIGs). JALT is a founder of PAC (Pan-Asian Consortium), which is an association of language teacher organizations in Pacific Asia. PAC holds annual regional conferences and exchanges information among its member organizations. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language). JALT is also affiliated with many other international and domestic organizations.

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

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

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

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In This Issue

Articles

This issue contains three full-length research articles in English. The first, by **Charles M. Mueller** and **Allen Walzem**, is a report on the relationship between willingness to communicate and positive experiences using English in online chats. The second, by **James Saunders-Wyndham** and **Eleanor Smith**, is a report on the relationship between cooperative learning and self-efficacy. The third, by **Ian Willey**, **Kimie Tanimoto**, **Gerardine McCrohan**, and **Katsumi Nishiya**, is a report on a needs analysis for medical doctors in Japan.

Reviews

The Review Editors would like to recognize the efforts by the following authors to meet their deadlines under less than ideal circumstances with the upheaval caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. In the opening review of this issue, **Matthew T. Apple** tackles a volume covering 60 years of theory into language learning motivation. The second title, reviewed by **Alexandra Burke**, has an international scope on research into early language learning and teaching. In the latest innovation to our book reviews, **Greg Gagnon** looks at an influential publication that was not previously reviewed when it first came out: Dehaene's *Reading in the Brain* (Penguin Books, 2009). **Winifred Lewis Shiraishi** then explores the theme of education for global citizenship. Next, an edited volume on creativity and innovation in ELT materials development is summarized by **Tara McIlroy**. In the sixth review, **Kashif Raza** and **Matthew Vetrini** team up to examine the issue of quality in TESOL education. Finally, **Akie Yasunaga**'s contribution outlines a collection of empirical studies into an ideological model of literacy, as theorized by Brian Street.

From the Editor

I became the Associate Editor of *JALT Journal* in November 2015 and the Editor in November 2017. I now pass on the editorship to the capable hands of Gregory Paul Glasgow, who will take over as Editor, and Dennis Koyama, the incoming Associate Editor. As researchers, one danger that at least some of us face is that our perspective becomes restricted as we become experts in our own field while losing touch with research outside it. As I leave *JALT Journal* to return to my own field of specialization, I am grateful to have had the opportunity as Editor to broaden my research perspective. Speaking of being grateful, there are many people—too many, actually—that I would like to thank. I would like to thank all the authors who have submitted manuscripts to *JALT Journal* and to the anonymous reviewers who have read and critiqued these submissions. I would also like to thank the Production Editors that I have worked with, Aleda Krause and Amy Aisha Brown, all the people who have done proofreading, and Malcolm Swanson on layout and design. I would like to thank the other members of the *JALT Journal* editorial team, of the JALT Publications Board, and especially the two chairs of the Publications Board that I have worked with, Jerry Talandis Jr. and Caroline Handley. Finally, I thank Junko Shirakawa and JALT Central Office for all their support behind the scenes.

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—Eric Hauser, *JALT Journal* Editor

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Articles

Is Willingness to Communicate Associated With More Positive Online Chat Experiences?

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Willingness to Communicate (WTC) has been put forth as a model (MacIntyre et al., 1998) of situations and attitudes that facilitate L2 learners' openness to opportunities for L2 use and concomitant behaviors. In the current study, this model's criterion-related validity was examined through a comparison of WTC survey results with results of a subsequently administered survey regarding the online chat experiences of Japanese and Taiwanese learners of English. The participants (N = 190) were Japanese and Taiwanese EFL students who took part in an online chat program, in class and/or as homework. Results showed a consistent association between WTC components and participants' perception that the chats had been useful in promoting English proficiency as well as knowledge and interest in their chat partner's culture. The study suggests that WTC may serve as a valuable construct for predicting learners' perceptions of telecollaboration as a language-learning platform.

　Willingness to Communicate（以下，WTCと略す）は、第二言語学習者の第二言語の使用やそれに付随した行動の機会に対する開放性を促す状況および態度のモデルとして提唱されてきた（MacIntyre et al., 1998）。本研究では、日本人・台湾人英語学習者のWTCの調査結果とオンライン・チャット体験に関する事後調査結果の比較を通して、当該モデルの基準関連妥当性を調査した。被験者（N = 190）は外国語として英語を学ぶ日本人・台湾人学生のうち、授業中または

宿題としてオンライン・チャット・プログラムに参加した者である。その結果、英語の習熟ならびにチャット相手の文化に関する知識・興味の深化にチャットが有効だったという参加者の認識とWTCの構成要素との間に一貫した関連を認めた。本研究は，言語学習のプラットフォームとしてのテレコラボレーションに対する学習者の認識を推測するのにWTCが価値ある構成概念として利用できる可能性を示唆した。

Research has demonstrated that interaction is a powerful means of boosting L2 proficiency (Mackey & Goo, 2007). While interacting, learners often receive corrective feedback, which has been shown to have a positive and lasting effect on L2 learning (Li, 2010) due to its promotion of greater noticing of target forms in the input (Mackey, 2006). Unfortunately, interaction is often hindered in EFL settings by learners' hesitancy to use the target language with peers with whom they share an L1, and a tendency to revert to the L1 as soon as communication problems occur (Freiermuth & Jarrell, 2006). In addition, when learners share an L1, they often adopt a speech style in which various discourse functions tend to be performed in the L1 (Hancock, 1997).

In EFL settings, one novel solution for addressing this issue is to use social networking technologies to connect learners with either NSs or NNSs learning the same target language (for a meta-analysis on effectiveness, see Ziegler, 2016). Empirical research has shown that interacting with L1-different interlocutors results in more negotiation for meaning and L2 production (Bueno-Alastuey, 2011, 2013). Synchronous online video chat is particularly attractive as it allows learners to interact in real time using a platform in which visual information is also available.

Yet for some EFL learners with minimal experience interacting one-on-one with a speaker of a different L1, online chat can pose a challenge. L2 learners' ability to successfully negotiate this challenge is likely to be associated with individual differences, such as the cognitive, affective, and situational factors put forth in the willingness to communicate (WTC) framework (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

The aim of the current study was, thus, to compare learners' responses to a battery of survey questions related to WTC given before their online chat experiences with their responses to a second survey administered at the end of the semester after they had engaged in online chats. From a theoretical standpoint, the findings are valuable as an examination of the criterion-based validity of the WTC construct. From a practical standpoint,

they provide insights into both attitudinal and situational factors that promote positive synchronous face-to-face chat experiences. This paper begins with an overview of research on the use of online chat for language learning and WTC; the Results section presents an analysis of the survey data, focusing on correlations between the two sets of survey instruments; and the Discussion section offers an examination of the theoretical and practical implications of the findings.

Telecollaboration

Telecollaboration is defined by Belz (2003) as "institutionalized, electronically mediated intercultural communication under the guidance of a lingua-cultural expert (i.e., teacher) for the purposes of foreign language learning and the development of intercultural competence" (p. 2). Belz's definition suggests that telecollaboration enables the synergistic pursuit of both linguistic and intercultural competence (Byram, 1997). There has been a marked increase in articles on telecollaboration in recent years due to the ever-increasing accessibility of communication technology and greater awareness of the importance of learning language through purposeful communicative events that involve an authentic need to communicate (Dooly, 2017; Freiermuth & Huang, 2012), and findings that show that telecollaboration promotes more equal participation than face-to-face interactions (Warschauer, 1996).

As implemented in second language programs, telecollaboration takes various forms. On a technical level, it can involve synchronous (e.g., instant messaging) or asynchronous (e.g., emailing) interaction, or a combination of both. Synchronous interaction often involves the use of a webcam (Develotte et al., 2010), allowing for visual support and the close simulation of an actual face-to-face encounter. In terms of pairings, learners can interact one-on-one or in groups, and the pairings can remain stable over multiple chat sessions or can be switched periodically.

A key decision when designing telecollaboration programs concerns the combination of L1s and target languages. In bilingual exchanges, students can learn each other's L1s (Cziko, 2004; Tian & Wang, 2010). This provides students with the opportunity to engage with NSs of the target language, but if done as an exchange, it also entails learners spending equal time using their own L1 with their partner. On the other hand, lingua franca exchanges (Freiermuth & Huang, 2018), in which both interlocutors are NNSs speaking the same target language, have the benefit of effectively doubling the proportion of time devoted to interaction in each learner's target language.

In telecollaboration, lesson structures and tasks vary (Kurek & Müller-Hartmann, 2017; O'Dowd & Ware, 2009). They are often organized as activities performed outside of class time but can be done in class in some situations if the schedules, often complicated by time differences, are aligned. In many cases, particularly when the interaction is synchronous and occurs in class, the activities involve information exchange. In other cases, especially with higher proficiency learners, learners can do projects involving cultural comparison or analysis. Finally, telecollaboration can be initiated by instructors or by the learners themselves.

Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

In the current research, learner perceptions of telecollaboration were examined in association with willingness to communicate. In the WTC model (MacIntyre, 2007; MacIntyre et al., 1998), WTC and associated factors are depicted as a pyramid consisting of six layers (numbered from top to bottom): (1) communication behavior, (2) behavioral intention, (3) situated antecedents, (4) motivational propensities, (5) affective-cognitive context, and (6) social and individual context. These six layers, in turn, are associated with the 12 constructs shown in Figure 1. The model depicts factors ranging from highly transient situational variables (Cao & Philp, 2006; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011) to relatively stable variables such as personality traits (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996).

Two key variables thought to underlie WTC in both the L1 and L2 are communication apprehension (MacIntyre, 1994; MacIntyre et al., 1997) and perceived competence (Yashima, 2002). Some research (e.g., MacIntyre et al., 2003) suggests that learners using the L2 in more naturalistic situations outside of the classroom are especially liable to experience anxiety, which is unfortunate because anxious learners communicate less information in the L2 and are less expressive in general (MacIntyre et al., 1997). Gardner et al. (1989) suggest that perceived competence partly reflects actual competence and leads to reduced levels of anxiety.

Some research supports the notion that WTC predicts the initiation of communication in the L2. For example, MacIntyre et al. (1999), using a structural equation model, found that measures of trait WTC were correlated with participants' willingness to volunteer for a portion of a communication study and, similarly, that stated perceived competence predicted the time spent on a speaking task.

Learners' WTC also appears to be associated with reasons for studying the L2. A study of Grade 9 students in an L2 French immersion program

(MacIntyre et al., 2001) showed that five typical reasons for study (travel, job, friendship, personal knowledge, and academic achievement) were all associated with WTC both inside and outside of class. Moreover, social support, particularly the support of friends, was found to be associated with studying the L2 for travel and friendship.
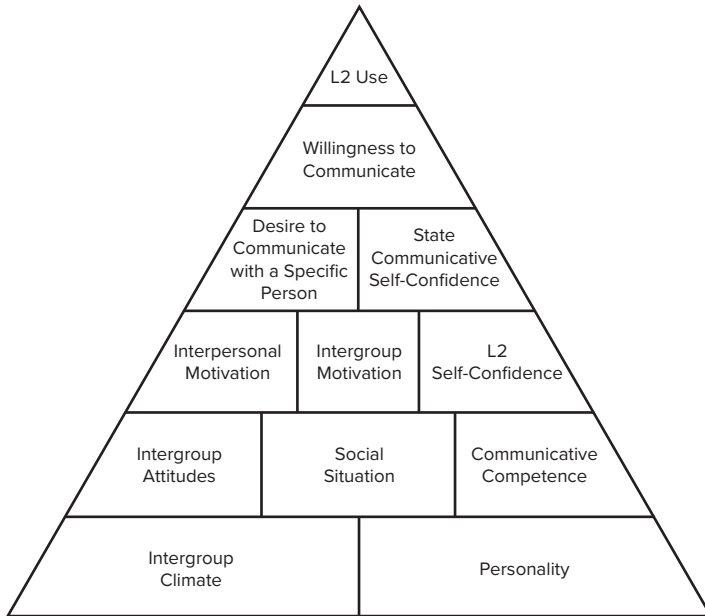
Figure 1. The heuristic model of variables influencing WTC (adapted from MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547).

Telecollaboration and WTC

Recently, a number of studies have examined the relationship between telecollaboration and motivational factors such as those discussed in the WTC model. Generally speaking, participants in telecollaboration programs have reported positive experiences that enhance their L2 motivation. For example, Helm (2015) conducted a survey of over 100 university educators and over 100 students in the EU who had participated in telecollaboration. The overwhelming majority of instructors and students reported that the experience was positive. Research on specific telecollaboration projects (Meunier, 1998) generally reports similar results. Typical in this regard is Meguro and Bryant's (2010) case study of bilingual language exchanges via Skype

between a U.S. and Japanese university. Among their participants (who were U.S. university students), 93.6% said that they enjoyed the activity, 87.1% that the activity increased their confidence, 90.3% that it improved their cultural knowledge of Japan, 96.8% that it improved their speaking skills, and 100% that it enhanced their listening skills. These subjective impressions of improvement are supported by some research showing improved linguistic competence based on objective measures. For example, Saito and Akiyama (2017) found that online chat, in comparison with more traditional classroom activities, led to improvements in comprehensibility, fluency, and lexicogrammar.

Some research in this area (e.g., Freiermuth & Jarrell, 2006) has specifically employed the WTC framework. For example, Freiermuth and Huang (2012) conducted a qualitative study of two groups of English learners who engaged in synchronous chat (texting). The study is particularly relevant to the present research as it involved participants (20 students from Japan and 19 from Taiwan) with the same L1 backgrounds as those in the current study. The study examined the results in terms of WTC, task attractiveness, task innovativeness, and need to communicate in the target language. Regarding WTC, analysis of transcripts suggested that the participants felt relatively high levels of confidence and low levels of anxiety, perhaps due to the use of texting instead of speaking.

In the current study, two lacunae in the research are addressed. First, in previous studies, the predictive validity of the WTC framework for telecollaboration outcomes has not been examined. Second, few studies have focused on individual differences that may predict learners' perceptions of telecollaborative activities. Specifically, this study was designed to answer the following research questions:

RQ 1. Is EFL students' willingness to communicate (as assessed beforehand) correlated with their perceptions of the usefulness of telecollaboration (as assessed afterward) for language learning?

RQ 2. Are EFL students' learning orientations (as assessed beforehand) correlated with their perceptions of the utility of telecollaboration (as assessed afterward) for language learning?

RQ 3. Is EFL students' willingness to communicate (as assessed beforehand) correlated with their perceptions of the usefulness of telecollaboration (as assessed afterward) for promoting knowledge and interest in the chat partners' culture?

RQ 4. Are EFL students' learning orientations (as assessed beforehand) correlated with their perceptions of the utility of telecollaboration (as assessed afterward) for promoting knowledge and interest in the chat partners' culture?

Method

To answer these four research questions, a survey-based study was conducted over the course of a semester.

Participants

The participants ($N = 190$) were 90 EFL students of English at a private women's university in Japan (taught by five different instructors) and 100 EFL students from a private university in Taiwan (taught by a single instructor). The Japanese learners (all L1-Japanese) were 1st-year students enrolled in required oral English classes, with 80 majoring in English language and literature and the remaining 10 majoring in Japanese language and literature. Based on their TOEFL PBT scores, most were at the B1 level in terms of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The Taiwanese group, with the exception of one Vietnamese and two Korean students, consisted of L1-Chinese Taiwanese students majoring in English. Among the Taiwan-based participants, the in-class chat participants were 1st-year students in an English-only class focused on emotional intelligence and gender issues, whereas the chat-as-homework participants were 3rd- and 4th-year students in an oral English (i.e., conversation) class. The English proficiency of the 1st-year students was similar to that of their Japanese counterparts, but the proficiency of the 3rd- and 4th-year students was slightly higher (i.e., at or just below the B2 level).

About half of the participants (48 of those from the Japanese group and 50 from the Taiwanese group) did the online chat in class. The remaining participants did the online chat as homework. Among the Japanese participants, 36 of the participants who did the chat in class volunteered to do additional chats as homework for extra credit in another class. Additional qualitative data for the study came from informal conversations and interviews with the participants' more senior classmates (approximately 250 students) who also participated in online chats during the 3 years prior to the 190 participants who are the primary focus of the current study.

Setting

Both the Taiwanese and Japanese participants primarily used Skype to engage in synchronous face-to-face chats. Research on the use of Skype in telecollaboration (Akiyama, 2014) has indicated that the platform has a number of features that facilitate successful communication. For the in-class chats on the Japanese side, participants from two classes met in a computer room and used newly installed individual computers equipped with headphones and webcams. The Taiwanese met in a similarly equipped computer room. Two instructors were in the Japanese class, but only one was present in the Taiwanese class. During the chat, the instructors from both countries were periodically in contact via Skype to coordinate regarding various logistical problems such as student absences or computer malfunctions and to ensure that each student was able to connect with a partner.

Instruments and Materials

The participants who did the chat in class participated in six sessions that focused on (1) personal introductions, (2) past school experiences, (3) dating, (4) comparisons of costs in their respective countries, (5) rapid information exchange, and (6) travel. For the rapid information exchange, participants had to obtain basic information from a partner in two to three minutes before switching to a new partner. The chat-as-homework participants were given four assignments focused on (1) personal introductions; (2) school experiences; (3) friends, dating, and marriage; and (4) TV, movies, and music. Worksheets were created for each chat topic. The worksheets gave a brief introduction to the topic, encouraged participants to ask follow-up questions, suggested pertinent questions, and provided useful words and expressions. Most were one page in length, but a few were longer.

