

jalt journal

The research journal of
the Japan Association
for Language Teaching

Volume 43 • No. 2 • November 2021



全国語学教育学会

Japan Association for Language Teaching

¥1,900 ISSN 0287-2420

JALT Journal

Volume 43 • No. 2

November 2021

Editor

Gregory Paul Glasgow

Kanda University of International Studies

Associate Editor

Dennis Koyama

Sophia University

Japanese-Language Editor

Yo In'nami

Chuo University

Associate Japanese-Language Editor

Natsuko Shintani

Kansai University

Reviews Editor

Greg Rouault

Hiroshima Shudo University

Assistant Reviews Editor

Bill Snyder

Soka University

Consulting Editors

Eric Hauser

*University of Electro-Communications
and University of Hawai'i at Mānoa*

Greg Sholdt

Konan University

Ken Urano

Hokkai Gakuen University

Editorial Board

William Acton

*Trinity Western University,
Canada*

David Aline

Kanagawa University

David Beglar

*Temple University—Japan
Campus*

Jeremie Bouchard

Hokkai Gakuen University

Charles Browne

Meiji Gakuin University

Yuko Goto Butler

University of Pennsylvania, USA

Christine Pearson Casanave

*Temple University—Japan
Campus*

Eton Churchill

Kanagawa University

Melodie Cook

University of Niigata Prefecture

Neil Cowie

Okayama University

James A. Elwood

Meiji University

Nicola Galloway

University of Glasgow

Peter Gobel

Kyoto Sangyo University

Michael Guest

Miyazaki University

Gabriele Kasper

University of Hawai'i, Mānoa, USA

Keita Kikuchi

Kanagawa University

Yuriko Kite

Kansai University

Elizabeth Lavolette

Kyoto Sangyo University

Anne McLellan Howard

Miyazaki International College

Setsuko Mori

Kindai University

Tim Murphey

*Kanda University of International
Studies*

Hidetoshi Saito

Ibaraki University

Hideki Sakai

Shinshu University

David Shea

Keio University

Tamara Swenson

Osaka Jogakuin University

Yoshinori J. Watanabe

Sophia University

Additional Readers: Rie Adachi, Nick Zhiwei Bi, Eleanor Carson, Graham Crookes, Nobuyuki Hino, Takeshi Kato, Shusaku Kida, Christopher Nicklin, Emi Morita, Akemi Katayama, Mary Noguchi, Shusaku Kida, Takayuki Nakanishi, Heath Rose, Nathanael Rudolph, Aiko Sano, Eric Setoguchi, Hideyuki Sugiura, Jonathon Trace, Matthew Wallace, Taichi Yamashita, Lori Zenuk-Nishide

JALT Journal Proofreading: Brian Dubin, Susan Gilfert, Kurtis McDonald, Steve McGuire, Sachiko Nakamura

JALT Publications Board Chair: Caroline Handley

JALT Journal Layout & Design: Malcolm Swanson

JALT Journal on the Internet: <https://jalt-publications.org/jj/> **Website Editor:** Malcolm Swanson

- 141 In this Issue
- 142 From the Editor

Articles

- 143 “Teaching Pronunciation is Always on my Mind”: A 5-year Longitudinal Study on a Japanese English Teacher’s Developing Practices and Cognition about Pronunciation — *Michael Burri*
- 167 Phonological Short-Term Memory’s Contribution to the L2 Reading Proficiency of Japanese EFL Learners — *Akiko Kondo*
- 185 Enhancing Situational Willingness to Communicate in Novice EFL Learners through Task-Based Learning — *Junko Toyoda, Tomoko Yashima, and Scott Aubrey*
- 215 Identifying Emergent Leaders in Small Groups in the Language Learning Classroom: An Exploratory Study — *Paul Leeming*

Reviews

- 240 *Technology and the Psychology of Second Language Learners and Users* (Mark R. Freiermuth and Nourollah Zarrinabadi, Eds.) — Reviewed by Richard Bailey
- 243 *The Emotional Rollercoaster of Language Teaching* (Christina Gkonou, Jean-Marc Dewaele, and Jim King, Eds.) — Reviewed by Anna Belobrovy
- 247 *The Action-oriented Approach: A Dynamic Vision of Language Education* (Enrica Piccardo and Brian North) — Reviewed by Marcos Benevides
- 250 *English as a Lingua Franca in Japan: Towards Multilingual Practices* (Mayu Konakahara and Keiko Tsuchiya, Eds.) — Reviewed by Samikshya Bidari
- 254 *Data Collection Methods in Applied Linguistics* (Heath Rose, Jim McKinley, and Jessica Briggs Baffoe-Djan) — Reviewed by Gregory Hadley
- 257 *Eye Tracking in Second Language Acquisition and Bilingualism* (Aline Godfroid) — Reviewed by Marshall K. Higa
- 261 *Complex Dynamic Systems Theory and L2 Writing Development* (Gary Fogal and Marjolijn H. Verspoor, Eds.) — Reviewed by J. Paul Marlowe
- 264 *Academic Writing for International Students of Business and Economics* (Stephen Bailey) — Reviewed by Maria Claudia Nunes Delfino

JALT Journal Information

- 268 Information for Contributors (English and Japanese)

All materials in this publication are copyright ©2021 by JALT and their respective authors. For more information on copyright in all JALT Publications:
<https://jalt-publications.org/copyright>

Japan Association for Language Teaching

A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and offers a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of approximately 2,600 language teachers. There are 32 JALT chapters and 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 bi-monthly periodical containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and the annual *JALT Postconference 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.

JALT National Officers (2021)

President: Dawn Lucovich
Vice President: Robert Chartrand
Auditor: Steve Brown
Director of Treasury: Michael Mielke
Director of Records: Kenneth Gale
Director of Program: Wayne Malcolm
Director of Membership: Melodie Cook
Director of Public Relations: William Pellowe

Chapters

Akita, East Shikoku, Fukui, Fukuoka, Gifu, Gunma, Hiroshima, Hokkaido, Ibaraki, Iwate, Kitakyushu, Kobe, Kyoto, Matsuyama, Nagoya, NanKyuu, Nara, Niigata, Oita, Okayama, Okinawa, Osaka, Saitama, Sendai, Shinshu, Shizuoka, Tokyo, Tottori, Toyohashi, West Tokyo, Yamagata, Yokohama

Special Interest Groups

Bilingualism; Business Communication; College and University Educators; Computer-Assisted Language Learning; Critical Thinking; Extensive Reading; CEFR and Language Portfolio; Gender Awareness in Language Education; Global Issues in Language Education; Intercultural Communication in Language Education; Japanese as a Second Language; Learner Development; Lifelong Language Learning; Literature in Language Teaching; Materials Writers; Mind, Brain, and Education; Mixed, Augmented, and Virtual Realities; Other Language Educators; Performance in Education; Pragmatics; School Owners; Study Abroad; Task-Based Learning; Teacher Development; Teachers Helping Teachers; Teaching Younger Learners; Testing and Evaluation; Vocabulary

JALT Central Office

Urban Edge Building, 5F 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan
Tel.: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631; Email: jco@jalt.org;
Website: <https://jalt.org>

In This Issue

Articles

This issue contains four full-length research articles in English. The first article by **Michael Burri** is a case study that examines the development of the practices and cognition of a Japanese teacher about English pronunciation over a 5-year period. The following article by **Akiko Kondo** analyzes the relationship between phonological short-term memory (PSTM) capacity and the reading proficiency of Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. Thirdly, **Junko Toyoda, Tomoko Yashima, and Scott Aubrey** collaborate to investigate whether task-based learning (TBL) can foster situational L2 Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in novice learners of EFL at the lower secondary school level. Lastly, **Paul Leeming**'s research empirically evaluates the degree to which teachers and students can identify leaders that emerge while conducting group work in the language classroom.

Reviews

The eight titles reviewed in this issue cover theoretical stances, the psychology of teachers and learners, and the application of data and technology in research, teaching, and writing. Given the strain of the COVID-19 pandemic, **Richard Bailey** opens with a fitting look at 21 IMRD studies into the links between technology, second language teaching, and learner psychology. Second, **Anna Belobrov**y reviews an edited volume on language teacher emotions, quite timely considering the emergency remote teaching constraints. **Marcos Benevides** next tackles a theoretical introduction to the Action-oriented Approach by also comparing and contrasting it with TBLT. The fourth review comes from **Samikshya Bidari**, who covers the title *English as a Lingua Franca in Japan*. **Gregory Hadley** reports on a resource for understanding data collection in applied linguistics research that is engaging, practical, and approachable owing to the authors' breadth of experience in Japan, Asia, and Europe. **Marshall K. Higa** evaluates a step-by-step guide for conducting eye-tracking research which also includes a comprehensive literature review. **J. Paul Marlowe** delves into a scholarly work on how Complex Dynamic Systems Theory can be applied to understand writing development in a second language. Closing out the issue, **Maria Claudia Nunes Delfino** examines the third edition of a volume on teaching academic writing to international business students.

From the Editor

As we continue to navigate these uncertain times, the *JALT Journal* editorial team remains committed to ensuring that you receive most current and innovative research conducted in the Japanese context. We wish you all continued safety, good health, and good spirits.

Our deepest gratitude goes out to **Yo In'nami** and to **Natsuko Shintani**, who have served as the *JALT Journal* Japanese-Language Editor and Associate Editor respectively, and sadly, who will be leaving us this year. They will be sorely missed for their steadfast dedication to the oversight and screening of potential Japanese-language contributions to the journal. At the same time, we would like to give a warm welcome to **Kiwamu Kasahara**, who will take over as the Japanese-language Editor. In addition, we would also like to welcome **Rintaro Sato**, who has just joined our team as Japanese-language Associate Editor. We are very happy to have you both on board!

Finally, we continue to thank our Editorial Advisory Board, Additional Readers and proofreaders for their continual support and diligence. We are always seeking more Readers to support the peer review process, so if you have research and/or academic writing experience and would like to read up to three manuscripts a year in your area of interest, please let us know. We would also be happy to hear from those of you interested in assisting us with the proofreading of manuscripts. Readers with experience in the following areas would be particularly welcome:

- quantitative analysis
- team-teaching
- second language teacher education (SLTE)
- language assessment

Please contact us at <jaltpubs.jj.editor@jalt.org> for further information about the opportunities above. We look forward to hearing from you.

—Gregory Paul Glasgow, *JALT Journal* Editor

Articles

“Teaching Pronunciation is Always on my Mind”: A 5-year Longitudinal Study on a Japanese English Teacher’s Developing Practices and Cognition about Pronunciation

Michael Burri

University of Wollongong

Systematic inquiry into second language teacher learning has been carried out for 3 decades, but research into learning to teach English pronunciation is just emerging. The purpose of this paper is to address this gap by examining the long-term trajectory of a Japanese teacher of English learning to teach English pronunciation. The case study examined the development of the instructor’s practices and cognition (i.e., beliefs and knowledge) about English pronunciation over a 5-year period. A 13-week pronunciation-pedagogy course, a narrative frame that elicited the instructor’s self-reported pronunciation teaching practices, and 2 classroom observations followed by a semi-structured interview were used to collect data. The findings demonstrated that the 5-year development of the teacher’s practices and cognition was a complicated and non-linear process. Several contextual factors were identified as being responsible for the uneven development of the teacher-participant’s practices, cognition, and uptake of content taught in the pronunciation pedagogy course.

第二言語教師学習についての系統的な研究は、過去30年間に於いて数多くなされてきた。一方で、英語の発音指導修得における研究は未だ萌芽的段階である。本研究は、英語

<https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ43.2-1>

JALT Journal, Vol. 43, No. 2, November 2021

の発音指導を修得した日本人英語教師を長期的に研究することでこのような溝を埋める試みである。本ケーススタディにおいて、五年間にわたり教師の実践と英語発音に対する認知（ピリーフや知識）の発達についての研究を行った。データ収集として13週間の発音教授法コース、教師の発音指導実践を引き出すためのナラティブフレーム、及び二度の授業観察、そしてそれに続く半構造化インタビューが用いられた。その結果、五年間にわたる彼らの教育実践と認知は複雑かつ非線形であることが確認された。被験者である教師たちの実践、認知、そして発音教授法コースを通して修得された内容の理解についての不規則な発達の背景にはいくつかの文脈的要因が存在することが示唆された。

Keywords: longitudinal research; pronunciation; second language teacher education; teacher cognition; teacher learning

The visibility of pronunciation in language teaching has increased markedly in the past two decades (Levis, 2015). Along with this attention, inquiry into the preparation of pronunciation teachers has grown in the last few years. However, to understand the nature of what teacher learning entails, Webster (2019) posits that researchers must go beyond the second language teacher education (SLTE) and follow second language (L2) instructors into their professional careers. Crandall and Christison (2016) further assert that “[t]he field of SLTE needs longitudinal research that investigates how teaching expertise emerges, [and] how teachers’ beliefs evolve” (p. 11); yet, few studies have examined the longitudinal process of L2 teacher learning. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to examine the long-term trajectory of an L2 teacher learning to teach English pronunciation. Drawing on the notion of teacher cognition, the study examines the development of a JTE’s (Japanese teacher of English) practices and cognition about English pronunciation over a 5-year period, offering new insights into the longitudinal process of learning to teach pronunciation in a specific context.

Literature Review

In light of this longitudinal study’s focus on a JTE’s trajectory of learning to teach pronunciation, the literature review is divided into three sections: (a) longitudinal research on L2 teacher learning; (b) L2 teacher practices and cognition about pronunciation; and (c) the specific context of Japanese teachers of English and pronunciation.

Longitudinal Research on L2 Teacher Learning

Systematic inquiry into L2 teacher learning began to emerge about three decades ago (Freeman, as cited in Sadeghi, 2019). Teacher learning—de-

defined as an active and reflective means through which instructors construct and acquire knowledge, beliefs, and skills (Richards & Farrell, 2005)—must be meaningful and relevant to teachers' classroom contexts in order for it to be stimulating and professionally enriching (Desimone, 2009). The general view is that for continuous professional learning to be effective, it needs to be teacher driven (Hayes, 2019). Despite the growing body of literature on L2 teacher learning, relatively few empirical studies have explored the longitudinal process of learning to teach English as an additional language (Webster, 2019).

Studies conducted in pre-service teacher education contexts, for example, have demonstrated that substantial time is required for student teachers' beliefs and knowledge to develop (Mattheoudakis, 2007). At the same time, some researchers have suggested that SLTE was relatively ineffective since previous L2 learning experiences can exert powerful influence on student teacher beliefs (Peacock, 2001; Urmston, 2003). However, drawing almost exclusively on questionnaire data, both Peacock and Urmston produced a restricted understanding of student teacher learning. Conversely, Tang et al. (2012), utilizing multiple data sources, including an essay, a survey, lesson plan analysis, and interviews found that curricular and institutional factors impacted and often impeded professional learning of pre-service teachers. This, in turn, could cause practitioners to resort to practices and beliefs held prior to SLTE. Macalister (2016) also identified the local context as impacting the practices of pre-service teachers in a practicum setting.

Research into the learning process of practicing L2 instructors has also shed light on what learning to teach language entails. As Kang and Chen (2014) showed, for instance, the cyclical process of L2 instructors' developing practices and cognition (beliefs and knowledge) resulted in considerable teacher growth (i.e., learning). Phipps and Borg (2009), however, found that contextual factors such as classroom management concerns and student expectations can cause tensions between a teacher's beliefs and their practices" (p. 385). Another line of research, which explored the long-term professional identity construction of L2 instructors, also demonstrated the strong impact contextual factors (e.g., institutional power relationships) have on instructor learning trajectories, including their practices and cognition (Gu, 2013; Tsui, 2007). Relevant to the focus of this present study, Webster's (2019) research revealed that novice instructors' knowledge about teaching speaking plateaued developmentally as a result of the teachers working in professional isolation.

A common and prominent finding generated by the aforementioned longitudinal studies is that context exercises considerable influence on the process of L2 teachers' professional learning. Yet, it must be noted that few of these studies extended beyond a year and therefore provided somewhat limited insights into the learning trajectories of L2 teachers. That is, the development of L2 instructors' practices, beliefs, and knowledge over a period of several years remains largely unexplored. Addressing this gap appears to be urgently needed given Kang and Chen's (2014) proposition that longitudinal research is "expected to help paint a more accurate picture of the domain of teacher learning" (p. 184). In this respect, the current study makes an important contribution by enhancing our understanding of the longitudinal process of learning to teach pronunciation through the examination of the 5-year development of a JTE's practices and cognition about English pronunciation.

L2 Teacher Practices and Cognition about Pronunciation

There are a wide variety of pronunciation-specific resources available to practitioners and researchers, reflecting a growing interest in pronunciation pedagogy (e.g., Celce-Murcia et al., 2010; Derwing & Munro, 2015; Gilbert, 2012; Jones, 2016; Kang et al., 2018; Reed & Levis, 2015; Yates & Zielinski, 2009). Additionally, regular pronunciation symposia and conferences are held in the United States, Australia, Finland, and Poland, the *Journal of Second Language Pronunciation* was established a few years ago, and a growing number of classroom-based studies have provided convincing evidence of the effectiveness of pronunciation instruction (for two overviews, see Lee et al., 2015; Saito, 2012). Corresponding with these recent developments, the pedagogical view of pronunciation has advanced substantially. One of the most notable paradigm shifts is the move away from the native principle (Levis, 2005). That is, native-like pronunciation is no longer seen as the pedagogical target, with scholars proposing intelligibility (defined as clear and easy to understand speech) to be the goal for which L2 teachers should aim (Thomson, 2014). A second major proposition is that for pronunciation instruction to be effective, segmentals (consonants and vowels) *and* suprasegmentals (stress, rhythm, and intonation) must be taught in the L2 classroom (Sicola & Darcy, 2015; Thomson & Derwing, 2015). A third notion is the need and provision for automatization and repeated practice in the L2 classroom to enhance students' intelligibility and fluency (Baker, 2014; Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005). Yet, despite these recent conceptual and pedagogical advancements, research has shown that L2 teachers often

lack confidence in their ability to teach pronunciation. This uncertainty has been attributed to the absence of pronunciation-specific training opportunities in SLTE programs (Bai & Yuan, 2018; Couper, 2016; Foote et al., 2011).

Research revealing a lack of instructor confidence and training has typically been underpinned by second language teacher cognition (SLTC). SLTC research “seeks, with reference to their personal, professional, social, cultural and historical contexts, to understand [L2] teachers’ minds and emotions and the role these play in the process of becoming, being and developing as a teacher” (Borg, 2019, p. 20). Thus, SLTC research has provided valuable insights into L2 teachers’ practices, beliefs, and knowledge about pronunciation teaching and learning. Responding to the concerns about instructors’ training (or lack thereof), the most recent line of SLTC-based inquiry has explored the process of student teachers learning to teach English pronunciation in SLTE programs. Studies have shown the positive impact a pronunciation pedagogy course can have on student teachers’ practices and cognition (Baker, 2011; Buss, 2017; Lim, 2016). The importance of student teachers’ linguistic backgrounds, previous teaching experiences in learning to teach pronunciation, and the mediational relationship of cognition development and identity construction in becoming a competent pronunciation instructor (Burri et al., 2017) has also been established. Moreover, program-related factors, including assessments, group work, discussion tasks, required readings, hands-on training sessions, classroom observations, and course content, all appear to play important roles in student teachers acquiring skills and knowledge necessary to teach English pronunciation (Burri et al., 2018). Less researched and understood, however, are JTEs’ practices and cognition about pronunciation, an area that is discussed in the third section of this literature review.

Japanese Teachers of English and Pronunciation

Assuming that adequate training opportunities are included in SLTE programs, the contemporary view in language teaching is that native English-speakers *and* non-native English-speakers can be effective pronunciation teachers (Levis et al., 2016). In light of this proposition, along with recent educational reforms advocating communicative English teaching, pronunciation is gaining momentum in Japan (Hanazaki et al., 2017). Not surprisingly then, studies on pronunciation practices and cognition of JTEs are beginning to emerge. While pronunciation instruction is considered to be important for Japanese learners of English to attain intelligible speech (Chujo, 2015) and JTEs’ knowledge of phonetics is seen as being more effec-

tive than using “repeat-after-me” in the instruction of segmentals (Hanazaki et al., 2017), research has demonstrated that junior high school JTEs tend to lack confidence in pronouncing larger segments of language (Uchida & Sugimoto, 2020). Also, “listen & repeat” is predominately used with large classes and suprasegmentals receive less attention in the classroom (Uchida & Sugimoto, 2018). A shortcoming of these recent studies is that findings and subsequent recommendations are derived exclusively from questionnaire data. More comprehensive data sets are needed to attain an in-depth understanding of what JTEs do, believe, and know about pronunciation. Research must also examine the longitudinal trajectory of JTEs learning to teach pronunciation. The present study addresses this need by not only bringing practices and cognition together (Kubanyiova, 2012) but also by examining their development over a period of five years to better understand teacher learning. Importantly, the goal of this study is not to judge a JTE’s pedagogical effectiveness; rather, the aim of the current study is threefold: (1) to gain an in-depth perspective on a JTE’s 5-year professional trajectory, (2) to add to our understanding of teacher learning, and (3) to make recommendations that are relevant to L2 teacher educators and L2 teachers in order to improve the preparation of pronunciation teachers and to support practicing teachers in their endeavour to pronunciation into their classrooms.

Research Questions

Having positioned the paper within the relevant literature, the study was guided by the following two research questions:

- RQ1. How do a JTE’s practices and cognition about pronunciation develop over a period of five years?
- RQ2. To what extent do the JTE’s current practices and cognition reflect content taught in a graduate course in pronunciation pedagogy?

Method

Study Design, Data Collection, and Research Context

The longitudinal research project was comprised of a case study design (Creswell, 2013) in which multiple qualitative data sources were triangulated. Collecting a substantial amount of qualitative data allowed me to attain an in-depth understanding of the development of practices and cognition of one JTE situated in a specific context. The study also reflected principles

of ethnographic inquiry by utilising several non-participatory classroom observations and interviews over a period of five years.

The five-year inquiry (2013-2018) consisted of three distinct phases: (a) a 13-week elective course in teaching pronunciation; (b) the participants' completion of a narrative frame self-reporting on actual classroom pronunciation teaching practices; and (c) classroom observations of one participant by the researcher followed by a semi-structured interview. The present study is part of a larger research project in which 15 student teachers initially participated in Phase 1. Of the 15 participants, five decided to continue into Phase 2. One teacher-participant then dropped out with four teachers remaining in Phase 3. Aoi (pseudonym), the JTE this paper focuses on, was one of four JTE participants who took part in all three phases.

At the beginning of Phase 1 (in July 2013), I obtained written consent from 15 student teachers enrolled in a postgraduate course on pronunciation pedagogy to participate in the study. This was an elective course in a MEd in TESOL program offered at an Australian university. The course was 13 weeks long with 3-hour lectures taught once a week. Every week focused on a different topic of English pronunciation. The topics aligned closely with the core text *Teaching pronunciation: A course book and reference guide* (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). The study design overview is displayed in Table 1 on the next page.

A typical lecture was divided into three parts. The first part focused on theoretical and technical aspects of English phonology. In the second section the student teachers were trained in various controlled, guided, and free activities (Baker, 2014). Among the many techniques introduced to the class, haptic pronunciation instruction (Acton et al., 2013; Acton, 2020) featured most prominently. Haptic pronunciation instruction implies a systematic combination of different kinds of movements and touch to help L2 instructors integrate pronunciation into their classrooms effectively. The third part then aimed at facilitating the student teachers' phonological awareness by having them analyse a number of L2 learner speech samples.

The students were required to complete three assignments. The first was an essay on the state of pronunciation instruction in a country of their choosing. The second assignment was a quiz, which assessed the students' newly acquired knowledge of the English sound system. For the third and last assessment task, the student teachers had to analyse an English learner's speech and recommend several teaching techniques that could be used to help improve the learner's intelligibility.

As for data sources collected in Phase 1, I administered a pre- and post-course questionnaire with the aim of capturing the students' background

information as well as their cognition about English pronunciation. Both questionnaires employed multiple-choice and open-ended items and were designed to yield insights into student teachers' cognition development (Busch, 2010; Mattheoudakis, 2007). The 15 participants were then divided into four groups that took part in three focus group interviews held in weeks 5, 9, and 12. The JTE in this study was part of the second focus group (two more JTEs and an Australian teacher were the other group members). I asked the members about any critical incidents (see Richards & Farrell, 2005) they may have experienced in the lectures or at some point during the course. A typical focus-group meeting lasted about 60 minutes. In addition to the focus group interviews, I observed and video recorded all of the 3-hour lectures, and I collected the third assessment task. The assessment was collected because it was believed to reflect participants' cognition at the end of the course. It should be noted that I was not involved in the teaching of any of the lectures or in the marking of the assignments.

For Phase 2, I emailed a narrative frame to the five teacher-participants in December of 2016. A narrative frame is a "written story template consisting of a series of incomplete sentences and blank spaces of varying lengths. Structured as a story in skeletal form, [the objective] is to produce a coherent story by filling in the spaces according to writers' experiences and reflections on these" (Barkhuizen, 2015, p.178). The narrative frame consisted of four separate sections (background, pronunciation teaching, reflecting on the pronunciation pedagogy course, and additional thoughts) with the pronunciation teaching part containing 10 incomplete sentences and therefore being slightly longer than the other three sections (see Burri & Baker, 2020, for the narrative template). The following is an example of an incomplete sentence that was included in the pronunciation teaching section: *When I teach English pronunciation to my students, I focus on teaching _____ because _____*. Given that the instructors were now teaching in a variety of contexts and locations (Wollongong, Melbourne, Tokyo, and Hong Kong) that were not easily accessible, having the teachers complete a narrative frame was considered to be an effective way to collect data on the participants' self-reported practices and cognition. The JTE on which I am focusing this paper returned the completed frame to me in February 2017.

One of the limitations of the second phase was the self-reported nature of the teachers' practices. Thus, a third phase—for which a grant was obtained from my institution—was added. Phase 3 allowed me to visit the teachers' classroom and talk with them face-to-face. Two classroom observations and

a 60-minute semi-structured interview were conducted with each teacher. Questions asked in Phase 1 (pre- and post-questionnaire, focus groups) and Phase 2 (narrative frame) as well as questions that arose from the two phases and the two observations conducted in Phase 3, plus Richard's (2011) teaching competence framework comprised of a sociocultural perspective on L2 teaching informed the creation of the interview questions. Having similar questions in all three phases allowed me to compare themes and subsequently attain insights into the study participants' trajectories.

Both of the observed classes were video recorded with the camera focusing on the teacher (the students provided written consent to be video recorded). I made sure to stand in the back of the classroom and observe the lesson as inconspicuously as possible, as Creswell (2013) recommended. The two observations and the semi-structured interview with the teacher participating in this study were done in Tokyo in November 2018.

Teacher-participant

Aoi commenced her master's program in early 2012 with five years of English teaching experience at a senior high school in Japan. After completing her graduate studies at the end of 2013, she secured a part-time position at a high school in the Tokyo area. Having completed that year, she obtained a full-time job at a different private junior and senior high school also located in Tokyo. During Phase 2 of the study, Aoi taught grade 9 students and grade 7 in Phase 3. For both grades she was responsible for teaching General English which included four 50-minute lessons per week. *New Treasure* (2015) was the main textbook used in the course. In addition to the four weekly lessons, the students attended an English conversation class once a week with a native English teacher and two grammar lessons per week taught by Japanese teacher. There were 15-23 students who were in class in both phases with their English proficiency being at a pre-intermediate level. At the time of Phase 3, Aoi was 35 years of age and had been in her full-time teaching position for four years.

Data Analysis

Initially, all the qualitative data, including the verbatim transcribed focus group interviews (Phase 1) and semi-structured interview (Phase 3) was read carefully. Once done, I wrote three profiles for Aoi—one for each phase: Phase 1) Beginning and end of graduate course; Phase 2) reported teaching context; and Phase 3) current teaching context. These three profiles

were positioned next to each other in a Word document and read, re-read, and refined numerous times. Aoi was given the opportunity to validate the profiles, and she requested a few minor changes to be made to the third profile. Analysing the three profiles concurrently allowed me to identify several themes across the three profiles, which, in turn, enabled me to attain an in-depth understanding of the 5-year development of Aoi's practices and cognition about pronunciation. I acknowledge the subjective nature of this process, but this study is part of a larger research project and therefore my co-investigator assisted with the construction of these profiles and the identification of themes, increasing the trustworthiness of the data analysis. I am confident that my analysis of Aoi's learning trajectory is based on a careful, in-depth examination.

Findings

The findings of this longitudinal case study demonstrated that the 5-year development of Aoi's practices and cognition about English pronunciation was a complicated and multifaceted process. Also, the extent to which some of her practices and cognition reflected content taught in the pronunciation pedagogy course varied markedly. The analysis of the three profiles revealed four major themes: (a) teaching of suprasegmentals; (b) delivery of pronunciation instruction; (c) kinaesthetic pronunciation teaching; and (d) native speakerism. These themes are now presented in detail below.

The first notable theme was Aoi's developing cognition about and teaching of suprasegmentals, particularly the teaching of stress and rhythm. Prior to the graduate course she had never "heard the word prosody" (AT3)¹ (suprasegmentals), but at the end of the semester she believed that "[a]cquiring English prosody [was] one of the important features for communication" (AT3). Three years later, in the narrative frame she stated that her goal was twofold: (a) to familiarize her Japanese learners with English sounds (segmentals) and word stress rules, and (b) to have them produce word and sentence stress (suprasegmentals) with sentence stress being viewed as particularly important because "I don't want my students to speak like a robot" (NF). The Phase 3 observations revealed that Aoi taught both segmentals² and suprasegmentals, and in the interview she explained that her pedagogical goal was for Japanese students to be understood when speaking English. Hence, data collected in Phases 2 and 3 suggest that Aoi used a balanced approach to pronunciation instruction (i.e., teaching both segmentals and suprasegmentals) which signifies a clear development of her practices and cognition about pronunciation. It also parallels what the

lecturer taught during the pronunciation pedagogy course. The lecturer took the position of several leading pronunciation scholars, suggesting that a balanced approach was the most effective means in helping L2 students improve their pronunciation (e.g., Derwing & Munro, 2015; Sicola & Darcy, 2015; Thomson & Derwing, 2015).

The second theme that stood out in the profile data was Aoi's delivery of pronunciation instruction. Prior to the graduate course Aoi "introduced tongue twisters" and drew pictures of a "mouth and tongue" (Q1) to teach "the difference between [l] and [r]", but other than that, "little time" (Q1) was spent on pronunciation in her classes. She "rarely gave instruction [on] how to pronounce English to her students. If any, it was very superficial advice" (AT3). At the end of the course, she included a variety of controlled, guided, and free techniques in the third assessment task, displaying a solid understanding of techniques that she could use to help Japanese learners of English improve their pronunciation. A few years later, Phases 2 and 3 revealed that Aoi did indeed teach pronunciation in her classroom, but her techniques were mostly teacher-focused in nature. That is, drills and repetitions were her most frequently used techniques. She also used face diagrams, phonics video and audio clips, and handouts, and she had her students read out loud or recite sentences and passages from the textbook (occasionally alongside music played in the background) to teach the pronunciation of new words and sentences, to facilitate her students' awareness of phonics rules and English rhythm, to improve their fluency, and to assess their fluency, intonation, and attitude, including "voice [and] eye contact" (P3I). Aoi used some guided techniques (e.g., team competition activities, pair work, Q&A tasks, info gap exercises and role-plays) and it was evident that she had developed an excellent rapport with her students and created a lively learning environment, but the majority of her techniques featured limited opportunities for communicative practice. Considering that she had rarely taught pronunciation before commencing her graduate studies, the findings demonstrated some limited development of Aoi's practices over the preceding five years. At the same time, the alignment of her current practices with content taught during the pronunciation pedagogy course was somewhat marginal. Throughout the graduate course, the lecturer advocated the need for controlled, guided, and free practice to enhance the pronunciation of L2 learners. As such, the findings—derived from all three phases—suggested that developing the ability to include controlled, guided, and free activities into one's pronunciation teaching repertoire is not a linear process. Aoi's delivery of pronunciation instruction also supports Uchida and Sugimoto's (2018) research suggesting that JTEs in junior high school con-

texts tend to use mostly controlled techniques (e.g., listen and repeat), and it corroborates Baker's (2014) proposition that L2 teachers tend to shy away from guided and free practice activities.

Kinaesthetic pronunciation teaching was a third theme that featured prominently in Aoi's profile data. During the pronunciation pedagogy course, her cognition developed from having no knowledge of kinaesthetic teaching to a view of this particular way of teaching pronunciation being interesting and potentially useful in the L2 classroom. She "never imagined teaching and learning pronunciation [was] such an interesting thing because when [she] was in Japan no one taught [her]" (FG1) how to do this systematically. Three years later, even though during the course she had questioned her ability to implement some of the newly learned kinaesthetic techniques in her classroom, Aoi used a haptic technique, the Rhythm Fight Club (RFC) (Burri et al., 2016), with her grade 9 students "a few times" in class (personal communication, July 14, 2020). In her narrative frame she remarked that the haptic technique had a positive impact on her students' production of word and sentence stress: "I think their English in terms of word or sentence [stress]... improved very much after practicing English with [the RFC]" (NF), although she expressed some uncertainty about whether their improvement was in fact the result of her pronunciation teaching. Yet, contrary to her initial concerns about students perhaps feeling hesitant to engage in haptic learning, the learners showed no reluctance to use the technique. In fact, "when [she] ask[ed] them to pronounce words with [the RFC], they [did] it without hesitation" (NF). Overall, she considered knowing about haptic teaching to be her strength. This perception continued into the third phase of the study, but she no longer used the RFC when I observed her teaching. This suggests that the development of her practices and cognition about kinaesthetic pronunciation teaching, much like the delivery of her pronunciation instruction discussed in the previous paragraph, was not a linear process. Nevertheless, Aoi's use of a haptic technique reflected pedagogical content taught during the graduate course. Throughout the semester, the lecturer promoted the idea of haptic instruction fostering pronunciation improvement (Acton et al., 2013). Aoi's sporadic application of the RFC also lends support to the notion that the uptake of novel concepts and pedagogy can be challenging (Woodward et al., 2018), which appears to be especially true in the case of innovative pronunciation practices (Burri & Baker, 2019).

The fourth major theme identified in the data was native speakerism. At the beginning of the pronunciation pedagogy course, Aoi thought that "non-native speakers [could not] teach pronunciation properly" (FG1) and that na-

tive English was the ideal pronunciation model. During the graduate course, her perception gradually shifted. She began to recognise her ability to teach pronunciation: "...now I have a little bit confidence...I know how to teach even [though] I'm non-native" (FG1), and by the end of the semester she felt more confident in her ability to teach pronunciation to Japanese learners of English. Aoi also thought that attaining native-like pronunciation was no longer needed for herself as an English teacher or for her Japanese students. In Phase 3 of the study, even though *New Treasure* (2015) featured an American English model, Aoi reasserted that "it's not necessary to speak like native speakers... as long as my students or I make...[ourselves] understood" (P3I). The data collected over the 5-year period, therefore, showed that Aoi's cognition about native speakerism developed from initially believing that she could not be an effective pronunciation teacher towards intelligible (i.e., clear) speech being the pedagogical goal rather than native-like pronunciation. Her developing cognition about nativeness in pronunciation teaching was in line with content taught in the graduate course. The lecturer regularly stated that anybody could be an effective pronunciation teacher, irrespective of their cultural and linguistic background. Frequent references were made to intelligible pronunciation being the pedagogical target, not native-like pronunciation (Thomson, 2014). Thus, her cognition reflected substantial uptake of course content in the area of nativeness. The fact that she taught English pronunciation as a nonnative English-speaking teacher (NNEST) also substantiates previous research suggesting that the preparation of NNSs to teach pronunciation can be effective (Burri et al., 2017), and it lends support to the notion that NNESTs can be effective pronunciation teachers (Levis et al., 2016).

Overall, the findings of this case study demonstrated that the development of a JTE's practices and cognition about English pronunciation is not a straightforward process. Some of Aoi's practices and cognition developed more noticeably than others. SLTC research has shown the complicated relationship between teacher cognition and classroom practices (Aslan, 2015; Kang & Cheng, 2014), and teaching English pronunciation appears to be no exception. What warrants further discussion is the variability of the extent of Aoi's uptake of course content as reflected in her current practices and cognition.

Discussion

The findings showed the varied development of Aoi's practices and cognition about English pronunciation. This begs the question as to why some of this variability in her uptake of content occurred. The data collected in

Phases 2 and 3 suggested that several contextual factors exerted powerful influence on Aoi's developing practices and cognition about pronunciation. Sharing materials and co-designing lesson plans with a Japanese colleague teaching the same grade and course was, for example, identified as having a positive influence on her selection of pronunciation teaching resources such as audio/video clips and handouts. As Aoi explained, this collaborative partnership was beneficial for her: "I'm learning from her a lot" (P3I). While this coincides with Sprott's (2019) proposition that professional relationships with colleagues can promote teacher learning, the students' responsiveness to being taught pronunciation was also a positive factor. As was observed, Aoi clearly enjoyed teaching pronunciation and her students responded positively to her practices. Furthermore, Aoi explained that participating in the longitudinal study also had a positive effect on her: "...teaching pronunciation is always on my mind to some extent, so that's why... I want to introduce some of it. I usually think about it and last year, I did some [RFC] with my students and they...enjoyed it" (P3I). Yet, the data also showed that several contextual factors negatively influenced the development of Aoi's practices and cognition. The requirement of having to use *New Treasure* (2015) as well as having to synchronize her teaching with fellow instructors teaching the same grade and course notably limited her ability to implement content learned in the graduate course, specifically haptic pronunciation teaching. Moreover, similar to Wahid and Sulong's (2013) and Bai and Yuan's (2018) studies, Aoi felt that time constraints and a busy teaching and extra-curricular schedule prevented her from incorporating more pronunciation in her classes. Although this is somewhat speculative, the challenges involved in teaching a different grade every year and the learners' relatively low English proficiency level may have also led Aoi to select and use techniques that were mostly controlled (i.e., teacher-focused) in nature.

Being situated in this particular context gradually began to cause uncertainty and affected Aoi's confidence. Research has shown the connection between a lack of training and L2 teachers' low confidence in their ability to teach pronunciation (Couper, 2017; Foote et al., 2011). In Aoi's case, as identified in the fourth major theme above, her confidence increased markedly during the graduate course, but then appeared to decrease as she commenced teaching. She began to doubt her ability to teach pronunciation in her junior high school classroom and questioned her overall pronunciation teaching skills and ability to correct errors: "I'm not [a] skilful pronunciation teacher, so [correcting my students' errors is] my challenging point" (P3I). Aoi explained that she had her students repeat after her as a means to

correct the learners' pronunciation, but she expressed concerns about not knowing how to correct her students' pronunciation errors. This is interesting given that Aoi completed a 13-week graduate course on pronunciation pedagogy yet reported doubts about teaching pronunciation to her Japanese learners. This is also concerning given the fact that error correction techniques have been shown to improve the pronunciation of L2 learners (Saito & Lyster, 2012).

Aoi was acutely aware of the influence that the context exerted on her developing practices and cognition: "Working environment in [Japan] sometimes prevent[s] teachers learning more..." (personal communication, February 13, 2019). Contextual factors impacting, contributing to, or hindering teacher learning has been established empirically (e.g., Solheim et al., 2018; Tang et al., 2012) and the pronunciation literature discusses the powerful influence of external factors on L2 teachers and their pronunciation pedagogy (Couper, 2016; Levis & Sonsaat, 2019). The findings also align with the notion that context is fundamental in understanding the relationship between practices and cognition (Borg, 2019). In Aoi's case, the influence of contextual factors may have been particularly strong as she reported having an exceptionally positive experience during the graduate course. A few years later, being in a real teaching context, her acquired cognition and practices began to be exposed to a number of contextual factors, resulting in uneven development. The argument could be made that Aoi adjusted her pedagogy and focused on, for example, phonics and used mostly controlled techniques to meet her students' needs at the expense of content learned in the graduate course. It is also possible that since pronunciation is rarely included in commercially published textbooks (Diepenbroek & Derwing, 2013), practices and cognition about pronunciation are particularly prone to the influence of contextual influence. This lack of guidance, in conjunction with pronunciation being one of the most challenging aspects of a language to teach (Setter & Jenkins, 2005), may have caused Aoi to resort to previously held cognition and practices (Tang et al., 2012). Nevertheless, the present study provides compelling evidence of contextual factors strongly impacting a JTE's developing practices and cognition about English pronunciation.

While generalizing the findings of a single case study can be problematic, the present research has some important implications for L2 teacher educators and practitioners. Most importantly, pronunciation teacher preparation courses should foster student teachers' awareness of the powerful influence that context exerts on pronunciation pedagogy and teachers' cognition. At the same time, a pronunciation pedagogy course should equip student

teachers with strategies to navigate future teaching contexts. This would not only make teacher education more meaningful and relevant to international graduate students obtaining a TESOL qualification in places like Australia, but in Aoi's case it would have perhaps enabled her to incorporate more guided and free techniques, as well as to correct student errors more confidently. Another implication is the provision of pronunciation-specific professional development opportunities for JTEs. Aoi had a desire to learn more about pronunciation, but it was difficult for her to "[find] any pronunciation conference" (P31) in Japan. Thus, in light of the findings of this study, locally situated and practice-oriented in-service learning opportunities (Kang & Cheng, 2014) should be made available to JTEs to hone their pronunciation teaching skills and knowledge. That is, opportunities that are "reflective of the social and political contexts of the teachers' classrooms, schools, and community" (Crandall & Christison, 2016, p.11) would likely contribute to continuous professional learning of teachers like Aoi (Hayes, 2019). This could, for instance, be in the form of regular events sponsored by local JALT Chapters, or a pronunciation symposium/conference similar to the ones recently held in Australia, Finland, Poland, and the United States. The establishment of a pronunciation-specific special interest group in a local professional association like JALT could also provide ongoing learning opportunities for JTEs. Another possibility, as Farrell (2012) suggests, could include regular teacher-researcher contact to keep practitioners engaged in the learning process and perhaps have them participate in a research project. Aoi appreciated being part of this longitudinal study and it seemed to have had a positive effect on her cognition. To what extent this influenced her practices is not clear, but at least it kept pronunciation on her mind.

Conclusion

This study provided detailed insights into the 5-year development of a JTE's practices and cognition about English pronunciation. The findings revealed four major areas of development, including the teaching of suprasegmentals, the delivery of pronunciation instruction, kinaesthetic pronunciation teaching, and native speakerism. The findings also demonstrated that several contextual factors were responsible for the uneven development of the instructor's practices, cognition, and uptake of content taught in the pronunciation pedagogy course, upholding the notion that teacher learning is a complex and non-linear process (Feryok, 2010) and that learning to teach pronunciation is not a quick and easy thing. Aoi's willingness to engage in research has inspired me to plan a follow-up study to examine

the pronunciation practices and cognition of a larger number of JTEs. This future project is expected to provide additional insights into the contextualised learning trajectories of L2 teachers who have completed a graduate pronunciation pedagogy course and are now teaching in Japan.

Notes

1. Quotation annotation key: Q1= pre-course questionnaire; FG1 = first focus group interview; AT3 = assessment task 3; NF = narrative frame; P3I = phase 3 interview.
2. Such as the consonant sound /r/; the lengthening of the vowel sound /æ/ in *can* vs *can't*; and several murmuring vowels including “ar”, “or”, “ir”, “er”.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Donna Brinton for her valuable feedback on an earlier draft. I would also like to express my gratitude to the teacher-participants for taking part in my longitudinal research, and to Miyako Fujii for helping me with the literature review of this paper.

Funding

This research was supported by a University of Wollongong Faculty of Social Sciences ECR Start-up Grant.

Michael Burri is a Senior Lecturer in TESOL at the University of Wollongong. His interests include pronunciation teaching, L2 teacher education, educational neuroscience, and context-sensitive/innovative pedagogy.

References

- Acton, W. (2020). *Haptic-integrated clinical pronunciation research and teaching*. <http://hipoeces.blogspot.com.au/>
- Acton, W., Baker, A., Burri, M., & Teaman, B. (2013). Preliminaries to haptic-integrated pronunciation instruction. In J. Levis & K. LeVelle (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 4th Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching Conference* (pp. 234–244). Iowa State University.

- Aslan, E. (2015). When the native is also a non-native: "Retrodicting" the complexity of language teacher cognition. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 71(3), 244–269. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.2575>
- Bai, B., & Yuan, R. (2018). EFL teachers' beliefs and practices about pronunciation teaching. *ELT Journal*, 73(2), 134–143. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccy040>
- Baker, A. (2011). ESL teachers and pronunciation pedagogy: Exploring the development of teachers' cognitions and classroom practices. In J. Levis & K. LeVelle (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 2nd Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching Conference* (pp. 82–94). Iowa State University.
- Baker, A. (2014). Exploring teachers' knowledge of L2 pronunciation techniques: Teacher cognitions, observed classroom practices and student perceptions. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48(1), 136–163. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.99>
- Barkhuizen, G. (2015). Narrative inquiry. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Research methods in applied linguistics: A practical resource* (pp. 169–185). Bloomsbury.
- Borg, S. (2019). Language teacher cognition: Perspectives and debates. In X. Gao (Ed.), *Second handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 1–23). Springer.
- Burri, M., & Baker, A. (2019). "I never imagined" pronunciation as "such an interesting thing": Student teacher perception of innovative practices. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 29(1), 95–108. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12247>
- Burri, M., & Baker, A. (2020). "A big influence on my teaching career and my life": A longitudinal study of L2 pronunciation teacher development. *TESL-EJ*, 23(4), 1–24.
- Burri, M., Baker, A., & Acton, W. (2016). Anchoring academic vocabulary with a "hard hitting" haptic pronunciation teaching technique. In T. Jones (Ed.), *Pronunciation in the classroom: The overlooked essential* (pp. 17–26). TESOL Press.
- Burri, M., Baker, A., & Chen, H. (2017). "I feel like having a nervous breakdown": Pre-service and in-service teachers' developing beliefs and knowledge about pronunciation instruction. *Journal of Second Language Pronunciation*, 3(1), 109–135. <https://doi.org/10.1075/jslp.3.1.05bur>
- Burri, M., Baker, A., & Chen, H. (2018). Establishing a framework for learning to teach English pronunciation in an Australian TESOL program. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 41(3), 307–327. <https://doi.org/10.1075/aral.18020.bur>
- Burri, M., Chen, H., & Baker, A. (2017). Joint development of teacher cognition and identity through learning to teach L2 pronunciation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 101(1), 128–142. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12388>

- Busch, D. (2010). Pre-service teacher beliefs about language learning: The second language acquisition course as an agent for change. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(3), 318–337. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168810365239>
- Buss, L. (2017). The role of training in shaping pre-service teacher cognition related to L2 pronunciation. *Ilha do Desterro*, 70, 201–226. <https://doi.org/10.5007/2175-8026.2017v70n3p201>
- Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D., & Goodwin, J. (2010). *Teaching pronunciation: A course book and reference guide* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Chujo, J. (2015). Intelligibility among Japanese EFL learners: The need for pronunciation practice. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & H. Brown (Eds.), *JALT2014 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 272–283). JALT.
- Couper, G. (2016). Teacher cognition of pronunciation teaching amongst English language teachers in Uruguay. *Journal of Second Language Pronunciation*, 2(1), 29–55. <https://doi.org/10.1075/jslp.2.1.02cou>
- Couper, G. (2017). Teacher cognition of pronunciation teaching: Teachers' concerns and issues. *TESOL Quarterly*, 51(4), 820–843. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.354>
- Crandall, J., & Christison, M. A. (2016). An overview of research in English language teacher education and professional development. In J. Crandall & M. A. Christison (Eds.), *Teacher education and professional development in TESOL: Global perspectives* (pp. 3–34). Routledge.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2015). *Pronunciation fundamentals: Evidence-based perspectives for L2 teaching and research*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Desimone, L. (2009). Improving impact studies of teachers' professional development: Toward better conceptualizations and measures. *Educational Researcher*, 38(3), 181–199. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189x08331140>
- Diepenbroek, L. G., & Derwing, T. M. (2013). To what extent do popular ESL textbooks incorporate oral fluency and pragmatic development? *TESL Canada Journal*, 30(7), 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v30i7.1149>
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2012). Novice-service language teacher development: Bridging the gap between preservice and in-service education and development. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(3), 435–449. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.36>
- Feryok, A. (2010). Language teacher cognitions: Complex dynamic systems? *System*, 38(2), 272–279. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2010.02.001>

- Foote, J. A., Holtby, A. K., & Derwing, T. M. (2011). Survey of the teaching of pronunciation in adult ESL programs in Canada, 2010. *TESL Canada Journal*, 29(1), 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v29i1.1086>
- Gatbonton, E., & Segalowitz, N. (2005). Rethinking communicative language teaching: A focus on access to fluency. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 61(3), 325–353. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.61.3.325>
- Gilbert, J. (2012). *Clear speech* (4th ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Gu, M. M. (2013). From pre-service to in-service teachers: A longitudinal investigation of the professional development of English language teachers in secondary schools. *Educational Studies*, 39(5), 503–521. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03055698.2013.801769>
- Hanazaki, M., Hanazaki, K., & Fujiwara, T. (2017). *Teaching English to Japanese EFL learners using phonetics: A pedagogical application of the vowel triangle*. <https://huichawaii.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/02/Hanazaki-Miki-2017-AHSE-HUIC.pdf>
- Hayes, D. (2019). Continuing professional development/continuous professional learning for English language teachers. In S. Walsh & S. Mann (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education* (pp. 155–168). Routledge.
- Jones, T. (Ed.) (2016). *Pronunciation in the classroom: The overlooked essential*. TESOL Press.
- Kang, O., Thomson, R. I., & Murphy, J. (Eds.). (2018). *The Routledge handbook of contemporary English pronunciation*. Routledge.
- Kang, Y., & Cheng, X. (2014). Teacher learning in the workplace: A study of the relationship between a novice EFL teacher's classroom practices and cognition development. *Language Teaching Research*, 18(2), 169–186. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168813505939>
- Kubanyiova, M. (2012). *Teacher development in action: Understanding language teachers' conceptual change*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Lee, J., Jang, J., & Plonsky, L. (2015). The effectiveness of second language pronunciation instruction: A meta-analysis. *Applied Linguistics*, 36(3), 345–366. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu040>
- Levis, J. (2005). Changing contexts and shifting paradigms in pronunciation teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 369–377. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588485>
- Levis, J. (2015). Pronunciation trends across journals and the Journal of Second Language Pronunciation. *Journal of Second Language Pronunciation*, 1(2), 129–134. <https://doi.org/10.1075/jslp.1.2.001edi>

- Levis, J., & Sonsaat, S. (2019). Quality teacher education for pronunciation teaching in L2 classrooms. In d. D. M. Agudo (Ed.), *Quality in TESOL and teacher education: From a results culture towards a quality culture* (pp. 213–222). Routledge.
- Levis, J., Sonsaat, S., Link, S., & Barriuso, T. (2016). Native and nonnative teachers of L2 pronunciation: Effects on learner performance. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(4), 894–931. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.272>
- Lim, S. (2016). Learning to teach intelligible pronunciation for ASEAN English as a lingua franca: A sociocultural investigation of Cambodian pre-service teacher cognition and practice. *RELC Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688216631176>
- Macalister, J. (2016). Tracing it back: Identifying the impact of a trans-national language teacher education programme on classroom practice. *RELC Journal*, 47(1), 59–70. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688216631204>
- Mattheoudakis, M. (2007). Tracking changes in pre-service EFL teacher beliefs in Greece: A longitudinal study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(8), 1272–1288. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.06.001>
- New treasure*. (2015). Z-KAI.
- Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System*, 29(2), 177–195. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X\(01\)00010-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(01)00010-0)
- Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System*, 37(3), 380–390. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.03.002>
- Reed, M., & Levis, J. (Eds.). (2015). *The handbook of English pronunciation*. Wiley Blackwell.
- Richards, J. C. (2011). *Competence and performance in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2005). *Professional development for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Sadeghi, K. (2019). An interview with Donald Freeman. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 7(3), 131–136.
- Saito, K. (2012). Effects of instruction on L2 pronunciation development: A synthesis of 15 quasi-experimental intervention studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(4), 842–854. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.67>

- Saito, K., & Lyster, R. (2012). Effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on L2 pronunciation development of /r/ by Japanese learners of English. *Language Learning*, 62(2), 595–633. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00639.x>
- Setter, J., & Jenkins, J. (2005). Pronunciation. *Language Teaching*, 38(1), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S026144480500251X>
- Sicola, L., & Darcy, I. (2015). Integrating pronunciation into the language classroom. In M. Reed & J. Levis (Eds.), *The handbook of English pronunciation* (pp. 471–487). Wiley Blackwell.
- Solheim, K., Roland, P., & Ertesvåg, S. K. (2018). Teachers' perceptions of their collective and individual learning regarding classroom interaction. *Educational Research*, 60(4), 459–477. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131881.2018.1533790>
- Sprott, R. (2019). Factors that foster and deter advanced teachers' professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 77, 321–331. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2018.11.001>
- Tang, E. L., Lee, J. C., & Chun, C. K. (2012). Development of teaching beliefs and the focus of change in the process of pre-service ESL teacher education. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(5), 90–107. <https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2012v37n5.8>
- Thomson, R. I. (2014). Accent reduction and pronunciation instruction are the same thing. In L. Grant (Ed.), *Pronunciation myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching* (pp. 160–187). The University of Michigan Press.
- Thomson, R. I., & Derwing, T. M. (2015). The effectiveness of L2 pronunciation instruction: A narrative review. *Applied Linguistics*, 36(3), 326–344. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu076>
- Tsui, A. B. M. (2007). Complexities of identity formation: A narrative inquiry of an EFL teacher. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(4), 657–680. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00098.x>
- Uchida, Y., & Sugimoto, J. (2018). A survey of pronunciation instruction by Japanese teachers of English: Phonetic knowledge and teaching practice. *Journal of the Tokyo University of Marine Science and Technology*, 14, 65–75.
- Uchida, Y., & Sugimoto, J. (2020). Non-native English teachers' confidence in their own pronunciation and attitudes towards teaching: A questionnaire survey in Japan. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 30(1), 19–34. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12253>

- Urmston, A. (2003). Learning to teach English in Hong Kong: The opinions of teachers in training. *Language and Education, 17*(2), 112–137. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500780308666843>
- Wahid, R., & Sulong, S. (2013). The gap between research and practice in the teaching of English pronunciation: Insights from teachers' beliefs and practices. *World Applied Sciences Journal, 21*, 133–142. <https://doi.org/10.5829/idosi.wasj.2013.21.s1t1.2147>
- Webster, S. (2019). Understanding lack of development in early career ESOL teachers' practical knowledge. *System, 80*, 154–164. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2018.10.010>
- Woodward, T., Graves, K., & Freeman, D. (2018). *Teacher development over time: Practical activities for language teachers*. Routledge.
- Yates, L., & Zielinski, B. (2009). *Give it a go: Teaching pronunciation to adults*. AMEP Research Centre.

Phonological Short-term Memory's Contribution to the L2 Reading Proficiency of Japanese EFL Learners

Akiko Kondo

Hyogo University of Teacher Education

This study investigated whether phonological short-term memory (PSTM) capacity has a significant relationship with the reading proficiency of Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, and the degree to which PSTM capacity contributes to L2 reading proficiency. For this purpose, the PSTM of 208 Japanese university students majoring in education and engineering was measured using an L1-based digit span test and an L1-based pseudoword span test, and reading proficiency was examined with a reading section of a standardized English proficiency test (Visualizing English Language Competency Test). The results of the regression analyses revealed that PSTM had significant positive effects on L2 reading, including its sub-components. The study demonstrates the positive influence of PSTM on L2 reading proficiency, which previous studies have failed to do and provides insight into our understanding of the effects of PSTM on L2 reading proficiency.

本研究は、日本人英語学習者のリーディング力に、言語適性の一つである音韻的短期記憶力が与えている影響を調査することを目的に実施した。工学と教育学を専攻とする日本人大学生208名を対象に実験を実施した。実験参加者の音韻的短期記憶力は、日本語の数字暗証課題と非単語暗唱課題で、そして英語のリーディング力は語彙、文法、読解のセクションで構成されるVELCテストで測定した。各テストスコアを回帰分析によって検査したところ、音韻的短期記憶力は日本人英語学習者の英語のリーディング力に有意な影響を与えていることが示された。本研究は、先行研究ではまだ十分に調査がなされていない外国語のリーディング力の個人差要因としての音韻的短期記憶力の影響の理解に貢献できるものである。

<https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJ43.2-2>

JALT Journal, Vol. 43, No. 2, November 2021

Keywords: cognitive factor; grammar; individual differences; regression analyses; second language acquisition; text comprehension; vocabulary

Japanese EFL learners and teachers mostly focus on improving reading skills in the classroom due to their importance during university entrance examinations (MEXT, 2018; Watanabe, 2018). However, less attention has been given to individual differences (ID) regarding cognitive factors affecting L2 reading proficiency in a Japanese EFL context. Phonological short-term memory (PSTM) could be one of the cognitive ID factors that can explain L2 reading proficiency. PSTM is a storage subcomponent of working memory (WM), along with the central executive (an attention control system responsible for integrating information from other subcomponents and long-term memory), visuospatial sketchpad (storage subcomponent that handles visual images and spatial information), and episodic buffer (storage subcomponent that is involved in episodic representation) (Baddeley, 2010). The PSTM, which Baddeley and Hitch (1974) call the *phonological loop*, is a language user's capacity to temporally hold sound information, including both verbal and acoustic elements of speech (Baddeley, 2000, 2003; Baddeley & Hitch, 1974). This storage component consists of two subcomponents: a temporary storage system and a subvocal rehearsal system. The storage system "holds memory traces over a matter of seconds, during which they decay, unless refreshed by the subvocal rehearsal system" (Baddeley, 2003, p. 191). The subvocal rehearsal system, where participants subvocalize the items to be memorized, and which maintains the information within the store also serves "the function of registering visual information within the store, provided the items can be named" (Baddeley, 2003, p. 191). In regard to the processes the storage and subvocal rehearsal system are responsible for, the PSTM can be assumed to involve the reading process, because when people read, they need to perceive verbal items visually presented by letters, name the items, and subvocalize the items in their mind to interpret their meaning. PSTM enables people to read through a process where they maintain words by activating their phonological representation to create the meaning of the text. Therefore, individual differences in the capacity of PSTM might explain variance in learners' reading skills.

PSTM and Fundamental L2 Components

Vocabulary and Grammar

Before reviewing previous research on PSTM and L2 reading skills, the effects of PSTM on L2 vocabulary and grammar knowledge are briefly dis-

cussed because vocabulary and grammatical knowledge are fundamental components of reading. The relationship between PSTM and L2 vocabulary acquisition has been extensively studied, and numerous researchers have demonstrated a direct link between PSTM and L2 vocabulary development (e.g., Atkins & Baddeley, 1998; Martin & Ellis, 2012; Masoura & Gathercole, 1999; Service, 1992; Service & Kohonen, 1995). For example, Masoura and Gathercole found a significant correlation ($r = .36$) between L2 vocabulary development and L1 PSTM in 8- to 11-year-old Greek children. The unique feature of their study is that the researchers assessed both PSTM and vocabulary knowledge in two languages, Greek (L1) and English (L2), enabling them to make direct comparisons of the strength of the association across languages. L2 vocabulary knowledge was significantly correlated with not only L1 PSTM ($r = .36$), but also L2 PSTM ($r = .39$). In addition, L1 vocabulary knowledge was significantly correlated with L1 PSTM ($r = .50$) and L2 PSTM ($r = .35$).

Further, researchers have found that PSTM significantly influences L2 grammar knowledge as well (French & O'Brien, 2008; Martin & Ellis, 2012; O'Brien et al., 2006). For example, O'Brien et al. found PSTM played an important role in the L2 grammar knowledge of 43 adult L2 learners of Spanish; PSTM measured by a pseudoword recognition task explained 5.4% of the variance in the correct use of function words. O'Brien et al. also examined the contribution of PSTM to L2 grammar knowledge across proficiency levels and revealed that PSTM explained a significant amount of variance (15.7%) in the correct use of function words with high-proficiency participants but not with low-proficiency participants. O'Brien et al. stated that while at earlier stages of L2 learning, low-proficiency learners concentrate on using content words and use PSTM for lexical access, while in the later stages of L2 learning, high-proficiency learners use PSTM to learn more complex grammatical forms, as lexical access is easier and therefore places less burden on the memory system.