Two sets of survey instruments were used in the study. The first set was adapted, with only very minor changes (e.g., with brief explanations for unfamiliar terms such as the game Monopoly), from a survey battery created by MacIntyre et al. (2001) used to measure (1) WTC in the classroom, (2) WTC outside the classroom, and (3) orientations for language learning. Cronbach's alpha, a measure of reliability, has been reported after each component of the survey based on participant responses in the current study.

WTC in the classroom was further subdivided into WTC items related to speaking (α = .87), reading (α = .94), writing (α = .95), and listening (α = .92). WTC outside the classroom was similarly divided into speaking (α = .91), reading (α = .92), writing (α = .93), and listening (α = .91). Orientations

were divided into items related to travel, knowledge, friendship, jobs, and school achievement. As can be seen from the reliability estimates, the items had good reliability. The two WTC measures each consisted of 27 items designed to measure students' willingness to engage in L2 communication in academic and nonacademic settings. The orientations survey, based on that of an earlier study (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983), examined participants' reasons for learning the L2 in terms of five categories: (1) travel (α = .75), (2) knowledge (α = .68), (3) friendship (α = .83), (4) jobs (α = .81), and (5) school achievement (α = .67).

The Chat Experience Survey, created for the current study, employed a six-point Likert response scale to measure participants' subjective evaluation of the online chat experience. The survey consisted of 12 items. The seven main items of interest, shown in Table 1, fell into two content areas: Three items (α = .68) sought to determine whether participants felt that the chats improved their cultural knowledge and interest in the target culture, and four items (α = .77) were related to perceived gains in L2 knowledge. An additional five items asked for practical information, such as the number of chats completed. To ensure that participants understood the survey items and could respond in a timely manner, all items in both sets of survey instruments were translated by native speakers into Chinese and Japanese.

Table 1. Items in the Chat Experience Survey

Cultural-learning items
1. I learned a lot about Japanese/Taiwanese culture during the chat.
2. After the chat, I'm more likely to visit Japan/Taiwan.
3. Because of the chat experience, I'm more interested in watching movies or reading books about Japan/Taiwan.

Language-learning items
1. I felt that the chat improved my English speaking ability.
2. I think the chat helped me learn many new words and expressions.
3. I would recommend online chats to students who want to improve their English.
4. Having done the chat, I now feel less anxious about making mistakes when speaking English.

Procedures

Participants were first required to create Skype accounts. They all received a 30-minute training session on the use of Skype along with a handout explaining how to sign up and use the service. Those doing the chats in class were then asked to contact the overseas partner assigned to them for that session. The chats were done during 45-minute classes throughout the term, which meant that the actual chat time was usually slightly shorter (about 40 minutes) because it took participants some time to log into Skype and contact their partner. When the number of students in the Japanese and Taiwanese classes did not match, some of the participants were paired two to one. Participants doing the chats outside of class were given their partner's email and asked to contact their partner to set up a time to chat. If they did not have access to Skype at home, they were encouraged to use other platforms, such as Line, after confirming that their partner had access to that platform and agreed to do so.

Participants took the WTC survey battery at the beginning of the semester prior to all the chats and then took the Chat Experience Survey at the end of the semester, after the final chat. All surveys were taken online using the Quia survey system. Chat worksheets were provided to participants and reviewed in class prior to the chats, and then they were handed in as homework after the chats.

Results

The objectives of this study were to assess the correlations among survey responses related to WTC both in and outside the classroom, language-learning orientations, and participants' chat experiences. The descriptive results for the surveys are reported below, followed by an analysis of the correlations.

WTC Survey

Survey responses from the Taiwanese and Japanese participants were virtually identical. For this reason, and because the study's research questions were not focused on cross-cultural differences, all the data were pooled in the analysis. Table 2 shows the WTC survey responses (N = 190) to items on a six-point Likert scale. Most responses were around 3.5, the median response on the scale. Participants reported slightly more WTC for the category WTC in the classroom, possibly due to the affective support afforded by typical classroom environments. Paired-sample *t*-tests comparing responses for

WTC in the classroom versus WTC outside the classroom for each of the four skills showed statistically higher outside-the-classroom responses for writing, $t(189) = 2.24$, $p < .001$, and listening, $t(189) = 3.01$, $p = .003$, but not for speaking, $t(189) = 1.07$, $p = .284$ or for reading, $t(189) = 2.24$, $p = .026$, at an alpha of .012 (a more stringent alpha to correct for use of multiple t-tests).

Table 2. WTC Survey Results

WTC	Speaking		Reading		Writing		Listening	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
In the classroom	3.44	0.78	3.57	0.88	3.47	0.90	3.63	0.88
Outside the classroom	3.39	0.86	3.49	0.88	3.34	0.88	3.52	0.84

Preliminary analyses of the significance (at an alpha of .01) showed that intercorrelations between the eight WTC categories were significant, ranging from $r = .62$ to .88, as were the intercorrelations between the orientations, which ranged from $r = .41$ to .73. These are similar to those obtained in previous research (e.g., MacIntyre et al., 2001).

Language-Learning Orientations

Participants' ($N = 190$) orientations toward language learning, based on mean responses to the four items related to each of the five orientation categories, are shown in Table 3. Responses were made using a six-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). As can be seen, participants indicated that all five categories represented important motivations for their English study, with future employment being of particular concern.

Table 3. Language-Learning Orientations

Orientation	*M*	*SD*
Job	5.29	0.67
Travel	5.19	0.70
Friendship	5.09	0.75
Knowledge	5.09	0.68
School	5.06	0.79

Chat Experience Survey

Fewer participants (*n* = 136) filled out the final Chat Experience Survey than filled out the preliminary survey. Among those who did (69 from the Taiwanese group and 67 from the Japanese group), the mean response was 4.42 (*SD* = 0.70) for the Culture Learning items and 4.28 (*SD* = 0.63) for the Language Learning items. As the median response of the scale was 3.5, the responses suggest that participants felt that the chats fostered their knowledge and interest in the target culture as well as their L2 learning. The correlation between the two sets of items was *r* = .46 (*p* < .001). Five additional survey questions focused on objective information. Participants reported completing an average of 4.1 chat sessions (with a range of 1 to 6).

Correlations Among WTC, Orientations, and Chat Experiences

Table 4 shows the relationship between WTC and orientations (*N* = 190). In the analysis, the polarity of the orientation-related items was arranged so that a high positive correlation corresponds to a positive relationship between a WTC category and an orientation.

Table 4. Correlations Among WTC Inside and Outside the Classroom and Orientations

WTC	Orientations				
	Job	Travel	Friendship	Knowledge	School
In the classroom					
Speaking	.36*	.32*	.38*	.41*	.31*
Reading	.47*	.34*	.34*	.41*	.21*
Writing	.35*	.22*	.25*	.30*	.18
Listening	.44*	.32*	.34*	.38*	.20*
Outside the classroom					
Speaking	.33*	.27*	.33*	.42*	.34*
Reading	.44*	.32*	.36*	.39*	.20*
Writing	.39*	.27*	.30*	.34*	.22*
Listening	.41*	.32*	.29*	.31*	.10

As can be seen, all the correlations were positive. Using an alpha of .01, there was a significant correlation between orientations and WTC, except for those between two of the WTC categories and the school-based orientation (cf. MacIntyre et al., 2001). In the results, school-based orientations generally showed a much lower correlation with WTC, even when the WTC measures target WTC in the classroom. There was a consistently strong relationship between WTC and a knowledge-based orientation. It is also notable that the job-related orientation was strongly correlated with WTC for reading and listening (especially in the classroom). This may reflect a washback effect, namely, participants' awareness that entry into many English-related job fields requires high scores on exams that assess English reading and listening proficiency.

Of key interest in this research was the relationship between WTC, as assessed prior to the chat, and participants' perceived outcomes in terms of acquiring cultural knowledge and English language skills from the chat experience. Table 5 shows the correlation between participants' (*N* = 136) mean responses to WTC survey categories with mean responses to culture-related knowledge and language learning on the Chat Experience Survey.

Table 5. Correlation Between WTC and Perceived Utility of Chat

WTC	Perceived utility	
	Culture	Language
In the classroom		
Speaking	.29**	.31**
Reading	.22*	.26**
Writing	.31*	.35**
Listening	.21*	.24**
Outside the classroom		
Speaking	.22*	.27**
Reading	.22*	.26**
Writing	.29*	.34**
Listening	.25**	.28**

As can be seen, all the correlations were positive and significant at the .05 level, with correlations that suggested low to moderate associations. In other words, the answers to RQ1 and RQ3 were positive, with marginally higher correlations between all WTC components and perceived language-related outcomes. Rather surprisingly, writing WTC showed the strongest association with perceived outcomes. It is not clear why there should be a stronger association between writing WTC and perceived outcomes than between speaking WTC and perceived outcomes. One possibility is that the association reflects the perceived importance of typing within the chat sessions; participants often dealt with communication breakdowns by using the text chat feature of Skype. Those with greater willingness to communicate in text-based chat may have had more successful communication and may have thus perceived the chats to be more beneficial in terms of language and cultural learning.

None of the correlations between language-learning orientations (assessed on the prechat WTC survey) and the two components of the Chat Experience Survey were significant at an alpha level of .05, so they have been omitted in Table 5. In other words, the answers to RQ2 and RQ4 were negative.

Discussion

The current study aimed to test the ability of WTC components to predict the extent to which learners perceive online chats as beneficial in terms of cultivating cultural knowledge and interests, as well as improving English skills. The findings indicate that WTC components, especially writing WTC, assessed prior to online chat assignments, are consistently associated with better perceived outcomes. On the other hand, language-learning orientations, while closely associated with WTC components, are not closely associated with perceived outcomes. The findings suggest that the skill-based WTC components may help teachers and institutions determine whether learners will find online chat programs worthwhile. At the same time, they suggest that measures to increase learners' WTC may help ensure that learners find the online chat experience rewarding.

The study has a number of limitations. The limited number of participants made it unfeasible to conduct more fine-grained comparisons of subgroups (e.g., further breakdown of results by participants' L1 or based on whether participants did the chats in class, as homework, or both). Furthermore, the participants who dutifully filled out the Chat Experience Survey were likely to differ from those who neglected to do so. This factor must be taken into

account when considering analyses comparing the WTC and Chat Experience Survey responses.

Finally, both discussions with students and the course evaluation forms indicated that the online chat sessions were immensely popular. An extra item at the end of the participants' Chat Experience Survey asked if they ever initiated extracurricular chats with their language partner, whether to further their friendship or simply to practice English. Well over half (62%) said they had done so, with 20% completing three extra chats and another 20% more than three extra chats. Furthermore, prior discussions with students who have been in the same Japan–Taiwan chat program during the previous 3 years have revealed that many students who engage in telecollaboration during their 1st year continue, on their own initiative, to make contact with their overseas partner throughout their following 3 years at university, and in some cases, visit their partner during a school break. These anecdotes further suggest the tremendous potential of online chats to enhance learners' interest in cultural exchange and the use of language for personal reasons going beyond the requirements of their courses.

Acknowledgments

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The Effects of Cooperative Learning on Self-Efficacy in an EFL Classroom

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The objective of this study was to determine whether incorporating cooperative learning approaches positively influences the perceived self-efficacy of learners taking part in a compulsory English language program at the university level. This study tested the hypothesis that implementation of strategies fostering language skill development through cooperative learning leads to an increase in student self-efficacy. Qualitative and quantitative methods were employed to investigate this hypothesis in treatment and contrast groups. Four aspects of self-efficacy were measured: mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasions, and physiological reactions. Increased scores in mastery experience were observed. The treatment group scores for vicarious experience increased at a statistically significant level, whereas the contrast group scores did not. Qualitative findings revealed that, although participant responses support an increase of self-efficacy, no consensus was given to identify which specific classroom factor was responsible for the increase. The results showed that neither group experienced a statistically significant increase in scores for the latter two scales of social persuasions and physiological reactions.

本研究は大学必修英語科目の授業において、学習者が感じる自己上達度に共同学習が良い影響を与えるかの検証を行う。この研究では、学習者主体の共同学習では学習者自身の経験を話し合い、活用することで学習者の英語能力についての自己効力感が上昇するという仮説を設定する。仮説の検証に処置群と対照群に対して、質的と量的の両手法を用いて分析を実施した。自己効力感の４側面である成功体験、代理学習、社会的説得、身体反応を測った。

十分に言語知識を得ることができたと回答する「成功体験」の値の増加が確認された。処置群においては、共同学習のパートナーの経験を自分も同様に感じる「代理（体験）学習」の値の増加が統計上で有意差を示す一方、対照群にはその傾向は見られなかった。質的調査結果から、参加者の回答は自己効力感の増加を裏付けるものの、増加の原因となった特定の教室要因に関しては意見が分かれたことが分かった。処置群にも対照群にも「社会的説得」と「身体反応」の値の増加は統計的な有意差となって表れなかった。

Keywords: autonomous learning; cooperative learning; EFL; self-efficacy; student-centred learning

Cooperative learning (CL) is defined by the instructional use of small work groups that optimise the learning process of their members (Johnson et al. 2013, cited in Johnson & Johnson, 2014). It is perceived that individual participants benefit by aligning their goals with other group members (Johnson & Johnson, 2014). Despite CL approaches gaining strong favour in countries such as Japan (Oxford, 2017; Sakui, 2007), traditional language teaching methodologies continue to prevail. This can be explained by specific sociocultural attitudes towards education and language learning. Williams and Andrade (2008) reported that a noteworthy sample of Japanese university students studying English considered the main sources of reported learner anxiety to be class output and open expression. Thanh et al. (2008) even argue that Western teaching principles are at odds in Asian sociocultural contexts. It is not yet clearly understood how learners from non-Western cultures react to CL approaches in a language learning environment.

Bandura (1977) outlined the concept of self-efficacy (SE), a component of social cognitive theory, as the belief or judgement of one's own ability to attain selected goals. The theory of SE has previously been employed in linguistic research to address the understanding of both student and teacher behaviour (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Pajares, 2003; Raoofi et al., 2012; Schunk, 1991; Wong, 2005; Yılmaz, 2010). SE becomes a prominent variable when detecting student reactions to a CL environment. By understanding how learner-perceived SE is affected by language learning environments, educators can better adjust teaching approaches to cater to the sociocultural needs of students. CL outcomes have been measured within the Asian and/or Japanese cultural context regarding academic outcomes (Thanh et al., 2008), motivation (Tan et al., 2007), learner anxiety (Yoshida et al., 2013), and implementation (Sugie, 1999). However, the importance of CL teaching approaches in relation to student-perceived SE is yet to be discussed.

Purpose

This study addressed the following question: "To what degree is student SE influenced by CL strategies in an EFL classroom?" The research was conducted in classrooms at a private Japanese university in a compulsory EFL course. The study tested the hypothesis that implementation of strategies fostering language skill development through CL, such as group projects and task-based learning, in a strong communicative-language-learning environment lead to an increase in student SE.

Cooperative Learning and Self-Efficacy

Cooperative Learning and Self

Built upon social interdependence theory (Johnson & Johnson, 2009), the CL approach offers learners recurring opportunities to interact in an encouraging group environment with other students, thereby creating motivation to succeed on both an academic and social level (Chips, 1993; Madrid, 1993). Johnson and Johnson (2014) argued that, when individuals support the learning outcomes and well-being of others, those interpersonal relationships support positive images of self, most notably self-esteem and SE. This claim is supported by previous research in American contexts, where it was found that CL outcomes related to an increase in both self-esteem and SE (Johnson, 1979; Madden & Slavin, 1983; Norem-Hebeisen & Johnson, 1981; Oickle, 1980). The bulk of social interdependency theory and CL research was conducted in Western contexts between the 1970s and 1980s (Johnson & Johnson, 2005), and thus greater insight into the relationship between CL and SE is arguably necessary.

Cooperative Learning in the Japanese Context

Johnson and Johnson (2005) maintained that, because cultures differ from one another, so do their definitions of cooperation and the conditions under which they are appropriate. The introduction of Western CL approaches in the Asian cultural context has been criticised as undermining traditional teaching approaches and even referred to as educational neocolonialism (Phuong-Mai et al., 2009). Phuong-Mai et al. (2005) contended that the cooperative class model is fundamentally incompatible with cultures harking from Confucian philosophical thought. Their research referred to numerous aspects (which, in principal, conflict with the CL model) in which abstractions such as power distance, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance are pertinent. Japan ranks high in uncertainty avoidance and collectivism (Bergiel et al., 2012). Not

only do students from strong uncertainty avoidance cultures heavily rely on teacher guidance, they could feel threatened or avoid teaching situations they perceive as unknown and avoid confrontations in order to save face (Hofstede et al., 2010). Thus, students in a collectivist culture may hesitate to speak up in situations that lack a central person of authority such as a teacher. Although CL has been established in Japanese educational settings, it can be argued that it is yet to take a serious foothold in CLT (communicative language teaching) classrooms due to cultural incompatibility. Therefore, more research is needed to help culturally integrate CL as a valid teaching approach.

Self-Efficacy

SE becomes a prominent variable when detecting student behaviour or beliefs in educational settings. Zimmerman and Cleary (2005) argued that SE is less about individual judgements of physical or personal attributes, but rather about personally held beliefs of what one can achieve. Bandura (1997) expressed the importance of SE in the following terms: "Self-belief does not necessarily ensure success, but self-disbelief assuredly spawns failure" (p. 77). Thus, high levels of SE should be perceived as precursors to positive learner development and a key advantage to the construction of a well-balanced class. SE comprises three achievement goals: mastery, performance-approach, and performance-avoidance (Liem et al., 2008). Mastery goals are described as the development of one's perceived competence; performance-approach goals are an individual's perceived ability or competence in relation to peers or others; performance-avoidance goals are one's own avoidance of personal failure to elude perceived incompetence by others (Diseth, 2011). According to a review of over 90 studies by Linnenbrink-Garcia et al. (2008), mastery goals were described as having a positive relationship to academic achievement in 40% of the reported effects, with a similar positive effect for performance-approach (Bjørnebekk et al., 2013). SE and goal orientations can assist in the prediction of achievement-related outcomes, for example, deep and/or surface learning strategies and examination grade (Diseth, 2011; Liem et al., 2008). Personal agency is influenced by the belief in one's effectiveness in performing specific tasks as well as by actual skill (Zimmerman & Cleary, 2005). Increasing SE can aid student development by unlocking learner potential.