Further evidence for the effects of PSTM on L2 grammar was reported by a study comprising a larger group of young L2 learners (French & O'Brien, 2008). The role of PSTM in L2 grammar knowledge was examined in 104 elementary school English learners ($M = 11$ years old), and PSTM capacity—as measured by two non-word repetition tests—was found to explain almost 30% of the variance in L2 grammar knowledge at the end of instruction. The study's significant features are its focus on the effects of PSTM on L2 grammar gains rather than grammatical knowledge at the start of the experiment and the fact that the variance attributed to intelligence and prior

L2 knowledge were partialled out with a hierarchical regression analysis. The study also demonstrated that PSTM in L2 learning can improve as learners are exposed to aural input from the target language.

Furthermore, the effects of PSTM on grammar knowledge have been demonstrated to be connected to the previous knowledge of the language learner. For instance, Martin and Ellis (2012) investigated the role of PSTM in learning the grammar and vocabulary of an artificial language among 40 monolingual English speakers recruited from a large American university. Two hierarchical multiple regression analyses revealed that the L1 English speaking adults' ($N = 40$) PSTM capacity, tapped by non-word recognition tests, explained 17% and 10% of the variance in the L2 receptive and productive grammar test scores, respectively. As their approach used an artificial language as the target language, the researchers were able to examine the link between PSTM and learning grammar independent of previous linguistic knowledge of the target language.

PSTM and L2 Reading

The review of previous related studies has shown the association of PSTM and the acquisition of L2 vocabulary and grammar knowledge (including an artificial language) across young and adult learners. Given that L2 reading requires learners to process text by engaging their L2 vocabulary and grammar knowledge, the previous research suggests PSTM may be positively associated with L2 reading processing. Moreover, as discussed in the introduction, while reading, people subvocalize the visually presented words of a sentence and hold the information for interpreting the meaning making, which involves PSTM.

However, several studies failed to show effects of PSTM on L2 reading. Harrington and Sawyer (1992), one of the most widely cited studies on the effects of PSTM on L2 reading, did not find a significant correlation between PSTM (measured by L2-based digit and word span) and L2 reading in 34 Japanese university students who were advanced EFL learners. The study did find, however, a strong correlation with WM as measured with the L2-based reading span test. In addition to the relatively small number of participants, another issue with this study was its use of an L2-based memory span test. PSTM measured with L2-based tests can be highly influenced by L2 proficiency. Hummel and French (2010) also pointed out that Harrington and Sawyer's null results (the non-significant correlation between PSTM and L2 reading skills) might have been due to the fact that they did not consider the possibility of language or lexicality effects on memory span tests

(the involvement of the L2 proficiency caused by using the target language for measuring their PSTM), including the L2-based digit, word, and reading span tests. Furthermore, as their participants were advanced EFL learners, it is uncertain if their results can be applied to intermediate or lower-level language learners, as the effects of PSTM on learning L2 vocabulary tend to be smaller in higher proficiency learners (Cheung, 1996; French, 2006; Hummel, 2009).

Also working with advanced learners, Hummel and French (2016) showed that PSTM could predict the L2 reading proficiency of 45 French speaking L2 learners. One of the major differences between this study and Harrington and Sawyer (1992) is the language used for measuring PSTM. Hummel and French measured PSTM using Arabic-based non-word repetition, with Arabic being an unfamiliar language to the participants, and L1 French-based serial recognition tasks. They controlled the language effects by avoiding using the L2 in the measurement of PSTM. Using regression analyses, Hummel and French demonstrated the predictability of PSTM on L2 reading proficiency. However, one methodological limitation of their study is its small sample size. The number of participants ($N = 45$) is insufficient for regression analyses. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), a rule of thumb for conducting the analyses is " $N \geq 104 + m$ for testing individual predictors" (p. 123).

The methodological issues in previous studies, such as small sample sizes and the languages used in the PSTM measure, were addressed by Kormos and Sáfár (2008) in another frequently cited study. Their study involving 121 Hungarian secondary school students (15-16 years old) supported the results of Harrington and Sawyer (1992). Their analysis revealed no significant correlation between PSTM capacity as measured with the participants' L1-based non-word repetition test and L2 reading scores from the Cambridge First Certificate Exam, which was found for both beginning ($n = 100$) and intermediate L2 learners ($n = 21$).

In addition to Hummel and French (2016), the positive influence of PSTM on L2 reading skills was demonstrated by Swanson et al. (2011), who found significant effects for PSTM on L2 reading skills in 471 Hispanic elementary school children in the United States. In Swanson et al.'s study, the participants' PSTM span was measured by L1 Spanish-based forward digit, backward digit, word, and nonword span tests as one latent variable. A hierarchical regression analysis demonstrated that PSTM was a significant predictor of L2 (English) reading skills.

Methodological Issues in Previous Studies

Although studies have shown a significant influence of PSTM on L2 knowledge and skills, there are methodological issues that are worth discussing. When measuring participants' PSTM with recall or repetition tests, some researchers asked participants to recall L2-based items in memory span tests (Harrington & Sawyer, 1992; Nakanishi, 2011). For example, in the digit span test for Japanese EFL learners, researchers asked participants to recall digits in English, instead of Japanese. However, several studies pointed out a multicollinearity problem caused by using the same target language when measuring L2 memory and L2 proficiency (French & O'Brien, 2008; Hummel, 2009; van den Noort et al., 2006). For example, French and O'Brien measured native French-speaking participants' PSTM using English-based and Arabic-based non-word repetition tests at the outset and end of five months of intensive English instruction. The participants' PSTM as measured by an English-based non-word repetition test improved with their English development, while PSTM as measured by the Arabic-based non-word repetition test remained stable. This result also implies that language proficiency significantly affects PSTM span. Considering the results of these studies, it is preferable to use the participants' L1 when measuring PSTM to avoid the influence of their target language proficiency. In addition to the language used, the type of task also needs to be considered. Some studies include a manipulative process in measuring PSTM. For example, Swanson et al. (2011) included the backward digit span test as one of the PSTM measures. However, the test requires participants to orally produce digits backwards, which involves an additional manipulative memory process in which they need to reorder the digits they heard before oral reproduction. In fact, this type of test has been conventionally used as an instrument to measure WM capacity (Gathercole et al., 2004) and is therefore not suitable for PSTM. Thus, the instrument should not include a manipulative memory process.

Some research findings suggest that the degree of the effects of PSTM varies depending on the students' L2 proficiency level (Cheung, 1996; French, 2006; Hummel, 2009; O'Brien et al., 2006). For example, Cheung (1996) indicated that the effects of PSTM decrease as L2 proficiency increases. His investigation of 84 Hong Kong seventh graders (12.2 years old on average) showed that PSTM measured by a non-word span test predicted success in learning new foreign language words but this relationship was significant only in students whose L2 vocabulary was smaller than average (15% of the variance explained). These previous studies indicate that the role of PSTM is greater for lower-proficiency learners, implying that the effects

of PSTM interact with long-term L2 knowledge. In learning novel words, more proficient learners can make use of long-term L2 knowledge that less-proficient learners have to a more limited extent. Furthermore, O'Brien et al.'s (2006) results also indicated the influence of proficiency on the relationship between PSTM and grammar knowledge. They found that at earlier stages of L2 learning, low-proficiency learners concentrate on the use of content words and use PSTM for lexical access, whereas, in the later stages of L2 learning, high-proficiency learners use PSTM to learn more complex grammatical forms, as lexical access is easier and therefore places less of a burden on the memory system. As these studies on L2 vocabulary and grammar showed, PSTM capacity negatively affects lower-proficiency learners more than higher-proficiency learners. Harrington and Sawyer (1992) in fact failed to find any significant influence of PSTM on advanced L2 learners' reading skills.

As discussed, the methodological issues of these studies suggest that further investigation is needed before the field can reach an informed position on the influence of PSTM capacity on L2 reading. To address these gaps in the literature, this study aims to investigate effects of PSTM capacity on intermediate-proficiency Japanese EFL learners' L2 reading proficiency, including receptive vocabulary, grammar, and text comprehension.

Method

Participants

This study was carried out with the participation of 208 post-secondary students from two institutions. One institution is a technical college offering engineering education and the other is a university of teacher education. Both institutions are relatively small, national schools located in a suburban area of western Japan. All participants were L1 Japanese-speaking students ($M = 19.9$ years old) majoring in engineering or education. The reported number of years of prior English study was between 8 to 10 years. At the time when this study was conducted, the results of each school's placement test indicated the participants' proficiency was around A2-B1 on the CEFR. Each week they attended 1-2 hours of integrated English classes that were designed to improve their English language skills (including reading, listening, speaking, and writing).

Invitations to participate were distributed to English classrooms at the university and sent to students using the schools' e-mail system. Participation was not required, and participants received 5,000 Japanese yen for

their cooperation. The purpose of the study, the tasks they would be asked to complete, the time required, and how the data would be published were explained. Students who understood the study and wished to participate signed up by accessing a free online scheduling service, *densuke* (<https://www.densuke.biz/>), which was used to recruit students and arrange the data collection schedule.

Instruments

Measuring L2 Reading Skills (VELC Test)

The English proficiency of the participants, who were streamed by the results of an entrance examination, demonstrated a narrow distribution that was too low for TOEFL or TOEIC, both of which target higher-proficiency test-takers. Therefore, the participants' L2 reading skills were measured using the Visualizing English Language Competency Test (VELC Test) designed by Kinseido, an English textbook publisher in Tokyo. This test was chosen as it could appropriately measure the proficiency range of the Japanese university students (Kumazawa et al., 2016).

As the item-level data were not provided by the testing company, the reliability of this test cannot be calculated. However, Shizuka and Mochizuki (2014), who are part of the group who developed the VELC Test, reported that the coefficient of reliability was high (Rasch person reliability = .95) and its multiple correlation coefficient to TOEIC scores was .82 based on a study of 5,583 Japanese university students. Furthermore, Kumazawa et al. (2016) provided evidence indicating that the VELC Test ($k = 120$) was reliable with a small margin of error based on a study with 4,407 Japanese university students.

The VELC Test consists of a listening section and a reading section, each of which includes three parts with 20 items in each part, totaling 60 listening items and 60 reading items. For the current analysis, only the VELC Test Reading section (VTR) scores were used. The VTR consists of three parts: Part 1 (vocabulary; VTR-Vocabulary), Part 2 (grammar: sentence structure; VTR-Grammar), and Part 3 (text comprehension; VTR-Comprehension). Examinees are given 45 minutes to complete the VTR.

In the VTR-Vocabulary, the participants chose one English word from four options that best corresponds to the meaning of a given Japanese word or set of words. Individual responses were hand written on an exam sheet. In the sample item below, the correct answer is "(B) experience" because it is the English word that conveys the same meaning as the Japanese word, *keiken*,

taiken, (経験、体験). The VTR-Vocabulary test items were selected from the JACET 1000-7000 level vocabulary list (JACET Basic Word Revision Committee, 2003) to measure written receptive English vocabulary knowledge.

Sample item:

経験, 体験 (A) society *(B) experience (C) notice (D) language

In the VTR-Grammar part, the participants must complete an incomplete sentence by selecting one location to insert a target word from four options. In the sample below, the correct answer is (a) because the word *who* should be inserted in place of (a) for the sentence to be grammatically accurate.

Sample item:

Today, people *(a) can use the Internet (b) find it easy to (c) communicate with (d) each other. [who]

In the last part, VTR-Comprehension, the participants read several English sentences that make up a coherent passage. One sentence contains a blank space in which examinees must choose a word or phrase from four options that will complete the sentence. In the sample below, (b) is the correct option to make the sentence meaningful within the context of the other sentences in the passage. The length of the passages varied from approximately 20 to 80 words, and the passages scored 30 to 80 on the Flesch Reading Ease index (Kumazawa, 2015). This part assesses the ability to understand the content of each sentence and the relationship between those sentences.

Sample item:

Service animals are not pets. People keep pets for fun and companionship. People keep service animals because they are _____. A guide dog, for example, helps people who cannot see.

(A) beautiful *(B) useful (C) fun to play with (D) fun to look at

The VELC Test scoring adopts a standard procedure in which each participant's scores (both total and sub scores) are transformed so that the mean score is 500 and the standard deviation is 100; thus, test-takers know whether their score is higher or lower than the mean score of Japanese university students who participated in the pilot study for developing the

VELC Test. For example, a score of 550 indicates that the score is higher than the average Japanese university student by 0.5 times the standard deviation (Shizuka & Mochizuki, 2014).

Measuring PSTM

To measure the participants' PSTM capacity, two widely used PSTM tests were adopted. First, the forward digit span test was designed to assess the participants' capacity to memorize L1 digit information over a short period of time. In this computer-based test, which took 10 minutes to complete, the participants listened to a set of digits in their L1, Japanese, and orally reproduced the digits in the same order as they had heard them; their responses were then recorded on the computer. The test consisted of 16 items, each composed of 6 to 11 digits. The test structure, including the range of digit numbers and item numbers for each level, was determined by a series of pilot tests. Participants were scored between 0 and 10 per item based on the percentage of digits reproduced correctly. For example, if a participant said 3413698123 for the test item that required the reproduction of 3413698175, a score of 8.0 points was assigned for this item because eight of the ten digits (80%) were reproduced. Likewise, if a participant produced 3413679815 for the same target item, a score of 6.0 points was assigned because six of the ten digits (3, 4, 1, 3, 6, and 5) were reproduced in their original position in the item.

The pseudoword repetition test, the second test for measuring PSTM capacity, is also a computer-based test; it has the same format as the forward digit span test and also takes 10 minutes to complete. In this test, participants listened to and orally reproduced a set of pseudowords consisting of three different Japanese phonemes mora, which sound like Japanese words but do not have any meaning. In total, 66 different pseudowords were used for this test, each of which included three different Japanese phonemes. The test consisted of 17 items, with 1 two-pseudoword item, 6 three-pseudoword items, 8 four-pseudoword items, and 2 five-pseudoword items (see the sample items below). The test structure was examined for reliability and validity through a series of pilot tests and was found to be acceptable. For the scoring procedure, as with the forward digit span test, each item was scored between 0 and 10 based on the percentage of the pseudowords (calculated based on the number of syllables) correctly reproduced by the participant.

Sample item:

No.1 げのて (*ge-no-te*). みたじ (*mi-ta-ji*).

No.8 まこそ (*ma-ko-so*). できや (*de-ki-ya*). よみと (*yo-mi-to*). なおて (*na-o-te*).

The Cronbach's alpha was calculated using SPSS for the designed tests (the forward digit span test and pseudoword repetition test). The reliability estimate demonstrated good consistency ($\alpha = .90$) for each test.

Data Collection and Analysis

Each participant took all tests on one day chosen from several options. The session took approximately 2 hours in total, including the tutorial, which consists of an explanation of the purpose of the study, the procedures for each test, and how data would be kept confidential and reported anonymously.

Before performing the main analyses, the descriptive statistics of each instrument were checked, and data were screened to identify outliers. Next, four standard multiple regression models were employed to investigate the extent of variance in L2 reading skills that was explained by the PSTM variables. The first model considered the PSTM scores (the scores of the forward digit span test and pseudoword repetition test) as the independent variables and the L2 (English) reading skill level (the total scores of the VELC reading test) as the dependent variable. This was followed by three models wherein the independent variables were the scores of the forward digit span test and pseudoword repetition test, and the dependent variables were the scores of the VTR-Vocabulary, VTR-Grammar, and VTR-Comprehension tests, respectively.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 provides descriptive statistics for the L2 reading variables (VTR total score, VTR-Vocabulary score for written receptive vocabulary, VTR-Grammar score for grammar, and VTR-Comprehension score for comprehension) and the predictor variables (scores on the forward digit span test and the pseudoword repetition test). Here, before proceeding with the main analyses, univariate and multivariate outliers were checked, and cases 36 and 75 on the forward digit span test were identified as univariate outliers based on the z-score criterion of ± 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007); thus 206

cases were used in the main analysis. In addition, normality of distribution was checked by calculating the skewness and kurtosis statistics, standard errors, and z-scores. The results showed that the data for all instruments were normally distributed.

Table 1*Descriptive Statistics of the L2 Reading and PSTM Variables*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	95% CI		Min.	Max.
			<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>		
VTR-Total	489.42	71.47	479.60	499.24	346	673
VTR-Vocabulary	502.16	76.09	491.70	512.61	342	724
VTR-Grammar	499.80	73.23	489.74	509.86	354	677
VTR-Comprehension	456.23	79.48	464.32	486.15	259	649
Forward Digit Span Test	77.56	20.93	74.69	80.44	11	149
Pseudoword Repetition Test	85.85	21.56	82.89	88.81	32	147

Note. *N* = 206. PSTM = phonological short-term memory; VTR = VELC Test Reading section.

Results of the Regression Analyses

Table 2 shows the results of the four models of the multiple standard regression analyses. For total score of VTR, the results indicate that the model predicted variance that was significantly greater than zero, $F(2, 203) = 6.05$, $p = .003$, with R^2 at .056, and that the variance explained by PSTM capacity was 5.6%, which is small but statistically significant. Only PSTM measured by the forward digit span test significantly predicted L2 reading skills ($\beta = .26$, $p = .001$) as measured by the VTR, whereas the pseudoword repetition test did not contribute to explaining the significant variance in L2 reading skills ($\beta = -.10$, $p = .205$).

The results of the standard multiple regression analysis to investigate the amount of variance of L2 receptive vocabulary explained by PSTM capacity indicate that the model predicted variance that was significantly greater than zero, $F(2, 203) = 5.54$, $p = .005$, with R^2 at .052. The variance explained by PSTM capacity was 5.2%, which is small but statistically significant. PSTM

measured by the forward digit span test significantly predicted L2 reading skills ($\beta = .25, p = .001$) as measured by the VTR, whereas the pseudoword repetition test did not ($\beta = -.06, p = .405$).

The results of the standard multiple regression analysis to investigate the amount of variance of L2 grammar knowledge explained by PSTM capacity demonstrate that L2 grammar knowledge as indicated by VTR-Grammar was significantly predicted by the independent variables, $F(2, 203) = 3.21, p = .043$, with R^2 at .031. The variance explained by PSTM capacity was 3.1%, which is small but statistically significant. The forward digit span test significantly explained the variance in L2 grammar knowledge ($\beta = .19, p = .012$), whereas the pseudoword repetition test did not ($\beta = -.10, p = .210$).

Lastly, another standard multiple regression analysis was performed to investigate the amount of variance of L2 text comprehension skills explained by the PSTM. The results showed that L2 text comprehension as indicated by VTR-Comprehension was significantly predicted by the independent variables, $F(2, 203) = 6.46, p = .002$, with R^2 at .060, and that the variance in text comprehension skills significantly explained by PSTM capacity was 6.0%, which is small but statistically significant. As with other models, only the forward digit span test significantly explained the variance in text comprehension skills ($\beta = .27, p < .001$), whereas the pseudoword repetition test did not ($\beta = -.10, p = .203$).

Table 2

Standard Multiple Regression Results for PSTM Predicting the Variables of L2 Reading Sub-Skills

	VTR- Total	VTR- Vocabulary	VTR- Grammar	VTR- Comprehension
β for Forward Digit Span Test	.26**	.25**	.19*	.27***
β for Pseudoword Repetition Test	-.10	-.06	-.10	-.10
R^2	.056	.052	.031	.060
F for change in R^2	6.05**	5.54**	3.21*	6.46**

Note. PSTM = phonological short-term memory; VTR = VELC Test Reading section.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Discussion & Conclusion

In reading, only visual language information is presented. However, the subvocal rehearsal system comprising PSTM, where participants subvocalize the items to be memorized, “serve[s] the function of registering visual information within the store” (Baddeley, 2003, p. 191). In reading L2 text, readers use their phonological knowledge to rehearse the presented language in their mind, holding and processing the meaning of the text. This could be part of the reason for the significant relationship between PSTM and L2 reading skill demonstrated in this study. Despite this theoretical implication, some previous studies discussed above indicated that the effects of PSTM on L2 reading proficiency were not significant. However, this current study shows a significant contribution of PSTM to L2 reading proficiency, although the effect size is not large.

L2 vocabulary and grammatical knowledge were also examined as subskills of L2 reading. The results demonstrated that PSTM influences L2 receptive vocabulary and grammatical knowledge, which supports the results of previous studies (e.g., French & O’Brien, 2008; Martin & Ellis, 2012; Masoura & Gathercole, 1999), and the effect of PSTM on grammatical knowledge was found to be smaller than that on vocabulary knowledge. Completing a sentence using grammatical knowledge, which is a task in VTR-Grammar, requires higher-level cognitive processing than retaining verbal information, which requires PSTM. This might be the reason for the reduced influence of PSTM on L2 grammatical knowledge.

The results show that the largest effect size was for the effects of PSTM on text comprehension, as measured by VTR-Comprehension. To complete the tasks in the VTR-Comprehension part, test-takers need to hold larger amounts of verbal information to memorize than in the VTR-Vocabulary and VTR-Grammar parts, because the number of words in each item is greater than in those of the other tasks. The ability measured in the VTR-Comprehension part was passage comprehension assessed through a context-dependent sentence completion task. Owing to the large amount of information examinees needed to keep in memory, it is plausible that the effect of PSTM was more strongly related to the outcome of this part of the test than those of the other parts.

Although PSTM capacity as indicated by the forward digit span test had a significant influence on L2 reading and related subskills, PSTM as indicated by the pseudoword repetition test did not. One reason for this result might be related to the issues with mishearing the sounds (i.e., *mora*) of the pseudoword. Although test items were constructed with Japanese *mora*,

some participants may have misheard the pseudowords; for example, some participants reproduced the items *te-ni-ho* as *te-ni-o*, whereas this type of error was not observed in the forward digit span test. This indicates that the pseudoword repetition test may have involved aural sensitivity in addition to holding speech information, which might have influenced the results.

Although this study demonstrated the effects of PSTM on intermediate EFL learners, future studies would benefit from examining the effects of PSTM capacity on L2 reading skills with a wider range (low to advanced) of proficiency, which would allow for the analysis of proficiency groups at different levels. Future studies might also consider controlling for other factors this study did not control for, such as the amount of exposure to the target language, which could impact L2 reading proficiency. In addition, the pseudoword repetition test did not contribute to explaining variance in L2 reading proficiency scores. As discussed above, it is assumed that the involvement of other factors such as aural sensitivity with the pseudoword repetition test attributed to this non-significant contribution. Therefore, future studies might consider using a different PSTM measure, such as the serial recognition test used by Hummel and French (2016). Furthermore, Swanson et al. (2011) demonstrated that visuospatial memory was a significant predictor of the L2 reading skills of Hispanic children in the United States (whose L1 was Spanish). As first language orthographic features affect learning another language writing system (Akamatsu, 1999; Chikamatsu, 1996), future research could thus focus on investigating the effects of visual memory capacity on the L2 reading proficiency of Japanese EFL learners, who have a different L1 orthographic system than English and Spanish. Such research may provide further insights into the understanding of individual differences in mastering L2 reading skills.

This study attempted to demonstrate the contribution of PSTM capacity as an aptitude factor in L2 reading proficiency. This study contributes to the literature by showing the significant effects of PSTM on L1 Japanese-speaking, intermediate-proficiency, EFL learners, which is the level of most university-level learners (ETS, 2020; MEXT, 2018). The results of this study, then, can be used by language teachers to understand the role of PSTM and the development of L2 reading, and thereby, to design reading tasks that cater to the PSTM differences among their students. One way to do this is to control the amount of text presented to a learner, which in turn may lead to better processing of the text by the learner and, by extension, improved efficacy in teaching.

Akiko Kondo is an Associate Professor at the Hyogo University of Teacher Education. Her interests include short-term working memory in Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

References

- Akamatsu, N. (1999). The effects of first language orthographic features on word recognition processing in English as a second language. *Reading and Writing, 11*(4), 381–403. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1008053520326>
- Atkins, P. W. B., & Baddeley, A. D. (1998). Working memory and distributed vocabulary learning. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 19*(4), 537–552. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0142716400010353>
- Baddeley, A. D. (2000). The episodic buffer: A new component of working memory? *Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 4*(11), 417–423. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1364-6613\(00\)01538-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1364-6613(00)01538-2)
- Baddeley, A. D. (2003). Working memory and language: An overview. *Journal of Communication Disorders, 36*(3), 189–208. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0021-9924\(03\)00019-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0021-9924(03)00019-4)
- Baddeley, A. D. (2010). Working memory. *Current Biology, 20*(4), R136–R140. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2009.12.014>
- Baddeley, A. D., & Hitch, G. (1974). Working memory. In G. H. Bower (Ed.), *The psychology of learning and motivation* (Vol. 8, pp. 47–89). Academic Press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0079-7421\(08\)60452-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0079-7421(08)60452-1)
- Cheung, H. (1996). Nonword span as a unique predictor of second-language vocabulary learning. *Developmental Psychology, 32*(5), 867–873. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.32.5.867>
- Chikamatsu, N. (1996). The effects of L1 orthography on L2 word recognition: A study of American and Chinese learners of Japanese. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18*(4), 403–432. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100015369>
- Educational Testing Service (ETS). (2020). 2019 report on test takers worldwide: TOEIC Listening & Reading Test. https://www.iibc-global.org/library/default/toeic/official_data/pdf/Worldwide2019.pdf
- French, L. M. (2006). *Phonological working memory and second language acquisition: A developmental study of Francophone children learning English in Quebec*. Edwin Mellen Press.
- French, L. M., & O'Brien, I. (2008). Phonological memory and children's second language grammar learning. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 29*(3), 463–487. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0142716408080211>

- Gathercole, S. E., Pickering, S. J., Ambridge, B., & Wearing, H. (2004). The structure of working memory from 4 to 15 years of age. *Developmental Psychology, 40*(2), 177–190. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.40.2.177>
- Harrington, M., & Sawyer, M. (1992). L2 working memory capacity and L2 reading skill. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 14*(1), 25–38. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100010457>
- Hummel, K. M. (2009). Aptitude, phonological memory, and second language proficiency in nonnovice adult learners. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 30*(2), 225–249. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0142716409090109>
- Hummel, K. M., & French, L. M. (2010). Phonological memory and implications for the second language classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 66*(3), 371–391. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.66.3.371>
- Hummel, K. M., & French, L. M. (2016). Phonological memory and aptitude components: Contributions to second language proficiency. *Learning and Individual Differences, 51*, 249–255. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.08.016>
- JACET Basic Word Revision Committee. (2003). *JACET list of 8000 basic words*. Japan Association of College English Teachers.
- Kormos, J., & Sáfár, A. (2008). Phonological short-term memory, working memory, and foreign language performance in intensive language learning. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition, 11*(2), 261–271. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1366728908003416>
- Kumazawa, T. (2015). *VELC Test no gaiyou to yokuaru shitsumon: Reading Section Part 3 no sakumon ito to koumoku tokusei*. [Frequent questions from the VELC Test overview: Aims and features of items in Reading Section Part 3]. https://www.velctest.org/group/2015/doc_kumazawa.pdf
- Kumazawa, T., Shizuka, T., Mochizuki, M., & Mizumoto, A. (2016). Validity argument for the VELC Test® score interpretations and uses. *Language Testing in Asia, 6*(2), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-015-0023-3>
- Martin, K. I., & Ellis, N. C. (2012). The roles of phonological short-term memory and working memory in L2 grammar and vocabulary learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 34*(3), 379–413. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263112000125>
- Masoura, E. V., & Gathercole, S. E. (1999). Phonological short-term memory and foreign language learning. *International Journal of Psychology, 34*(5/6), 383–388. <https://doi.org/10.1080/002075999399738>

- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT). (2018). Heisei 29 nendo eigoryoku chousa kekka (koukou 3 nensei) [2017 survey results of English proficiency (12th grade students)]. https://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/kokusai/gaikokugo/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2018/04/06/1403470_03_1.pdf
- Nakanishi, H. (2011). The relation of L2 working memory capacity of Japanese EFL learners with the resolution of lexical ambiguity. *Journal of the Tohoku English Language Education Society*, 31, 93–103.
- O'Brien, I., Segalowitz, N., Collentine, J., & Freed, B. (2006). Phonological memory and lexical, narrative, and grammatical skills in second language oral production by adult learners. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 27(3), 377–402. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0142716406060322>
- Watanabe, A. (2018). Koukou no eigo kyoukasho mo bunpou henchou kara 4ginou juushi he [The focus of English textbooks will change from grammar to integrating four skills]. <https://benesse.jp/eigo/201803/20180312-1.html>
- Service, E. (1992). Phonology, working memory, and foreign-language learning. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 45A(1), 21–50. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14640749208401314>
- Service, E., & Kohonen, V. (1995). Is the relation between phonological memory and foreign language learning accounted for by vocabulary acquisition? *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 16(2), 155–172. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0142716400007062>
- Shizuka, T., & Mochizuki, M. (2014). VELC Test for testing competency: Verification of reliability and validity. <http://www.velctest.org/contact/VelcTest-for-TestingCompetency.pdf>
- Swanson, H. L., Orosco, M. J., Lussier, C. M., Gerber, M. M., & Guzman-Orth, D. A. (2011). The influence of working memory and phonological processing on English language learner children's bilingual reading and language acquisition. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 103(4), 838–856. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024578>
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.). Pearson Education.
- van den Noort, M. W. M. L., Bosch, P., & Hugdahl, K. (2006). Foreign language proficiency and working memory capacity. *European Psychologist*, 11(4), 289–296. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1016-9040.11.4.289>

Enhancing Situational Willingness to Communicate in Novice EFL Learners through Task-Based Learning

Junko Toyoda
Kansai Gaidai College

Tomoko Yashima
Kansai University

Scott Aubrey
The Chinese University of Hong Kong

Many studies have investigated the situational nature of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in language learning. However, few studies have explored the possibility that a language teaching approach aimed at fostering communicative language use can effectively influence and thus facilitate L2 WTC development as it emerges in context (situational WTC). This classroom-based study addresses this issue by (a) investigating whether task-based learning (TBL) can foster situational L2 WTC for novice learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), and (b) determining the factors that influence learners' situational WTC through a mixed-methods approach juxtaposing quantitative and qualitative data. The study focused on Japanese junior high school students ($N=135$) participating in a four-month exposure to TBL. The findings revealed that, during the TBL period, learners' L2 WTC improved significantly and that learners reported feelings of enjoyment when participating in authentic L2 social interaction.

<https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ43.2-3>

JALT Journal, Vol. 43, No. 2, November 2021

第二言語学習におけるsituational willingness to communicate (L2 WTC: 状況ごとに変化する外国語を話す意思)について多くの研究がされてきた。しかしながら、コミュニケーション能力促進のための特定の教授法を用いて、どのようにL2 WTCが出現し変化していくのかを調査した研究例は少ない。本研究では、質的量的研究の両方を使う混合研究法を用いて、(a)タスク中心学習における参加者のsituational L2 WTCは変化するのか、(b)どのような要因が初級EFL学習者のsituational L2 WTCに影響を与えるのか、を調査した。中学生135名を対象として4か月間タスク中心学習によるコミュニケーション活動を行った。結果から、参加者のsituational L2 WTCは有意に伸長した。また英語で友達とソーシャルインタラクションを楽しむことで、タスクへの参加意欲ならびに英語使用の頻度が高まったことが明らかとなった。

Keywords: EFL novice learners; perceived situational task competence; situational Willingness to Communicate; task-based learning

A substantial amount of empirical research on Willingness to Communicate (WTC) has been conducted over the past 20 years, mainly on factors that influence second language (L2) WTC. However, research that explores how situational L2 WTC develops as a result of a specific language teaching approach, particularly among novice learners, is lacking. This study focuses on the contextual, situational, and emergent nature of WTC among Japanese junior high school students with limited opportunities to communicate in English inside and outside the classroom. The objective of our study is to explore how junior high school EFL learners develop L2 WTC through a series of WTC-enhancing task-based lessons.

Literature Review

Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

Early Studies

MacIntyre et al. (1998) presented their model of L2 WTC by adapting the original personality-based construct proposed for L1 communication (McCroskey, 1992), marking the beginning of L2 WTC research. This model shows that stable, enduring factors (e.g., personality, interpersonal or intergroup motivation, communicative competence, and self-confidence) and more immediate situational factors (e.g., desire to communicate with a specific person) combine to influence *situational* L2 WTC, or “a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons using an L2” (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547). It aims to represent how an L2 user decides to initiate communication based on individual characteristics, intergroup factors, and momentary situational influences.

Inspired by this model, subsequent quantitative WTC studies (e.g., Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004) focused

on L2 learners' WTC in various cultural contexts, including Japan. Notably, two variables were found to have the strongest influence on L2 WTC: perceived communicative competence (i.e., how learners feel about their communicative abilities), and anxiety (i.e., feelings of worry and nervousness when learners use an L2) (e.g., Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; MacIntyre & Clément, 1996). However, the relative importance of these two variables is context-dependent. Baker and MacIntyre (2000) found that L2 anxiety was the strongest predictor of WTC in immersion learners of L2 French in Canada, while perceived communicative competence was the strongest in non-immersion learners with opportunities for L2 use limited solely to the classroom. In studies conducted in a Japanese senior high school, Yashima (2002) and Yashima et al. (2004) found that perceived communicative competence was a stronger predictor of L2 WTC than anxiety. More recently, however, through a comprehensive meta-analysis concerning the effect sizes of WTC studies, Shirvan et al. (2019) revealed that three key variables – perceived communicative competence, language anxiety, and motivation – had moderate positive correlations with L2 WTC (perceived communicative competence showed the largest effect size). These studies suggest that improving L2 WTC in the EFL classroom may depend on fostering perceived communicative competence and motivation.

In addition, other variables affecting L2 WTC have been explored. For example, personality traits such as agreeableness (i.e., friendly and generous personality) or extroversion (i.e., sociable and active personality) (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996) and international posture (i.e., an EFL learner's internationally-oriented disposition) (Yashima, 2002, 2014) have been found to influence L2 WTC. Furthermore, research has shown that classroom-related factors, including student cohesiveness (i.e., how united learners feel their group members are), task orientation (i.e., importance of completing activities and staying on the subject matter) (Peng & Woodrow, 2010) and attitudes toward group activities (Fushino, 2010), influence L2 WTC. These quantitative studies highlighting classroom situations have led to more context-specific research investigating situational WTC.

Situational L2 WTC

While early studies of L2 WTC focused on stable communication tendencies (e.g., trait anxiety), recent studies have been examining individual and situational tendencies that change variably across a variety of L2 speaking contexts. For example, in her interview study with Korean ESL learners, Kang (2005) found that in conversations with native speakers of English,

learners experienced three psychological conditions: security, excitement, and responsibility. Security is defined as being free of fear in L2 communication. Excitement is “a feeling of elation about the act of talking” (Kang, 2005, p. 284). Responsibility is how learners themselves are responsible for engaging in the conversation (e.g., introducing a topic). These feelings arose or waned depending on surrounding situational variables such as topic interest, interlocutor familiarity, and conversational context (e.g., composition of participant group), with changes in these feelings leading to changes in the level of situational WTC. Similarly, Cao and Philp (2006) revealed that situational L2 WTC in Chinese ESL learners varied depending on the number of participants (e.g., pair work, group work, or whole class), interlocutor familiarity, and interlocutors’ contribution to the conversation.

Subsequent studies have explored the situational nature of L2 WTC by focusing on the relationship between individual, situational, psychological, and contextual factors in the language classroom. For example, Zhong (2013) found that Chinese ESL students’ situational WTC changed due to the joint effect of socio-cultural factors (e.g., fear of losing face by making mistakes and avoidance of being perceived as “showing off” their fluent L2 performance), and individual factors (e.g., concerns for accuracy and perceived self-efficacy). Situational L2 WTC has also been found to fluctuate under the joint effect of both contextual (e.g., task) and individual factors such as motivation, task-related attitudes (Eddy-U, 2015) and interlocutors’ proficiency level (Kang, 2005; de Saint Léger & Storch, 2009; Zarrinabadi et al., 2014). In sum, qualitative and mixed-methods research has illuminated the dynamic nature of L2 WTC in classrooms as influenced by the aforementioned factors.

Reinforcing Situational L2 WTC through Pedagogical Interventions

To explore conditions for learners to actively engage in L2 classroom communication, some pedagogical intervention studies have been undertaken (Munezane, 2015; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008; Yashima et al., 2018). For example, Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide (2008) found that Japanese junior high school students with higher exposure to content-based instruction (CBI) developed L2 WTC to a greater extent than those with less exposure to CBI. Also, Freiermuth and Huang (2012) found that Japanese students’ enjoyment of participating in online synchronous chat tasks with Taiwanese learners through English was facilitated by the alleviation of the pressures they usually felt in face-to-face L2 interactions, leading to heightened WTC.

However, such studies are rare, and more that contain the pedagogical goal of enhancing L2 WTC are needed.

WTC-Enhancing Intervention Using Tasks

In this study, Task-based learning (TBL) was employed as an interventional instruction since it “aims to develop learners’ communicative competence by engaging them in meaning-focused communication through the performance of tasks” (Shintani & Ellis, 2014, p. 135). A rich body of research has informed the effects of TBL, examined through three theoretical perspectives: cognitive (e.g., as a meaning negotiation process; Foster & Ohta, 2005); sociocultural (e.g., collaborative interactions; Swain & Lapkin, 1998), and psycholinguistic (i.e., complexity, accuracy, and fluency in L2 production; Skehan, 2018). However, few research studies have explored how L2 tasks influence learners’ affective disposition, most notably L2 WTC. Thus, this study examines L2 situational WTC in one TBL context.

Goals of the Study and Research Questions

The primary objectives of this study were to understand what enduring or situational factors influence junior high school students’ situational WTC in interactional tasks, and to examine whether a TBL intervention enhances their situational WTC. The two research questions were as follows:

- RQ1. What factors most significantly influence the situational WTC of junior high school L2 English learners engaging in interactional tasks?
- RQ2. Does TBL instruction help these learners develop situational L2 WTC?

Method

Research Context and Participants

The participants in this study were 135 Japanese students (aged 14-15) recruited from four third-grade intact classes (with 33 or 34 students per class) of a public junior high school in an Osaka suburb. Based on the results of a nationwide English proficiency test administered by Japan’s Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT, n.d.) and the distribution guidelines of Japanese learners’ CEFR (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*) levels (Negishi et al., 2013), nearly all the participants fell into the categories of Pre-A1 and A1. Unlike the participants

tested in previous WTC studies, they had almost no prior experience in English conversation in or outside the classroom. For two years and several months prior to the intervention (i.e., from first grade to third grade), participants attended four 50-minute English classes per week with Japanese teachers of English. In three of the weekly classes, the students were taught by the same Japanese English teacher; however, in the fourth weekly class, an American, an L1 English speaker joined the class in a co-teaching role. As is the case in many school settings in Japan (e.g., Benesse Educational Research and Development Institute, 2018), English classes at this school emphasized non-communicative elements of English, including memorizing vocabulary and grammar drills, though oral practice is sometimes implemented in the form of audiolingual instructions (e.g., rote repetition and pattern practice).

The TBL interventions occurred in the second semester of students' third-grade year, during classes with both the Japanese teacher of English and the American teacher present. The Japanese teacher of English had 20 years of teaching experience; the American teacher had two years of teaching experience.

Task Design and Implementation

Five TBL lessons (50 minutes each) were implemented over four months. Each lesson occurred three- to four-weeks apart. The lessons were designed for the explicit aim of facilitating L2 interaction in the classroom. Each TBL lesson consisted of three stages: a pre-task, a main task, and a post-task.

At the pre-task stage, participants engaged in two sub-tasks: an input-based task, and a creative task in preparation for the main task. In the input-based task, students were instructed to read information related to the task topic (e.g., a survey on sightseeing spots in Okinawa) in English and respond to the information (e.g., answering the survey by putting checks in given boxes). The information contained some exemplars of the target linguistic features (e.g., lexical and grammatical phrases), but the teacher did not explicitly teach them to the students. Then, in the creative task, participants created their own information (e.g., creating ranking-lists for sightseeing spots in Okinawa and reasons) on the worksheet. The sub-tasks scaffolded speech production for the main task.

At the main task stage, students performed a 10-minute task in which they freely chose their partners. The task consisted of an information exchange and a decision-making component. The purpose of this task was to elicit meaning-focused communication between students in pairs using informa-

tion collected during the pre-task phase. For example, in Lesson 1, students exchanged information on local sightseeing spots in Okinawa they preferred before deciding on the best places to visit based on their combined information. In line with Shintani and Ellis' (2014) criteria for communicative tasks, its primary focus was on meaning, it contained an information gap, it required learners to rely on their own linguistic resources, and there was a clearly defined communicative goal.

At the post-task stage, participants were instructed to individually write reports (e.g., a travel itinerary) in English based on information from the main task (e.g., deciding on the best tourist destination). In summary, the pre-task allowed learners to generate input to be used in the main task, as the main task focused on meaningful oral communication. The post-task required students to reflect on their oral interactions and integrate their thoughts and experiences into a written product. Table 1 provides a full summary of the stages:

Table 1
Task Descriptions

TBL intervention	Pre-task (20 min)		Main task (10 min)	Post-task (10 min)
	Input-based task	Creative task		
Lesson 1	Answering a survey about sightseeing spots during Okinawa trip	Writing reasons for survey responses	Exchanging travel experiences in Okinawa	Writing up suggestions for American teacher who is going to Okinawa based on collaborative outcome
Lesson 2	Rearranging Osaka-sightseeing ranking and descriptions jumbled up by a cat	Writing itinerary for Osaka visit	Exchanging itinerary information and deciding on best tour	Writing up itinerary based on collaborative outcome

TBL intervention	Pre-task (20 min)		Main task (10 min)	Post-task (10 min)
	Input-based task	Creative task		
Lesson 3	Answering “Guess who?” questions asked by two teachers	Rearranging jumbled up information on stars	Exchanging information on favorite famous people	Writing up peers’ prefer- ences based on collabora- tive outcome
Lesson 4	Answering survey about favorite weekend activities	Writing up reasons for survey responses	Asking peers to do some- thing together on weekend and deciding on a plan	Writing agreed upon plan based on collaborative outcome
Lesson 5	Finding incorrect information in teacher’s Christmas plan	Making imaginary Christmas plan with ¥500,000 budget	Exchanging plans and deciding on the best Christmas plan	Writing about the best Christmas plan

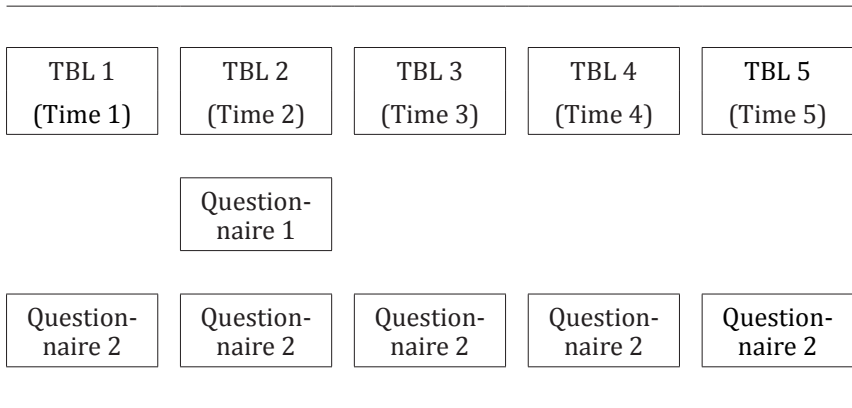
Note. Adopted from “Factors Affecting Situational Willingness to Communicate in Young EFL Learners,” by Toyoda & Yashima (2021).

The above tasks were carefully designed and implemented to facilitate participants’ WTC as well as active task engagement. In terms of task design, students benefited from familiar topics (Kang, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 1998; Pawlak et al., 2016) and the use of personal information (Aubrey, 2017a; Dörnyei, 2001, 2007) during task performance. Implementation choices thought to enhance engagement included dyadic interaction (Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005; Zhong, 2013), allowing students to choose their interlocutor (Egbert, 2004), and repetition of similar task types (MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Skehan, 1998). Furthermore, during each task, teacher roles were limited to giving instructions. In other words, the teachers tried to eliminate as many externally-imposed influences on interaction as possible (e.g., no incentives were given in terms of grades or rewards).

Data Collection

To answer our research questions, we adopted a mixed-methods approach juxtaposing quantitative and qualitative data. All data for this study were collected within the participants' regular English classes throughout the four-month-long TBL intervention period. Data collection instruments consisted of two questionnaires written in Japanese (hereafter Questionnaires 1 and 2). Figure 1 shows the timing of the administration of both questionnaires.

Figure 1
Timing of Questionnaire Administration



Questionnaire 1

Questionnaire 1 with 76 items was administered once to elicit data related to learners' stable L2 learning and communication dispositions, attitudes toward TBL, and the classroom social environment. As it included questions regarding participants' general attitudes toward the TBL instruction, it was administered after participants experienced two TBL lessons. The variables measured using this instrument are enumerated below (1 to 7). The number of items and corresponding Cronbach's alpha values for each construct in both questionnaires are shown in parentheses. Items measuring variables 1 and 2 were rated based on a 6-point Likert-type scale anchored by 1 (never willing) and 6 (always willing), and items measuring variables 3 to 7 were rated based on a 6-point Likert-type scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) and 6 (strongly agree). According to Kline's (1999) criteria for describing

internal consistency, an alpha greater than .9 constitutes an excellent fit, between .7 and .9 represents a good fit, and between .6 and .7 is an acceptable fit. All values reported either met or exceeded the criteria for acceptable fit.

1. Trait-like L2 WTC (8 items, $\alpha=.90$). WTC items were adapted from Ryan's WTC scale (2009) which he created for the Japanese EFL context based on McCroskey's WTC scale (1992). This measure captured participants' general tendency to communicate in English when given opportunities in various situations in and out of school (e.g., "I would talk with an acquaintance while standing in line").

2. Trait-like L1 WTC (8 items, $\alpha=.87$). The participants' L1 WTC was also assessed using modified versions of the above Trait-Like L2 WTC items. This measure captured the participants' general tendency to communicate in *Japanese*.

3. Perceived L2 communicative competence (23 items, $\alpha=.97$). To measure perceived communicative competence in English, 23 "can-do" items were taken from the Eiken English proficiency test (*Eiken Can-Do List*, n.d.) and based on the CEFR "can-do" assessment. Based on Negishi et al.'s (2013) finding that third-year Japanese junior high school students (aged 14-15) generally fall within a CEFR English ability range from pre-A1 to A1, assessment items for those levels were used (e.g., "If I don't understand what the other person says, I can ask him/her a question in English").

4. L2 anxiety in the classroom (8 items, $\alpha=.83$). These items, taken from Ryan (2009), assessed students' degree of communication apprehension in English (e.g., "I feel nervous when I speak English in English class").

5. L2 motivation (12 items, $\alpha=.89$). These items, adapted from Gardner and Lambert (1972), form a measure of L2 motivation and consist of two separate variables:

- a. L2 motivational intensity (6 items, $\alpha=.84$).** This component captures how much effort learners put into learning the L2 (e.g., "Compared to my classmates, I think I study English relatively hard").
- b. Desire to learn English (6 items, $\alpha=.77$).** This component captures how strongly learners want to study the L2 (e.g., "I find studying English more interesting than other subjects").

6. Task attitudes (4 items, $\alpha=.83$). These items measured the participants' general attitudes toward the TBL approach. Two items were adopted from Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) and asked about tasks in general, e.g., "I like the tasks in English lessons," and the remaining two items asked students to compare TBL with more grammar-focused English lessons (e.g., "I am more motivated to engage in TBL lessons than in the regular English lessons").

7. Group attitudes (13 items, $\alpha=.90$). These items consisted of two subcategories:

- a. Perceived group cohesiveness (7 items, $\alpha=.87$).** These items determined the degree to which students felt that the class formed as a cohesive group. They were based on items taken from Clément et al. (1994) (e.g., "I think my group is better than the other groups").
- b. Perceived group usefulness (6 items, $\alpha=.87$).** These items were taken from Fushino (2010) and elicited information about the usefulness of group work (e.g., "During group work, I learn various opinions and ideas from my group members").

Questionnaire 2

To elicit information regarding any changes in situational variables throughout the intervention, Questionnaire 2 was administered immediately following each of the five TBL lessons. Designed to elicit situational L2 WTC determinants for each task, the questionnaire contained three parts: a situational WTC scale, task-related scales, and an open-ended reflection. Each part is outlined below, with Cronbach's alpha values. Similar to Questionnaire 1, all values either met or exceeded the criteria for acceptable reliability.

1. Situational L2 WTC (i.e., interaction FOC) (4 items, $\alpha=.82$). Following the practice of previous studies (e.g., Yashima et al., 2004), situational L2 WTC was operationalized as self-reported frequency of communication during each interactional task (hereafter: interaction FOC). Items and scales were taken from Yashima et al. (2004) to determine how often students voluntarily attempted to communicate during an interactional task (e.g., "I volunteered answers or asked questions during an interactional task"). Students indicated their interaction FOC on a 10-point scale anchored from "not at all" to "very frequently." In addition to interaction FOC data, the approximate number of self-initiated turns reported by students immediately after each lesson was considered when answering RQ2. In all cases, students

were asked to maintain awareness of their turn-taking frequency and to report it as precisely as possible.

2. Situational task-related variables. The following items, a) and b), were rated based on a 6-point Likert-type scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) and 6 (strongly agree).

a. Perceived situational task competence (5 items, $\alpha=.92$). Given that “can-do” statements serve as a record of what students perceive they are capable of doing in the L2 (Willis & Willis, 2007), five “can-do” items were chosen to assess how students perceived their ability to perform the tasks in each TBL lesson on a 6-point Likert-type scale (e.g., “I can negotiate with my classmates using only English to achieve a task goal”).

b. Situational task engagement (6 items, $\alpha=.93$). These items, taken from Dörnyei and Kormos (2000), measured participants’ attitudes toward each TBL lesson as well as engagement in each lesson. Students were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with statements regarding their own task performance on a 6-point Likert-type scale (e.g., “I enjoyed achieving the task goal”).

Open-ended Reflection

In addition to the quantitative data, we obtained written, qualitative data from open-ended reflections from each participant that provided the learner’s retrospective thought processes for each task. Immediately after each task, students were given 10 minutes to write a comment in Japanese discussing their task performance.

Data Analysis

To answer Research Question 1, which addressed factors influencing situational L2 WTC, correlation and multiple-regression analyses were conducted on the eight enduring variables (Questionnaire 1) and three situational variables (Questionnaire 2). To answer Research Question 2, which addressed developmental features of EFL learners’ situational L2 WTC, four repeated-measures one-way ANOVAs were performed on the four situational variables (interaction FOC, self-initiated turns, perceived situational task competence, and situational task engagement) to test for significant change variables from Time 1 (TBL 1) through Time 3 (TBL 3) to Time 5 (TBL 5). All quantitative analyses were carried out using SPSS (Version 23).

To add insights to the quantitative analyses, we conducted a content analysis of the open-ended reflections each participant wrote in Japanese at the end of the initial (TBL 1) and final (TBL 5) sessions. This followed the inductive analysis method recommended by Corbin and Straus (2015). The participants' reflections were coded, and these codes were subsequently abstracted to categories (higher-order codes) and several subcategories specifying each main category. To determine interrater reliability of the coding, two independent coders, both researchers in applied linguistics, coded 25% of randomly selected students' open-ended reflections, as recommended by Lombard et al. (2005) as an acceptable sub-sample to use for calculating inter-rater reliability. Cohen's Kappa was calculated, and the results showed moderate agreement (.71) between raters. This result was deemed satisfactory (see McHugh, 2012), and the first author coded the remaining data alone.

Results of Quantitative Analyses

Factors Influencing Situational WTC

The results of the correlation analysis showed that interaction FOC was highly correlated with the two situational variables, perceived situational task competence ($r = .89$) and situational task engagement ($r = .81$), moderately correlated with the other linguistic and non-linguistic variables ($.67 < r < .39$) and L2 proficiency ($r = .42$); but not with group attitudes ($r = .13$). To identify strong predictors of situational L2 WTC among the correlated variables above, a multiple stepwise regression analysis was conducted, with interaction FOC as the dependent variable and all other variables (except group attitudes, which had a weak correlation with situational L2 WTC) treated as independent variables (i.e., perceived L2 communicative competence, trait-like L2 WTC, L2 anxiety, L2 motivation, L1 WTC, task attitudes, L2 proficiency, perceived situational task competence, and situational task engagement) (See Appendix for the descriptive statistics). As Table 2 shows, two situational variables—perceived situational task competence and situational task engagement—along with L1 WTC were predictors of interaction FOC. A calculated partial regression coefficient was significant, $F(3,102) = 156.40$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .82$. Acquired partial regression coefficients showed that perceived situational task competence, $B(.64)$ influenced interaction FOC more strongly than either situational task engagement, $B(.21)$ or L1 WTC, $B(.18)$. The risk of multicollinearity was considered negligible as variance inflation factor values ranged from 1.25 to 2.96.

Table 2

Result of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Situational L2 WTC (interaction FOC)

	B	SEB	B	
Intercept		0.46	-3.96	
Situational perceived task competence	0.64	0.16	1.42	***
Situational task engagement	0.21	0.15	0.42	***
L1 WTC	0.18	0.10	0.39	**
R^2		0.82***		

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .00$.

Developmental Features of Learners' Situational L2 WTC

RQ 2 addressed the development of situational L2 WTC, which was operationalized as interaction FOC and self-reported turns for the five TBL lessons. In order to examine whether significant changes were observed through the TBL intervention, an ANOVA was performed comparing three time points, namely the beginning, the middle and end points. Mauchly's test for each situational variable showed no violation of sphericity. In addition, Bonferroni's adjustment was applied to the significance level to deal with Type 1 error. To determine where significant change occurred, multiple comparisons were conducted. Results indicated a significant difference in situational WTC-variables between Time 1 and Time 5: interaction FOC, $F(2, 232) = 35.21, p < .001, \eta^2 = .23$, and self-reported turns, $F(2, 208) = 67.97, p < .001, \eta^2 = .40$. For interaction FOC, the results showed a significant difference between Time 1 and Time 3 and also between Time 1 and Time 5 ($p < .001$). A significant difference was found in the number of self-reported turns between Time 1 and Time 3 ($p < .001$), between Time 3 and Time 5 ($p < .001$), and between Time 1 and Time 5 ($p < .001$).

Since the multiple regression in RQ1 showed that two situational variables (i.e., perceived situational task competence and situational task engagement) are strong predictors of interaction FOC, we also examined changes in these variables. Perceived situational task competence and task engagement were examined with ANOVAs using the same procedure as above to determine if there were any significant changes between Times 1, 3, and 5. Results indicate a significant difference in these two situational variables between Time 1 and Time 5: perceived situational task competence, $F(2,$

228) = 16.24, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .13$) and situational task engagement, $F(2, 228) = 5.09$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .04$). For perceived situational task competence, the results showed a significant difference between Time 1 and Time 3 as well as between Time 1 and Time 5 ($p < .001$). Regarding situational task engagement, significant differences were found between Time 1 and Time 3, and Time 1 and Time 5 ($p < .001$), but not between Time 3 and Time 5.

The results suggest that interaction FOC, self-reported turns, and perceived situational task competence significantly improved throughout the TBL intervention, while situational task engagement improved only during the first half of the intervention. Table 3 summarizes the descriptive statistics for interaction FOC and self-reported turns (used as indicators of situational WTC) as well as perceived situational task competence and situational task engagement from Time 1 (TBL 1) to Time 5 (TBL 5). Figures 2, 3, and 4 show how each of the situational variables as well as the number of self-reported turns changed over the TBL-intervention period.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Situational Variables: Group Means and Standard Deviations

Situational variables	Mean (SD)					Post-hoc
	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3	Time 4	Time 5	
Interaction FOC (Situational L2 WTC)	4.78 (2.09)	5.39 (2.03)	5.52 (2.16)	5.72 (1.86)	5.80 (2.01)	1-3, 1-5
Situational perceived task competence	4.05 (0.97)	4.37 (0.93)	4.33 (0.90)	4.45 (0.85)	4.41 (0.95)	1-3, 1-5, 3-5
Situational task engagement	4.25 (1.10)	4.37 (1.04)	4.45 (1.03)	4.31 (1.03)	4.30 (1.14)	1-3, 1-5
Self-reported turns	4.53 (2.34)	9.50 (5.39)	7.30 (4.51)	8.73 (4.72)	9.86 (5.30)	1-3, 1-5

Note. $N=107$ available from Time 1 to Time 5.

Figure 2
Interaction FOC for Whole Group

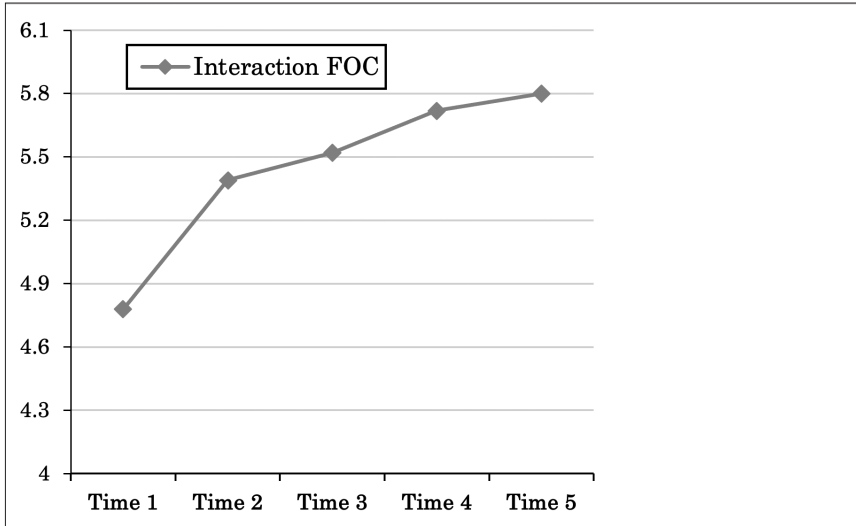


Figure 3
Perceived Situational Task Competence and Situational Task Engagement in Interactional Tasks for Whole Group

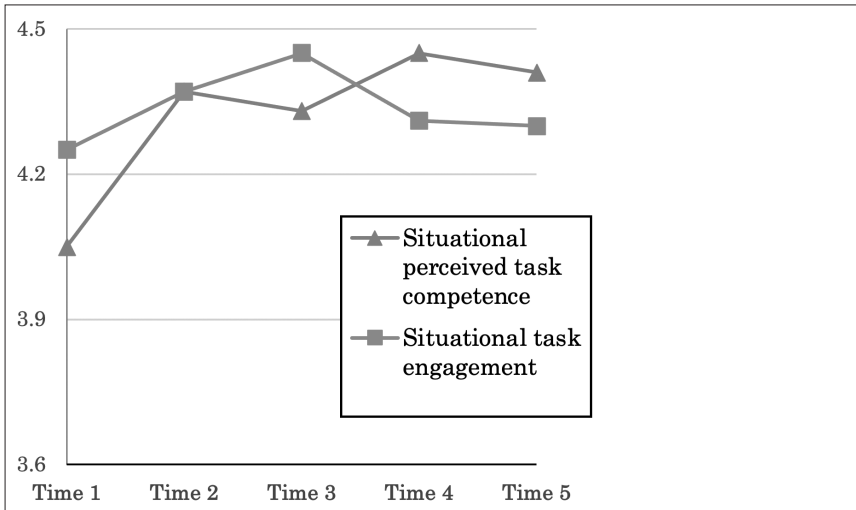
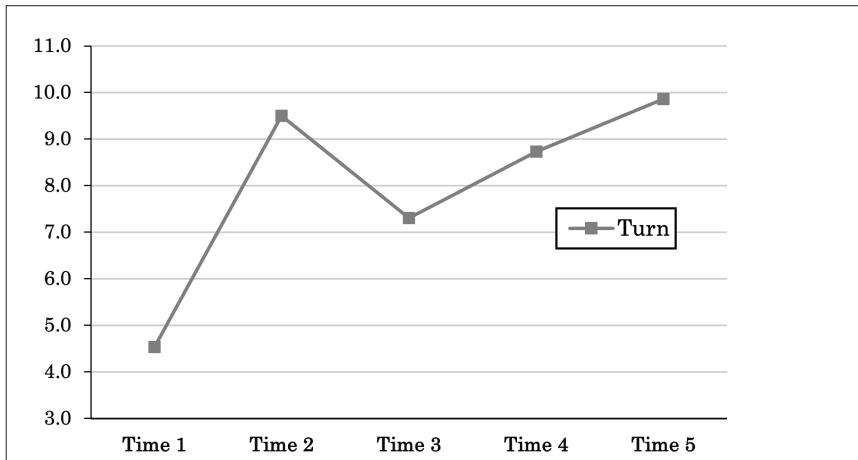


Figure 4

Number of Self-Reported Turns in Interactional Task for Whole Group



Results of Qualitative Analyses

Table 4 shows a summary of the analyses of participants’ reflections after the initial (Time 1) and final (Time 5) sessions. Students provided a total of 167 comments on Time 1 experiences and 191 comments on Time 5 experiences. Comments were coded and divided into subcategories and then subsequently aggregated into seven categories each for Time 1 and Time 5, as shown in Table 4. Although in qualitative studies, interpretation does not necessarily depend on the quantity of responses, in this study, numbers of responses were counted to grasp general response patterns and to structure a detailed discussion of students’ experiences.