Self-Efficacy in Language Education

Coronado-Aliegro (2007) asserts that despite past SE research being applied to educational settings, few researchers have observed how educators can en-

hance student SE in a foreign language classroom. Although research concerning the concept of self has been conducted within the Japanese or Asia educational context (Kimura et al., 2001; Ning & Hornby, 2014; Tan et al., 2007; Ueki & Takeuchi, 2012; Williams & Andrade, 2008; Yashima, 2002), these studies neither offer significant insight nor mark any substantial contribution to the study of SE. Existing research appears to overlook SE as a principal theme of inquiry. A literature review by Raoofi et al. (2012) analysed 32 investigations that used Bandura's definition of SE as either a dependent or independent variable in the field of L2 learning. The authors reached the conclusion that the studies suffered numerous limitations in their research methods, which prevented them from producing substantial results. One such limitation has been directly addressed by the research methods in this paper: The dependence on quantitative data left open the necessity for further understanding through the collection of qualitative data.

Despite Raoofi et al.'s (2012) assertions of limitations in research methods, findings of select authors have yielded noteworthy contributions to this field of enquiry, arguing that increased SE results in positive language learning outcomes. Anyadubalu (2010) ascertained through quantitative inquiry that SE correlated with low anxiety in the language learning forum. Zheng et al. (2009) concurred that fostering positive attitudes (defined as students feeling relaxed and confident) towards freedom of communication whilst simultaneously shifting away from memorised rhetoric benefitted students in the long term. Tilfarlioglu and Ciftci (2011) employed quantitative methods to determine that autonomy and academic success enjoy a strong positive correlation, stating that "the more self-efficacious and autonomous learners are, the more successful they become in learning a language" (p. 1289). Research findings such as these highlight the potential significance of SE as guiding and attaining realistic student goals in educational settings.

Methodology

Participants

The participants were 1st year science and arts majors (aged 18–19) attending a private Japanese university, with at least six years of previous formal English education. Although none were English majors, they were enrolled in a mandatory elementary level English communication course. They showed low-level English language comprehension and fluency and exhibited behaviour that suggested low motivation to study English. All participants followed the same textbook and curriculum. Quantitative data from 90 participants were used from the first round of questionnaires at

the beginning of the spring semester (44 in the treatment group, and 46 in the contrast group). This decreased to 83 participants' data being used in a second round of questionnaires (at the end of the fall semester) due to seven absences in the contrast group. Data from 16 participants (eight from each group) were selected for qualitative analysis (interviews). Students were approached based on their availability and willingness to participate in interviews. Interviews were conducted in the final week of the fall semester. All data were collected using convenience sampling (Dörnyei, 2007) due to its practical nature considering time restraints on students.

Instruments

To obtain quantitative data, a 30-item questionnaire (see Appendix A) comprised of four scales was designed to measure SE. Each item was a statement that required participants to rate their perceived ability on a numerical rating scale (as used by Bandura, 2006, p. 312) ranging from 0 ('impossible for me') to 100 ('absolutely possible for me'). The scales were Mastery Experience (ME; the belief in one's own ability to master a task), Vicarious Experience (VE; the belief in one's own ability from observing others), Social Persuasions (SP; the belief in one's own ability when receiving verbal encouragement from others), and Physiological Reactions (PR; the belief in one's own ability in potentially stressful situations).

Qualitative data were collected and analysed to obtain greater insight into learner perceptions. The purpose of each interview was to gain a deeper and more nuanced understanding of learner's opinions about their experience of the lessons, paying attention to the effect of collaboration and autonomy on their perceived ability to communicate in English. Questions (Appendix B) such as "How do you feel about your own English ability after your classmates do well in class?", "When working with your classmates in a group, did you feel positive about your English ability?", and "When you received support from a classmate, did you feel that your English ability could improve?" aimed to delve deeper into the scales that were used to measure various types of SE within the questionnaire. Excerpts from the interview transcripts protect participant anonymity by identifying eight individuals from the treatment group as T1–T8 and another eight individuals from the contrast group as C1–C8. The interviewer is identified as IR.

Classroom Procedure

Both contrast and treatment groups met once weekly with the teacher for a 90-minute class, covering two 15-week long semesters. For both groups,

students were assessed on individual performance and participation. The contrast group was taught in a teacher-led learning environment, using Kagan's (1989) competitive structures model of whole-class question-answer as a theoretical guide. This is outlined in four main steps: 1) The teacher asks a question; 2) students who wish to respond raise their hands; 3) the teacher calls on one student; and 4) the student attempts to state the correct answer (Kagan, 1989, p. 12). Lesson plans rigidly followed the textbook, with one unit taught over 2 weeks. The 1st semester covered the first six units, while the 2nd semester covered the final six units.

Adhering to the class structural outline, students were instructed to work independently and, on occasion, to participate in interactive communication practice with a partner. Although specific seating was not assigned, contrast group classes were required to sit in pairs. Most classes were teacher-centred, with the teacher eliciting responses from students in front of the whole class. Class assessment was comprised of in-class tests, presentations, and preestablished written homework.

The treatment group lessons were modelled on six CL elements: team formation, team building, class building, role assignment, processing (group discussion), and structures (workstations) (Kagan & McGroarty, 1993). Consistent with the contrast group, one unit was taught over 2 weeks with the first six covered in the spring semester, and the final six in the fall semester. Students were tasked with forming themselves into groups of four to five members and were instructed to form groups consisting of new members at the start of each unit. A team leader for each group was chosen at the start of each unit by the group members. This person was responsible for reporting their progress and problems to the teacher, including reporting absent members of their group. This was allocated 10 minutes of class time. Three workstations were set up in the classroom: a textbook station (focussed on understanding and practising grammatical structures covered in the unit), a task-based activity station (focussed on completing topic-related tasks designed by the researchers), and a research-based activity station (focussed on finding, amalgamating, and presenting topic-related information either to the teacher or to the class in the final week of each unit). The teacher gave instructions for each station in the first 5 minutes of class, and allocated groups to each station. Students had 25 minutes to complete what was required of them before moving on to another station. The teacher was then free to address any issues as they surfaced and to visit each workstation to check on progress. Group members were encouraged to share contact details (using the social networking application, LINE). Participation, completion of tasks, and quality of work were parameters for assessment in this class.

Data Collection and Analysis

The questionnaire was piloted to amend potential problems regarding explanation delivery, item comprehension, and consent-form issues. It was then administered to participants in Japanese at the start of the spring semester and again at the end of the fall semester, to gauge any changes in SE over the academic year. Instructions were given both verbally and in written Japanese. The process of administering, completing, and collecting the questionnaires took approximately 15 minutes per class. Japanese consent forms were explained, signed, and collected prior to administering the questionnaire. Participants were made aware that their choice to withdraw would not incur any consequences. Quantitative data were analysed in IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 26) by applying Paired-Samples *t* tests and a one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA).

Upon receiving both written and verbal consent, 16 participants were interviewed in groups of four or five, in Japanese, and at a mutually convenient location and time during the final week of the fall semester. Each interview took approximately 20 minutes to complete. They were recorded using standard voice recorders before being translated into English by the authors (translations were conducted by the researchers and independently checked for accuracy by two other Japanese speakers who also speak English) and coded to identify themes pertinent to the objectives of the study.

Results and Discussion

Quantitative Data Analysis

Reliability checks revealed each scale had a high level of internal consistency, as determined by Cronbach's alpha. Reliability scores of .855, .925, .863, and .858 were recorded for ME, VE, SP, and PR respectively. Scores for each scale were normally distributed as assessed by the Shapiro–Wilk test (p = .499, .068, .312, and .278 for ME, VE, SP, and PR respectively) and visual assessment of histograms.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 compares the means between the two groups over both semesters. It is evident that the contrast group began the year with higher mean scores for each scale than the treatment group, and this remained unchanged in the fall semester.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Treatment and Contrast Groups for Spring and Fall Semesters

Scale	Spring semester		Fall semester	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
ME				
T	47.68	14.82	56.57	11.28
C	52.04	12.97	59.92	15.29
VE				
T	38.60	16.01	45.68	16.79
C	41.69	12.97	48.15	17.08
SP				
T	45.27	16.24	49.13	15.99
C	48.65	13.20	54.36	17.63
PR				
T	39.27	15.41	44.77	15.13
C	46.17	18.93	50.46	15.90

Note. ME = Mastery Experience; VE = Vicarious Experience; SP = Social Persuasions; PR = Physiological Reactions; T = Treatment group; C = Contrast group.

Paired-Samples t Tests

A paired-samples *t* test was used to determine whether there were statistically significant differences between spring and fall semester mean scores for each scale for both groups. Three outliers were detected that were more than 1.5 box-lengths from the edge of a box in a box-plot. Inspection of their values did not reveal them to be extreme and thus they were kept in the analyses. The assumption of normality was not violated, as assessed by Shapiro–Wilk's test (for ME, VE, SP, and PR, respectively, p = .478, .092, .123, and .540 for the contrast group and p = .560, .722, .271, and .576 for the treatment group).

For both groups, analyses revealed increased ME scores at the statistically significant level, with an increase of M = 6.33 (SE = 2.52), $t(38)$ = 2.52, p = .016, d = .40 for the contrast group and M = 8.89, (SE = 2.52) $t(43)$ = 3.24, p = .002, d = .50 for the treatment group.

For the treatment group, analyses revealed increased VE scores at the statistically significant level, with an increase of M = 7.05 (SE = 3.13), $t(43)$ = 2.25, p = .030, d = .34.

In other words, both contrast and treatment group scores for ME increased significantly over the course of the year, whereas only the treatment group scores for VE did the same. This suggests that students feel like they learn from each other's mistakes and successes, a situation more conducive to the CL environment of the treatment group than the teacher-centred environment of the contrast group.

One-Way ANCOVA

A one-way ANCOVA was run to determine the statistical significance of mean score increases after controlling for spring semester (pretest) mean scores for each scale.

There was a linear relationship between spring and fall semester scale scores for both groups, as assessed by visual inspection of scatterplots. There was homogeneity of regression slopes as the interaction term was not statistically significant, $F(1, 79)$ = 3.927, p = .051; $F(1, 79)$ = .122, p = .728; $F(81, 79)$ = .220, p = .640; and $F(1, 79)$ = .169, p = .682 for ME, VE, SP, and PR, respectively. Standardised residuals for the overall model and for each scale were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro–Wilk's test (p > .05). There was homoscedasticity and homogeneity of variances as assessed by visual inspection of scatter plots and Levene's test of homogeneity of variance (p = .060, .724, .520, and .763 for ME, VE, SP, and PR, respectively). There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by observing no cases with standardised residuals greater than ±3 standard deviations. Adjusted means are presented in Table 2 below.

After adjustment for spring semester mean scores, no statistically significant difference in fall semester mean scores between groups was found for any scales, $F(1, 80)$ = .538, p = .465, partial η^2 = .007; $F(1, 80)$ = .184, p = .669, η^2 = .002; $F(1, 80)$ = 1.28, p = .261, η^2 = .016; $F(1, 80)$ = 1.428, p = .236, η^2 = .018 for ME, VE, SP, and PR, respectively. As no statistically significant difference in fall semester scores was found between groups for all scales, post hoc analyses were not run.

To summarise, paired-samples t tests revealed both groups showed an increase in scores for ME at the statistically significant level, yet only the treatment group showed the same for VE, supporting the hypothesis that employing CL strategies can improve SE. One-way ANCOVA tests showed no

such statistical significance, meaning CL strategies may not contribute to L2 SE improvements.

Table 2. Adjusted and Unadjusted Means and Variability for Fall Semester Scale Scores with Spring Semester Scale Scores as a Covariate

Scale	Unadjusted		Adjusted	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SE*
ME				
T	56.57	11.28	57.13	2.00
C	59.92	15.29	59.29	2.12
VE				
T	45.68	16.79	46.09	2.56
C	48.15	17.08	47.70	2.72
SP				
T	49.13	15.99	49.61	2.53
C	54.36	17.63	53.83	2.69
PR				
T	44.77	15.13	45.46	2.34
C	50.46	15.90	49.68	2.52

Note. ME = Mastery Experience; VE = Vicarious Experience; SP = Social Persuasions; PR = Physiological Reactions; T = Treatment group, C = Contrast group.

Qualitative Data Analysis

The interview data confirmed that, as a result of the treatment learning settings, participants perceived their SE to have positively increased. Despite this, the qualitative data revealed that participants were unable to agree on which variable within the learning setting was responsible for this SE increase. Some participant responses reflect a reinforced belief of self by experiencing measurable levels of improvement. However, others reported that, although they perceived an increase in language ability (mastery experience), such gains were exclusive to an educational setting and not applicable outside the classroom.

Excerpt 1: Treatment Group: Self- Efficacy

```
1  T1: Well, we can speak in the class, but because there
2      is no opportunity for us to speak English in our
3      normal lives, I don't know what my real speaking
4      ability level is.
5  T3: But, we don't have any confidence outside of the
6      class. If I try to use English somewhere else, I
7      don't have any confidence, so I can't say that I've
8      improved.
```

   In addition, data reflected that group interaction is possibly a key element in fostering positive changes to SE. The participants from the contrast group expressed an absence of both (a) social connection between classmates and (b) positivity about their learning experience.

Excerpt 2: Contrast Group: Self- Efficacy

```
1  C5: Support? I've never received that kind of support
2      before. Occasionally I've been corrected if I use
3      the wrong vocabulary, but I didn't feel like it
4      helped me improve.
5  C6: I've never received that kind of support before, so
6      I don't have a reply for that kind of situation.
7  C7: Rather than support, I've had help looking up words
8      in the dictionary.
9  C8: I received support, rather than given support. I
10     didn't feel that I improved.
```

   In contrast, the treatment group participants reported that their group dynamic facilitated language acquisition by supporting individuals to freely express themselves, increasing intrinsic motivation.

Excerpt 3: Treatment Group: Self- Efficacy

```
1  T7: I didn't have an opportunity to speak in English to
2      other people, so when I have a conversation in English,
```

```
3      my English ability has improved.
4  T8: When I studied English in high school, I had to
5      memorise words or read sentences by myself. But during
6      this year, I had many more opportunities to speak to
7      other people, and my speaking skills have
8      improved.
```

Although many of the treatment group participants reported some degree of increase in SE, few of them attributed this increase to the CL process. Analysis revealed that those particular participants were inclined to credit any perceived SE increase to the research process required for task-based assignments, rather than the cooperative process that coordinated group effort. Some participants expressed a view that the factors of learner autonomy and self-directed research had a greater impact on SE than the cooperative aspects of group interaction. Some sample responses even identified the cooperative group process as a source of learner anxiety.

Excerpt 4: Treatment Group: Purpose of Learning
```
1  T3: I'd listen to others speak in English and think "That's
2      awesome!". Then I would start to compare myself to
3      other students and think "Even though they can do that,
4      I wonder what I could do?", and it would make me
5      anxious.
6  T4: Especially, when I heard the people who would go before
7      me, I would think "That's awesome!" Compared to their
8      English, I thought that my [language] level was really
9      low.
```

Excerpt 5: Treatment Group: Purpose of Learning
```
1  IR: Even though you thought, "Wow!", how did it make you
2      feel about your own ability?
3  T7: I thought, "That sucks!" because it made me feel like
4      I wasn't good at English. It made me feel like I had
5      to study more.
```

```
6   T5: When other groups were making great presentations
7       and other things, I thought that I was no good.
```

From the participant's responses, it could be argued that the autonomous learning environment experienced by the treatment group is responsible for the increase in SE, rather than the CL approach. However, such an argument could be misleading as it would ignore established sociocultural attitudes towards educational approaches, discussed earlier in this paper. Therefore, participant rejection of the influence of CL could be viewed as preexisting participant bias.

Interview data identified key elements that indicate participants from both groups lack positive images of self, low SE, and a high degree of learner anxiety. However, the data also revealed that although participants report an increase in certain aspects of SE, there was no consensus on what classroom factor was responsible for the increase. In fact, it is difficult to determine whether participant rejection of the cooperative approach reflected opinions formed as a result of these classroom experiences, or whether they are rooted in cultural attitudes shared amongst a wider learner community. It is possible that the absence of English communication in the day-to-day life of most Japanese people, and its perceived status in Japan as a foreign language, rather than an L2 (Adachi, 2015; Amburgey, 2015; Maftoon & Ziafar, 2013), could help explain this collective response by participants.

Implications and Conclusions

The findings of this study make two noteworthy contributions to furthering our understanding of SE research. First, the results supported the hypothesis that a CL environment can positively increase student SE within a language learning context. Second, the positive statistical variance in SE level shown in the findings validates the argument for the CLT approach being wholly applicable to a non-Western EFL teaching. CL, which has been shown to inadvertently promote autonomous aspects, appears to have no detrimental effects on students' perceptions of their ability. Rather, this study demonstrates that these methods have a significant positive effect on student SE, particularly in terms of VE. Qualitative data analysis revealed that, although not clearly perceived by the participants, group-work strategies appeared to enhance ME through cooperative approaches fostered through developing a student-centered class dynamic. Although shown to fuel aspects of learner anxiety, VE was shown to influence participants' intrinsic motivation, which inspired participants to further their skill and influence perceived SE levels.