Table 4*Results (Categories and Subcategories) of Qualitative Content Analysis*

Time 1	Time 5
<i>Enjoyment (69)</i>	<i>Enjoyment (73)</i>
Had fun using English with peers (30)	Enjoyed sharing real information with friends (44)
Enjoyed tasks (19)	Enjoyed interacting with many people in English, with many turns (11)
Had fun using English but found it difficult (18)	Enjoyed using English (8)
Enjoyed learning new words (2)	Enjoyed tasks (9)
	Enjoyed working with peers (1)
<i>Lack of perceived communicative competence (33)</i>	<i>Perceived communicative competence (53)</i>
Unable to speak English (20)	Able to interact with peers, with improved interactional skills (26)
Unable to perform tasks (11)	Able to interact, with increased turns (21)
Unable to achieve task goal (1)	Able to perform tasks better than past performance (5)
Unable to generate own ideas (1)	
<i>Desire for improvement (26)</i>	<i>Retrospection on communication messages (24)</i>
Desire to improve task interactions (20)	Was impressed with interlocutors' ideas (18)
Desire to increase the number of turns (6)	Respected interlocutors' attitudes (5)
	Was surprised to learn about interlocutors (1)

Time 1	Time 5
<i>Perceived communicative competence (19)</i>	<i>Lack of perceived communicative competence (15)</i>
Able to speak English (14)	Unable to speak English (12)
Able to interact with each other (5)	Had trouble coming up with own ideas (1)
	Lacked intention to interact with others (1)
	Lacked necessary vocabulary (1)
<i>Perceived TBL effectiveness (12)</i>	<i>Perceived TBL effectiveness (12)</i>
Values TBL for communication development (12)	TBL helped gain communicative abilities in L2 (12)
<i>Retrospection on communication messages (5)</i>	<i>Desire for improvement (8)</i>
Learned friends' personal information (3)	Desire to improve English to succeed in communication (6)
Increased interest in friends' recommended places (2)	Desire to increase WTC (2)
<i>Not enjoying (3)</i>	<i>Desire for social interaction in L2 (6)</i>
Unable to understand tasks (2)	Desire for further interactions (3)
Unable to perform tasks (1)	Desire to socialize in L2 outside classroom (3)

Note. Main categories (i.e., higher-order codes) are italicized in bold; sub-codes are shown under each main category.

Overall, the qualitative results indicate some key changes in perceptions. The following percentages account for the proportion out of the total number of responses at the respective times. The largest proportion of learners' comments related to enjoyment at both Time 1 (41.32%) and Time 5 (38.21%), indicating that learners' enjoyment did not wane over the intervention period. However, the subcategories under "Enjoyment" at Times 1 and 5 were quite different in that participants came to enjoy more gregarious meaning-focused communication with peers in the L2 during Time 5 than

during the initial Time 1 stage. During Time 1, most participants reported enjoyment in using their L2 with others for communication. For example, frequent comments included: “I had fun using the L2 with peers” and “I enjoyed getting my message across in the L2.” In contrast, at Time 5, the majority of participants commented on a form of enjoyment related to the process of authentic social interactions with others (e.g., sharing information, learning something new, and interacting more frequently than before). For example, some students wrote: “I really enjoyed sharing information in the L2 with my friends on topics we had never talked about;” “I was surprised to learn that my friend had that kind of future plan” and, “I really enjoyed telling others what I think and learning about what others think.”

Comparing the initial and final task lessons, for Time 1, participants’ comments tended to focus on the act of using the L2, the tasks themselves, and the learning process. In contrast, for Time 5, comments tended to have a more meaning-focused interpersonal dimension, reflecting an appreciation of interacting with many people and sharing information with friends on specific topics.

Another important aspect of the task experience for students was perceived communicative competence. For Time 1, learners reported proportionally more comments related to *lack* of perceived communicative competence (19.76%) than perceived communicative competence (11.38%), indicating that learners felt they were deficient in the skills needed to successfully complete the task. The most frequently cited reason was “being unable to speak English.” As one student wrote, “I simply could not put words together to speak English well during the task.” However, the opposite was true of Time 5, with learners reporting more comments describing their perceived communicative competence (27.74%) than lack thereof (7.85%). In sum, there was a substantial increase in the number of participants who came to perceive themselves as competent in performing interactional tasks as well as a decrease in the number of participants who felt less than competent and did not enjoy the tasks.

Other comments were offered less often but with nonetheless interesting patterns. Learners reported a desire for improvement much more frequently at Time 1 (15.56%) than at Time 5 (4.19%), which may indicate that their need for improvement was satisfied in some way. Learners increased the proportion of comments on “Retrospection on communication messages” (Time 1 = 2.99%; Time 5 = 12.56%), suggesting that learners tended to reflect more on what they said in the last intervention (e.g., learned about friends’ personal information). Comments related to perceived TBL effectiveness formed a mi-

nor aspect of what learners reported and remained fairly constant between the two interventions (Time 1 = 7.18%; Time 5 = 6.28%). Finally, a category unique to Time 5 was “Desire for social interaction” (3.14%) (e.g., desire for further L2 interaction), which seemed to emerge after Time 1. This desire for social interaction indicates a positive response to the communication opportunities afforded by the TBL intervention and a motivation to continue to use the English in similar task-based situations.

Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

This study investigated the situational WTC of junior high school Japanese EFL learners in a four-month-long WTC-enhancing intervention using a TBL interaction task. Situational WTC was operationalized as interaction FOC (i.e., learner’s perceived frequency of voluntary communication) and self-reported turns during L2 interaction.

Research Question 1 asked what factors influence the situational WTC of L2 learners engaging in the interaction. Our findings obtained from multiple regression analyses indicate that the emergence of situational L2 WTC (interaction FOC) during the interactional tasks was subject to three key predictors: two situational factors (perceived situational task competence and situational task engagement) and one personality trait factor (L1 WTC), with perceived situational task competence found to be the most significant predictor of situational WTC ($p < .001$). This indicates that perception of ability in task performance is vital to enhancing L2 WTC, a finding consistent with past research (Cao & Philp, 2006; de Saint-Léger & Storch, 2009; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Eddy-U, 2015). The second-strongest predictor was situational task engagement, suggesting that enjoyment of and engagement in the task are also important in enhancing communication.

In addition to situational factors, one enduring factor, namely L1 WTC, influenced situational L2 WTC for our participants. Since L1 WTC reflects personality, this result is congruent with the WTC heuristic model (MacIntyre et al., 1998) and Freiermuth and Ito (2020), in which personality is one of the enduring variables affecting L2 WTC. It also supports Baker and MacIntyre’s (2000) claim that when through L2 communication, learners tend to transfer their own L1 communication disposition to it. In particular, novice learners’ tendency to initiate L2 communication while partially relying on their L1 WTC disposition may be a characteristic of EFL contexts where students usually use their L1 as the main vehicle of communication.

Research Question 2 addressed how situational L2 WTC developed over the TBL intervention period. Firstly, the quantitative results revealed

significant increases in learners' situational WTC, with the number of self-reported turns increasing significantly overall, i.e., Time 1-Time 5 as well as at beginning (Time 1-Time 3) and end (Time 3-Time 5). Meanwhile, interaction FOC increased significantly (both overall and at the beginning of the intervention). These findings align with recent research attesting to the affective and motivational benefits of TBL (e.g., Aubrey, 2017a, 2017b). We acknowledge the lack of a control group to compare with the treatment group; however, this fact does not take away from the findings of the study. Given that participants were novice learners of English with no prior TBL experience, our findings may constitute support of TBL as an approach to enhance situational L2 WTC. In contrast to previous studies that looked at fluctuations in situational L2 WTC during a single communicative activity (e.g., Pawlak et al., 2016), our study shows how situational L2 WTC can be cultivated through a series of pedagogical efforts over time.

The quantitative results showed that perceived situational task competence made significant gains at the beginning and end of the intervention. Similar to Aubrey (2017b), this may be a result of learners' familiarization with task procedures, which in turn may have improved learners' self-confidence in approaching each subsequent task. In contrast, situational task engagement only increased significantly at the beginning of the intervention, which may be indicative of the initial novelty associated with first being exposed to TBL. Given that perceived situational task competence and situational task engagement were predictors of situational L2 WTC, positive changes in these affective reactions facilitated growth in the level of situational L2 WTC. Thus, as Zhong (2013) suggests, to strengthen novice learners' situational WTC, instruction needs to be designed in a way that can scaffold learners' understanding of the task procedures and performance in the L2.

Further evidence to support the strengthening of learners' situational L2 WTC comes from the qualitative analysis of learners' reflective comments after the initial (Time 1) and final (Time 5) task-based lessons (Table 4). Learners' affective responses became more positive as their situational WTC showed growth over time. First, it was found that more students initially reported a lack of perceived competence in relation to interactional abilities and task performance compared to those who felt competent. However, after the task-based intervention, more students reported feeling competent in a given interactional task, an increase of approximately 2.8 times (Table 4). The following comments from two students on the final intervention period illustrate this increased feeling of competence:

In today's interaction, I think I spoke the most to others in English since the beginning of this type of lesson, so I felt competent (Student A).

While performing a task today, I felt I was able to communicate with others in English a lot better, so I came to realize that I have gained interactional skills (Student B).

In brief, learners became more aware of their heightened task competence, including speaking ability, frequency of communication, and task processing skills, all necessary components of successful task interaction.

Secondly, the development of learners' L2 WTC can be explained through another change in learners' affective reactions throughout a series of TBL interventions. At Time 1, the most frequent perceptions were those in which learners had fun performing a communicative activity even though they strongly acknowledged the need to improve the perceived communicative competence and the need to improve it. Underpinned by this positive emotion, they endeavored to engage more intensely and frequently in interactions with a higher level of difficulty, as our quantitative results on improvement in situational task engagement over time showed. As Egbert (2004) argues, a good balance of task challenge and participant skills, as well as intrinsic interest in the task, are crucial components for intense task engagement (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). This balance might account for the positive emotional changes seen in learners, leading to the development of situational L2 WTC.

Finally, from students' comments of the final period, we learned that not only did a larger number of students find interactional tasks enjoyable, but also that their reaction to the L2 interaction changed qualitatively, as shown in the comment below:

During the interaction, I had a lot of fun speaking to friends and getting to know those I often talk to as well as other classmates I had never talked to before. I was amazed to learn that they have great future dreams in mind (Student C).

Following a series of interventions, more learners reported on the content of their communication (e.g., *I was impressed with my friend's attitude toward her family*), as well as their enjoyment of the interactions. In other words, at the final intervention period, students came to appreciate the interactional task as a social opportunity to exchange opinions, ideas, and thoughts among peers, as the following excerpt suggests:

Interaction tasks gave us a chance to get to know each other and to introduce more information about my real self because we don't talk about such a topic [i.e., the given task topic] with classmates. So, interacting with peers in English was a lot of fun for me (Student D).

These results indicate that students were able to conduct more meaning-focused social interactions with peers as WTC increased. In line with Ellis' (2003) position, learners were able to engage in meaning-focused tasks and act as authentic language users in real communicative settings despite their limited L2 linguistic competency. Similar to Freiermuth and Huang (2012), the results suggest that novice learners with limited L2 competence need to see interaction not only as a learning opportunity but also as a meaningful social opportunity they can fully enjoy.

Conclusion

Despite some limitations (i.e., the absence of a control group, the use of self-rating scales to measure interaction FOC, and no confirmation of consistency in task-difficulty levels), and given the dearth of studies on learners' affective responses to TBL, our study advances the WTC research agenda. The study showed that WTC-facilitating TBL interventions facilitated situational L2 WTC among novice learners. Situational L2 WTC was attributed to the emergence of learners' positive affective reactions to peer communication in the L2 over time, which led to more frequent involvement in interactions and more highly perceived communicative competence and task management. We trust that this research will illuminate pedagogical efforts to engender in novice EFL learners the willingness to seek out communication opportunities and to convert these into authentic communication.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by JSPS Grant-in-Aid for Challenging Research (JP26580125) and JSPS Grant-in-Aid for scientific Research (C) (JP18K00815567). We extend our sincere appreciation to Atsushi Mizumoto and Hiroyo Nakagawa for their support.

Junko Toyoda is an Associate Professor at Kansai Gaidai College. Her research interests include Willingness to Communicate in Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

Tomoko Yashima is a Professor at the Graduate School of Foreign Language Education and Research at Kansai University. Her research interests include the social psychology of second language/culture acquisition and communicative processes.

Scott Aubrey is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. His research interests include L2 motivation, learner engagement, task-based language teaching, and intercultural interaction in the classroom.

References

- Aubrey, S. (2017a). Inter-cultural contact and flow in a task-based Japanese EFL classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, 21(6), 717–734. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816683563>
- Aubrey, S. (2017b). Measuring flow in the EFL classroom: Learners' perceptions of inter-and intra-cultural task-based interactions. *TESOL Quarterly*, 51(3), 661–692. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.387>
- Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2000). The role of gender and immersion in communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning*, 50(2), 311–341. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00224>
- Benesse Educational Research and Development Institute. (2018). 中三生の英語学習に関する調査 [Investigation of English learning by third graders in junior high school]. <http://berd.benesse.jp/global>
- Cao, Y., & Philp, J. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: A comparison of behavior in class, group, and dyadic interaction. *System*, 34(4), 480–493. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2006.05.002>
- Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, 44(3), 417–448. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01113.x>
- Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2015). *Basics of qualitative research*. Sage Publications
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997). Flow and education. *NAMTA Journal*, 22(2), 2–35.
- de Saint Léger, D., & Storch, N. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *System*, 37(2), 269–285. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.01.001>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). New themes and approaches in second language motivation research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21, 43–59. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190501000034>

- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Creating a motivating classroom environment. In J. Cummins, & C. Davison (Eds.), *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 719–731). Springer.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Kormos, J. (2000). The role of individual and social variables in oral task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 275–300. <https://doi.org/10.1191/136216800125096>
- Eddy-U, M. (2015). Motivation for participation or non-participation in group tasks: A dynamic systems model of task-situated willingness to communicate. *System*, 50, 43–55. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.03.005>
- Egbert, J. (2004). A study of flow theory in the foreign language classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 60(5), 549–586. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.60.5.549>
- Eiken Can-Do List*. (n.d.). <http://www.eiken.or.jp/eiken/exam/cando>
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- Foster, P., & Ohta, A. S. (2005). Negotiation for meaning and peer assistance in second language classrooms. *Applied Linguistics*, 26, 402–430. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ami014>
- Freiermuth, M. R., & Huang, H. C. (2012). Bringing Japan and Taiwan closer electronically: A look at an intercultural online synchronic chat task and its effect on motivation. *Language Teaching Research*, 16(1), 61–88. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168811423341>
- Freiermuth, M. R., & Ito, M. F. (2020). Seeking the source: The effect of personality and previous experiences on university students' L2 willingness to communicate. *Learning and Motivation*, 71(101640), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lmot.2020.101640>
- Fushino, K. (2010). Causal relationships between communication confidence, beliefs about group work, and willingness to communicate in foreign language group work. *TESOL Quarterly*, 44(4), 700–724. <https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2010.235993>
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Newbury House.
- Kang, S. J. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System*, 33(2), 277–292. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.10.004>
- Kline, R. B. (1999). *The handbook of psychological testing* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

- Lombard, M., Snyder-Duch, J., & Bracken, C. C. (2005). Practical resources for assessing and reporting intercoder reliability. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Cheryl_Bracken/publication/242785900
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 15*(1), 3–26. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927x960151001>
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Clément, R. (1996, August 4-9). A model of willingness to communicate in a second language: The concept, its antecedents and implications. Paper presented at the 11th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Jyväskylä, Finland.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Doucette, J. (2010). Willingness to communicate and action control. *System, 38*(2), 161–171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.12.013>
- MacIntyre, P. D., Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in an L2: A situated model of confidence and affiliation. *Modern Language Journal, 82*(4), 545–562. <https://doi.org/10.2307/330224>
- McCroskey, J. C. (1992). Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. *Communication Quarterly, 40*(1), 16–25. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01463379209369817>
- McHugh, M. L. (2012). Interrater reliability: The kappa statistic. *Biochemia Medica, 22*(3), 276–282. <https://doi.org/10.11613/issn.1846-7482>
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). (n.d.). 中学校学習指導要領 [Course of study 2008]. http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/micro_detail/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2011/04/11/1298356_10.pdf
- Munezane, Y. (2015). Enhancing willingness to communicate: Relative effects of visualization and goal setting. *Modern Language Journal, 99*(1), 175–191. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12193>
- Negishi, M., Takada, T., & Tono, Y. (2013). A progress report on the development of the CEFR-J. In E. D. Galaczi & C. J. Weir (Eds.), *Exploring language frameworks: Proceedings of the ALTE Kraków Conference* (pp. 135–163). Cambridge University Press.
- Pawlak, M., Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A., & Bielak, J. (2016). Investigating the nature of classroom willingness to communicate (WTC): A micro-perspective. *Language Teaching Research, 20*(5), 654–671. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815609615>

- Peng, J. E., & Woodrow, L. (2010). Willingness to communicate in English: A model in the Chinese EFL classroom context. *Language Learning, 60*(4), 834–876. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00576.x>
- Ryan, S. (2009). Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: The ideal L2 self and Japanese learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 120–143). Multilingual Matters.
- Shintani, N., & Ellis, R. (2014). Tracking learning behaviours in the incidental acquisition of two-dimensional adjectives by Japanese beginner learners of L2 English. *Language Teaching Research, 18*(4), 521–542. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168813519885>
- Shirvan, M. E., Khajavy, G. H., MacIntyre, P. D., & Taherian, T. (2019). A meta-analysis of L2 willingness to communicate and its three high-evidence correlates. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, 48*(6), 1241–1267. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10936-019-09656-9>
- Skehan, P. (1998). Task-based instruction. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 18*, 268–286. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0267190500003585>
- Skehan, P. (2018). *Second language task-based performance: Theory, research, assessment*. Routledge.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *Modern Language Journal, 82*(3), 320–337. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb01209.x>
- Toyoda, J., & Yashima, T. (2021). Factors affecting situational willingness to communicate in young EFL learners. *JACET Journal, 65*, 107–124.
- Willis, D., & Willis, J. (2007). *Doing task-based teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*, 55–66. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00136>
- Yashima, T., MacIntyre, P. D., & Ikeda, M. (2018). Situated willingness to communicate in an L2: Interplay of individual characteristics and context. *Language Teaching Research, 22*(1), 115–137. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816657851>
- Yashima, T., & Zenuk-Nishide, L. (2008). The impact of learning contexts on proficiency, attitudes, and L2 communication: Creating an imagined international community. *System, 36*(4), 566–585. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.03.006>

- Yashima, T., Zenik-Nishide, L., & Shimizu, K. (2004). The influence of attitudes and affect on willingness to communicate and second language communication. *Language Learning, 54*, 119–152. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2004.00250.x>.
- Zarrinabadi, N., Ketabi, S., & Abdi, R. (2014). Facilitating willingness to communicate in the second language classroom and beyond. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues, and Ideas, 87*(5), 213–217. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00098655.2014.924895>
- Zhong, Q. M. (2013). Understanding Chinese learners' willingness to communicate in a New Zealand ESL classroom: A multiple case study drawing on the theory of planned behavior. *System, 41*(3), 740–751. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.08.001>

Appendix

Scale Descriptions for L2 Learning and Communication Variables

Variables	<i>a</i>	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Kurtosis	Skewness
Trait-like L2 WTC	0.90	8	2.51	0.92	0.29	0.18
Trait-like L1 WTC	0.87	8	3.65	0.83	0.09	-0.49
Perceived L2 communi- cative competence	0.97	23	3.92	0.84	0.21	-0.03
L2 anxiety	0.83	8	2.94	1.14	-0.11	0.20
L2 motivation	0.89	12	4.20	1.09	0.23	-0.13
Motivation intensity	0.84	6	4.00	1.21	-0.06	-0.49
Learning desire	0.77	6	4.41	1.09	-0.18	0.57
Task attitudes	0.83	4	3.94	1.03	-0.65	-0.19
Group attitudes	0.90	13	3.80	0.87	0.54	-0.53
Group cohesiveness	0.87	7	3.40	1.04	-0.42	0.18
Group usefulness	0.87	6	4.26	0.88	-0.69	0.38
L2 proficiency	0.90	50	48.13	21.94	-0.80	0.39
<Situational variables>						
Interaction FOC (Situational L2 WTC)	0.93	4	5.45	2.03	-0.29	-0.27
Self-initiated turns	0.75	1	8.30	3.24	0.24	0.48
Perceived situational task competence	0.82	5	4.33	0.92	0.88	-0.59
Situational task engagement	0.93	6	4.34	1.07	-0.33	-0.20

Note. L2 Proficiency was measured by the means of five English proficiency exams scored from 0-100. Interaction FOC was based on a 10-point scale. Self-initiated turns were the number of turns during an interaction task reported by students. The rest of the variables were based on a 6-point-Likert-type scale.

Identifying Emergent Leaders in Small Groups in the Language Learning Classroom: An Exploratory Study

Paul Leeming
Kindai University

Researchers claim that when students work together in small groups in the language classroom, a single student often emerges as a group leader and that teachers should construct groups based on roles adopted by students. This advice is based on the assumptions that leaders emerge and that teachers can identify leaders in their own classrooms. This paper reports on research that empirically tested these assumptions. Students working in small, fixed groups rated their group members based on perceived leadership. The teacher was responsible for identifying the leader in each group. Individual difference variables of English proficiency, extroversion, and English-speaking self-efficacy (SE) were used to predict emergent leadership. In most groups clear leaders emerged, but the teacher accurately identified the leader in only half of the cases. The findings suggest that teachers should regularly vary group membership and be cautious when assigning roles within groups.

語学の授業において、学生が少人数のグループで活動していると、リーダーが一人現れることがしばしばある、ということが研究者により指摘されている。そして教師は学生それぞれの役割に基づいてグループを作るべきであるという提案がなされている。これは、授業において現れるリーダーを教師は特定できるという想定に基づいている。本稿では、これらの想定を実践的に検証した研究について述べる。固定メンバーの小グループで活動を行う学生たちが、自分の考えるリーダーシップに基づいて自分のグループのメンバーを評価した。また、教師も各グループのリーダーを特定した。グループ内で現れるリーダーを予測するために、英語能力、外向性、英語スピーキングの自己効力感、という個人差が使用された。ほとんどのグループで明確なリーダーが現れたが、教師がそのリーダーを正確に特定できたのは、クラス全体の半分にすぎなかった。検証の結果、グループメンバー

<https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJ43.2-4>

JALT Journal, Vol. 43, No. 2, November 2021

を定期的に入れ替えるべきである事と、グループ内で役割を決めるときには十分に注意が必要だと言うことが分かった。

Keywords: emergent leaders; group work; pedagogy; TBLT

Group work has become a mainstay in language teaching and can be clearly seen in the increasing popularity of approaches such as cooperative learning (McCafferty et al., 2006), and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT; Willis & Willis, 2007), which both place a heavy emphasis on the use of groups and interaction. While incorporating group work into the classroom, teachers are faced with several very practical considerations, with perhaps the most important relating to group construction (Leeming, 2014) in which they grapple with several questions. Should students be randomly assigned to groups, grouped by proficiency, personality, or by some other variable such as their role in the class? How can we create effective groups where all students participate? These concerns are real for practicing teachers. Although texts used to train new teachers suggest extensive use of group work (Brown & Lee, 2015; Harmer, 2010), there is limited advice on how to construct groups in the language classroom and a lack of research investigating these practical issues.

Many practicing teachers have observed the phenomenon whereby within small groups, a student emerges to take on the role of leader, dictating the norms for the group, and ultimately determining its success (Forsyth, 2010). Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) argue that these emergent leaders should not be feared as a challenge to authority, but welcomed as essential to the success of a group. Researchers and teacher trainers suggest that emergent leaders can be effectively controlled by giving them specific roles within the group, such as designated timekeeper (McCafferty et al., 2006; Willis & Willis, 2007), and by considering students' personalities when constructing groups (Brown & Lee, 2015). The underlying assumption upon which much of the pedagogical advice is based is that leaders emerge within groups and that teachers can accurately identify these emergent leaders within their own classroom. At present, however, no empirical evidence to support either of these claims exists.

Group Work and Language Learning

Swain's (2005) output hypothesis outlined the functions of speaking, including noticing the gaps in one's own knowledge and testing hypotheses about language when working collaboratively. In addition, Lantolf (2006)

explained, from a sociocultural perspective, how interaction provides opportunities for students to learn from more capable peers within their zone of proximal development. Based on these observations and the general popularity of group work in general education, popular texts used to train new teachers in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) actively encourage the use of group work (Brown & Lee, 2015; Harmer, 2010), and researchers also strongly advocate the benefits of working in small groups (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998). However, potential problems have been associated with small group work, including balance of proficiency and personalities within groups (Brown & Lee, 2015) and domination by a single student, who may emerge to assume a leadership role in the group. This emergent leadership, although largely unexplored in SLA, has been investigated extensively within general psychology. SLA researchers have investigated group work, particularly within the area of interaction, but as acknowledged by Philp et al. (2013), studies have presented only a limited understanding of how group dynamics (including emergent leadership) may impact the interaction in groups.

Emergent Leadership

Leadership is a major area of study for researchers investigating group dynamics (Forsyth, 2010). Formal leaders are appointed to take charge of a group and usually have some official power over other members. However, leaders can also emerge in unofficial roles. It has been found that when groups where no formal roles have been assigned work together on tasks that are interdependent or collaborative, one member usually emerges as unofficial leader within the group and exerts influence over other members through control of group norms (Northouse, 2009). This person is the emergent leader. Although emergent leaders do not have any official role, responsibility, or power, they take charge of the group (Forsyth, 2010). Within general psychology, high levels of emergent leadership have been positively linked to group performance, suggesting that emergent leaders have a beneficial impact on the group (Taggar et al., 1999).

Researchers within SLA have acknowledged the potential importance of students as emergent leaders, but the discussion has been largely theoretical (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998). Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) consider the role of emergent leader to be important, claiming that leaders emerge in most groups and generally exert a positive influence, leading members toward learning goals. Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998) argue that the emergent student leader is one of the most important contribu-

tors to the success of the group, organizing and directing other members. Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) believe that teachers are able to readily identify the emergent leaders within a group.

When teachers look carefully in the first few classes, they can often see the unconscious leaders in the room...if teachers are aware of such leaders early on, they can get into a rapport with them and find out what motivates them. (p. 112)

Although teachers may believe they can recognize the leaders in a class, there is no empirical evidence to support this. In fact, at present within SLA, it is a matter of contention whether or not leaders emerge in small groups, or if there is any stability to leadership beyond the implementation of a single task.

Emergent leadership has been identified by many researchers as an important consideration in several empirical studies within SLA. With the exception of Leeming (2019), these researchers did not set out to investigate emergent leadership but retrospectively identified it as a variable influencing group interaction. Storch conducted research into relationships during interaction (Storch, 2002), and Tuan and Storch (2007) were interested in pre-task planning in small groups and its impact on subsequent presentations. Although not an initial consideration, they found that leaders emerged in groups and heavily influenced the ability of the group to plan successfully. In a context very similar to the current study, Yashima et al. (2016) investigated levels of silence in group discussions in the Japanese university classroom. The researchers also found that leaders who emerged in groups controlled the norms of the group in terms of expected behavior and drove the conversations. Leadership was one of the key factors in the success of these interactions in their study. Although these studies concluded that emergent leadership was an important issue for teachers to be aware of, the teacher's ability to accurately identify the leader in small groups was not considered. Leeming (2019) explored the influence of leadership on engagement in conversation and found that more than proficiency or personality, it was levels of leadership that predicted student participation in group tasks. Generally, the research suggests that, following results in general psychology, emergent leaders in the language classroom have a positive impact on group performance (Chemers, 2001).

The importance of being able to accurately identify students' different roles in groups becomes clear when focussing on practical approaches to teaching languages. McCafferty et al. (2006) discuss cooperative learning in the lan-

guage classroom and argue that roles should be assigned to students who are then trained how to effectively accomplish the role. They also contend that the roles in a group should rotate so that each student can develop a range of skills, inferring that roles can be managed and controlled. Willis and Willis (2007) also discuss the importance of assigning roles when students are engaged in group work as part of tasks and suggest that the role of group leader should be assigned to the most talkative member of the group. Brown and Lee (2015) argue that in smaller classes, deliberate group construction is possible and that a list of factors such as personality and proficiency should be considered when assigning students to groups. Dörnyei and Murphey's (2003) book contains a wealth of practical advice for teachers, with one suggestion regarding leadership being encouraging the emergent leader to work with the teacher at times to indirectly influence other students. These concrete suggestions are useful, particularly for new teachers, but assume that student roles in the classroom are easily identifiable.