There are numerous avenues with which to improve and continue this investigation. First, involving a larger sample size of participants in order to gain a more accurate perception of changes in student SE could benefit research outcomes. In addition, following participants for the full 2 years of their course could offer further insight into whether changes in SE remain consistent. Regarding qualitative research, some of the questions used in the interview could be perceived as misleading due to their phrasing. Future interviews should include an open-ended question design to encourage greater independence and depth of responses from participants. Furthermore, investigating a range of additional variables (such as gender, age, past experiences of English language learning, and major) would provide a richer insight into possible explanations for changes in SE.

The results of this study have potential far-reaching applications for language teaching methodology within the EFL context. Communicative learning approaches have shown to enable increased learner SE, which has the potential to improve learner output and possibly enhance English communication to meet CLT standards of contemporary language education environments. Although this study was conducted within the Japanese context, the implications of these findings are arguably not limited to the cultural EFL learning experiences of Japan. Sociocultural beliefs rooted in philosophical thought that place value on power distance, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance are arguably not exclusive to Japan and are shared by other cultures around the world. By this reasoning, a rational argument could be made to assert that these methods, applied to comparable contexts elsewhere, could result in similar learner outcomes.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix A

Participant Questionnaire

1. Some of the following situations can be difficult for some students to deal with when speaking, listening, and writing only in English. Do you believe that your English ability can help you in the following situations? In the blank spaces below, please rate how certain you are of your English abilities in the following situations.
   - Understanding the teacher
   - Replying to the teacher's question
   - Completing an assignment on time.
   - Brainstorming ideas with peers.
   - Making a presentation in front of the class by yourself.
   - Making a presentation in front of the class in a group.
   - Using new grammar just after you learnt it in class.
   - Using new vocabulary in conversation.
   - Speaking to classmates
   - Doing well on the final exam.

2. When you see your classmates do the following activities, how does it make you feel about your own English abilities? Do you feel that you can do the same as your friends? In the blank spaces below, please rate how certain you are of your English abilities in the following situations.
   - Classmates using difficult words.
   - Classmates having an English conversation.
   - Classmates making a good class presentation.
   - Classmates talking about foreign culture.
   - Classmates being confident about communicating with the teacher.
   - Classmates always completing their homework.
   - Classmates answering the teacher's questions.

- A student demonstrating new grammar to the class.
- Classmates being fast to respond with ideas.
- Classmates improving their test scores.

3. How do you feel about your ability to respond in English in the following situations? In the blank spaces below, please rate how certain you are of your English abilities in the following situations.
   - Being praised by the teacher for my progress in class.
   - Talking to the teacher one-on-one.
   - Being asked for help by my classmates in class.
   - Receiving support from classmates.
   - Doing group work with students I don't know.

4. Using English can make some Japanese people very nervous. In the following situations, do you believe that you are able to remain calm in front of your classmates? In the blank spaces below, please rate how certain you are of your ability to stay calm when using English in the following situations in front of your classmates.
   - Expressing my ideas and opinions in class.
   - Answering the teacher's questions.
   - Using new grammar.
   - Understanding difficult instructions.
   - Making mistakes when the class is watching.

Appendix B

Interview questions

1. Do you believe that your ability to present your ideas to others in English improved over this school year?
2. How do you feel about your own English ability after your classmates do well in class, e.g. when they make a good presentation in front of the class?
3. When discussing foreign culture with your classmates, did it make you feel like you could improve your English ability?
4. When working with your classmates in a group, how did you feel positive about your English ability?
5. When you received support from a classmate, did you feel that your

English ability could improve?

6. Do you feel that your ability to express your own ideas in English class improved over this past year?

7. When you learnt new grammar this year, did you feel that you were able to use it in conversation or in a presentation?

An English Needs Analysis of Medical Doctors in Western Japan

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Despite the importance of English to medical doctors (MDs), few studies have examined the English needs of MDs in EFL contexts. This paper describes an English needs analysis of MDs in western Japan, which aimed to identify how these MDs use English, which English skills were most important to their work, and what their views were on English education. Findings from a questionnaire survey of MDs at one university hospital and five nonuniversity hospitals showed that these MDs primarily used English to gather information, although they were dissatisfied with their university English education for failing to improve their speaking skills. Interviews revealed that English use in unscripted situations causes stress for these MDs, and that most of their English-speaking patients are not native English speakers. These findings suggest that Japanese MDs need general speaking skills more than discipline-specific expressions and vocabulary and signal the importance of communicative language teachers in English for specific purposes (ESP) education.

医師にとって英語は大変重要であるが、外国語としての英語に関する医師のニーズについて検討した研究は少ない。本研究は、西日本の大学病院あるいは一般病院で勤務する医師を対象に、質問紙およびインタビューにより英語ニーズとして英語使用状況、職務上重要な英語スキル、学生時代に受けた英語教育に対する意見を調査した。質問紙調査から、医師は、主に情報収集のために英語を使用しており、学生時代の英語教育ではスピーキングスキルを伸ばせないと不満を持っていることが示された。インタビューから、即興での英語使用はストレスであること、例え英語を話す患者であってもその多くがネイティブでないことが明らかとなった。以上のことから日本の医師には、領域特有の表現や専門用語より、一般的スピーキングスキルが必要であり、特定の目的のための英語（English for specific purposes、ESP）教育に関するコミュニカティブ・ランゲージ教育者の必要性が示唆された。

It has been stressed that Japanese medical doctors (MDs) are in urgent need of improved English skills. Researchers have asserted that poor English proficiency may prevent Japanese MDs from practicing evidence-based medicine (Matsui et al., 2004) and make them less willing to treat foreign patients (Tamamaki & Nishio, 2013). English teachers involved in English for specific purposes (ESP) instruction may be uniquely placed to help these MDs improve their communication skills, and several in-service English programs for nonnative English-speaking MDs have been described (Hoekje, 2007). However, little has been written about assessing the specific English needs of MDs, whether in Japan or abroad. This paper describes an English needs analysis of MDs conducted in rural Japan for the purpose of informing in-service English programs for MDs.

Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is a crucial component of ESP instruction (see Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). It typically involves a triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data gathered from various stakeholders in a discipline that include domain insiders (disciplinary professionals) and outsiders (e.g., ESP specialists); domain insiders give the assessor an understanding of objective needs, while outsiders elicit subjective needs (Serafini et al., 2015). The type of content upon which the assessor focuses can be defined narrowly, such as specific language tasks, or broadly, such as common-core skills and learning strategies (Belcher, 2006).

In the English for medical purposes (EMP) needs analysis literature, surveys of medical students and faculty shed light on the discrete skills needed

by these groups. For instance, Taşçi (2011) found that medical students and faculty at a university in Turkey considered reading to be the most important English skill. In Taiwan, Chia et al. (1998) found that medical students considered listening to be the most essential skill; however, medical students surveyed by Hwang and Lin (2010) considered reading to be most important. In Serbia, Antic and Milosavljevic (2016) found speaking to be regarded as a critical English skill.

EMP needs analyses in Japan have also generated diverse findings. For example, Yasunami (2005) found that most medical faculty at one university considered speaking and reading ability to be most essential for MDs, while students perceived EMP skills to be critical to their work. In contrast, Sakata et al. (2015) found that faculty at two Japanese universities tended to favor receptive English skills (reading and listening) over productive skills (speaking and writing), although medical vocabulary was also considered vital. Similarly, medical students surveyed by Noda and Watanabe (2014) considered vocabulary to be important, as well as the need to link EMP courses with medical courses.

However, these needs analyses typically focused on students and faculty rather than clinicians at nonacademic institutions. One problem with relying on data collected from students is that students may be unaware of the skills necessary for their future careers (Liu et al., 2011). On the other hand, university faculty likely have different perceptions regarding English-language needs from doctors working in nonacademic settings, hence the need to garner information from MDs.

In-Service English Programs

The English needs of working MDs have been explored less extensively than those of preservice learners and faculty. Hoekje (2007) described in-service English courses for international medical graduates in the United States, although the needs analyses that guided these courses were not described. The need for medical graduates to receive cross-cultural communication skills training has been noted in Australia by Yates et al. (2016), and in Ireland by Maddock and Kelly (2017). However, we are unaware of any published accounts of in-service English programs that have used needs analyses of working MDs and a triangulation of methods and sources (Serafini et al., 2015).

In Japan, Tamamaki and Nishio (2013) found, in a survey of MDs in Kobe, that having had a study abroad experience significantly correlated to a willingness to communicate with foreign patients. Tamamaki and Nishio as-

serted that Japanese medical schools fail to provide students with adequate English communication skills, forcing students to gain these skills abroad. Thus, educators must seek to create domestic alternatives to study abroad experiences within English education for students in Japan.

We believe that such domestic alternatives can be realized through in-service education programs. Two of the authors of this paper are English teachers, and the other two have healthcare backgrounds in pediatric medicine and pediatric nursing. At the time of this study, we were employed at the same university in western Japan. This needs analysis was narrow in its focus on language skills needed by MDs and involved triangulation of method and location (as recommended by Brown, 2016). We chose to focus on MDs working in the largely rural area of western Japan, as this was the target population for the in-service programs we planned to design.

The research questions guiding this study emerged in discussions among the authors of this paper while developing the research instruments. We first hypothesized that there were differences between the English needs and experiences of MDs working at university hospitals and MDs at hospitals not affiliated with a university. One difference is that involvement in research is obligatory only for MDs at university hospitals. Moreover, MDs at university hospitals may apply for government grants (*kakenhi*) to fund their research; such funding is unavailable for MDs at other hospitals. MDs at university hospitals may also be involved in education and exchange programs involving international students and faculty. Understanding the differences between these two groups of MDs would help us to plan in-service programs for both groups. Hence, four main questions emerged from our discussions:

RQ1.	For what purposes do MDs at (university and nonuniversity) hospitals in western Japan use English for their work?

RQ2.	Which English skill (reading, writing, speaking, or listening) do these MDs need most for their work?

RQ3.	Which English topics do these MDs regard as most important for future MDs?

RQ4.	What do these MDs think about in-service programs for learning English?

Methodology

Quantitative Data

Questionnaire

A 15-item questionnaire in Japanese was drafted, including a variety of item types. The questionnaire was kept short so as not to be off-putting to busy MDs. The questionnaire was piloted with 21 MDs working at a university hospital. To establish face validity of the questionnaire (see Jungner et al., 2018), two of the authors met with five pilot participants to discuss their responses. The respondents made a few minor suggestions regarding the phrasing and ordering of items. We were also advised to drop two questions concerning frequency of skill use and participants' English education to shorten the questionnaire. Based on this feedback, the questionnaire was revised. The study plan and all materials were then approved by the Institutional Review Board at our university.

Participant Hospitals and MDs

We then contacted six hospitals and negotiated the method of conducting the survey. In five of the hospitals, paper questionnaires were distributed to all MD staff. The sixth site elected to conduct the survey using their intranet system. Because an electronic survey was used at that site, there was less need to keep it visibly short and thus the two questions excluded from the paper questionnaire following the pilot study were reintroduced. An English translation of the questionnaire used for the sixth site (including all the items) appears in Appendix A. A total of 1,031 questionnaires were distributed and 427 valid responses were received, giving a response rate of 56%. Table 1 shows information about participant hospitals: the number of beds and MDs employed; the number of questionnaires distributed and collected; and response rates.

Responses were then divided into two groups: those from the university hospital (participant hospital 1) and from the five nonuniversity hospitals (participant hospitals 2–6). As the difference between the number of MDs in both groups was not large (186 in the university group, and 241 for the nonuniversity group) we judged that statistical comparisons were appropriate. Completed questionnaires were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 24). Statistical tests consisted of chi-square comparisons and independent samples t tests; effect size was calculated by obtaining Cohen's d and Cramer's V, respectively.

Table 1. Participant Hospitals and Response Rates

Hospital	Type	Beds	MDs	Questionnaires submitted	Questionnaires received	Response rate
1	University	587	213	213	186	87%
2	Nonuniversity	531	192	192	69	36%
3	Nonuniversity	482	90	90	56	62%
4	Nonuniversity	179	32	32	23	72%
5	Nonuniversity	234	24	24	15	63%
6	Nonuniversity	1,166	480	480	78	16%

General information about respondents (gender, mean number of years of employment, and highest degree earned) is shown in Tables 2 and 3, and the age ranges of MDs are shown in Table 4. We asked participants to select their age range (e.g., 30–39) because we thought some participants might hesitate to write their exact age.

Table 2. Participant Profiles: Gender and Work Experience

Group	Gender						Years working	
	Male		Female		No response			
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*M*	*SD*
University (*n* = 186)	123	68	57	32	6	3	12.5	8.2
Nonuniversity (*n* = 241)	181	77	55	23	5	2	14.5	11.3

Table 3. Participant Profiles: Highest Degree Earned

Group	MD	PhD	No response
University (*n* = 186)	120 (67)	59 (33)	7 (4)
Nonuniversity (*n* = 241)	180 (75)	59 (25)	2 (1)

Note. Percentages are presented in parentheses.

Table 4. Participant Profiles: Age Ranges

Group	20–29	30–39	40–49	50–59	60–69	70+	No response
University (*n* = 186)	19 (10)	90 (48)	53 (28)	19 (10)	4 (2)	0 (0)	1 (0)
Nonuniversity (*n* = 241)	49 (20)	67 (28)	56 (23)	53 (22)	14 (6)	1 (0)	1 (0)

Note. Percentages are presented in parentheses.

An independent samples *t* test was conducted to compare the mean years of work experience between the two groups. A significant difference was found between the university (*M* = 12.5, *SD* = 8.24) and nonuniversity (*M* = 14.5, *SD* = 11.25) groups (*t*(410) = -2.11, *p* = .036; *d* = 0.21); referring to threshold values described in Kotrlik et al. (2011), the effect size for this analysis was found to be small. The nonuniversity MDs were employed for significantly longer than the university MDs. In addition, chi-square comparisons were made between the two groups for gender, highest degree earned, and age ranges. A significant difference was found for age ranges (χ^2 = 32.73, *df* = 5, *p* = .00; *V* = .278). The *V* value (.105) indicated a small, but meaningful, association between the two categories. Although the university group had a higher percentage of MDs in their 30s and 40s, the nonuniversity group consisted of a greater number of MDs below 30 and older than 50; the university group thus included a greater number of mid-career MDs.

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data included two sources: responses to open-ended items on the questionnaire and semistructured interviews of 10 MDs. A total of 258 MDs wrote responses in Japanese to describe their attitudes towards in-service English programs and their English needs. Interview participants

were selected through opportunity sampling (Dörnyei, 2007); two MDs who were known to one of the authors were selected, and they recommended other interview candidates. To increase the possibility that participants had experiences using English, they were required to have worked for at least 5 years as MDs. Profiles of interviewees (their gender, department, type of hospital where employed, years of work experience, and experience abroad) are shown in Table 5. One participant (MD1) was exceptional in that she had spent 8 years living abroad (in the United States and Brazil). Five others had no experience residing abroad for over 1 month, and the other four had stayed abroad for less than a year in study-abroad programs at university. Six interviewees were employed at the university hospital where this survey was conducted; the other four were employed at one of the nonuniversity hospitals. Interview questions are included in Appendix B. Informed consent was obtained from all interview participants.

Table 5. Interviewee Profiles

Participant	Group	Gender	Department	Work experience (years)	Experience abroad
MD1	University	Female	Pediatrics	7	8 years
MD2	University	Female	Pediatrics	15	None
MD3	University	Male	Pediatrics	5	None
MD4	University	Male	Anesthesiology	15	1 month
MD5	University	Female	Hematology	7	6 months
MD6	University	Male	Urology	12	None
MD7	Nonuniversity	Male	Urology	6	None
MD8	Nonuniversity	Male	Pediatrics	21	None
MD9	Nonuniversity	Male	Orthopedic Surgery	10	3 months
MD10	Nonuniversity	Male	Gastroenterology	16	11 months

Interviews were conducted by one or two of the authors, in either Japanese or English, and were approximately 30 to 90 minutes in length. Interviews were recorded and fully transcribed. Questionnaire responses and interview transcripts underwent thematic coding by the first author using NVivo 11 (QSR International) in consultation with the other authors. The constant comparative method (Boeije, 2002) was used during analysis; themes emerged inductively as sources and the developing coding scheme were compared. To ensure reliability, a randomly selected sample of about 10% of the data was recoded by a third coder (a Japanese-proficient English teacher), using the prepared coding scheme. Results indicated strong agreement with the first coding (κ = .85), following criteria in Landis and Koch (1977).

Results and Discussion

Quantitative Findings

How MDs Use English at Work

The first survey question concerned whether the MDs have used English in their work. These findings are shown in Table 6. A chi-square comparison between the two groups revealed a significant difference (χ^2 = 4.73, *df* = 1, *p* = .03; *V* = .105). The *V* value (.105) indicated a weak association between the two categories, meaning MDs at the university hospital used English significantly more than those at the nonuniversity hospitals. However, both groups made use of English at work, and the difference between them (5%) is not striking.

Table 6. English Use at Work

Group	Yes	No
University (*n* = 186)	180 (97)	6 (3)
Nonuniversity (*n* = 241)	221 (92)	20 (8)

Note. Percentages are presented in parentheses.