Predicting Emergent Leadership

Although the ability of teachers to accurately identify emergent leaders is of importance, there are also individual difference (ID) variables such as proficiency or extroversion that may be used to predict emergent leadership. Such an approach might enable teachers to construct groups based on these variables at the start of a course. Although no studies in SLA have considered factors that may lead to individual students becoming the emergent leader in a given group, research in psychology has investigated factors that influence the emergence of leaders (Forsyth, 2010). A number of studies have attempted to determine which ID variables will predict who emerges as leader. Judge et al. (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of studies using the Big Five Model to predict leader emergence and leader effectiveness. They evaluated 78 studies considering personality and leadership and performed a correlation analysis. The analysis showed that all the dimensions of personality were significantly correlated with emergent leadership but that extroversion has the strongest correlation ($r = .31$), followed by conscientiousness ($r = .28$), neuroticism ($r = .24$), and openness to experience ($r = .24$). Agreeableness, on the other hand, had a weak correlation with leadership ($r = .08$).

Aside from personality, researchers have considered other traits assumed to predict emergent leaders. Judge et al. (2009) completed a review of the literature considering positive and negative ID variables shown to, or theorized to, correlate with leadership. Intelligence and charisma were among

the positive characteristics they mention, while they identified narcissism, hubris, and dominance among the negative traits. Other factors affecting leadership emergence include task-related skills and experience of group members, which in the current study would relate to English proficiency and experience speaking English. Self-efficacy, or the belief in one's own ability to successfully carry out a given task (Bandura, 1997), could also be expected to relate to leadership, as those with high self-efficacy are more likely to actively participate and persist in a task, even when faced with challenges (Mills, 2014). The level of participation within the group, the gender of members, and even physical appearance, have also been shown to relate to emergent leadership (Forsyth, 2010). Many language teachers I have talked to assume that proficient or outgoing students will take on leadership roles, but again there is a lack of empirical evidence to support this intuition.

Research Questions

Within SLA we have no evidence that students emerge as leaders in groups. Some teachers and researchers may believe that emergent leadership is not relevant to the language classroom, as students work together in a spirit of mutual collaboration, but teachers in compulsory educational settings are familiar with both the benefits and problems of group work, such as dominance by a single student and limited participation from other group members. Although much of the literature on practical teaching discusses deliberate group construction based on roles, we have no evidence relating to the teacher's ability to accurately identify leaders and are unaware of ID variables which may predict leadership in the language classroom. There is also a limited understanding of students' views in this area. If practical advice is to be given to teachers relating to group work and how to deal with students as leaders, it is essential that some understanding of the ability of teachers to identify emergent leaders in group work is clearly established within the SLA field. Hence, this study set out to investigate the following research questions:

- RQ1. Do students emerge as leaders in small groups, and if so, to what degree can the teacher accurately identify the emergent leaders?
- RQ2. What individual difference (ID) variables predict emergent leadership in the language classroom?
- RQ3. What are students' views regarding the importance of leadership in the language classroom?

These questions were answered by placing students into small, fixed groups and then asking them to identify the leader in their group. Students' perceptions of leaders were then compared with the teacher's own views on who was the leader. Individual difference variables were measured and used to predict leadership. Finally, students were interviewed to determine their views on students as leaders in small groups. As no studies within SLA have investigated these questions, this study was exploratory in nature and sought to provide initial insights on which to base future research.

Method

Participants

The research described was part of a larger research project investigating group work in the foreign language classroom. The methodology could be described as mixed-methods concurrent triangulation (Creswell, 2009), where both qualitative and quantitative data are gathered, and comparisons are made. The participants in the study were 78 students (55 male and 23 female) in a first-year compulsory English communication course of a science department at a university in Japan. All classes were taught by the researcher. Classes were 90 minutes once a week, and the age range of students was 18 to 22 (77 first year students and one fourth year student). All participants were native speakers of Japanese. Students were grouped into three classes according to major within the department, not English proficiency. The proficiency level was upper beginner with average TOEIC scores of 390 (CEFR A2), although there was a range of proficiencies within each class. English classes were compulsory, and teachers in this context described student motivation as low. Students wanted to pass the class as it was required for graduation, and therefore attendance was regular.

The data described were gathered during the first semester of the academic year (April-July). First-year classes were selected in an attempt to observe group processes involving students who had limited or no opportunity to interact prior to this study. Discussion with students established that the vast majority of students did not know each other at the outset. In order to comply with the ethical requirements of the institution, the research project was briefly introduced to students, who were given the option of withdrawal from the study at any time and assured that their decision would have no bearing on grades. Students were asked to complete 13 questionnaires during the course of the study, and as much as possible, students were given the surveys at the end of class to minimize the disruption of classroom time.

Classes adopted a TBLT approach (Willis & Willis, 2007), and students were required to work together as a group on tasks. Generally, students were attempting to initiate and maintain simple conversations regarding past experiences, future plans, and simple likes and dislikes. Students demonstrated good receptive knowledge of English but struggled to engage in basic conversation, and therefore tasks were kept simple. Use of the L2 was strongly encouraged throughout, although during regular group discussions students were not penalised for using their L1, which has been shown to have benefits for students in this context (Leeming, 2011). Students predominantly used the L2, particularly when speaking in front of the class. The course and approach to teaching were not modified for this study.

Group Assignment

In the first week students were randomly placed into small groups of three or four people and remained in the same group for the 14-week semester. This reflected normal practices as students typically worked in the same group of three or four members throughout a semester. Each group sat at their own circular table, and most tasks were completed in a groups, with limited intergroup interaction. Students were not officially assigned a role within their group. Each 90-minute class followed a task cycle (Willis, 1996), with a focus on engaging group members through a simple conversation.

Procedures

The General Leadership Impression (GLI) was selected to measure perceived leadership within a group by its members. Developed by Cronshaw and Lord (1987), the GLI is a sociometric measure with which students assess other group members' display of leadership. The GLI has been shown to have high internal consistency and reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .88$; Zaccaro et al., 1991). The GLI was adapted for the current study to include explicit references to perceptions of leadership behavior. A final question asking students to make a categorical choice regarding the member of their group they judged to be leader was added to the GLI (see Appendix A). Students could choose anyone in the group and self-select as leader. In addition, there was the option to select no-one, if they felt there was no leader in the group. The GLI was professionally translated into Japanese and was checked by a bilingual researcher familiar with this project. It was piloted with a previous cohort of students ($n = 128$), and no problems were identified. The

questionnaire was administered three times to track potential changes in perceptions of leadership. This study reports on the first two administrations. The first administration was in week five, to provide time for students to assume roles in the group (Forsyth, 2010). The second administration was in week ten. The data was analysed using FACETS to allow meaningful comparison between raters, and the results were presented in logit scores, ranging from negative (low perceived leadership) to positive (high perceived leadership). In order to provide the overlap in ratings needed in FACETS to allow comparison of ratings, students all watched a video of a discussion involving three teachers trained by the author to represent strong, moderate, and weak leadership and provided ratings of leadership. (A description of FACETS is beyond the scope of this paper, and interested readers are directed to Linacre, 2011.) At the same time as the GLI was administered, based on observation of the class, the researcher as teacher selected a single student from each group whom the teacher considered to be the leader. Judgements were based on a list of prototypical behaviors associated with leadership provided by Lord et al., (1984). These behaviors include co-ordinating the group, providing information emphasising goals and deadlines, and talking frequently. The GLI data were not analyzed or viewed until after the second administration of the GLI in week 10. In order to prepare for interviews, the researcher analyzed the results of the first two GLI administrations before the third administration of the GLI and therefore knew the students' perceptions of leadership, and could not repeat the procedure of identifying leaders for the third administration.

Using Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM), ID variables were selected to predict emergent leadership as measured by the GLI. The impact of ID variables on emergent leadership was hypothesized to be mediated by the group. For example, the impact of extroversion for an individual student in a group of highly extroverted students is likely to be reduced, and therefore HLM was used, as it allows for the interaction of individual and group level variables (see Raudenbush and Bryk, 2002, for a detailed description of HLM). Given the n-size of the current study, a maximum of three predictors can be selected for inclusion in the statistical analyses (Field, 2009). Despite its potential importance, gender was not considered as there was a strong imbalance generally, and in Class 1 there was one female and 23 males. As mentioned above, task-related proficiency, and personality have been shown to predict emergent leadership (Forsyth, 2010). English speaking self-efficacy (SE) was hypothesized to predict emergent leadership, as students who are more self-efficacious should be more active in class and

therefore are more likely to be perceived as leaders (Smith & Foti, 1998). Therefore, task-related proficiency (English proficiency), extroversion, and English-speaking self-efficacy were the variables selected.

The ID variables were measured using several questionnaires and tests. Extroversion was measured with the Extrovert/Introvert dimension from the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Gow et al., 2005). English proficiency was measured using an in-house dictation test. Dictation has been shown to be an accurate measure of language proficiency (Cai, 2012; Leeming & Wong, 2016; Oller, 1971). The SE variable was measured using items adapted from the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), originally developed by Pintrich and de Groot (1990) to measure general academic efficacy. All instruments were translated into Japanese and were piloted with a previous cohort. Dictation, extroversion, and self-efficacy measures were initially analyzed using the Rasch Model. This confirmed the reliability of the measures and converted results to logit scores on a true scale (Bond & Fox, 2007).

The first analysis conducted in HLM is the unconditional model, with GLI scores as the dependent variable, and no predictors in the model. This analysis allows us to determine if there is any variance at the group level. If the model is not significant then there is no difference between groups on the dependent variable (GLI), meaning that group differences are not important, and therefore multiple regression analysis can be used. The HLM analysis showed that group level variance was significant for the GLI1 and GLI2, and therefore HLM was used.

HLM analysis was conducted for the GLI1 and GLI2. In order to account for variation in leadership between individuals, postulated individual predictors of leadership were added to the model at level 1. The variables hypothesized to predict leadership at the individual level were self-efficacy (SEi), task-related proficiency (Prof) represented by the scores on the dictation test, and the extroversion dimension of personality (Ext). The level 2 model has no predictors, in order to isolate variance at the individual level before considering group level constructs.

For the next analyses, a two-level model was run. For the GLI1, the level-1 equation had proficiency and extroversion as the two predictors of leadership, with only proficiency as the individual level predictor for the GLI2. It was hypothesized that the effect of individual proficiency was mediated by the level of English proficiency of the group, and therefore the average

English proficiency of the group was added as a level-2 variable. Likewise, individual extroversion was hypothesized to be mediated by the level of extroversion in the group, and therefore average extroversion was added as a level 2 variable for the GLI1. All of the variables were grand mean-centred. The hypothesis for this model is that in groups where general English proficiency is high, the importance of individual level English proficiency will be reduced, and a negative group effect is predicted. Similarly, for extroversion with the GLI1, a negative group effect is predicted.

Students were observed throughout the study using participant observation (Spradley, 1980), and the researcher (as teacher for all classes) made notes after each class, focusing on leadership within groups. The aim of the observation notes was to help identify the leader and note any incidents where leadership seemed to influence group behavior. Taking notes in this manner reflects the situation of practicing teachers, who must engage with students during lessons, and generally do not have the luxury of passive observation.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with a single intact group from each class (three groups in total) at the end of the semester. Groups where clear leaders had been observed by the teacher were selected. Individual interviews were conducted in Japanese, and students were asked to nominate a leader and discuss the role of leaders and the importance of leadership in the language classroom (see Appendix B for interview outline). Interviews were transcribed, and interpretive analysis was adopted for the data (Hatch, 2002). Observation notes were reviewed and compared to the results of the GLI.

Results and Discussion

Teacher Predictions of Leadership

Research Question 1 concerned the ability of the teacher to accurately identify emergent leaders in groups as perceived by students in each group. Weekly observation notes were taken, and at weeks 5 and 10, I noted the student I believed emerged to be the leader for each group. Table 1 shows the results of the GLI representing students' perceptions on the group leader and the teacher selection, with underlined students being those selected by the teacher:

Table 1
General Leadership Impression (GLI) Results

Group	Student No.	GLI1		GLI2	
		Votes	Rating	Votes	Rating
1	8	2	<u>1.16</u>	3	<u>1.55</u>
	9	1	-1.10	1	-0.07
	24		-1.39		-1.34
	3		-2.40		-1.47
2	18	2	<u>2.02</u>	2	<u>2.17</u>
	13	2	<u>1.05</u>	2	1.76
	12		0.48		<u>0.97</u>
	5		-0.29		-0.92
3	20	3	<u>1.43</u>	2	<u>0.95</u>
	22		0.53	2	-0.36
	21		<u>0.42</u>		<u>-0.29</u>
	15	1	-0.38		-0.38
4	1	1	<u>3.49</u>	1	<u>2.16</u>
	16		2.93		3.12
	10		2.36		2.96
	2	3	1.06	3	<u>3.93</u>
5	19	2	<u>1.13</u>	2	<u>0.90</u>
	6	1	0.64	1	0.48
	4		-0.08		0.04
	17		-0.42		-0.49
6	7	3	<u>1.47</u>	4	<u>1.28</u>
	14	1	-0.57		-0.38
	11		-1.37		-0.20
	23		-1.54		-1.69

Group	Student No.	GLI1		GLI2	
		Votes	Rating	Votes	Rating
7	47	2	2.14	1	2.26
	44	1	2.03	2	2.45
	31		1.07		0.40
8	28		0.56	1	0.29
	50		-0.47	1	0.08
	41		-0.79		-2.31
	29		-0.91		-1.03
9	42	4	2.52	3	2.48
	43		0.50		0.34
	38		0.33	1	-0.30
	45		-1.71		-3.14
10	37	3	0.91	1	-0.01
	39		0.80	1	0.24
	46	1	0.07	1	-0.74
	27		-1.40	1	-1.96
11	34	2	1.58	3	-0.76
	33	1	0.44		-0.70
	49	1	0.17	1	-0.29
	51		-1.58		-1.71
12	26	3	0.76	3	0.69
	32		-0.39	1	-0.14
	25		-1.00		-1.53
	35	1	-1.66		-2.91
13	48	3	1.26	2	1.04
	30		-0.17		-0.06
	36	1	-0.69	2	1.47
	40		-1.93		-0.93

Group	Student No.	GLI1		GLI2	
		Votes	Rating	Votes	Rating
14	66	2	1.35	1	0.73
	64	2	0.40	3	1.11
	61		-0.16		-0.20
	71		-1.09		-1.12
15	62	2	0.18	3	1.33
	63		0.16		0.42
	54	1	0.08	1	0.93
	52	1	0.05		0.09
16	72	3	0.81	2	1.23
	60		-0.97		-0.65
	68		-1.06		-1.32
	58	1	-1.20	2	-0.14
17	67	2	0.35	2	1.79
	59	1	0.17	1	0.01
	69		-0.04		-0.27
18	65	3	2.70	3	3.00
	74		0.77		1.46
	75		0.46	1	1.43
	76	1	-0.07		-1.25
19	70	2	1.20	4	0.82
	57	2	-0.03		0.15
	78		-1.56		-1.81
	53		-3.20		-3.02
20	55	1	2.19	1	1.70
	56	2	1.39	1	0.08
	77		0.25	1	0.81
	73	1	-0.67	1	-0.23

Note. Grey indicates highest score for leadership within a group; Underline represents the teacher's choice for group leader.

No underline for a group indicates the teacher could not identify a leader for that group. The grey indicates the student with the highest perceived leadership by group members based on the GLI. The Votes section represents the categorical question asking who the leader was in each group. Students were able to self-select, but close examination of the data showed that students were reluctant to explicitly name themselves as leader. Interviews also showed that students refrained from naming themselves as the leader of the group, and therefore a degree of humility or social obligation might have played a role in the dispersion of categorical votes. A degree of caution should be therefore used when interpreting the results.

In answer to Research Question 1, the results of the GLI show that clear leaders emerged in a majority of the groups. Only one group (Group 8) had all four members select the option of "no leader" for the categorical question. The votes generally supported the results of the GLI. Leadership seemed to be relatively stable over the course of the semester, with 15 of the 20 groups maintaining the same leader over the two administrations of the GLI. These results support Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998) and Dörnyei and Murphey (2003), who assert that emergent leaders exist and play an important role in the language classroom.

In terms of accuracy of teacher perceptions, in the fifth week the researcher's perceptions of leader matched with the students in 35% of cases. Five weeks later, in the tenth week, the overlap between student perceptions and teacher perceptions of leadership increased to 65%, suggesting that the ability to identify perceived leaders can increase with an increased familiarity of the students. Overall, my perceptions of leader agreed with the students in exactly 50% of the cases. Group 19 is of particular interest, as my classroom observation notes indicated I was confident that I had identified the leader and maintained this confidence throughout the semester. The GLI and voting shows that I was wrong, and informal discussions with members of this group confirmed the leader as suggested by the GLI. Members stated that he was a quiet leader, who spoke infrequently but made crucial contributions and decisions. I had selected a more outgoing member of the group, who seemed to dominate group interactions. Although beyond the scope of this paper, research in psychology has shown that leaders can vary greatly in their leadership styles (Forsyth, 2010), and the current result suggests active oral engagement may not be an effective way to identify a leader in a group.

As stated previously, much of the literature discussing the appropriate pedagogical approach to group work is founded on the assumption that teachers are able to accurately identify the different emergent roles of students within groups (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; McCafferty et al., 2006; Willis & Willis, 2007) and that teachers therefore can assign students to groups to achieve balance or use emergent leaders to positively influence other students. At the time of the study, I had taught at the university for one year and in Japan for more than 10 years, and was also proficient in the students' first language. Despite my experience, and extensive reading of leadership research in general psychology, I was only able to achieve 50% success in identifying leaders. Throughout the course I was looking for signs of leadership based on teaching experience and research conducted in general psychology (Lord et al., 1984) and made notes after each class. When considering the average teacher with less grounding in leadership research and using intuition to identify the leaders in a classroom, the results of this study suggest that researchers may be overconfident in their assumption that emergent leadership is easily recognizable to teachers. Strong leaders were generally readily identified, but more subtle displays of leadership were difficult for the teacher to notice.

Overall, with regards to Research Question 1, it becomes clear that leaders emerge in most groups in a TBLT language classroom and that teachers have moderate success identifying students perceived as leaders by their group members. This ability to identify leaders seems to increase with familiarity with students. However, the teacher's judgement of leader may well differ from that of the group, and therefore caution is advised for teachers when constructing groups or assigning roles based on their own perceptions of students.

Predicting Leadership in Groups

Research Question 2 was interested in IDs that may predict emergent leadership. The descriptive statistics for the variables are shown in Appendix C. The results of the HLM analysis for GLI1 and GLI2 are shown in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. The results from Table 2 show that both proficiency and extroversion had a significant effect on the outcome of leadership as represented by GLI1. Table 3 shows that for the GLI2 (week 10) English proficiency was the only significant individual level predictor of leadership.

Table 2*Estimation of Significant Effects of Individual Differences on GLI1*

Fixed effect	Coefficient	SE	t-ratio	df	p
SEi on GLI1, γ_{10}	.06	.06	1.11	55	.27
Prof on GLI1, γ_{20}	.25	.10	2.46	55	.02
Ext on GLI1, γ_{30}	.18	.07	2.56	55	.01

Note. SEi = Self-efficacy; Prof = Proficiency measured by dictation; EXT = Extroversion; GLI = General Leadership Impression. χ^2 for the model was 70.80 ($p < .01$)

Table 3*Estimation of Significant Effects of Individual Differences on the GLI2*

Fixed effect	Coefficient	SE	t-ratio	df	p
SEi on GLI2, γ_{10}	.09	.06	1.41	55	.15
Prof on GLI2, γ_{20}	.25	.11	2.26	55	.03
Ext on GLI2, γ_{30}	.11	.11	1.00	55	.35

Note. SEi = Self-efficacy; Prof = Proficiency as measured by dictation; EXT = Extroversion; GLI = General Leadership Impression. χ^2 for the model was 60.82 ($p < .01$)

Overall χ^2 for the model for GLI1 was 60.32 ($p < .01$). Overall χ^2 for the model for GLI2 was 60.82 ($p < .01$). Although a significant group level variance was found, the analyses showed that group-level predictors were not significant and had no interaction with level-1 variables. This means the group-level factors influencing who becomes leader were present in the data, but the variance in the data was not explained by this model.

In answer to Research Question 2, English Proficiency was the only consistent predictor of perceived leadership and only accounted for a small amount of the variance. The findings for the second research question may surprise some teachers, who assume that proficient, confident, and outgoing students will take on the leadership role in a group. The results suggest that although language proficiency has some predictive power, it is limited and that the complex interactions of IDs and group context may affect its predictive power. The implication for teachers is that proficiency has a limited capacity, as measured by an established test or a dictation administered in class, to predict who will be the leader in a given group.

Student Views on Emergent Leadership

Research Question 3 aimed to determine the views of students regarding emergent leadership in small groups in the language classroom. One group of students from each class was selected and interviewed (Groups 4, 9, 16). Students corroborated the results of the GLI regarding who had been the leader in each group. They believed that leadership was important to the success of a group, that they had been influenced by the leader in their group, and that both personality and English proficiency were important in determining who would be the leader. Each of these points will be discussed.

Students generally considered leadership to be important to the eventual success of a group and for language learning. Yuma from Group 4 explained that “The leader basically brings all of the members together and unites everyone.” The phrase in Japanese used by several students was “*matomeru*” which can be translated as coordinate or bring something to a successful conclusion. Groups felt that without a leader this became far more difficult. As mentioned previously, only one group claimed to have no leader (Group 8). They were observed struggling to maintain conversations and tended to have long silences when interacting with one another. Group 8 had no leader to bring the students together or to demonstrate the kind of behaviors that would result in successful interaction in English. Students were united in feeling that a strong leader helped the group, again supporting the claims of Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998) and Dörnyei and Murphey (2003).

Students also believed that the leaders in the group had influenced their behavior. Often this was from modeling the desired behaviour. Leaders had initiated conversation, controlled the interactions, and been responsible for the level of conversation that the group was able to achieve. Yukiko (Group 9) claimed that Shuya was a very strong leader in her group. According to her, “Shuya became the central figure and led us. All we had to do was follow, and everything went well. He was a huge influence.” Shuya had been readily identified as leader in my observation notes, described as the strongest leader in the class, and he was dominant in most interactions in the group. Yukiko felt that this was a very positive thing that had led to the success of the group. Students in Group 16 referred to Shohei as the leader, but in far weaker terms, and claimed that he had initiated and tried to maintain conversation but that his relatively low English speaking proficiency held him back in his role. The two female members of the group referred to him as being “like” a leader or “the most like a leader” in his behaviour. They claimed that he had influenced them and that they had tried to imitate his behaviour, by actively asking questions and being involved in conversation.

Generally, students believed that the leader of the group had a direct impact on their own behavior in the classroom.

In terms of factors that predict who the leader will be in a given group, students felt that personality and English proficiency were important. Risa in Group 16 stated that because she could not speak English, she could not be the leader. Taka from Group 9 felt that it was a combination of personality and proficiency, saying that "It is not just about English proficiency. It is also about personality. Personality is actually the most important thing." Students generally seemed to express the idea that being a leader involved a combination of personality and proficiency and that being proficient in English or being very extroverted alone would not lead to a leadership role.

In summary, the results for Research Question 3 suggest that students consider leadership within small groups to be of importance within the language classroom. Leaders bring the group together and influence other members by modeling behavior. Contrary to the findings of the second research question, students believed that personality was the overriding factor in determining who would become the leader in a given group.

Conclusion

Despite teacher educators strongly advocating group work (Brown & Lee, 2015; Harmer, 2010) and a general acceptance of the importance of student leadership in groups (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003), this study is the first in the field of SLA to focus on teachers' ability to identify students perceived as emergent leaders in their own classroom. The results show that generally leaders emerge in small groups in the language classroom, and therefore group leadership must be considered by both teachers and researchers. Much of the pedagogic advice for teachers regarding how to deal with emergent leadership is founded on their ability to identify students who adopt this role, and yet results also highlight the lack of precision in identifying leaders by the teacher, with only limited success in identifying emergent leaders within small groups. This means teachers need to be cautious when using intuition to identify different student roles in the classroom. Teacher educators should reconsider their advice to teachers, as much of it is founded on the assumption that teachers can identify the leader of a group (Brown & Lee, 2015; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; McCafferty et al., 2006; Willis & Willis, 2007).

The pedagogical implications of this research are far reaching. Many researchers recommend the deliberate construction of groups, and teachers may construct groups to achieve a balance, assigning students they perceive

to be leaders to different groups or attempting to create groups balanced in leadership. Project-based learning is increasingly popular in language learning (see Mills, 2009), requiring students to work in the same group for sustained periods, and if teachers construct groups based on their understanding of who the leaders are in the class, this approach may have limitations. If teachers are unable to accurately identify the leaders in groups, then the most effective approach is to change groups on a regular basis in order to allow the students different learning experiences and to minimize the differential impact of leadership within groups.

If teachers have a limited ability to accurately identify emergent leaders as perceived by students, then it becomes of increasing importance to establish ID variables which can be used to predict leadership. Teachers may assume that students who are more proficient or more extroverted will assume the role of leader, but in the current study ID variables were of limited use in predicting who would emerge as leader within a particular group. Task-related ability, which in this case was English proficiency, was consistently significant but only accounted for a small amount of variance in the model. Extroversion, although initially significant, lost influence over time, and self-efficacy was found to be unrelated to leadership in this context. Most practicing teachers assume that students who are confident and proficient in English will become leaders in the group, but the results suggest that emergent leadership is a far more complex variable. Teachers can use proficiency to aid in identifying potential leaders but be aware of the limitations of this approach.

Interviews with students revealed that they consider leaders to be integral to the success of the group. Many students admitted to being influenced by the leader and attempting to copy the behavior of the leader. This supports the claims by Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) that leaders are central to the success of a group and again suggests that rotating group membership is the fairest approach. Students felt that both personality and English proficiency interacted in determining who became the leader in each group.

Perhaps the most important limitation in the current study was the dual roles of researcher and teacher adopted by the author. Although this provided access to the students and allowed participatory observation, it may have influenced students' behavior and their responses for interviews and questionnaires. Administration of various questionnaires, including measures of personality and the GLI, may also have impacted on students' views regarding leadership, influencing the outcome. In particular, the GLI may have heightened student awareness of leadership. Due to the explora-

tory nature of this research, the data focused on only one teacher's ability to identify emergent leaders as perceived by the students within each group, and was therefore limited in scope, and dependent on the criteria used to identify leaders within groups. Future studies should use a larger number of teachers to add weight to the findings. Furthermore, different styles and kinds of leadership (Forsyth, 2010) were not considered, and future research should investigate the impact of different leadership approaches and styles on language learning. Research also needs to clearly show how leadership impacts student task engagement and language learning. Finally, due to the exploratory nature of the current study, the relatively small number of participants for the statistical analyses employed means that quantitative data should be interpreted with caution.

Emergent leadership has the potential to influence the ways that students interact in groups and holds sway over the effectiveness of group work and project work in the language classroom. As one of the central themes in group dynamics research in psychology, it is time that researchers and teachers in the language classroom began to consider leadership and its potential impact on language learning in groups. Future studies should seek to determine the impact that emergent leadership may have on the interaction and overall performance of groups.

Paul Leeming has taught in Japan for more than twenty years. He has published widely in a number of international journals.

References

- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. W.H. Freeman.
- Bond, T. G., & Fox, C. M. (2007). *Applying the Rasch model: Fundamental measurement in the human sciences* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Brown, H. D., & Lee, H. (2015). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (4th ed.). Pearson.
- Cai, H. (2012). Partial dictation as a measure of EFL listening proficiency: Evidence from confirmatory factor analysis. *Language Testing* 30(2), 177–199. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0265532212456833>
- Chemers, M. M. (2001). Leadership effectiveness: An integrative review. In M. Hogg & R. S. Tindale (Eds.), *Blackwell handbook of social psychology: Group processes* (pp. 376–399). Blackwell.

- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage Publications.
- Cronshaw, S. F., & Lord, R. G. (1987). Effects of categorization, attribution, and encoding processes on leadership perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*(1), 97–106. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.72.1.97>
- Dörnyei, Z., & Murphey, T. (2003). *Group dynamics in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.
- Ehrman, M. E., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). *Interpersonal dynamics in second language education: the visible and invisible classroom*. Sage Publications.
- Field, A. P. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. Sage Publications.
- Forsyth, D. R. (2010). *Group dynamics*. Cengage Learning.
- Gow, A., Whiteman, M., Pattie, A., & Deary, I. (2005). Goldberg's 'IPIP' big-five factor markers: Internal consistency and concurrent validation in Scotland. *Personality and Individual Differences, 39*(2), 317–329. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2005.01.011>
- Harmer, J. (2010). *The practice of English language teaching* (4th ed.). Longman.
- Hatch, J. A. (2002). *Doing qualitative research in education settings*. SUNY Press.
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(4), 765–779. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.765>.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Kosalka, T. (2009). The bright and dark sides of leader traits: A review and theoretical extension of the leader trait paradigm. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*(6), 855–875. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.09.004>
- Lantolf, J. P. (2006). Sociocultural theory and L2: State of the art. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(01), 67–109. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263106060037>
- Leeming, P. (2011). Japanese high school students' use of the L1 during pair-work. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 21*(3), 360–382. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2011.00284.x>
- Leeming, P. (2014). Group formation and longevity in the foreign language classroom: students' views. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 11*(3), 105–132
- Leeming, P. (2019). Emergent leadership and group interaction in the task-based language classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 53*(3), 768–793. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.506>

- Leeming P., & Wong, A. (2016). Using dictation to measure language proficiency: A Rasch analysis. *Papers in Language Testing and Assessment*, 5(2), 1–25. http://dx.doi.org/10.5746/LEiA/14/V5/11/A13/Wong_Leeming
- Linacre, J. M. (2011). *A user's guide to FACETS: Rasch-model computer program*. MESA Press.
- Lord, R., Foti, R. J., & De Vader, C. L. (1984). A test of leadership categorization theory: Internal structure, information processing, and leadership perceptions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34(3), 343–378. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(84\)90043-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(84)90043-6)
- McCafferty, S. G., Jacobs, G. M., & DaSilva Iddings, A. C. (2006). *Cooperative learning and second language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Mills, N. (2009). A Guide du Routard simulation: Increasing self-efficacy in the standards through project-based learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(4), 607–639. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2009.01046.x>
- Mills, N. (2014). Self-efficacy in second language acquisition. In S. Mercer & M. Williams (Eds.), *Multiple perspectives on the self in SLA* (pp. 6–19). Multilingual Matters.
- Northouse, P. G. (2009). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Sage Publications.
- Oller, J. (1971). Dictation as a device for testing foreign-language proficiency. *ELT Journal*, 25(3), 254–259. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/XXV.3.254>
- Pintrich, P. R., & de Groot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(1), 33–40. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.82.1.33>
- Philp, J., Adams, R., & Iwashita, N. (2013). *Peer interaction and second language learning*. Routledge.
- Raudenbush, S. W., & Bryk, A. S. (2002). *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods*. Sage Publications.
- Spradley, J. P. (1980). *Participant observation*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Smith, J. & Foti, R. (1998). A pattern approach to the study of leader emergence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 9(2), 147–160. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(98\)90002-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(98)90002-9)
- Storch, N. (2002). Patterns of interaction in ESL pair work. *Language Learning*, 52(1), 119–158. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00179>
- Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: theory and research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.) *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471–483). Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Taggar, S., Hackew, R., & Saha, S. (1999). Leadership emergence in autonomous work teams: Antecedents and outcomes. *Personnel Psychology*, 52(4), 899–926. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1999.tb00184.x>
- Tuan, T. A., & Storch, N. (2007). Investigating group planning in preparation for oral presentations in an EFL class in Vietnam. *RELC Journal*, 38(1), 104–124. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688206076162>
- Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. Longman.
- Willis, D., & Willis, J. (2007). *Doing task-based teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- Yashima, T., Ikeda, M., & Nakahira, S., (2016). Talk and silence in an EFL classroom: Interplay of learners and context. In J. King, (Ed.) *The dynamic interplay between context and the learner* (pp. 104–126). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Zaccaro, S. J., Foti, R. J., & Kenny, D. A. (1991). Self-monitoring and trait-based variance in leadership: An investigation of leader flexibility across multiple group situations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(2), 308–315. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.76.2.308>

Appendix A

General Leadership Impression (GLI)

Consider each member of your group individually. To what extent do you agree with the following statements? Rate from 1 (completely disagree) to 4 (completely agree).