The next question concerned how participants use English at work. Nine options were provided, and more than one item could be selected. These findings are shown in Table 7. The main purpose for using English for both groups was to get information from the Internet or other sources. Chi-square comparisons were done between groups for each item. Significant differences were found for four items: to talk to patients and their families

(χ^2 = 6.91, *df* = 1, *p* = .009; *V* = .13); to communicate with medical staff (χ^2 = 8.368, *df* = 1, *p* = .004; *V* = .144); to prepare journal manuscripts (χ^2 = 10.077, *df* = 1, *p* = .002; *V* = .158); and to prepare for international presentations (χ^2 = 4.724, *df* = 1, *p* = .03; *V* = .108). Effect size measurements indicated a weak association between categories, suggesting MDs in the university group were using English significantly less often than the nonuniversity MDs to speak to foreign patients, and significantly more often to communicate with staff, prepare journal manuscripts, and prepare for international presentations.

Table 7. Reasons for Using English at Work

Reason	University (*n* = 181)	Nonuniversity (*n* = 224)
Domestic presentations	48 (27)	45 (20)
For friends, acquaintances	33 (18)	23 (10)
International presentations	78 (43)	73 (33)
Manuscript preparation	122 (68)	116 (52)
To communicate with staff	63 (35)	49 (22)
To get information	127 (70)	163 (73)
To prepare reports at work	21 (12)	20 (9)
To talk to patients, families	76 (42)	124 (55)
Other	7 (4)	2 (1)

Note. Percentages are presented in parentheses.

The next question asked respondents who had used English at work to choose the English skill (reading, writing, speaking, or listening) most necessary for their work. Table 8 shows these results. MDs in both groups chose reading to be the most necessary skill, followed by speaking, listening, and writing. Chi-square comparisons were made between groups, but no significant differences were found.

Table 8. The English Skill MDs Need Most

Skill	University (*n* = 176)	Nonuniversity (n = 219)
Reading	91 (52)	116 (53)
Speaking	42 (24)	54 (25)
Listening	23 (13)	34 (16)
Writing	20 (11)	15 (7)

Note. Percentages are presented in parentheses.

The question concerning how often these MDs were using each skill was included only for the online survey at the sixth hospital site. Reading was the most frequently used skill, with about 70 percent of respondents reading something in English at least once per week. Speaking, listening, and writing occurred less frequently, with most using these skills only a few to several times per year, if at all. These findings are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Frequency of English Skill Use at One Nonuniversity Hospital

Frequency	Reading (*n* = 69)	Speaking (*n* = 68)	Listening (*n* = 68)	Writing (*n* = 67)
Almost every day	22 (32)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (3)
About 2–5 times per week	15 (22)	1 (2)	2 (3)	2 (3)
About once per week	11 (16)	4 (6)	6 (9)	8 (12)
About once per month	9 (13)	3 (4)	6 (9)	11 (16)
About 3–11 times per year	7 (10)	16 (24)	20 (29)	10 (15)
About 1–2 times per year	3 (4)	32 (47)	20 (29)	21 (31)
Not using this skill at all	2 (3)	12 (18)	14 (21)	13 (19)

Note. Percentages are presented in parentheses.

The responses above help to answer the first two research questions posed for this study. First, regarding MDs' purposes for using English, both groups used English mainly to get information, prepare manuscripts, and speak with patients. MDs at the university hospital used English significantly more often than nonuniversity MDs to prepare journal manuscripts, prepare for inter-

national conference presentations, and communicate with medical staff, but significantly less often to speak to patients. These findings suggest that research activities were indeed of greater concern to the university MDs, while the nonuniversity MDs were more focused on clinical work.

The second research question concerned the skill that participants consider most necessary for their work; both university and nonuniversity MDs considered reading to be most important, with roughly one-third of the MDs at one nonuniversity hospital reading in English almost every day. These findings support several studies (e.g., Taşçi, 2011) that found that MDs or medical students considered reading to be the most important skill for MDs; in fact, the ranking of skills in this study (reading, speaking, listening, and writing) is identical to that in Taşçi (2011).

How MDs Evaluate Their University English Education

Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree that the English education they received in university was useful to their work, and of satisfaction to them. Table 10 shows these results. Overall, MDs in both groups viewed their university English education as being neither useful nor satisfactory. Internal reliability estimates for this part of the questionnaire using Cronbach's α showed the reliability of confidence in these items to be .80, which was considered acceptably high (Pallant, 2010). Independent samples *t* tests found no significant differences between both groups in their responses.

Table 10. How MDs Evaluate Their University English Education

Evaluation	University (*n* = 184)		Nonuniversity (*n* = 240)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
University English education useful to work	2.85	1.27	2.96	1.27
Satisfied with university English education	2.39	1.04	2.43	1.03

Note. 1 = Disagree; 5 = Agree.

English Topics These MDs Think Medical Students Should Study

When asked what topics they think medical students should study in their university English education, respondents were given several options; they could select more than one. The most frequently selected topic was speaking (over 80% for both groups; see Table 11). This was followed by presentation or debate, listening, and reading, though the order of these topics varied by group. These topics were followed, for both groups and in the same order, by writing, EMP, and TOEIC/TOEFL. Surprisingly, EMP was selected by only about 30 percent of respondents in both groups. Chi-square comparisons failed to detect significant differences in any topics between groups.

Table 11. Topics MDs Think Medical Students Should Study

Topic	University ($n = 181$)	Nonuniversity ($n = 241$)
EMP	59 (32)	75 (31)
Listening	89 (48)	138 (57)
Presentation or debate	96 (52)	121 (50)
Reading	94 (51)	126 (52)
Speaking	150 (81)	198 (82)
TOEIC/TOEFL	33 (18)	39 (16)
Writing	66 (36)	81 (34)
Other	2 (1)	0 (0)

The third research question concerned the English topics both groups believe medical students should study. Both university and nonuniversity MDs considered speaking to be the most important topic for medical students. This finding was somewhat surprising, as respondents had indicated reading to be the most necessary skill for their work. However, speaking is typically the weakest of the four English skills for Japanese learners (Seargeant, 2009); the responses of these MDs may be an acknowledgment of their own weaknesses. Interestingly, both groups of MDs considered EMP to be a lesser need than other topics, a finding reported by Yasunami (2005). The lack of a reported need for standardized exams such as the TOEIC or TOEFL is also apparent.

Interest in In-service English Training

Last, respondents were asked whether they were interested in participating in programs designed to boost the English skills of medical staff. Over two-thirds of respondents were interested (Table 12). A chi-square comparison revealed no significant differences between the two groups. The fourth research question for this study concerned what these MDs think about in-service English learning programs, and these findings indicate that both university and nonuniversity MDs were interested in this topic.

Table 12. MDs' Interest in English In-Service Learning

Group	Yes	Maybe	No
University (n = 186)	132 (71.0)	37 (19.9)	17 (9.1)
Nonuniversity (n = 241)	166 (68.9)	53 (22.0)	22 (9.1)

Note. Percentages are presented in parentheses.

Qualitative Findings

Interviews and Written Responses from MDs

This section presents findings from an analysis of interviews and open-ended questionnaire responses. Analysis revealed that several sources of tension between often opposing forces dominated participants' expression of their English needs. These sources of tension were grouped into three categories: English ability, work situation, and perceived roles. How these tensions shaped participants' attitudes towards in-service education formed a fourth category. These categories, and the sources of tension associated with each category, are shown in Figure 1. The following sections will explain how these findings were expressed in the data. All examples in Japanese were translated by the authors of this paper.
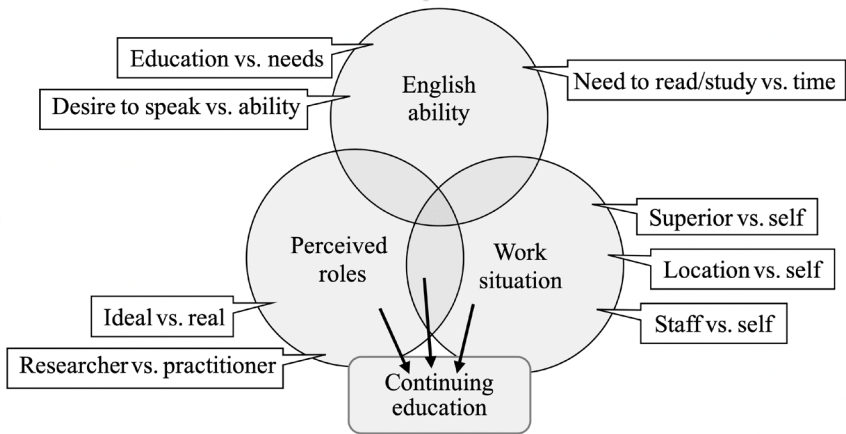
Education vs. needs

Desire to speak vs. ability

English ability

Need to read/study vs. time

Perceived roles

Work situation

Superior vs. self

Location vs. self

Staff vs. self

Ideal vs. real

Researcher vs. practitioner

Continuing education

Figure 1. Categories and their main associated tensions from qualitative analysis.

English Ability

The three sources of tension in this category were (a) education received vs. actual needs, (b) the desire to speak in English vs. actual abilities, and (c) the need to read or study vs. time available.

Criticisms of university English education appeared frequently in written questionnaire responses, as illustrated by the following statement from an MD at the nonuniversity hospital: "In medical education, we don't practice giving presentations or doing debates in English. That's something I want to pursue now" (MD #210). Interviewees said that their university EMP courses were focused on vocabulary and reading comprehension, which they felt was unnecessary; they were able to pick up vocabulary related to their field through their regular reading as MDs as well as in their medical classes at university.

In questionnaire responses, 25 MDs indicated a desire to speak in English, either with patients or at conferences and other settings, and to improve their speaking skills. The following questionnaire response from a university MD illustrates a common frustration: "I'm having difficulties now when I have to speak in English. And I don't know where to begin to improve my speaking ability" (MD #70). Several interviewees described communication problems when interviewing foreign patients. For instance, MD8, a pediatrician at the nonuniversity hospital, described an experience in which he was

unable to communicate with the foreign parent of a child. He wanted to ask questions about the child's symptoms but did not know how to phrase the questions in English. The experience greatly reduced his confidence in his English ability and spurred him to defer responsibility for non-Japanese patients to a colleague; the phenomenon of MDs avoiding foreign patients was noted by Tamamaki and Nishio (2013). The MDs' self-perceived inability to speak well in English may have prevented them from taking on tasks that require English speaking.

Finally, although most considered reading to be their strongest skill, these MDs felt that their English education had failed to prepare them for their work-related reading. Interviewees were reading something in English at least once per week, and often every day, including case reports, research papers, information on websites, and email correspondences. One participant at the university hospital (MD2: a pediatrician) stated that she cannot scan English papers "like native English speakers." She tends to read slowly and painstakingly, translating as she goes, as she had done in high school.

Work Situation

The three sources of tension in this category were (a) superior vs. self, (b) location vs. self, and (c) staff vs. self.

Most interviewees talked about how a superior in their department encouraged them, explicitly or implicitly, to improve their English; their relationships with these supervisors was often a source of tension. These superiors tended to use English with less hesitation in both formal and informal situations. Their supervisors thus served as role models for the interviewees and could be described as mentors in a mentor–apprentice relationship (Wenger, 1998). For instance, MD9, an orthopedic surgeon at the nonuniversity hospital, believed that his English skills were "better" than those of his department head; however, he noted that his superior was quick to ask questions in English at conferences and his English skills gave him greater confidence in interacting with others.

The location of the hospitals in which they worked also affected their English needs. Several interviewees came from major urban areas, like Tokyo, where they expected an MD's English needs would be different from their current rural setting. MD8, a pediatrician at the nonuniversity hospital, had previously worked in Osaka, where he said there were more Western patients. In his current location, most of the non-Japanese patients he encountered were nonnative English speakers from other Asian countries, such as China or Bangladesh. All interviewees stated that they

rarely encounter native English-speaking patients in their work. Similar statements were made in the written responses, such as this one from an MD at the nonuniversity hospital: "Recently the number of patients from Asia has increased dramatically. Communicating with them in English or Japanese can be difficult" (MD #310). This finding meshes with the reality that foreign visitors and residents of Japan are mainly Asian (Japan National Tourism Organization, 2018). Interviewees described how communication with these patients often involved broken English and Japanese, gestures, and writing notes; their speech thus resembled English as a lingua franca communication (Jenkins, 2007).

The tension between staff and self may reveal a difference between how university and nonuniversity MDs use English. Of 13 written responses indicating a need to speak to foreign staff or graduate students in English, 12 responses came from university MDs. Three university interviewees, MD1 (Pediatrics), MD2 (Pediatrics), and MD4 (Hematology), described how they regularly interact with visiting foreign faculty and graduate students in their departments, most of whom come from other Asian countries and cannot speak Japanese. They said that they often have difficulty understanding these people's English accents. These findings may explain the questionnaire result that university MDs used English significantly more often than nonuniversity MDs to communicate with medical staff.

Perceived Roles

The first source of tension in this category, ideal vs. real, was found chiefly in interview transcripts. Apart from MD1, who had lived several years abroad and was the most comfortable with English, all interviewees made statements that touched upon how they felt they should be able to use English. However, they felt their actual English abilities, coupled with the rigorous demands of their work, held them apart from this ideal.

Reference to the last source of tension in this category, researcher vs. practitioner, appeared in written responses and interviews for both university and nonuniversity MDs. All interviewees at the university hospital, and two of the four at the nonuniversity hospital, were involved in research to varying degrees. For the university interviewees, their roles as researchers and clinical practitioners involved less tension than it did for the nonuniversity MDs due to the available funding and the necessity of research for performance evaluations and promotions. Nonuniversity interviewees, however, often had to use their own money for conferences abroad; moreover, as fewer MDs at their hospitals were involved in research, they felt pressure to

focus on their work as practitioners. MD8, a pediatrician at the nonuniversity hospital, stated that for those reasons he is "happily retired" from his previous work as a researcher, when his days were "much more stressful."

Regarding their English needs as researchers, interviewees did not feel that they needed support from language teachers for preparing manuscripts, as they were able to receive feedback from mentors and colleagues. Interviewees at the university hospital also had funding to pay for editing and translation services. As mentioned above, however, delivering presentations was more challenging, as was having to use English socially during unscripted moments such as during question and answer sessions and social functions. In her interview, MD2 said that she "dreads" these moments. Discussing research with other people in English can be stressful for Japanese MDs, a problem noted by Guest (2016).

Continuing Education

Questionnaire written responses and interviews revealed MDs' positive attitudes towards in-service English programs. A focus on speaking skills was considered most attractive, and both medical and nonmedical content would be welcome, provided that speaking was the focus. Interviewees noted that they were not interested in didactic lectures about English, which were sometimes offered as part of faculty-development programs. However, in written responses, 32 MDs stated that they were too busy at work to attend extra English classes. The difficulty medical professionals have in attending in-service programs has been noted by Midorikawa (2016). Seven MDs also wrote that grouping MDs in one course would pose problems. As one MD from the university hospital noted:

> I'm strongly interested in participating in such programs, but if we got something like that running at our hospital, some people like me would hesitate to participate. MDs have various English levels and some have an excellent command of English. If I joined such a class I would be embarrassed by my own weak English skills. (MD #81).

Conclusions

This study has shown how MDs in one region of Japan use English at work. It was found that these MDs were interested in developing their general English skills, particularly speaking, though the skill they used most for work

was reading. In addition, when these MDs used English with patients, they were most often speaking to other nonnative English speakers, and the communication techniques they needed may pertain more to English as a lingua franca than English as a native language communication. They felt that their university English education failed to prepare them for their working English needs, which often caused them stress. Large differences were not found between the English needs of MDs at the university hospital and those at nonuniversity hospitals, though university-based MDs were significantly more likely to need English skills for research-related activities. In-service English programs for university-based MDs, therefore, should perhaps have a greater focus on research-related English topics, such as handling question-and-answer sessions at conferences.

Interestingly, participants in this study evaluated EMP instruction in university as significantly less important than speaking skill development; interviewees were able to learn medical vocabulary and expressions in their medical courses as well as in their work. It should be noted that EMP was not defined on the questionnaire, in part because there is no agreed-upon definition of EMP. Although EMP involves all four English skills (Shi, 2009), our impression is that participants equated EMP with vocabulary development, as they stated that their EMP courses were primarily vocabulary- or expression-based. Our findings may thus be heartening to communicative language teachers involved in EMP or ESP instruction because they suggest that the speaking skill development English teachers can provide may matter more than discipline-specific terminology. The specific speaking skills needed by MDs requires clarification, though findings suggest that academic skills such as debate and presentation, as well as communicative or compensatory strategies, would have greater value than traditional English conversation.

In this study, the mentor–apprentice relationship appeared to play a role in how participants viewed English at work. For in-service programs, one intriguing possibility would be to train MDs to become role models to encourage junior MDs to develop their English skills. The role of senior physicians as mentors (or "facilitators") in improving communication skills for caregivers has become integral to training courses at hospitals in North America (Boissy & Gilligan, 2016). MD mentors in Japan could also become involved in preservice English education, thereby making this education more meaningful to learners.

This study had limitations. Participants may have a false awareness of their own needs, which could have been countered by involving nonpartici-

pants, such as EMP teachers (Liu et al, 2011). Moreover, the questionnaire was kept short to encourage a high number of responses, sacrificing details on respondents' needs.

Future Directions

In order to elicit a clearer picture of working MDs' needs, we plan to expand this study to other areas of Japan, and in later surveys we intend to include medical students as participants to gain insights on improving preservice curricula. Applying findings from this study, we have also begun teaching speaking-skills courses for MDs at hospitals in our area. The content has included IELTS-style timed fluency-building tasks, discussion, speech practice, communication strategy instruction and activities taken from the emerging field of "medical improvisation" (see Watson & Fu, 2016). We hope that future studies and in-service courses help to refine our understanding of EMP and ESP and enable English teachers to teach with greater confidence in the value of their efforts.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix A.

Questionnaire (English Translation)

*Please answer the **Background Questions** below before answering the **Survey Questions**.*

Background Questions

1. Job title (*Please fill in*): _____
2. Gender (*Please circle*): M / F
3. Age range (*Please circle*): 20–29 30–39 40–49 50–59 60–69 70+
4. Number of years as a medical doctor: _____ years (and/or) _____ months
5. Highest degree earned (*Please fill in*): _____

Survey Questions

6. Have you ever used English in your work as a medical doctor? (*Circle one*)   YES   NO
   If YES, please answer questions 7–9.
   If NO, please proceed to question 10.
7. For what purposes have you used English? (*You may circle more than one answer*)
   a. To communicate with patients or their family members
   b. To communicate with other healthcare professionals in your place of work

    c. To read articles or other healthcare information in journals or
      online, etc.

    d. To write work-related reports

    e. To write papers for submission to journals

    f. To present at local or regional conferences

    g. To present at international conferences (in Japan or abroad)

    h. To communicate with colleagues, acquaintances, or friends

    i. Other purposes (please fill in): _____

8.   Which English skill do you feel is most important for your work?
    (*Circle one*)

    a. Reading   b. Speaking   c. Listening d. Writing

9.   How often do you use the following English skills? (*Circle one response
    per skill*)

(A) Reading	(B) Speaking
1. Almost every day	1. Almost every day
2. 2–5 times per week	2. 2–5 times per week
3. Once per week	3. Once per week
4. Once per month	4. Once per month
5. 3–11 times per year	5. 3–11 times per year
6. 1–2 times per year	6. 1–2 times per year
7. Not using at all	7. Not using at all
(C) Listening	(D) Writing
1. Almost every day	1. Almost every day
2. 2–5 times per week	2. 2–5 times per week
3. Once per week	3. Once per week
4. Once per month	4. Once per month
5. 3–11 times per year	5. 3–11 times per year
6. 1–2 times per year	6. 1–2 times per year
7. Not using at all	7. Not using at all

(*Everyone should respond to the remaining questions*)

10. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following state-
     ments? (*Circle one answer for each statement*)

    (A) English classes in university helped to prepare me for my work
       as a medical doctor.

      a. Agree   b. Somewhat agree   c. Neutral

      d. Somewhat disagree   e. Disagree

(B) I am satisfied with the English education I received in university.
   a. Agree   b. Somewhat agree   c. Neutral
   d. Somewhat disagree   e. Disagree

(C) Using English gives me stress.
   a. Agree   b. Somewhat agree   c. Neutral
   d. Somewhat disagree   e. Disagree

(D) English is necessary for medical doctors.
   a. Agree   b. Somewhat agree   c. Neutral
   d. Somewhat disagree   e. Disagree

11. Which English skills/activities do you think are most important in English education for medical students?* (*You may circle more than one of the below*)

   a. TOEIC/TOEFL or other exam preparation

   b. Speaking

   c. Reading

   d. Writing

   e. Listening

   f. Presentation or debate

   g. Medical or nursing English

   h. Other: (please fill in) _____

12. Which level of English education do you think was most beneficial to your English needs as a medical doctor?* (*Circle one*)

   a. Junior High School

   b. High School

   c. English conversation school, etc.

   d. College or university

   e. Other (Explain:

13. Would you be interested in programs or courses that center on boosting the English skills of medical staff? (*Circle one*)

   YES   MAYBE   NO

14. Please write your reason for your response to Question 15, as well as any thoughts you may have about such English skill-development programs or courses.

15. Please write freely about your present English needs.

*Items included only in questionnaires distributed at the sixth site (a nonuniversity hospital)

Appendix B.

Interview Protocol (English Translation)

I. English Education (Background Questions)

1. How many years have you studied English in total?
2. Describe your previous English learning experiences, from the earliest to the latest.
3. Please describe your English education experience at university.
4. Which period of English education do you feel was most useful for your present work?
5. Which period of English education do you feel was least useful for your present work?
6. Overall, do you feel satisfied with your previous English education? Explain.
7. How do you feel your previous English education could have been improved?
8. Have you experienced living or studying abroad for one month or more? If yes, where?
9. Are you currently studying English in any way?

II. Interviewee's Overall English Skill Level and Current Usage at Work

10. If you could evaluate your overall English ability on a range from 1 to 10, what score would you give yourself? Explain why you would give yourself this score.
11. What do you feel is your strongest skill in English, among the four skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing?
12. What do you feel is your weakest skill in English among these four skills?
13. How often would you say you are using each of the four skills?
14. For what purposes are you using each skill?
15. What do you read most frequently in English? For what purposes?
16. Are you using English to communicate with foreign patients? Foreign staff? How frequently? Please describe these experiences.

III. Thoughts About English Skill Development Programs or Courses

17. Are you interested in any kind of English skill-up programs or courses? Why or why not?

18. If you are interested, what sort of topics would you be interested in studying?
19. Are there any obstacles to your participation in such programs or courses?
20. What times/formats would be easiest for you to participate?
21. Have you ever experienced any such programs or courses for medical doctors before? If so, please describe these experiences. Did you find them useful?
22. Who do you feel should teach such courses?
23. Do you have anything else you'd like to say about English skill-development programs?
24. Do you have anything else you'd like to say about the subject of English at work?

Reviews

***Contemporary Language Motivation Theory: 60 Years Since Gardner and Lambert (1959)*. Ali H. Al-Hoorie and Peter D. MacIntyre (Eds.). Multilingual Matters, 2020. xxii + 344 pp. https://doi.org/10.21832/ALHOOR5198**

Reviewed by
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It is hard to overemphasize the importance of motivation for learning a L2. Indeed, motivation has proved a significant aspect of L2 learning and achievement at all levels of education (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). This is due in large part—some might argue entirely—to the work of Robert Gardner, whose career and studies are celebrated, elaborated on, and nearly idolized in the present volume.

Available in a 344-page print version or in various ebook formats, the edited volume is divided into four parts and 14 chapters. It also has a short "Foreword" by Zoltán Dörnyei, an introduction by the editors, and a career self-reflection by Gardner before the first numbered chapter. After Part 4, the book ends with a very short "Epilogue" by Howard Giles, founding editor of the influential *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* known for his Communication Accommodation Theory, that sums up and reflects on Gardner's contribution to and influence on the social psychology subdiscipline of the social psychology of language (SPL), which includes research on bilingualism and intergroup communication as well as motivation and other nonlinguistic aspects of language learning.

In his opening reminiscence, Gardner notes that the original model he and Lambert proposed came out of the English language school system of Montréal, where primary and secondary students are required to learn French as a second language as part of Canada's bilingual education policy. Building on previous work in the 1950s that focused on L1 learning motivation as

influenced by parents and socialization inside the family unit, Gardner and Lambert (1959) proposed a model that included other social aspects for L2 learning of French by English L1 speakers. Although the questionnaire associated with studies based on the socio-educational model (The Attitude Motivation Test Battery, or AMTB) was not created until over a decade later (Gardner & Smythe, 1974), the initial model included motivational intensity, the desire to learn French, attitudes towards learning French, and the constructs of *integrativeness*, *attitudes towards the learning situation*, and *language anxiety*. The influence of this model cannot be understated and is, of course, the purpose of the volume. Yet from the very beginning, the model's naming conventions have proved a source of confusion. In his chapter, Gardner comments on the criticism by Dörnyei (2005) that "integrativeness" is used three times (the larger variable of "integrative motive" includes integrativeness, which also has a subcomponent called "integrative orientation"). However, Gardner fails to mention a stronger criticism: the very concept of "integrativeness" (which Gardner defines in his chapter as "some form of identification with, or acceptance of, the other [L2] community," p. 12) is losing its meaning thanks to the spread of "Global English" which "clearly does not rest with a specific geographically-defined community of speakers" resulting in "no clear target reference group" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 72). One could easily argue this to be the same for any language (not just English) which is spoken in varying sociocultural contexts (e.g., "Spanish" in Argentina, Mexico, or Spain; "Chinese" in Beijing, Guangzhou, Hong Kong, or Singapore).

The criticism of integrativeness was revisited by Dörnyei and Ryan (2015, p. 79), who noted that the variable Gardner labelled as integrativeness has been reinterpreted in terms of a larger psychosocial or emotional identification with an imagined international community outside one's initial social context. On the other hand, Rebecca Oxford rightly points out in Chapter 8 that this concept in the socio-educational model was created as a response to earlier mainstream theories of motivation focusing entirely on cognitive factors within the individual and virtually ignoring social factors (p. 181). She also notes that time and motivation are central to the Gardnerian model in the sense that an individual language learner's motivation is not static but dynamic, but also suggested that an individual's integrative motivation could remain stable for long periods of time (p. 177).

The changing definitions and uses of the terminology of the Gardnerian model are neatly summarized by Jennifer Claro in Chapter 11, giving ample evidence that integrativeness is clearly meant to measure the desire

to identify with and become similar to L2 language community members. This chapter also lays out, in plain language, issues of construct stability and reliability that plague L2 motivational research and need to be addressed. Claro additionally argues that there is no need to claim that the cognitive theories of possible L2 selves (Dörnyei, 2009) are the same as the affective model of Gardner, suggesting the use of both as complementary: "Basically, Gardner focused on identification with an external referent and Dörnyei focused on identification with an internal referent… 'I want to be like that person (or group)' becomes, when internalized, part of the process of creating one's ideal self" (p. 247). As MacIntyre et al. (2009) wrote, a combative attitude between researchers who approach the issue of L2 motivation from different angles, using different approaches and different models, is detrimental and neither benefits the field nor assists L2 teachers to help their students learn. The two approaches are complementary, not mutually exclusive or opposed.

The connection of integrativeness and the integrative motive to issues of identity, investment, bilingualism and/or multilingualism, L2 confidence, and intergroup relations are further established in several chapters of the book. For example, Sara Rubenfeld and Richard Clément (Chapter 5) discuss the connection of the socio-educational model to social identity, self-confidence, and psychological adjustment as well as intergroup bias and discrimination. Bonny Norton (Chapter 7) examines the relationship of Gardner's model to investment and identity, noting one of the original foci of Lambert's social psychological model of SLA was personal identity development and change. However, it is difficult to appreciate much of this chapter without first reading a separate work about identity and power (see Norton, 2013).

The somewhat fractured nature of L2 motivational research is also apparent in the present volume, as exemplified by two chapters that provide counter-balancing examples of the so-called "quan-qual" divide. Paul Tremblay provides the quantitative perspective (Chapter 10) and gives details about Gardner's contributions to SLA from a statistical standpoint; Tremblay explains that Gardner was a teacher of graduate school statistics in psychology and was innovative in introducing psychometric measurement in social psychology and SLA, including factor analysis (FA) and structural equation modeling (SEM). Tremblay also introduces the relatively newer statistical procedures of multilevel modeling, latent profile analysis, and latent-growth models which can track change over time. On the other hand, the qualitative perspective is given by Ema Ushioda (Chapter 9), who notes that studies us-

ing the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005) and a complex dynamic systems theory approach typically rely more on qualitative inquiry than studies using integrative motivation in the Gardnerian sense, which favors quantitative statistical analysis with or without a qualitative component (pp. 200-201).

In the final two chapters, Phil Hiver, Diane Larsen-Freeman, and Elaine Horwitz provide additional, if not quite opposite, approaches to both expanding on Gardner's ideas (Chapter 13) and reflecting on his contribution to broadening the scope of SLA beyond purely cognitive constructs such as aptitude (Chapter 14). The former emphasizes the nature of language learning and motivation as part of a complex relational system that changes over time and occurs within a larger context. The latter is concentrated on how Gardner's FA and SEM approach to affective aspects of language learning changed the focus of SLA away from the search for "the" cognitive variable that predicted language learning success. These two chapters neatly summarize many of the chapters of the volume and demonstrate the complicated social nature of language learning and how Gardner's studies have continued to influence L2 motivational theories and approaches.

In one unique chapter of the volume (Chapter 12), John Edwards examines the history of psychology, starting with Heraclitus, the Sophists, and the Socratic Age of ancient Greece before continuing to a discussion of natural philosophers of the 17th century (the empiricism of Isaac Newton and the introspection of René Descartes) and ending with the immediate forerunners to modern social psychology, including John Stuart Mill and August Comte, whose focus on positivism (pithily described as "empiricism on steroids," p. 270) still dominates psychological research. This chapter represents, I believe, the best, most recent summary of the history and importance of social psychology and its relation to language studies. However, it also exemplifies the North American/European focus of the field. Is social psychology a product of ancient Greek and Renaissance scholars? Are the various concepts and aspects associated with social psychology applicable to non-Western contexts?

As my colleagues and I have written (Apple & Da Silva, 2017), there still remains the question of whether such theories and models from Western, educated, industrialized, rich, and democratic (WEIRD) contexts can find the same applicability to non-WEIRD contexts, particularly in educational contexts where language learning has long been entrenched as a requirement for entrance to and graduation from educational institutions. In Chapter 3, Peter MacIntyre, Jean-Marc Dewaele, Nicole Macmillan, and

Chengchen Li show that Chinese study participants express drastically different emotions and motivations toward their L2 learning compared to those in "Western" contexts. The motivations, beliefs, and values of L2 learners in non-WEIRD contexts may differ so greatly that the ideas of integrativeness and possible L2 selves may have little relevance to them or to their teachers. One or two chapters based in non-WEIRD contexts would have helped to convince L2 researchers and teachers in such educational contexts of the usefulness of the research designs, methods, approaches, and theories proposed in the book.

Some of the chapters are quite dense and difficult to read, particularly in an ebook format. Many chapters feature long paragraphs and pulled quotes that are difficult to parse even in a printed version and are nearly impossible to get through in the electronic version. It would also have been nice if citations in the text were hypertext linked to references. With so many repetitive references—obviously, because this volume celebrates Robert Gardner's career and contributions to L2 motivation studies, his publications appear over and over again from chapter to chapter—moving all the references to a single reference section to which citations were linked might have saved some paper in the printed version and improved the reading flow in the ebook.

Finally, two chapters seem to have little connection to the main purpose of the book: Chapter 4 has no connection to Gardner's model or L2 motivation at all, although you can learn an awful lot about the Vygotskyian concept of *perezhivanie*. Chapter 6, although an interesting read about how motivation is related to naming your baby in a multicultural setting as a way of preserving and transmitting ethnic language and culture to future generations, is only tangentially related to Gardner's work, and uses questionable methodology. It comes across as having been inserted merely to provide an additional qualitative chapter in what is largely (and inevitably) a book about the contributions of a quantitative model of L2 motivation.

Overall, the authors of various chapters in the volume conclude that the influence of the Gardnerian socio-educational model has been to inform student teachers about the importance of being open and positive towards other cultures, developing interest in a L2, being positive and motivated about language learning in general, reducing anxiety, and being content in the classroom. Despite its flaws, the volume in the end is an impressive tribute to a pioneer in the ever-expanding and developing fields of L2 learning motivation and social psychology of language learning.

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Early Language Learning and Teacher Education: International Research and Practice. Subhan Zein and Sue Garton (Eds.). Multilingual Matters, 2019. ix + 296 pp. https://doi.org/10.21832/ZEIN2654

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In 2020, language educators in Japan are currently in the 1st year of English education as a formal subject in public Elementary schools nationwide. Simultaneously, the number of young learners growing up in bilingual, trilingual, or multilingual households in Japan is increasing. Furthermore, the pace of globalization is driving down the age at which the world's children are exposed to multiple languages through societal and educational settings. Accordingly, this is an opportune time for educators of current and future teachers to read this volume from the Early Language Learning in School Contexts series edited by Janet Enever.

The chapters within the book highlight the diversity of situations in which English and other Modern languages are being taught now and how teachers learn, develop, and apply new skills in classrooms. Part of the appeal of this edited collection is that individual contributions are included from multiple regions in Asia, Southeastern Europe, the UK, Australia, and the USA. In one volume, readers can become familiar with how a variety of early childhood education systems are responding to the rapidly changing educational needs of children between the ages of 3 and 12.

The volume is in four sections with the "Preface" material setting the context and closing with conclusions and future directions. Although it is probably preferable to read the book sequentially, the individual chapters are also suitable for stand-alone reading. In Chapters 1 and 2, editor Subhan Zein introduces the themes explored in the book, and Yuko Goto Butler introduces research-based lessons illustrating how teachers of young learners of English (YLEs) are educated in East and Southeast Asia.

"Part 1: The Complexity of Teacher Learning" presents a narrative research study from Vietnam by Le Van Canh (Chapter 3) of how a young English teacher transitions from a student with a love of English to the overwhelming reality of needing to satisfy a wide range of pupil, school, parent, and personal expectations. The teacher undertakes postgraduate study, which

helps to balance her self-concept as an educator. In Chapter 4, Zein looks at differences in how adults and children learn and use language. This study in Indonesia looked at the ability of YLE teachers to put themselves into the mindset of a child to modify their language, with the result of making them much more effective communicators. Chapter 5 by Yuefeng Zhang opens with a short description of the role of English as an official language in Hong Kong. Following this, Zhang describes a Learning Study research project involving six preservice English Language Teachers who work collaboratively to identify areas of difficulty, research, teach and/or observe, evaluate, consider, refine, and then reteach a variant of the lessons. This method is intended to increase the ability of teachers to notice needs and adapt to their learners. In Chapter 6, Gee Macrory explores the attitudes of teachers and students in England to the introduction of new orthographies when the students are still relatively new to their first orthography. The scope of this chapter includes English and modern languages, generalist versus specialist language teachers, and the role and perceived applicability of phonics training in classes of different languages.