1. This person exhibited leadership.
2. I would choose this person as a formal leader.
3. This person was a typical leader.
4. This person engaged in leadership behavior.
5. This person fits my image of a leader.
6. This person coordinated group behavior.
7. This person assigned tasks to members.
8. This person made sure that the group was working effectively.
9. This person created a positive working atmosphere.
10. This person listened to all members of the group.

Categorical question:

If you were to choose a leader of your group, who would you select?

Student A/B/C Myself No leader

Appendix B

Interview outline

1. Background information. English study to date. Group work to date. Positive/negative experiences. Typical leader.
2. Describe the other members of group. Relationship outside of class/prior relationship.
3. Results of GLI-Check and talk about each group member.
4. Why did you choose X as leader? How did they become leader? Were they a good/bad leader? Did they influence you? How?

Appendix C

Descriptive Statistics for Variables

	GLI 1	GLI 2	Extro- version	Proficiency	Self-efficacy
M	.29	.27	-.40	1.55	-2.75
SE	.14	.15	.15	.13	.30
95% CI	[.02, .56]	[-.02, .56]	[-.69, -.11]	[1.30, 1.80]	[-3.35, -2.16]
SD	1.22	1.28	1.28	1.13	2.64
Skewness	.12	-.01	.32	1.12	.05
SES	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27
Kurtosis	.08	.13	-.41	5.20	.32
SEK	.54	.54	.54	.53	.54

Note. GLI 1 = General Leadership Impression 1; GLI 2 = General Leadership Impression 2

Reviews

***Technology and the Psychology of Second Language Learners and Users.* Mark R. Freiermuth and Nourollah Zarrinabadi (Eds.). Palgrave Macmillan, 2020. iv + 620 pp. e-book <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-34212-8>**

Reviewed by
Richard Bailey
Tokai University

As part of Palgrave Macmillan's *New Language Learning and Teaching Environments* series focused on the impact of technology on language education, this edited volume is a thought-provoking look into the connections between technology, second language teaching, and learner psychology. By grouping the 21 IMRD-formatted chapters into five psychology-related educational themes, and covering a broad range of cultures and languages, editors Mark R. Freiermuth and Nourollah Zarrinabadi weave the contributors' results, insights, successes, and failures into a larger framework. This review will focus on some of the book's key highlights that will help language educators better understand the possibilities and challenges they may face in their own pedagogical efforts, especially in light of the increase in online teaching due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Freiermuth begins Part 1 by introducing and extensively examining the convergence of technology, psychology, and second language learning and use. While recognizing the history of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) and the increasing roles of mobile devices and games, Freiermuth perhaps most importantly suggests that language learner psychology and individual student differences are the places to start to understand the interplay between technology, psychology, and second language learning. These individual differences are grouped into the categories of *fixed assets*, *semi-fixed assets*, and *ephemeral assets*, and Freiermuth provides aptitude, learning style, and strategies as examples, respectively. A list of authors and their contributions organized by categories of interest concludes this section.

In Part 2, “Processing and Pragmatics”, Karina Collentine leads off with a study on the effects of an input-based virtual environment on student acquisition of contextually appropriate requests, defining pragmatic competence as “the use of the second language (L2) in socially and culturally appropriate ways” (p. 35). A study by Saad Alzahrani and Leah Roberts focuses on the connection between vocabulary acquisition and three interactive multimedia CALL systems: a verbal-based menu-driven interface, a visual-based graphical user interface, and a spatial-based zoomable user interface. As the COVID-19 pandemic has forced educators to adopt new ways of online teaching, Peter Yang’s study on the effects of YouTube video captions and subtitles with higher-level German language learners will be of key interest to those creating asynchronous video content for their students. Specifically, Yang examined how students viewed the use of L2 videos with (a) no subtitling or captioning, (b) L1 subtitling, (c) L2 captioning, and (d) L2 annotated captioning (i.e., L1 translations of new words). While there were individual variations in reactions to the different video formats, a majority of the subjects reported that the two types of captioned videos were more helpful for their L2 learning.

The dramatic and sudden change to online teaching has also required a greater reliance on Internet-based assessment. In Part III, “Emotional and Behavioral Constructs”, Brett Milliner and Blair Barr provide valuable insight into Japanese university EFL learner preferences for computer-assisted language testing (CALT) as compared to paper-based methods and how the instant feedback provided by CALT influenced student behavior. The results listed convenience, speed, and ease as the top reasons for this preference. Interestingly, in terms of disadvantages, student concerns were not based on actual CALT activities, but on technological problems, such as internet connectivity and battery life. When asked how they reacted to CALT instant feedback, reviewing and checking answers were the two most popular comments. The authors suggest that to better support student learning, steps such as clearer explanations of the purpose of CALT-based tasks and more learner training on a regular basis should be implemented. This section also includes a chapter by Işıl Günseli Kaçar on collaborative blogging with pre-service teachers’ perceived autonomy, and two on how flipped teaching environments affect EFL university students by Quyen Thi Thanh Tran and Loi Van Nguyen (Chapter 7) and Hsin-chou Huang (Chapter 8). The impact on student engagement and learner autonomy or responsibility, respectively, will be of interest to instructors both faced with technological options or a lack of them in their current delivery mode.

Transitioning to language learner identity in Part 4, Liudmila Klimanova examines how Russian language students used *vkontakte*, a Russian version of Facebook, to interact with native Russian speakers. Students had extremely different self-perceptions, both positive and negative, of their online identities based on their goals and backgrounds. These identities dramatically affected their engagement with other *vkontakte* users and how they interpreted the communication that occurred, providing a valuable example of the individual differences mentioned earlier by Freiermuth. This section also contains four other interesting studies on learner identity and self-concept in relation to an online chat environment, different roles as YouTubers, the use of the Telegram chat app, and multilingual computer science education.

In Part 5, Jako Olivier's study of student attitudes and perceptions at a South African university reveals the stark realities of technological inequalities. Students quoted on their access or lack thereof to computers and the Internet at primary and secondary levels and the effects on their university experiences highlight the structural inequity which can impact upon individual language learner opportunities. For many educators now teaching online in WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic) contexts, this is extremely important to keep in mind when working with students who may be participating from other countries, locations, or backgrounds. Chapters on participation in blogging, intrapersonal and interpersonal experiences with a text-to-speech system, and AI technology for EAP speaking skills are also included in this section entitled "Attitudes and Perceptions."

In looking at motivation and willingness to communicate in Part 6, Pinelopi Krystalli, Panagiotis Panagiotidis, and Panagiotis Arvanitis use their examination of learner autonomy and self-assessment to propose criteria for the instructional design of online activities. Examples of their proposed autonomy and self-assessment criteria include the definition of the communicative language learning objective and immediate formative feedback/correct answer/explanation in case of error, respectively. A follow-up survey asked language learners to rank the importance of each criteria in regards to choosing and completing an online activity. From the results, the authors offer a ranked list of six key criteria for autonomy and nine for self-assessment which can be found in Table 22.3 on page 587, a valuable resource for those struggling to maintain or improve student motivation during the COVID-19 pandemic. Other studies in this part focus on goals, mindsets, engagement in digital storytelling, and even disruptions in electronic chat.

In the Concluding Remarks, Zarrinabadi and Freiermuth review and discuss the interaction between the three main elements introduced in this volume, the language learners themselves, the psychological side of the learners, and the technology for language education, and consider what the future may bring. They propose a fourth element: the language teacher who must “examine which technologies will have the most positive psychological benefits for learners” (p. 603). This may be, in fact, the most important concept that readers of this collection of studies should take with them: that the technologies presented in this volume are only tools, and it is the teacher’s responsibility to carefully consider how and when to use them based on student differences and educational contexts.

***The Emotional Rollercoaster of Language Teaching.* Christina Gkonou, Jean-Marc Dewaele, and Jim King (Eds.). Multilingual Matters, 2020. xi + 320 pp. <https://doi.org/10.21832/GKONOU8335>**

Reviewed by
Anna Belobrovny
Rikkyo University

This edited publication suggests a turn of the spotlight on current language teaching research from the learner to the educator by introducing one area in the field that has been overlooked: language teacher emotions. The emotional factor has received a relatively minor amount of attention in the literature due to a broad range of definitions, a complexity of the measurements, and its high context dependency (Agudo, 2018). This volume is particularly valuable and timely due to a currently unsettled teaching environment. Global changes that have occurred in the year 2020 have stirred a range of emotions and have forced many educators to promptly readjust to an emergency remote teaching context.

In this collection, the editors aim to raise awareness of the emotional rollercoaster in the teaching profession, and to enhance further research in this area by exposing the reader to the diverse voices of researchers in terms of contexts, objectives, and methods. Accompanied by post-reading tasks, the format of this publication stimulates the reader to critically reflect and draw necessary conclusions that can potentially serve professional development

goals. In this way, *The Emotional Rollercoaster of Language Teaching* appeals to a broader audience of researchers, language teachers, teacher educators, administrators, and undergraduate or postgraduate students. The volume features 14 chapters introducing specific contexts that are written by researchers with diverse backgrounds, and two general chapters—introductory and concluding—composed by the editors Christina Gkonou, Jean-Marc Dewaele, and Jim King.

The introductory chapter examines existing research on the emotional aspects of teaching languages, the connections between student and teacher emotions, and emotions generated in moments of educational reform and change. In this chapter, the editors set the expectations for the following empirical chapters and propose a shift to a pragmatic approach by highlighting the necessity to focus on the consequences and applications of the emotional experiences in teaching and not solely their definitions. On the same note, the editors seek to avoid narrow, clear cut definitions of emotions and shift to broader, more fully inclusive terms. The editors emphasize their general intent to bring together insights on the dynamism and diversity in various firsthand experiences of emotions directly from a range of teaching contexts, with reflections on implications for classroom practices (p. 47).

Thematically, the range of studies in the volume can be divided into three parts. The first part (Chapters 3 by Kris Acheson and Robert Nelson, 4 by Sarah Benesch, 8 by Christina Gkonou and Elizabeth R. Miller, 9 by Simon Humphries, and 12 by Peter De Costa, Wendy Li, and Hima Rawal) features studies related to teacher emotions. These first two chapters of this part outline the emotional labor-related issues of foreign language teachers in the public high school system (Chapter 3) and tertiary education (Chapter 4) in the United States. In both chapters, administrators and teacher trainers will find food for thought regarding the amount and type of support that should be provided in order to shift the emotions of language teachers into a more pleasant direction, for example contextual factors and their influence on emotional labor and alternatives to emotionally charged corrective feedback.

Chapter 8 features the emotional experiences of 13 English teachers in tertiary education programs in the United States and United Kingdom. It is a collection of critical incidents with discourse that includes verbal and possibly other evidence of emotions experienced by educators in their classrooms and in crucial events during their professional development histories. Pre-service educators among *JALT Journal* readers may find this chapter particularly motivating as the events revealed teachers' journeys with

turning points from the emotionally challenging to emotionally rewarding. Chapter 9 adds to the collection by presenting a case study of the emotional labor and burnout of a tertiary educator as a result of curriculum changes at a Japanese engineering college. The chapter draws attention (particularly of teacher-researchers) to the therapeutic effect of the actual research process for both the researcher and the participants. It also encourages professionals to create self-reflective opportunities while facing emotional challenges in their respective teaching environments. Chapter 12 displays the process of adaptation to a sudden shift in the language of instruction in Nepalese public schools. Similar to the other chapters in this thematic group, the researchers look at variables (e.g., English-medium instruction, teacher agency, emotional burnout) that influence teachers' emotional labour at the societal, school, and community levels. The chapter will likely appeal to teacher trainers who wish to incorporate elements of affective training such as mentoring and sufficient guidance to better equip educators for the future emotional challenges in their teaching careers.

The second thematic strand (Chapters 2 by Anita Lammerer, 5 by Emily Edwards and Anne Burns, 6 by Achilleas Kostoulas and Anita Lammerer, 7 by Joseph Falout, 10 by Maiko Ikeda, Osamu Takeuchi, and Hiroyuki Imai, 14 by Rebecca Oxford, and 15 by Jean-Marc Dewaele) provides insights into cognitive psychological factors related to teacher emotions. In Chapter 2, the author attempts to apply the concept of subjective well-being to assess the experiences of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) teachers in Austria. The research highlights the importance of teacher autonomy and well-being in CLIL, and would be of interest to administrators and education policymakers in institutions considering the adoption of this approach.

Chapter 5 is an action research study built on the metaphor of Pandora's box to introduce the complexity of emotional journeys of both in-service novice teachers and more experienced English language teachers. The study proposes an extension of alternative emotional angles to the existing sociocultural metaphor-based analysis of teacher identity. The authors contemplate a switch in teacher and researcher roles to serve as a positive tool for the elevation of emotional conditions in the language classroom context. Chapter 6 presents the resilient adaptations by pre-service language teachers in their first practicum. The study illustrates the concept as a motivational source consisting of the intrinsic inner strengths of inexperienced educators and the negative emotions as triggers for psychological growth and continuous professional development. Further psychological factors covered in the volume include: past L2 selves, emotions, and classroom group dynamics

(Chapter 7); the anxiety of Japanese elementary school English teachers in a training intervention program (Chapter 10); the emotional well-being of language teachers (Chapter 14); and EFL/ESL teachers' motivation and emotional intelligence (Chapter 15).

The third thematic group (Chapters 11 by Sam Morris and Jim King and 13 by Tammy Gregensen, Peter D. Malcntyre, and Nicole Macmillan) features strategy and intervention studies on teacher emotional regulation, which primarily detail the emotional regulation behaviors of experienced EFL teachers in Japan (Chapter 11) as well as the stressors of language teachers and the function of interventions through positive psychology such as "finding silver linings" (Chapter 13, p. 228).

The volume accurately displays the dynamism and complexity of language teacher emotions by introducing a diverse range of new trends and concepts across cultural contexts including Australia, the U.S., Japan, Nepal, and West Africa, and in a wide range of educational settings. In particular, this book will assist pre-service teachers in finding answers to multiple concerns related to the stress-loaded teaching profession (Hiver & Dörnyei, 2015), and minimize their anxiety by doing so. In this way, this collection can be treated as a manual for language and general educators on navigating the negative emotions and challenges on their complex professional journeys. On the other hand, the multilayered discussion on emotional regulation strategies throughout the volume not only provides practical ideas on emotional control and the maintenance of a positive professional attitude, but also encourages future research on the themes covered in the volume.

References

- Agudo, M, JdD. (2018). *Emotions in second language teaching: Theory, research and teacher education*. Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-75438-3>
- Hiver, P., & Dörnyei, Z. (2015). Language teacher immunity: A double-edged sword. *Applied Linguistics*, 38(3), 405–423. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amv034>

***The Action-oriented Approach: A Dynamic Vision of Language Education.* Enrica Piccardo and Brian North. Multilingual Matters, 2019. vi + 338 pp. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788924351>**

Reviewed by

Marcos Benevides

J. F. Oberlin University

This book, by two leading contributors to the Common European Framework (CEFR), positions the Action-oriented Approach (AoA) as a “practice in search of a theory” (p. 2) that has grown in the wake of the CEFR over the past two decades, particularly among teachers of languages other than English. However, the existence of the approach may come as some surprise to English language teachers and researchers.

As argued by the authors, the AoA is deeply rooted in the notion of dynamic *action* in social contexts. The approach views learners primarily as *social agents* who use language to accomplish tasks that are not exclusively language related. In other words, “the learner acts and accomplishes tasks in order to learn; he or she does not learn in order to accomplish tasks” (p. 139), a position which is strongly aligned with a socio-constructivist perspective and the communicative approach—in particular with the task-based language teaching (TBLT) approach. However, in the authors’ estimation, AoA both encompasses and goes beyond such earlier innovations in language education.

Chapter 1 presents the emergence of the AoA from its first explicit mention in the CEFR itself (Council of Europe, 2000, p. 9), to its place within our evolving understanding of language education as a movement toward complexity, socialisation, and change. The authors argue that the AoA represents a new, coherent, and important view that situates language learning within “dynamic sociological landscapes” (p. 10) brought about by globalisation. The AoA thus tries to establish this dynamism in the classroom by providing “real-life tasks” (p. 21) that provide a unifying frame in which actions can make sense and have purpose. It is in this way that we may think of AoA tasks as conceptually different than TBLT tasks. That is, in AoA tasks are seen as authentic by definition, rather than as pedagogical approximations of “target tasks” that sometimes merely bear “a relationship” to the real world as they do in TBLT (Long, 2015, p. 109).

In Chapter 2, Piccardo and North continue to build a case for the AoA by exploring notions of competence. They persuasively argue that the complex, contextualised, collaborative—and ultimately, dynamic—nature of communication can best be accommodated in a new paradigm for language education. This argument is driven home in Chapter 3 with an outline of the theoretical underpinnings of the approach. Some of the information in this chapter, for example the review of behaviourist to cognitive to meaning-focused pedagogies, will be familiar to most *JALT Journal* readers; however, the argument extended from social constructivism to agency, action, and affordances, which ends with a case for a “complex, ecological perspective” (p. 107) for language learning, is innovative and bold. The chapter is highly theoretical and, at this point in the book, practical-minded readers may well be asking how this all relates to the classroom.

Chapter 4 focuses on developments in language teaching methodology and covers many of the practical limitations of other approaches. It is here that an argument is made in detail as to how AoA is truly different from TBLT: namely, that AoA maintains a “broader and more holistic view of language and language use” (p. 137) that takes a stronger stance regarding *real-life* tasks. The authors also outline important distinctions between TBLT’s *learner* and AoA’s *social agent*. In brief, they define *learners* as being “more or less passive recipients of pedagogical action” and thus operating on a reduced level of situational (i.e., contextual) and interactional (i.e., social) authenticity, and a *social agent* as having agency and being in control of the process of completing the task, as well as benefiting from high situational and interactional authenticity (p. 139). However, perhaps the most important concept introduced in Chapter 4 is the AoA concept of a *scenario*, which refers to the simulated context in which AoA tasks and projects are situated. For teachers and materials writers who are interested in developing themed approaches to TBLT, the concept of a scenario should be of immense value as an organizing principle that can exist between the theme and its component projects and tasks.

Chapter 5 provides a comprehensive overview of the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2000) and its latest companion volume (Council of Europe, 2018). This is worth reading even for those who are already familiar with these documents, as it helps to situate the AoA as an approach within a framework that many other teachers and researchers will already know. In particular, Chapter 5 helps readers to understand the new CEFR descriptors for mediation and plurilingual/ pluricultural competences, and how these can be integrated into assessment.

Chapter 6 is another theoretical chapter that takes a yet broader view of language learning, which recognizes plurality (of languages and cultures) as well as creativity within the dynamic nature of language learning that is proposed by the AoA. Piccardo and North illustrate and argue again the need for a holistic, ecological approach, by further explaining the role of mediation, plurilingualism, and pluriculturalism, which the CEFR Companion Volume (Council of Europe, 2018) considers to be important in language education (p. 231). In particular, the addition of plurilingual and pluricultural competences (i.e., competences in languages and cultures other than one's L1 or the target L2) adds a facet to language descriptors that should be important even in relatively monolingual and monocultural countries like Japan.

Chapter 7 finally presents the AoA in full. It opens with the provocative section title, "The AoA: An All Embracing Perspective" and proceeds to sum up the approach. The second half of the chapter introduces practical examples of how the AoA may be implemented in the classroom. To the authors' credit, they recognize the complexity inherent in an approach where social agents must operate at two levels simultaneously, the individual and the social (p. 256). They also admit that the approach clearly requires an ambitious level of dynamism, adaptability, and therefore investment from the learner (p. 257). This is where the concept of the scenario, which frames AoA actions in authentic situational and interactional contexts, becomes crucial. That is, AoA scenarios serve to put social agents into real-life situations which activate knowledge and competences in purposeful ways and which, furthermore, can guide assessment. Example templates for scenario development (p. 284; 290) and to guide both teacher- and self-assessment (pp. 288-289) are provided in appendices. It may be asked, however, whether these solutions are substantively different from philosophically progressive and strong TBLT approaches that have been proposed, for example, in Long (2015, pp. 63-82).

In their concluding chapter, Piccardo and North estimate that "the synthesis of current learning theories offered by the AoA enables the fundamental paradigm shift that CLT called for, but was unable to provide, mainly due to the rather limited nature of [second language education] that informed CLT" (p. 276). They include TBLT in this failure, which at first struck me as an unfairly narrow view of TBLT, (i.e., one which seems designed to carve out space for an adjacent approach). However, the book does make a compelling argument for the principles behind the AoA, and it must be begrudgingly admitted that, while in principle a strong TBLT position *can* be broadly inclusive of social dynamics and complexity theory, these needs have not often

been met by TBLT proponents in practice. In other words, TBLT may have ceded important social-interactionist and constructivist ground, which now the Action-oriented Approach quite rightly seeks to cover.

In all, while this book may be a dense read for those not already well acquainted with some of the related areas, such as the CEFR, social interactionist theory, or TBLT, for those who are it is a well-argued and provocative work. As it is entirely focused on articulating a theoretical position, the book may frustrate readers who are looking for an explicit research agenda; however, an astute and glass-half-full perspective might see the approach as entirely ripe ground for research validation.

References

- Council of Europe. (2000). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge University Press.
- Council of Europe. (2018). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment: Companion volume with new descriptors*. Language Policy Programme, Education Policy Division, Education Department, Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989>
- Long, M. (2015). *Second language acquisition and task-based language teaching*. Wiley Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0272263115000200>

***English as a Lingua Franca in Japan: Towards Multilingual Practices*. Mayu Konakahara and Keiko Tsuchiya (Eds.). Palgrave Macmillan, 2020. xxvi + 358 pp. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-33288-4>**

Reviewed by
Samikshya Bidari
Kathmandu University

English as a Lingua Franca in Japan: Towards Multilingual Practices is a compilation of 17 chapters written by authors with a wide range of expertise. Edited by Mayu Konakahara and Keiko Tsuchiya, it is a special homage to Professor Kumiko Murata's scholarly experience and contribution to the academic community for applied linguistics in Japan. This volume aims to

examine the phenomenon of English as a lingua franca (ELF) in Japanese contexts and may serve as a useful tool for academics, graduate students, and teachers-as-researchers in Japan.

Following the editors' introduction to the field of ELF in Japan and summary of chapters, the volume is divided into four parts before ending with a Conclusion followed by a surprisingly brief 3-page index. Part I begins with situating ELF within Japan's language policies and English-education guidelines. The next two parts comprise the pragmatic use of ELF in Japanese contexts, with Part II dealing with research on ELF in academic and pedagogical environments and Part III focusing on corporate and institutional settings. The three chapters in Part IV present ELF studies in Japan and highlight the field's future directions in light of multilingualism. Finally, the concluding chapter summarizes the ELF research addressed in this volume by detailing the definition of a *pedagogic device* (pp. 335-336) made up of knowledge, discourses, and practices and includes recommendations for implementing ELF-based pedagogy for instruction and future research.

Part I details ELF in Japan from historical and political viewpoints by critically reviewing ELF in Japan's language policy and education system. This section contains four chapters. In Chapter 2, Nobuyuki Hino reconsiders the position of Japan in Kachru's (1980) Three Circles model, contrasting the English from *learners* in Expanding Circle countries with that from *users* in the Outer Circle and native-speakers from the Inner Circle. By outlining four linguacultural values in Japan such as (a) an awareness of internationalization, (b) a quest for equity, (c) an orientation toward indigenization, and (d) a need for models, Hino presents the issue of ELF in Japan from a cultural and historical perspective. For a more locally appropriate approach to teaching EFL in Japan, he proposes an eclectic understanding of theories, language varieties, models, and users as a solution. In Chapter 3, Masakazu Iino discusses Japan's language policies and the marginalization of ELF in a discourse where so-called "native" varieties are still granted legitimacy, as well as the paradigm of English as a foreign language or EFL. In Chapter 3, Masakazu Iino explains language policy in Japan, highlighting the marginalization of ELF in a discourse where the validity of native-speakerism continues to take precedence over non-native varieties of the language. He also emphasizes how growing economic and technological competitiveness and a rising divergence of geopolitical interests have intensified the need for a better understanding of the cultural context of communication. In Chapter 4, Ayako Suzuki discusses competency-based education, influenced by impacts in the United States and the European Union. Additionally, this

chapter addresses ELF education in Japan in relation to English education guidelines while emphasizing the principle of global citizenship. Although some progress toward ELF has been observed in Japanese English education, the author argues that ELF's scholarly work did not precipitate the change. Rather, two primary driving forces are illuminated; the first is the introduction of competency-based education into Japanese education policies and the second is the cultivation of global human resources. These were also included as recent revisions in MEXT's new Course of Study towards a competency for lifelong learning. In Chapter 5, Tomokazu Ishikawa draws on Larsen-Freeman's (2018) complexity theory to characterize both monolingual Standard English and ELF as "complex adaptive systems" (p. 100) operating in their local context.

Part II comprises chapters on ELF in academic and pedagogic settings in Japan. In Chapter 6, by looking at accommodations in code-switching, Ayano Shino elaborates on the benefits and challenges regarding team teaching in primary school where a Japanese homeroom teacher (HRT) is paired with a foreign English teacher serving as an assistant language teacher (ALT). This chapter also outlines concerns such as power authority, teacher motivation, and foreign language anxiety in classrooms where HRTs and ALTs work collaboratively. With the growth of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) courses in Japan, Chapter 7 features an exploratory study by co-authors Tetsuo Harada and Ryo Moriya on ELF in EMI lectures at university. Yoko Nogami (Chapter 8) presents a micro-level analysis conducted to ascertain the (un)changes in Japanese university students' views of ELF following their participation in a study abroad program. Similarly, Chapter 9 by Konakahara describes an in-depth ELF-focused module for undergraduate students that resulted in a shift in their attitudes toward ELF.

Part III contains four chapters of ELF studies in the workplace in Japanese contexts. Chapter 10 by Akiko Otsu uses transcription data from a single case analysis of the first meeting between a Japanese businessperson and a Malaysian hotel clerk to focus on small talk use in business ELF or BELF. In Chapter 11, Miyuki Takino reports on qualitative data from narrative interviews to elucidate Japanese businesspeople's habits and cognitive processes related to multilingual usage of BELF and Japanese for various business activities in multinational corporations in Japan. Tsuchiya (Chapter 12) analyzes instances of businesspeople using multilingual tools and translanguaging in the course of conducting business negotiations. Another research-based report is provided in Chapter 13 with a detailed description from Yukako Nozawa of ELF interactions between a medical student or stu-

dent doctor and a patient (i.e., an actor acting as a patient), which was a part of the training in a medical English course at a Japanese medical university to examine the pragmatic use of ELF by students while performing consultations and showing empathy.

In Part IV, Masaki Oda (Chapter 14) offers a criticism of Japan's English-education program, devoid of ELF and multilingualism, even in the face of globalization and the Olympics showcase. In Chapter 15, Yasukata Yano critiques the Japanese people's deep-rooted native-speakerism and advocates for the use of their linguistic capital in ELF interactions. In Chapter 16, Barbara Seidlhofer and Henry Widdowson acknowledge the boom in ELF study in Japan over the last decade before advancing the theory of ELF through a rethinking where "learners cannot be taught English as an international language as such, they can only be prepared to put the resources of English to expedient use and an international means of communication, in other words by developing their communicative capability" (p. 330).

To summarize, this book explores the phenomenon of English as a *Lingua Franca* (ELF) in Japan, using multilingualism as a medium to explore language practices and attitudes in what is traditionally viewed as a monolingual, monocultural environment. The chapter authors take up a wide range of issues related to this theme, including language education policies, the essence of ELF communication in academic and business environments, users' and learners' perceptions of ELF, and pedagogy for fostering ELF-oriented attitudes. The overarching recommendation is to rethink teaching and learning practices, moving the emphasis away from adherence to native-speaker norms and toward ELF users' innovative use of multilingual tools. This book is important for advancing ELF research and analysis in Japan and it would also be of benefit to students and scholars exploring multilingualism and World Englishes in other global contexts.