"Part 2: Innovations in Mentoring and Supervision" commences with a study from Taiwan by Chiou-Hui Chou, focusing on preservice YLE teachers using the communicative language teaching approach (CLT). A strong theme was connecting their coursework to practicum with the opportunity to microteach, review, refine, and reteach with the supervisor as a coach. In Chapter 8, Yasemin Kırkgöz discusses research in Turkey focused on inservice teachers with an external supervisor aiming to build more interactive, student-centered lessons for 7-year-old students. This 7-month study examined shifting from textbooks to incorporate more realia and encouraging collaboration over competition between students. In Chapter 9, Nettie Boivin outlines the context of multilingual education in Kazakhstan, where a goal of English competency by 2020 was set in 2007, shifting English as a foreign language (EFL) to English as an additional language (EAL), commencing with Year 1 students and aiming to use 21st-century techniques to underpin education. This was a major departure from a teacher-centered model delivered predominantly in Russian.

"Part 3: Strategies in Program Development" opens with Chapter 10 in which Valentina Carbonara discusses teacher competences and certification. The research focuses on a bilingual kindergarten in Turkey implementing an Italian educational approach known as Reggio Emilio. Chapter 11 by Junko Matsuzaki Carreira and Tomoko Shigyo includes a history of reforms of English education in Japan and the transition from English as a foreign

language activity to English as a subject. The authors also discuss in detail the training and infrastructure needed to shift from grammar translation to a team-taught communicative language teaching approach and ultimately to the cross-curricular approach and use of project-based learning, often delivered as content language integrated learning (CLIL). A large part of this transition has been to reduce the anxiety of generalist teachers who felt unprepared to create lesson plans for English language activities and lacked confidence in their spoken English.

"Part 4: Perceptions, Knowledge and Assessment" starts in Australia with research by Larissa Jenkins, Elisabeth Duursma, and Catherine Neilsen-Hewett. In a small study of bilingual and monolingual early childhood services, the researchers investigated the perceptions of deficits and advantages of bilingualism in services for children. They also explored educator bias not only on language use but also cultural background and the relationships with children who spoke different home languages. In Chapter 13, Katherine M. Griffin, Alison L. Bailey, and Rashmita S. Mistry detail how mass immigration in the USA has influenced the development of immersion methods for teaching alongside monolingual English education. Dual English–Spanish immersion courses have been developed where students get a good foundation in their home language before transitioning to a higher percentage of English, thereby making assessment fairer to these students. Both Chapters 12 and 13 contain evidence of a move away from a deficit approach of bilingualism to a benefits approach, which can only provide much-needed help to bolster the self-image of these learners in a predominantly monolingual system. In Chapter 14, editor Sue Garton brings together all the issues that have been discussed and looks to the future implications of early language learning. Part of her discussion is the speed of the introduction of English and the hope that some of the difficulties encountered during the introduction of CLT may be overcome during the introduction of CLIL. Garton also reflects on the importance of access to pre- and in-service training for educators on pedagogy for young learners and training in language skills. The shift from transmissive and prescriptive to learner-centered education requires substantial scaffolding for teachers to provide them the resources and confidence to stick with the new models, rather than relying on previous teaching habits when things do not go as expected.

This book is a very useful resource for university educators of future teachers and also education policy makers because of the clear overview provided about the varying ways in which English and other Modern languages are taught. This is important because it is unrealistic to expect that

languages can be taught the same way universally when there are stark differences in political and economic priorities and consequently the resources available to fund the education people may want. The unexpected appearance of SARS-CoV-2 has catapulted many students and educators around the world into online learning. It will be interesting to see if a by-product of this abrupt shift will unexpectedly translate into the increased learning opportunities for teachers that this volume recommends.

Reading in the Brain: The New Science of How We Read. Stanislas Dehaene. Penguin Books, 2009. xii + 388 pp.

Reviewed by
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Numerous works have been written concerning the pedagogy of reading (for example, we could turn to Grabe, 2012 or Bamford and Day, 1998), but few have been written concerning how the brain functions as we read. Stanislas Dehaene is not a reading researcher, but rather a mathematician and psychologist, and he approaches research about reading from a cognitive science perspective. *Reading in the Brain* offers insights into several aspects of how the brain interprets the written word. This book focuses on the process the brain uses to interpret the many glyphs used to represent sounds, and how the brain decodes these. Dehaene describes the physical paths neurons take while we read, explores how the brain interprets various symbols into phonological units, and shows us where reading lives in our brains. He also discusses brain functions that impede reading and some possible reasons why. This book begins with an introduction, which is followed by eight chapters, and it ends with a conclusion offering some final thoughts.

The introduction gives an overview of the key points of the book and the way the author intends to approach discussing it. From the first page, in the first paragraph, Dehaene calls reading "an amazing feat." He suggests that human beings are unusually culturally similar and that this is an effect of having brains with functionalities that are nearly the same from person to person. On page 7, Dehaene introduces an idea that he calls the "neuronal recycling hypothesis" by which he argues that the architecture of the brain is restricted to a set of rules, which nonetheless can become amended due

to the inherent plasticity of the brain. This key point prepares the reader for Dehaene's arguments about the way the brain has found to put glyphs together orthographically, whether in a structured or in a confused way. The remainder of the introduction is a Reader's Guide, which offers an outline of the book.

The first chapter provides a detailed explanation of the mechanics of reading, including eye movement, brain decoding, and the routes the brain uses for reading. Dehaene outlines two routes: a phonological route, where words are decoded according to how they should sound, letter by letter; and a lexical route, which interprets the meaning of words with the same spelling, but two different pronunciations, and thus two separate meanings. These two pathways combined provide the means for reading, and this becomes a major thematic element throughout the book. He also clearly rejects the notion of the computer model of the brain, calling it inadequate. Computers work in structured ways, and tasks are done with equal time, but in the brain, word decoding is not done in an exact, sequential mode, nor is the time it takes to understand the meaning of a word uniform. The second chapter illuminates how it was learned where the locus of reading is in the brain by neurologists such as Joseph-Jules Déjerine, a pioneer in the field, and more modern researchers such as Steve Petersen, Michael Posner, and Marcus Raichle. Dehaene summarizes their research on the brain, mostly done by examining problems that people with brain lesions or other brain traumas have had. Their research helped Dehaene locate what he describes as the "letterbox" (p. 62), which is where the brain interprets symbols in order to read them and is the key to understanding how humans are able to read or experience reading disabilities. This letterbox is the author's own observation, and it is his claim that reading is done exactly here, and not scattered all over the brain. Chapter 3 presents a comparison and contrast between simian brains and human brains. Dehaene describes how monkey and human brains treat visual images similarly, how the processing of stimuli are the same, leading towards the ability to see very simple abstractions of shapes. However, the human brain, in the letterbox area, develops these abstractions to an even more refined level, which is why, he argues, the shapes of many of our writing systems are very similar.

Chapter 4 outlines various writing systems around the world, and the author notes that the features of writing all conform to a few simple rules: shapes that conform largely to natural shapes and lines easily interpreted by the brain. Dehaene also discusses various writing systems; however, he focuses mainly on alphabetical systems and does not delve deeply into

pictorial writing systems, such as the Chinese or Japanese writing systems, which would have been interesting to know more about. The chapter ends with an explanation of how the Phoenician-inspired Greek alphabet systems added vowel glyphs, thereby making each word less ambiguous in meaning.

Chapter 5 may be of particular interest to reading researchers because it goes into considerable detail into how children learn to read. Dehaene describes research into how the brain interprets and decodes symbols for reading and strongly rejects the "whole language method" of teaching reading. Instead, he recommends that reading instructors focus on phonemes and clusters, especially in languages with opaque orthographic systems such as English and French. The chapter also outlines various stages in children's reading ability, from being able to recognize individual letters, then chunks of letters, and finally whole words, which can become sentences. It is only at this stage that children can begin to enjoy reading because meaning is now apparent.

Chapter 6 is a review of research into dyslexia. Dehaene introduces what its causes may be and also offers some suggestions on how educators can help those facing this condition. Chapter 7 outlines the way the brain relies on symmetry, why it does so, and how visuospatial acuity is extremely important for reading words on a page.

In Chapter 8, Dehaene muses on why only humans have learned to read. Many animals, such as birds and monkeys, can interpret symbols, and many apes can draw to a certain extent. However, why is it that humans, alone, combine these two skills to create writing? He suggests that it is the very plasticity of the human brain, coupled with a cultural imperative to record things in a permanent manner, that allows human beings to reach a new and powerful point in cultural development. Humans, different from other simians, read. Dehaene notes that while the brain is able to read, there was no specific evolutionary moment which allowed us to do so. The key, he believes, is culture, and he elaborates his reasons for his findings in the rest of the chapter. Finally, the Conclusion offers some ideas about the path of future research in reading and how we can look at neuropathways of the brain to help us understand the way we decode words. He strongly recommends much more research in this area, with an emphasis on experimentation that has a solid design methodology.

Reading in the Brain is a detailed yet clearly written introduction to brain science in general and how it relates to the phenomenon of reading specifically. Due to the large amount of technical detail about brain research, it may not be the easiest of reads. However, it does describe the experiments and

results is a straightforward way and avoids the use of jargon. Although titles in the Penguin Books series do not use in-text citations, 15 pages of endnotes and a 30-page bibliography provide a recap of what was available on the science of reading when this book was published in 2009. It also provides numerous charts and graphs describing the research results, so readers can better gauge for themselves the data provided. Although this book is a good start for learning more about the research done into how brains read and the brain's amazing capacity to interpret the written word, interested read-ers may also be curious to look at Dehaene's (2014) revisions and updates in reply to his critics.

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Global Citizenship Education: A Critical Introduction to Key Concepts and Debates. Edda Sant, Ian Davies, Karen Pashby, and Lynette Shultz. Bloomsbury Academic. 2018. vii + 238 pp. ebook.

Reviewed by
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Global Citizenship Education is an introductory text intended for graduate-level study. The authors present a variety of viewpoints from academic literature in the field of global studies while valuing "pluralist, inclusive perspectives" (p. 2). The authors choose the use of "global" in contrast to "international" because, in their view, international seeks to look at the links

between nations whereas global implies a "coming together" (p. 3). The book and its annotated readings with assessment activities are intended for use by students in a wide variety of fields with the hope that educators find it a useful aid to teaching. Although this is a well-written, accessible resource in the field of global education, because the volume is written as a textbook with 21 chapters separated into three parts, there is far too much detail to cover in a single review. I will discuss the guiding ideas of global citizenship as defined by the authors and the ways in which these ideas are supported in each part.

In the first chapter of "Part 1: Key Questions, Concepts, and Dimensions," the authors define global citizenship and defend the necessity of global citizenship education. Several chapters are devoted to the concepts of global identities and local or national citizenships. These include spirited discussions on different approaches to citizenship based on residency, ethnicity, religion, indigenous status, or class; and how people perceive their individual citizenships. This segues into a discussion on ethics and rights and how those may be defined differently in various cultures, while trying to be cautious not to value a certain culture's perceptions over another.

The authors also encourage students of global education to consider how they define themselves as global citizens through a variety of activities presented at the end of each chapter. For example, in Chapter 6, the authors present various definitions of "local" and "global" not only as geographic proximity but also as socially constructed insiders and outsiders (p. 56) as well as different contexts in which these terms are used. In addition to an annotated bibliography, at the end of the chapter, there are two assessment activities (p. 61). The first activity is a series of questions for discussion around the film *Babel* by Alejandro González Iñárritu for students in social science courses. The second activity directs students to compare a set of social studies textbooks for teacher training.

In "Part 2: Key Educational Frameworks," the authors introduce some of the definitions, debates, and theories current in the field of global studies. These chapters provide the intellectual framework for a broader discussion on what the goal of global citizenship is and what it can mean. Part 2 consists of eight chapters on topics, including the meaning of citizenship and citizenship education (Chapter 9), the various interpretations of social justice (Chapter 10) (e.g., distributive justice, recognition justice, and participatory justice), character education (Chapter 12), diversity education (Chapter 13), and peace education (Chapter 14). Each chapter includes a summary of the works of two or three scholars in the field and provides supplemental activities for classwork or independent study. For example, Chapter 10 on social justice sets up an interactive module for students to debate participa-

tion in a music school contest and discuss the meaning of classical versus indigenous interpretations of music (p. 100). Chapter 14 reviews the different approaches to peace education and critiques on the concepts of peace education. For Japan-based educators, this discussion may be of particular relevance, and a brief overview of work in Japan on peace education is provided (p. 140).

Because *JALT Journal* is geared towards educators, it may be useful to analyze how the formal educational goals—teaching, learning, and assessing—are met within a sample chapter. Chapter 15, "Diversity Education," begins with a discussion of the 2015 attacks in France on the satirical newspaper Charlie Hebdo and the responses by the public on the rights of free speech and freedom of expression—both in condemning the attacks but also in its offensive characterization of a religion. The authors then tackle various philosophical and political traditions of diversity and citizenship (e.g., segregationist, liberal assimilationist, multiculturalist, and pluralist). All these approaches have at their core a debate on the relationship between the individual and the state and how that fits in with citizenship. An annotated bibliography is provided for further reading to reinforce the presented idea, making it an integral part of the learning process. Lastly, students are tasked to analyze how different countries face religious diversity issues in school settings, in this case, the issue of wearing hijab in schools.

The final part, "Key Issues in Research and Practice," provides an overview of global education research and its current use in the classroom. The authors admit that the data gathered was largely in English-, Spanish-, and French-speaking contexts. Further, since various topics within the global education umbrella—such as citizenship or social justice—may be explored in fields other than global education, it is difficult to determine the parameters of research materials used. As a reader, I will admit some confusion on this point. Because the authors make a distinction between international and global in the introduction, it would have been helpful to have that distinction made more clearly in the analysis of research.

The attempt to be inclusive and pluralistic is evident in the wide range of activities to elicit discussion at the end of each chapter. Further, many of the activities and readings are from free and open-source material. This is invaluable as more equitable access for students or researchers who may have limited funding or resources. The authors do, however, rely heavily on United Nations sources and studies. Although this is understandable as the UN does a lot of research that is beneficial to global studies, as a reader, there is at times an uncritical acceptance of UN data without providing

counter sources. This textbook is heavily oriented towards the humanities disciplines; so, for teacher training in science or technology fields, perhaps supplemental activities focusing on the issues of data privacy, censorship, and piracy could be expanded at the instructor's discretion.

As an educator, *Global Citizenship Education* made me think more critically about the current texts I use in English language education and the ideas about global education they may or may not reinforce.

Creativity and Innovations in ELT Materials Development: Looking Beyond the Current Design. Dat Bao (Ed.). Multilingual Matters, 2018. xi + 256 pp. https://doi.org/10.21832/BAO9696

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The aim of this edited volume is to report on innovation and creativity in materials design in ELT. The approach is to bring together some established voices and new researchers to inform materials design and implementation at primary to tertiary levels. Materials may be traditional course texts or something from more learner-centred approaches, for example, process drama or narrative writing. Editor Dat Bao defines creativity as the need to produce novel ideas, and innovation is understood to mean new procedures or methodology that bring about improvement. The potential audience of the volume is broad and may include teacher trainers, language practitioners, trainee teachers, coursebook writers, and also language education researchers.

The book comprises 13 chapters and is divided into three parts. The first part focuses on improving ELT materials using creative pedagogies. What this means in practical terms is identifying problem areas such as conventional teaching activities with reports on how the authors make suggestions to improve teaching with such materials. Part 2 brings together poetry, drama, and other tools for learning, all of which may have been marginalised in ELT. Part 3 of the book goes beyond materials to the learners themselves. Learner-centred pedagogy, as a theme of the volume, is seen through involvement of learners in materials creation and modification. In Chapter 1, Bao reviews all the chapters in the book with the approach of bringing out

key questions, making only brief comments about the readings, and intentionally leaving the chapters for readers to explore. Several of the chapters are coauthored by the editor, bringing a unity to the learner-centred theme of the discussions.

Part 1 contains five chapters which describe creative pedagogies in a variety of settings. In Chapter 2, Brian Tomlinson critically examines typical activities such as listen-and-repeat and correction activities from an analysis of coursebooks, resulting in activities that encourage longer responses and promote greater depth of interaction. Alan Maley (Chapter 3) defines the two key terms "creativity" and "materials," providing the necessary background to these terms, while also allowing for various interpretations. For example, connections to Csikszentmihalyi's concept of 'flow' (1990) and the notion of optimal experiences seem relevant here, particularly the part of the theory that connects intrinsic motivation, satisfaction, and psychological well-being. Flow experiences are enjoyable and engaging, achieved with effortless action and intense focus. This then leads to the key question of which is more important, creative process in making materials or creative output? Bao's Chapter 4 presents a constructivist theoretical perspective that builds on the idea that learning occurs when learners are actively involved in the process of meaning-making. According to this view, learning can be enhanced by activities that involve learners in knowledge construction during the learning process. This is followed by a chapter from Bao and Ranran Liu who examine creativity in primary English coursebooks. Their findings suggest that ELT materials could be improved to connect children's creativity and L2 learning. The chapter also looks at emotion and cognition, evaluating activities in terms of how well they evoke imagination, playfulness, and self-expression. The fifth chapter in this section, from Tan Bee Tin, is on the topic of promoting autonomy using creative tasks. Essential to the creative process in these activities is the condition of disciplined and imaginative use of constraints or limitations on activities. Constraints can be external (environmental factors, time constraints) or internal (related to the goals and outcomes of the task), and constraints desirable for creativity should increase the potential for success, for example, a well-defined problem. Creative tasks (e.g., brainstorming, collaborative writing, or role-plays) seek to encourage using the language items in new ways rather than the typical controlled language learning tasks which ask students to practice prespecified items and repeat narrow language structures. Taken together, this part of the book provides multiple pedagogical approaches to how materials can be adapted to create meaningful learning activities.

Part 2, "Improving ELT Materials Through Specific Resources," begins with a chapter on process drama by Hae-ok Park (Chapter 7). The author uses principles of L2 materials design from Tomlinson (2011) to structure activities with improvised interactions and spontaneous reactions. In Chapter 8, Paul Hullah presents a clear and focused discussion of literature in the ELT classroom. Hullah's enthusiasm is for classic literature, engagement with which is achieved through his use of creative and learner-centred activities. Bao coauthors the following two chapters with Xaiofang Shang, Flora D. Floris, and Willy A. Renandya, looking at technology in L2 materials use and online resources in task design. As in Part 1 of the book, the diverse approaches suggested allow for a variety of interpretations, leaving the reader to decide on how these ideas may be used in any particular educational setting.

Part 3 of the book features three chapters focusing on teacher and learner involvement in creating materials. In Chapter 11, Rajeevnath Ramnath looks at a genre-based approach to materials development by exploring MA students' creative uses of materials at high schools in Thailand. Materials from commercial textbooks were used to create activities such as fictional narratives, arguments, and informational recounts. Bao writes in Chapter 12 about visuals projects which he conducted with the aim of developing self-expression. The next chapter details EFL teachers' perspectives on textbooks in Bangladesh. Mohammod Monimoor Roshid, Md Zulfeqar Haider, and Hosne Ara Begum evaluated textbooks using a multifaceted conceptual framework and survey responses from 100 teachers.

Overall, the book is a welcome addition to the field of materials design and helps bring new perspectives from practitioner-based observations and pedagogy. The individual chapters show how curriculum design and innovation of materials occur in practice. Although the book could be used in L1 undergraduate ELT courses, the most useful readership is likely to be trainee teachers and graduate students. Learner-centred adaptations that encourage innovation using published ELT materials are particularly relevant at the current time when teachers are looking for new ways to engage and motivate learners.

The key strength of the collection is certainly the varied contexts and perspectives from which the authors derive their content. Showing how practice differs across cultures and education settings offers the chance to share insightful innovation amongst practitioners and researchers. One alternative to this is the contextualised, culture-oriented approach (see Reinders et al., 2019, for a Japanese-focused example). This volume takes a different path

and uses writing from authors who are internationally based and, therefore, represent various perspectives on materials design. Although innovation, creativity, and change have already been widely explored (see Kennedy, 1988 and Waters, 2009, for example), the very nature of exploration continues to inspire new writing and new ways of teaching. A natural progression from this volume would be to look more closely at indigenous practices and multilingual materials design, expanding from ELT to language learning in other languages.

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Quality in TESOL and Teacher Education: From a Results Culture Towards a Quality Culture. Juan de Dios Martínez Agudo (Ed.). Routledge, 2020. xxvi + 280 pp. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429198243

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The quest for and definition of a quality education has always been an ever-shifting target, although only recently has it begun to be considered a human right. Furthermore, quality has been neglected and ignored because it is difficult to measure and is highly context dependent. The main aim of the book is to address contemporary issues in quality and quality assurance in TESOL and teacher education. This is particularly relevant as the field expands to different settings and contexts and intersects with technological advancements in language education, diverse student and teacher populations, multilingualism, and the need for continuous language teacher development. With twenty-six chapters, the "Foreword" by Thomas S. C. Farrell, the "Afterword" by Jack C. Richards, and an introductory chapter by the editor, this volume, endorsed by renowned scholars in the field, will appeal to a wide audience.

The first section, entitled "Quality in TESOL Education in a Globalized Multilingual World," comprises five chapters. The first chapter, written by David Little, suggests that language teaching, especially in Europe, has been promoting political and social cohesiveness without giving considerable attention to quality. In the second chapter, Graham Crookes employs a critical inquiry approach to measure quality in the field of TESOL and argues that improvement in language teaching may very well lead to improvements in teaching in general. The third chapter, by Gabriele Azzaro and Agudo, provides a critique of poorly administered educational reforms in Italy and warns that, without quality education, the entire human society is at risk. The fourth chapter, by Ian Eyres and Clare Woodward, focuses on quality in teacher education programs and uses the English in Action program to suggest that continuous professional development in any context, but especially

in low- and middle-income countries, is essential for maintaining quality in language education. The last chapter in this section, by Chang Zhu, Liesbeth De Paepe, and Cynthia White, notes that, as technology improves and the need for online and/or blended language education increases, so does a need to better establish and maintain the quality of teaching in such environments. They add that the development of principles and frameworks, which allow for quality maintenance as well as improved performance, can assist language teachers to improve current teaching practices in online and blended education.

Section II has 11 chapters and deals with "Quality in Diversity in TESOL Education." Entries in this section explore the concept of quality in teacher roles, instruction, learning strategies, status, materials, and feedback. For instance, chapters by David Crabbe, Andrew D. Cohen, and Joanna Baumgart cover teacher–student relationships, learner autonomy in learning, and the significance of teacher talk respectively, where the authors also argue for an equal representation of both students and educators in decision-making. Similarly, Ali Shehadeh provides an overview of instructional approaches in TESOL and emphasizes that, although there are several approaches and methods of TESOL instruction, the decision to prioritize one over another should be informed by the specifics of a teaching context. Presenting a similar argument, Michael Dunn, Kristen Pratt, and Faith Van Putten propose a multitiered system of support for bilingual special education students and call for reimagining quality instruction for these learners where local contexts are taken into consideration while developing accommodation approaches. Another area of focus is learning strategies where Sophia Papaefthymiou-Lytra, Evangelia Karagianni, and Anastasia Pouliou outline criteria for creating materials that promote learners' intercultural awareness as well as active learning by identifying seven elements: context, content, organization, cultural ways of teaching and learning, teacher role, assessment, and students' perceptions. Alexander Gilmore (Chapter 13) investigates quality and authenticity maintenance in TESOL by examining the level to which standards of quality are met within the field, and Atta Gebril's and Gavin T. L. Brown's chapter on the conceptualization of quality in feedback also highlights the significance of strategies that increase the relevance of materials for learners such as intended content clarification, goal identification, and mapping out future objectives. Additionally, a chapter by Péter Medgyes and Tamas Kiss commands our attention to the discrimination faced by expatriate native-English speaking teachers—an under-developed area of research. Drawing on research based in Japan, Daniel Roy Pearce, Tim Stewart, and

Akira Tajino discuss the issues faced in team-teaching. These chapters raise the issue of "status": one at field level and the other at classroom level.

Section III is focused on "Quality Teachers for Quality Education" and comprises nine chapters. Christine Coombe discusses teacher qualities and uncovers 10 characteristics of highly effective English teachers such as passion for teaching, instructional effectiveness, and social life. John Trent argues that, in addition to state-mandated standards, a language teacher identity perspective should also be considered to understand quality assurance and teacher effectiveness in the field of TESOL. While Darío Luis Banegas and Agudo explore the challenges in TESOL teacher education, including but not limited to teacher competencies and autonomy, Agudo, Azzaro, and Banegas highlight in Chapter 20 the significance of emotional training for successful teaching. Three chapters focus on preservice teacher training. John M. Levis and Sinem Sonsaat (Chapter 21) put stress on a specific skill for development, teachers' pronunciation. In Chapter 22, Anh Tran, Hoa Thi Mai Nguyen, and Hongzhi Yang take a cultural-historical activity theory perspective to emphasize the significance of quality practicum by concentrating on elements such as the identification of objectives, interconnectedness of activities, mediating tools, and relevant rules. Claire Tardieu, in Chapter 23, discusses qualifications for effective teacher educators by looking at standards such as required degree(s), language proficiency, research skills, and teaching experience. David Nunan, Hayley Black, and Julie Choi focus on innovation in assessment and evaluate an innovative approach, group dynamic assessment, to propose changes to traditional assessment methods. The last chapter in this section, by Thom Kiddle and Gavin Dudeney, covers the challenges in online language teacher education programs (e.g., accreditation, diversity, participation, course materials, and interaction) and their implications for teacher education.

"Part IV: Looking Back and Ahead" contains only a single chapter in which MaryAnn Christison and Denise E. Murray highlight the practices and notions which are holding the field of TESOL back (e.g., outdated administrative styles and lack of insights from the classroom) and suggest that, to determine quality, a definition must be ascribed which is based upon data, research, and best practices.

This book is a collection of chapters that deal with quality assurance in TESOL from different perspectives. Each chapter includes proposals for quality improvement as well as a list of questions for us to reflect upon and discuss within our academic and professional circles. The book successfully draws our attention to maintaining quality in teacher education as the field

of TESOL expands across the globe. Future endeavors should focus on quality debates on areas including, but not limited to, leadership, research, materials development, instruction, and language policy, especially how these relate to specific contexts and local settings.

Re-Theorizing Literacy Practices: Complex Social and Cultural Contexts. David Bloome, Maria Lucia Castanheira, Constant Leung, and Jennifer Rowsell (Eds.). Routledge, 2019. xiv + 274 pp. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351254229

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This book is an invaluable collection of empirical field studies conducted in various local communities and institutional language programs around the world. The contributors to the book demonstrate thought-provoking implications of their research, grounded upon an expanded view of literacy as social practice, which consists of literacy practice and literacy events, with which people use written texts for making meaning in their social, cultural, and historical contexts. In this approach to literacy, people—the participating actors—are viewed as positioning their ideological voice in literacy practice. The perspective forms a body of research in new literacy studies.

In contrast to literacy as social practice, traditional practice in school literacy education teaches students the norms of dominant linguistic features as separate from the contexts where the literacy practice is conducted. In effect, this model disseminates and reproduces standardized forms of the texts together with culture and hegemony while at times suppressing the ideology of marginalized people. This traditional model and the contrasting view of literacy as social practice form the foci of the book. The first theorization is the ideological model, inclusive of people's attitudes, emotions, and beliefs and the social contexts in which literacy practice takes place. The latter is referred to as the autonomous model, treating texts as knowledge processed in the mind. Schools are considered as a place where hegemonic language and the norms of the texts are passed on (according to the editors in the "Introduction"). The authors of the book take on the new literacy studies position, claiming that ideology is inextricably and historically inter-

woven in written texts, and they strive to investigate literacy from multiple perspectives within different social strata.

The book is written in commemoration of Brian Street (1984), who theorized an ideological model of literacy. In 2016, a *festschrift* seminar was held in honor of the scholarship Street achieved and the project of compiling articles that exploit Street's theory of literacy began. Although having written the last section of the book while in hospital, unfortunately, Street passed away in 2017 and could not see the published version. The book invites readers to continue the conversation and to take up his work, retheorizing literacy practice and developing sociocultural dimensions of literacy.

The book is divided into six parts. In the opening chapter, the editors put forward the aforementioned contrasting views on literacy: a community-based, ideological model and the autonomous model that dominates literacy education in schools. In the subsequent chapters of Part 1, the focus of discussion is multimodal layers of literacy. First, Bloome, Judy Kalman, and Matt Seymour introduce school literacy practice in the historical realm from perspectives of the role of literacy in establishing social control and exercising power. Then, Gunther Kress and Rowsell present contemporary literacy practices that merge images into written texts (i.e., modular texts) for realizing effective communication. Next, Castanheira presents the literacy practice of two Brazilian families. She highlights local literacy education practice influenced by religious practices preserved in the community.

The authors in Part 2 meticulously examine how written texts encompass the actor's and writer's aspirations and the surrounding social environments. In this vein, first, MinJeong Kim and Kelly King look into children's collaborative story writing and demonstrate children exercising authorship in their story construction. Next, Virginia Zavala investigates young Peruvian students' literacy practices under the bilingual program within the national policies of the Peruvian government. These authors provide specific attention to the youths' elastic literacy activities associated with digital technology, in which their identity and the culture of the local community are embedded.

In Part 3, contributors explore the heterogeneous characteristics of language in diverse social contexts. Mollie V. Blackburn draws on Bakhtin's (1984) proposition of polyphony—plurality of independence and interdependency during interactions of people—and examines student's scripts during a literacy event. Then, Paul Prior and Andrea R. Olinger investigate heteroglossia in academic discourse in which gestural metaphors are registered in written discourse.

Part 4 extends the discussion into institutional praxis by outlining how dominant identities and culture mediated by both teachers and students are dispersed or even stressed through the educational system. Uta Papen analyzes how multiple forces, for example, the policy of education, the local classroom culture, and the teacher identity, influence literacy education in a primary school in England. Mastin Prinsloo and Lara-Stephanie Krause look at literacy education that is geared towards a national testing system to measure the literacy progress of the hegemonic standard language of primary school students in South Africa. The students often speak a different language at home; therefore, literacy education for testing can reinforce norms and the acquisition of a fixed state of knowledge, not the dynamic, fluid, and nonstatic nature of literacy normally practiced in communities. Lynne Isham and Leung examine a literacy event in which students engage with content and shape their ideas through a teacher's interrogative questions in a secondary school philosophy class in London. The authors show how the literate talk for polishing critical thinking is infused with students' ethnicity and identity. Last, in Part 4, Ursula Wingate explores a new direction for literacy education by reflecting on the challenges it is facing in terms of different pedagogical orientations, for example, English for academic purposes, genre pedagogy, academic socialization, and academic lingua franca.

Part 5 deals with the interrelationship between literacy and personhood as human beings. Michiko Hikida presents an analytical model to investigate text features: Krono-Logic (a flow of the time being) and Kairo-Logic (stillness in motion). She demonstrates her analysis in a particular move in a talk by two students during a collaborative activity. Next, Zanib Rasool examines her family story to show how the culture and religion of the local people are manifested in written communication. Lastly, Stephanie Power-Carter and Bita Zakeri investigate literacy in terms of power relations in a South African school. They state a literacy program with a dominant language influences the identity of marginalized students and often silences their voices when they write discourses.

Street (1984) stresses that we should examine literacy through actual fieldwork. In other words, we should study (a) how people position their ideological self in the texts, (b) how participating people embed meaning in their texts, and (c) the sociocultural contexts—communities in which the ongoing practice is taking place. In the last chapter, Street nudges all researchers and practitioners to join in this continuous conversation because he acknowledges that we have not established satisfiable, valid pedagogy to connect the new literacy model to the policy of literacy education; similarly,

the editors note that we are in the process of "fashioning literacy as social" (p.18) in educational praxis.

Reflecting on Street's work and the contributors' efforts, it is clear that this volume will afford readers with multiple angles to examine and advance their literacy research methodologies and teaching practices. For those teachers who typically follow the autonomous model of teaching literacy, this book would broaden their pedagogical perspectives.

References

Bakhtin, M. (1984). *Problems of Dostoevsky's poetics.* C. Emerson (Ed. & Trans.). University of Minnesota Press.

Street, B. (1984). *Literacy in theory and practice.* Cambridge University Press.

JALT Journal Call for Special Issue Proposals

JALT Journal will publish a maximum of one thematic Special Issue every two years and is calling for Special Issue Proposals. The articles in a Special Issue should all be related to a theme that is relevant for language teaching and/or learning within the Japanese context and will be of interest to journal readers. To submit a Special Issue Proposal, please include the following: 1) contact information for the Guest Editor(s) and invited authors, 2) a description of the theme and why it would be of interest to the Journal's readers (maximum 500 words), 3) abstracts (in English for English manuscripts, in Japanese for Japanese manuscripts) of no more than 150 words or 400 characters (for Japanese abstracts) for each invited manuscript, 4) up to five keywords for each invited manuscript, and 5) a proposed timeline for review and publication. At least one invited manuscript must be in English. Submit the above materials to jj-editor@jalt-publications.org

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Full-length articles must not be more than 8,000 words, including references, notes, tables, and figures. *Research Forum* submissions should not be more than 4,000 words. Perspectives submissions should not be more than 5,000 words. *Point to Point* comments on previously published articles should not be more than 675 words in length and Reviews should generally be around 1,000 words. All submissions must be word processed in A4 or 8.5 x 11" format with line spacing set at 1.5 lines. **For refereed submissions, names and identifying references should appear only on the cover sheet**. Authors are responsible for the accuracy of references and reference citations.

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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（a）論文、（b）研究報告、（c）展望論文、（d）*JALT Journal*に掲載された著作物へのコメント・考察、（e）書評を募集しています。（a）論文と（b）研究報告の違いは、以下の通り字数制限による違いです。（c）展望論文は、言語教育研究に関する課題に焦点をあてた短い論文で、先行研究の検証、理論や1次2次データに基づく議論などを含むものです。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*（7th edition）の定める方式に合わせて下さい。*JALT Journal*書式シート（日本語原稿用）を以下からダウンロードできます ＜https:jalt-publications.org/jj/＞。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、（a）論文は25,000字、（b）研究報告は13,000字、（c）望論文は16,000字、（d）*JALT Journal*に掲載された著作物へのコメント・考察は2,000字、（e）書評は1,500~3,000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:

*JALT Journal*書式シート（日本語原稿用）を参考に作成の上、電子メールの添付書類でお送りください。なお、上記（a）論文~（e）書評のどのカテゴリーへの投稿かを明記ください。審査を経て掲載の認められた草稿は、図表などを全て写植版にしたものにして提出願います。

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