References

- Kachru, B. B. (1980). Models for new Englishes. *TESL Studies*, 3, 117–150.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2018). Complexity and ELF. In J. Jenkins, W. Baker, & M. Dewey (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English as a lingua franca* (pp. 51–60). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315717173-5>

Data Collection Research Methods in Applied Linguistics.
Heath Rose, Jim McKinley, and Jessica Briggs Baffoe-Djan.
Bloomsbury Academic, 2020. x + 296 pp.

Reviewed by
Gregory Hadley
Niigata University

In the world of academic publishing, teacher-researchers and graduate students have a wide range of choices when it comes to titles on research methods and methodology. For most of these books, we can peer into the minds of eminent scholars in order to glean their thoughts on this complicated subject. Far fewer books, however, succeed in reaching out to the readers by presenting research methods in an engaging, practical, and accessible manner. *Data Collection Research Methods in Applied Linguistics* is one of those rare works. The authors state that their volume is predominantly targeted for “postgraduate students of applied linguistics and language education research (including TESOL), who are being introduced to research methods for the first time”, but also hope that it “will become an essential resource for all applied linguistics researchers and will be used as a valuable textbook for research methods courses worldwide” (p. viii). This aspiration carries weight since before taking up teaching posts at the Universities of London and Oxford, each of the three authors have taught for many years in Japan, other parts of Asia, and Europe. Their experience of teaching and researching in situations similar to those for many readers of *JALT Journal* has enabled them to contextualize their discussions in a way that speaks to many of our shared challenges, needs, and concerns.

Data Collection Research Methods in Applied Linguistics was also written to serve as a companion work to Paltridge and Phakiti’s (2015) book on research methodology in applied linguistics. The authors believe that while excellent, that work did not go far enough to address the common problem of graduate students and classroom practitioners – that of conflating research methods with research design. Their primary goals for writing this book are in helping readers identify the right methods for the right types of investigation and providing them with clear instructions on how to get “the most appropriate data for the research questions” (p. 20).

The first chapter begins with an impressive introduction to the basics of research methods. Their discussion of the complex interplay between quali-

tative and quantitative research in educational studies is one of the best that I have read in the research methods genre, and it effectively highlights how over-focusing on the qualitative-quantitative divide is often counterproductive. Whether we use words or numbers, these are simply tools that need to be used appropriately as we investigate issues in our second language classrooms.

Most of the remaining chapters focus on a specific domain of data collection. These include data elicitation tasks (Chapter 2) such as discourse completion or oral proficiency interviews, and introspective as well as retrospective protocols (Chapter 3) such as think-aloud forms of research data collection. The discussion in this chapter on eye-tracking and key-logging software, while often unavailable to many researchers due to cost and institutional limitations, will be a useful reference later when this technology becomes more accessible. Chapter 4 features an impressive discussion of validated tests and measures. These, the authors explain, are inventories that are attended by “a convincing body of evidence that the test or measure actually does what it claims to do and that the scores or ratings it yields can be used in a meaningful way” (p. 68). Examples of validated tests are the TOEIC, TOEFL, and IELTS. The issues teacher-researchers should consider in finding and properly using such tests are described in reassuring detail. Observation techniques, interviews, as well as diary studies, journals, and logs are the subjects of Chapters 5 through 7. Throughout these chapters, the position of the researcher as one who has the potential to change and to be changed by the acts of observation and recording events are considered. While the authors do help to raise awareness of these concerns, they seem resigned to the notion that one can only try to make a good faith effort, stating that the implementation of such methodologies is “not an exact science” (p. 109). Insightful considerations of how to use questionnaires and how to work with focus groups in an informed manner are found in Chapters 8 and 9. The authors provide an excellent discussion of the different approaches to document data collection, as well as ways of both making and analyzing corpora in Chapters 10 and 11. The final chapter of the book finishes with an informed discussion on triangulating one’s data and dealing with the real challenges of replicating one’s findings in applied linguistics research, such as (a) being able to use the methodologies in the way they were used in earlier studies, (b) maintaining transparency in how one must adjust their research to fit the conditions of their particular learning environment, and (c) taking an original direction grounded in an understanding of previous research, rather than one representing an uninformed flight of fancy.

All of the chapters follow a pattern evocative of how one might teach a graduate course or a teacher training workshop. Chapters begin with pre-reading activities based on the pattern of *Think, Discuss, and Imagine*. It is here that readers engage in a consciousness-raising exercise intended to elicit questions and the need for more knowledge about the issues to be discussed in the chapter. If used as a textbook, the first section of each chapter would easily serve as necessary warm-up activities. Each chapter then outlines key concepts for the methods and contains an insightful survey of practicalities. This includes standard data collection procedures, issues to anticipate, and possible pitfalls to avoid. Each chapter also features ways of improving the validity and reliability of the data collected. One of the features that I especially appreciate about this book is the section that presents examples of applied linguistics studies using the data collection methods in each chapter. This is followed by a section on the implications each of the data collection methods have for teacher-researchers, and this is further enhanced with the provision of reading lists of other authoritative books that delve further into how to use the methods. Each chapter closes with a list of post-task questions for further reflection. Here, readers are encouraged to expand upon the data collection methods and to look for opportunities to apply them in their own in-class investigations.

In terms of weaknesses or shortcomings, I was hard-pressed to find areas for improvement. One could mention the few typographic errors, the absence of the Oxford comma in display tables, or in Chapter 2, where the same subject heading has been confusingly used twice, but such would be the observations of a churlish pedant. I did notice something of a preoccupation on the part of the authors with seemingly post-positivist concerns, in that their fixation on validity, reliability, and replication seems, in my mind at least, to unduly straightjacket the more qualitative data collection methods presented in the book. It also would have been helpful had the authors developed an inventory as an appendix where readers could answer questions which would then indicate an appropriate data collection method matching their area of research interest.

But these are minor concerns. Most of the time when I thought I had found something the authors may have missed, inevitably they would address those points later, almost as if they knew that I was on the periphery, watching critically. As I progressed through the book, I began to admire the quality and insight of what the authors have accomplished, and half wished such a resource had been available to me during my own graduate studies. Thankfully, however, the considerable knowledge and knowhow of these authors are available to students and teacher-researchers today.

In conclusion, the approach and depth of instruction from *Data Collection Research Methods in Applied Linguistics* is rigorous as it is well-informed; it will be a valuable resource to graduate students and classroom teacher-researchers alike. In my current duties as a graduate-level thesis and dissertation supervisor, I intend to use this work to help my own students make better decisions about the type of data they should gather and develop clearer ideas about the procedures they should follow in order to develop more compelling studies.

References

Paltridge, B., & Phakiti, A. (Eds.). (2015). *Research methods in applied linguistics: A practical resource*. Bloomsbury Academic.

***Eye Tracking in Second Language Acquisition and Bilingualism*.
Aline Godfroid. Routledge, 2019. xxiv + 411 pp. e-book
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315775616>**

Reviewed by

Marshall K. Higa

Hiroshima University

Eye Tracking in Second Language Acquisition and Bilingualism by Aline Godfroid may be the most comprehensive work related to eye-tracking research for applied linguistics to date. Godfroid provides a mix of theoretical and practical considerations that both novice and advanced researchers can benefit from. Though not a new stream of research, books related to eye-tracking in an applied linguistics context are few. As such, a volume this thorough is a welcomed addition to the body of literature as it provides all the necessary information to carry out an eye-tracking study from start to finish. It is a resource that I wish I had access to when I began eye-tracking experiments, as it would have significantly reduced the learning curve.

Godfroid states that she had graduate students in mind when conceptualizing the book. The flow and organization of the volume bears that out; it reads like a step-by-step guide to writing a master's thesis. Consisting of nine chapters, four major themes can be found: (a) an introduction to eye-tracking in second language acquisition studies (Chapter 1), (b) an overview

of eye-tracking in cognitive psychology research (Chapter 2) and applied linguistics (Chapters 3 and 4), (c) a theoretical framework for designing eye-tracking studies (Chapter 5), and (d) a hands-on guide for carrying out eye-tracking experiments (Chapters 6-9).

Godfroid defines eye-tracking as, “the colloquial term used for eye-movement recordings, which are typically (but not necessarily) made as participants perform a task on a computer screen” (p. 11). In language studies, the tracking of eye-movements using video recording equipment can provide information about the cognitive processes of language acquisition. The first two chapters lay the groundwork for understanding the basics of eye-tracking in research, not limited to second language acquisition. In Godfroid’s words, Chapter 1 covers the “what, why and how” of eye-tracking research and describes various ways in which eye-tracking can be used in a study (p. 21). Chapter 2 explains some of the physiological concepts of eye movement and its relationship to the mind. The eye-movements that are most commonly measured in second language acquisition studies are *fixations*: periods of time when eye-movement is relatively still, and *saccades*: periods of time when the eye is moving. A simple illustration of how measuring fixations and saccades can reveal information about language ability is a study which found that as children become more skilled readers in their first language, their fixation time decreases and saccade length increases (p. 35). Many investigations into second language acquisition follow a similar pattern. Technical terms that are ubiquitous in eye-tracking literature are also introduced in this section, and while it may seem dense with specialized terminology, readers would benefit by taking the time to understand the concepts presented in this chapter.

Through a very detailed review of studies utilizing eye-tracking in applied linguistics, Godfroid maintains that most studies fall into one of two categories: *text-based eye-tracking* and *visual world paradigm*. Chapter 3 reviews the major research themes and studies related to text-based eye tracking. As the name suggests, these themes deal with studies containing written language, with topics ranging from the effects of subtitles on listening comprehension (p. 81) to how having a countdown timer visible during a test may adversely affect test validity (p. 83). For most second language acquisition researchers, text-based studies are the most prevalent (p. 64). Chapter 4 reviews studies related to the relationship between spoken language processing and eye movements, known as visual world paradigm.

Chapter 5 covers general experimental design principles and starts with basic research terms, such as defining types of independent, dependent,

and confounding variables. The chapter progresses to concepts in research specific to eye-tracking, such as how to determine the number of items needed in an experiment (p. 151) and ideal sample sizes for eye-tracking research (p. 154). Chapters 6-8 move into carrying out research studies, from creating the research questions, to conducting measurement, and finally to completing data analysis. These chapters transition from the theory described in previous chapters, to practical information, such as font size for experiments, how to prepare audio files for listening exercises, and software and statistical tools that can be used at certain stages of the experiment. Finally, Chapter 9 focuses on creating an eye-tracking lab and the practical considerations for setting up the environment.

Each chapter also contains case studies and references on how various concepts introduced in the book were used in previous research investigations. This is one area where the book is especially helpful, and it is evident that Godfroid dedicated a significant amount of time to categorizing and cataloging previous studies. The comprehensive review of the literature alone makes this book a valuable resource to even well-established researchers, who may not need to pay as much attention to some of the more basic concepts covered in the book.

While the majority of the book is fairly easy to digest, the vast number of technical terms introduced throughout the book requires careful reading. This may prove overwhelming to novice researchers or researchers new to the field, as a certain amount of knowledge about second language acquisition research is also necessary to make sense of some of the concepts covered. Thus, many researchers will probably be best served by using this book as a reference when constructing a study, rather than reading it straight through. Admittedly, certain sections of the book that were outside the scope of my current research interests were difficult to understand at times.

My overall assessment of the book is overwhelmingly positive. It is thorough to the extent that a graduate student could conceivably rely on this book as their sole reference to design a thesis-worthy experiment. I have only one minor critique, which concerns the final chapter. Chapter 9 focuses on setting up an eye-tracking lab and contains insights that only someone with lots of experience could identify, such as how to deal with subjects with one eyelid, where the calibration of eye-tracking devices can become difficult. However, the section about selecting an eye-tracking device (Chapter 9.1) left me wishing Godfroid would have compared various brands of equipment with a little bit more depth. I assume this was intentional

in order not to show bias towards a particular brand or model. However, with the extreme disparity in prices of equipment available on the market, a short description of what the major eye-tracking devices can and cannot do would have been helpful, especially since this book seems intended for people looking to begin conducting eye-tracking research. Having done research with three different eye-trackers in the past, I think choosing a suitable eye-tracker is of prime importance, especially considering the cost of some of them and the range of functionality that each offers. Another major work on this topic, *Eye-tracking: A Guide for Applied Linguistic Research* (Conklin et al., 2018), provides a detailed listing and comparison of some of the major eye-trackers on the market. Unsurprisingly, only three years on from the initial publication of that book, new equipment and updated models have come onto the market, which make it difficult for these sorts of comparisons to remain current. Nevertheless, a review of retail eye-tracking equipment seems essential for a chapter titled, "Setting up an Eye-tracking Lab." Godfroid notes that prices can range from free to over \$50,000 USD for high-end equipment (p. 12), making eye-tracking research a potentially expensive endeavor. This title is therefore a great initial investment for those looking to conduct eye-tracking studies and a must-have reference for those already engaged in eye-tracking research.

References

Conklin, K., Pellicer-Sánchez, A., & Carrol, G. (2018). *Eye-tracking: A guide for applied linguistics research*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108233279>

***Complex Dynamic Systems Theory and L2 Writing Development.* Gary G. Fogal and Marjolijn H. Verspoor (Eds.). John Benjamins, 2020. xviii + 304 pp. e-book <https://doi.org/10.1075/llt.54>**

Reviewed by

J. Paul Marlowe

Kwansei Gakuin University

Learning development is neither linear nor does it take place in a vacuum. This statement might seem obvious to many, but L2 writing researchers have rarely approached investigations that take these truths into account. Through years of group studies, researchers have successfully captured the changes that occur in L2 writing, particularly involving the commonly used variables of complexity, accuracy, fluency, and sometimes lexis (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998). Such studies often use group means to show changes in development at different points in time or for different levels of proficiency but fail to shed light on an important question: What does change look like over time at the individual level?

Complex Dynamic Systems Theory and L2 Writing Development is a collection of studies in which various researchers attempt to address this question. It comprises of 11 chapters that are arranged into four themes: “CAF Perspectives,” “New Constructs, Approaches, and Domains,” “Methodological Perspectives,” and “Curricular Perspectives.” In the Foreword, Diane Larsen-Freeman explains how Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST) is uniquely suited to offer a fresh perspective to L2 writing research by recognizing writer agency and providing a more fine-grained and nuanced view of writing development. From there, in the Introduction, editors Fogal and Verspoor set up CDST as a framework for investigating L2 writing, which can complement group studies by analyzing the variability of individual learners “as the motor of development” (p. xi).

In the first part, the editors showcase researchers using the more familiar metrics of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF), while adding a level of CDST analysis to their approach. In Chapter 1, Kyoko Baba uses growth curve modeling and reflective written comments to better understand the differences in the effect of multiple iterations of a free writing task on fluency between a high-performing learner and a low-performing learner. The researchers in the next two chapters in this part combine CAF-related

variables and CDST to investigate case studies of Chinese learners of English. Junping Hou, Hanneke Loerts, and Verspoor (Chapter 2) compare the developmental differences between two Chinese learners of English by analyzing 12 writing samples holistically and analytically using measures related to CAF. In Chapter 3, Yu Wang and Shoucun Tao examine linguistic complexity in connection to the development and interaction of discourse-semantic complexity. Both of these studies demonstrate the differences between more and less advanced learners, revealing a more synchronous and coordinated development between CAF variables among advanced learners. The studies presented here provide enough of a fresh take on CAF approaches while also exemplifying how CDST can be used to understand CAF-related variables on a more individual and nuanced level. Furthermore, the authors in this chapter demonstrate the variability of L2 writing development with an emphasis on the linguistic systems of advanced-level writers.

In the second part, the authors shift away from the CAF framework and explore new approaches to mapping changes in L2 writing development using CDST research. All three studies introduced in this section use case studies as a way to understand the relationships and interconnectedness of internal and external systems on L2 writing development. Whereas Susy Macqueen and Ute Knoch (Chapter 4) and Ryo Nitta (Chapter 6) uncover the symbiotic relationship between external and internal factors on writing development, R. Rosmawati (Chapter 5) illustrates the interconnectedness of multiple levels of complexity within the writing development of a single case. Combined, these studies provide examples of L2 writing development that reveal the interrelated change patterns that are often obscured by large group studies.

The third section addresses methodological issues in researching L2 writing through the lens of CDST. Elizabeth Hepford (Chapter 7) begins this section by illustrating how to capture *phase shifts*, which are points at which language usage is restructured, leading to a more stable pattern. Hepford argues that phase shifts are critical to understanding how L2 writing develops. In Chapter 8, Alex Gilmore and Gabriela Adela Gánem-Guitiérrez discuss the challenges of conducting mixed-methods research from a CDST perspective. Considering this, if L2 writing is viewed in the context of complex systems, then it only makes sense that it should be studied through a combination of methods that can reveal several levels of social and individual factors. However, the authors also caution that this approach entails challenges such as collaborating with experts outside of the field, dealing with unwieldy technological tools, and coordinating several levels of analysis together, all

of which they attest to with examples from their own research experience. Turning a critical eye inward, Bram Bulté and Alex Housen add a constructive critique of CDST research in Chapter 9 by demonstrating its strengths and weaknesses through an example study on L2 writing complexity. Beyond providing a defense of traditional group studies, they offer a clear-eyed view of the challenges of applying CDST to L2 writing research as well as suggestions on how to overcome the growing pains of the new epistemology. Despite their concerns, the authors ultimately believe that CDST research will mature and provide useful insights into L2 writing development in a way that complements traditional group study research.

In the final section, the research studies center on the theme of curricular perspectives by using the construct of curriculum as a subsystem of the complex system of formal education. Heidi Byrnes (Chapter 10) calls upon researchers investigating L2 writing development from a CDST perspective to expand the focus beyond individuals to include the educational context and broader curriculum. In Chapter 11, Fogal responds to Byrnes's call by using curriculum as both the context and construct of investigation in a case study of a Thai university program. Using this approach, Fogal explored the degree to which a small group of stakeholders (students, professors, and administrators) within a curricular context interpreted the influence of curriculum variables (agents, experiences, artifacts, and entities) on L2 writing development. Through analysis of system maps, Fogal found that whereas students emphasized experiences of past and future selves, the faculty were concerned more with the here-and-now aspects of the program. Essentially, this type of framework provides insight into how different stakeholders and variables interact to influence curriculum and ultimately L2 writing development while providing a more familiar research context for most language teaching professionals.

This volume offers new and innovative approaches to researching and understanding L2 writing development from a CDST perspective. It demonstrates all of the hallmarks of the CDST approach with minimum-maximum graphs, change point analyses, Monte Carlo simulations, and the use of case studies to reveal the variation and relationships that occur within a complex system of learning development. Of particular interest to readers of *JALT Journal* are the several studies by researchers examining the variation in development of Japanese learners of English (Chapters 1, 5, 6, and 8). However, this book might be challenging for teachers or budding researchers interested in L2 writing. The contexts presented in this volume are limited to university level writers and there are few, if any generalizations that can be

drawn from these works for immediate application in various teaching contexts. Those readers may want to look instead at the third edition of *Teaching and Researching Writing* (Hyland, 2016). Rather, this book is aimed at researchers and scholars of both CDST and L2 writing interested in learning how a CDST approach can be applied to L2 writing and how it can provide an alternative point of view to understand L2 writing development. Although CDST is still a relatively new approach for L2 writing, it has the potential to broaden our perspectives about the unique and variable developmental paths of L2 writers.

References

Hyland, K. (2016). *Teaching and researching writing* (3rd ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315717203>

Wolfe-Quintero, K., Inagaki, S., & Kim, H. Y. (1998). *Second language development in writing: Measures of fluency, accuracy, & complexity* (No. 17). University of Hawai'i Press.

Academic Writing for International Students of Business and Economics (3rd ed.). Stephen Bailey. Routledge, 2020. xxx + 314 pp.

Reviewed by

Maria Claudia Nunes Delfino

Pontifical Catholic University of São Paulo (PUC-SP) / Technology College
of São Paulo

Written with teachers and students in mind, this book presents a hands-on approach to learning academic writing. Stephen Bailey addresses the writing process, while focusing on language problems and specific vocabulary for academic writing in business and economic related fields.

The author focuses on writing essays, reports, and other papers for English-language academic courses. To reach this goal, he divides the book into five parts, "The Writing Process," "The Elements of Writing," "Language Issues," "Vocabulary for Writing," and "Writing Models." Each part has subsections with exercises to practice the skills that have been described and closes with a "Progress Check" for review. The book provides highly relevant examples, in a very clear, direct, and practical manner.

JALT Journal readers may find the 20-question Academic Writing Quiz (p. xxviii) useful, as it can be used both by teachers in a course and by learners in self-study as a diagnostic test to check one's knowledge of academic writing and some of its metalanguage before starting to use the book. Alternatively, the quiz can be used as a review after completing the text.

In this third edition, Bailey starts out by explaining in the front matter the aims of the book and the reason why important sections have been included as well as updates to the companion website with teaching notes and useful links to other sources. In the "Introduction for Teachers" and "Introduction for Students" the structure of the book is highlighted and suggestions are made concerning the application of these materials in the classroom or as self-study resources. For teachers, useful suggestions for the application of the main topics to classroom practice are provided in a table on p. xviii. Students looking to structure their self-study routines will find the table on p. xx useful for guiding their learning plans.

In Part 1, "The Writing Process," the author covers the basic processes of writing, how to find suitable sources for reading and to support one's thesis, and how to develop critical-reading approaches. A section on avoiding plagiarism is presented before moving on to how to plan an essay, understand titles, and how to find key points for note making. To support the plagiarism section, the author provides a thorough explanation of how to paraphrase and summarize ideas, which can be extremely helpful to business students. In this section, under references and quotations, he also describes how to insert citations in the students' own written texts. Similarly, attention is given in this part to proper internet referencing, which has become very common and necessary in course requirements and academic publications. Techniques for how to contrast sources, organize paragraphs, and write introductions and conclusions are also provided. This section includes additional useful information on how to edit and proofread.

In Part 2, "Elements of Writing," the reader is introduced to the elements of business writing, including the elaboration of argumentative, causative, and comparative texts. Bailey also covers the communication of data through visual resources, such as tables and charts, by addressing how these elements can be described in the body of a text. A table on page 130 contains (a) verbs and adverbs commonly used to describe visual resources that present growth rates or changes and trends in a topic like temperature and (b) adjectives followed by nouns to highlight drops or declines.

Part 3, "Language Issues," provides readers with prevalent language topics that learners of English writing may find challenging. Some topics covered

in this part are cohesion, definite articles, numbers, passive and active voice, punctuation, singular or plural, style, and time markers. A helpful example can be found on page 167 in the section on countable and uncountable nouns, which can be problematic especially for common terms used in business and economics that accept both singular and plural forms and which may not exist in the L1 of international students. Another interesting feature in this part is the explanation of how to use modifiers before adjectives and how to create a positive or negative nuance.

“Vocabulary for Writing” (Part 4) deals with specific vocabulary for business and economics. Bailey addresses encounters with lower frequency and unfamiliar vocabulary and explains how to prioritize words according to the context of the text. One drawback in this part that the author could have covered is an exploration of collocations which Biber and Conrad (1999) define as “associations between two words, so that the words co-occur more frequently than expected by chance” (p. 183). Such a discussion would have provided information for students and teachers to use to find meanings beyond the memorization of individual words. The study of lexical bundles can make the vocabulary learning process much more meaningful. In addition, this can help learners in the writing process because they will see in the text which words are most commonly used with a specific word they may not have known the meaning of, and this is not something students normally use in their writing (Cortes, 2004).

In Part 5, “Writing Models,” the author provides authentic texts as case studies, with the aim of offering tips on how to write long papers, reports, and in groups.

While not prescriptive in nature, this title is particularly interesting for novice writers looking to engage with the process of writing, explore language and vocabulary issues, and experience different genres and writing styles. Students of business and economics will find explanations and samples of academic texts together with important writing tips that may help guide learners with organizing their writing.

The book provides insight into writing quality and can be used in person or online by teachers or learners studying on their own. It is clear, accessible, objective, and user-friendly, with a glossary, answer keys, and index, which can support autonomous, independent learning. Thus, the book provides several insights into the fundamental principles behind the art of writing, I highly recommend this volume, particularly to international students whose responsibilities include academic writing in business and economics.

References

- Biber, D., & Conrad, S. (1999). Lexical bundles in collocation and academic prose. In H. Hasselgard & S. Osksefjell (Eds.), *Out of corpora: Studies in honor of Stig Johansson* (pp. 181–190). Peter Lang.
- Cortes, V. (2004). Lexical bundles in published and student disciplinary writing: Examples from history and biology. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23(4), 397–423. <https://doi/10.1016/j.esp.2003.12.001>

Information for Contributors

All submissions must conform to *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy and Guidelines.

Editorial Policy

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

1. Curriculum design and teaching methods
2. Classroom-centered research
3. Intercultural studies
4. Testing and evaluation
5. Teacher training
6. Language learning and acquisition
7. Overviews of research and practice in related fields

The editors encourage submissions in five categories: (a) full-length articles, (b) short research reports (*Research Forum*), (c) essays on language education framed in theory and supported by argumentation that may include either primary or secondary data (*Perspectives*), (d) comments on previously published *JALT Journal* articles (*Point to Point*), and (e) book and media reviews (*Reviews*). Articles should be written for a general audience of language educators; therefore, statistical techniques and specialized terms must be clearly explained.

Guidelines

Style

JALT Journal follows the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 7th edition (available from <https://apastyle.apa.org/products/publication-manual-7th-edition>). A downloadable copy of the *JALT Journal* style sheet is also available on our website at <https://jalt-publications.org/jj/>.

Format

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.

Submission Procedure

Please submit the following materials, except for reviews, as two email attachments in MS Word format to the appropriate editor indicated below:

1. Cover sheet with the title and author name(s), affiliation(s), and contact information of corresponding author.
2. Manuscript, including title, abstract, and keywords, with no reference to the author. Do not use running heads. Follow the *JALT Journal* style sheet.

If the manuscript is accepted for publication, a Japanese translation of the abstract will be required. Authors will also be asked to provide biographical information. Insert all tables and figures in the manuscript. Do not send as separate files.

Submissions will be acknowledged within 1 month of their receipt. All manuscripts are first reviewed by the Editor to ensure they comply with *JALT Journal* Guidelines. Those considered for publication are subject to blind review by at least two readers, with special attention given to (1) compliance with *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy, (2) the significance and originality of the submission, and (3) the use of appropriate research design and methodology. The first round of review is usually completed within 3 months. Each contributing author of published articles and Book Reviews will receive one complimentary copy of the Journal and a PDF of the article (Book Reviews are compiled together as one PDF). *JALT Journal* does not provide off-prints. Contributing authors have the option of ordering further copies of *JALT Journal* (contact *JALT* Central Office for price details).

Restrictions

Papers submitted to *JALT Journal* must not have been previously published, nor should they be under consideration for publication elsewhere. *JALT Journal* has First World Publication Rights, as defined by International Copyright Conventions, for all manuscripts published. If accepted, the editors reserve the right to edit all copy for length, style, and clarity without prior notification to authors. Plagiarism, including self-plagiarism, will result in articles not being published or being retracted and may also result in the author(s) being banned from submitting to any JALT publication. For further information, see the JALT Publications Statement of Ethics and Malpractice at: <https://jalt-publications.org/jalt-publications-statement-ethics-and-malpractice>.

Full-Length Articles, Research Forum, Perspectives, and Point to Point Submissions

Please send submissions in these categories or general inquiries to:

jaltpubs.jj.ed@jalt.org

Gregory Paul Glasgow, *JALT Journal* Editor

Japanese-Language Manuscripts

JALT Journal welcomes Japanese-language manuscripts on second/foreign language teaching and learning as well as Japanese-language reviews of publications. Submissions must conform to the Editorial Policy and Guidelines given above. Authors must provide a detailed abstract in English, 500 to 750 words in length, for full-length manuscripts and a 100-word abstract for reviews. Refer to the Japanese-Language Guidelines (following page) for details. Please send Japanese-language manuscripts to:

jaltpubs.jj.ed.j@jalt.org

Kiwamu Kasahara, *JALT Journal* Japanese-Language Editor

Reviews

The editors invite reviews of books and other relevant publications in the field of language education. A list of publications that have been sent to JALT for review is published bimonthly in *The Language Teacher* and can be found online at <<https://jalt-publications.org/tlt/reviews/>>. Review authors receive one copy of the Journal. Please send submissions, queries, or requests for books, materials, and review guidelines to:

jaltpubs.jj.reviews@jalt.org

Greg Rouault, *JALT Journal* Reviews Editor

Address for Inquiries about Subscriptions, Ordering *JALT Journal*, or Advertising

JALT Central Office

Urban Edge Building 5F

1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan

Tel.: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631

(From overseas: Tel.: 81-3-3837-1630; Fax: 81-3-3837-1631)

Email: jco@jalt.org URL: <https://jalt.org>

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。

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

注意:JALT Journalに投稿する原稿は、すでに出版されているものや他の学術雑誌に投稿中のものは避けて下さい。JALT Journalは、そこに掲載されるすべての論文に関して国際著作権協定による世界初出版権を持ちます。なお、お送りいただいた原稿は返却しませんので、控を保存して下さい。

投稿原稿送り先またはお問い合わせ:

〒112-8551 東京都文京区春日1-13-27中央大学理工学部英語教室
JALT Journal日本語編集者 印南 洋
電話: 03-3817-1950
jaltpubs.jj.ed.j@jalt.org

JALT Journal 第43巻 第2号

2021年10月20日 印刷
2021年11月1日 発行
編集人 グラズゴウ・グレゴリー・ポール
発行人 ドーン・ルコヴィッチ
発行所 全国語学教育学会事務局
〒110-0016 東京都台東区台東1-37-9 アーバンエッジビル5F
TEL(03) 3837-1630; FAX(03) 3837-1631
印刷所 コーシンシャ株式会社
〒530-0043 大阪市北区天満1-18-4天満ファーストビル301 TEL(06) 6351-8795

*A versatile English fluency app for students.
A user-friendly progress tracking system for teachers.*



- Activities can be completed offline.
- Instructors create assignments in seconds.
- Progress is tracked along multiple metrics.
- Motivation is maintained through instant feedback.
- Content library integrates easily into any curriculum.
- Can be customized to compliment any textbook content upon request.

Listen and Say

Listen to natural English in context and practice speaking. Spoken output is automatically evaluated, even offline.

Video

Watch original animated videos to understand how English is used in real-life scenarios.

Texting

Select the best responses to a series of incoming text messages. Deepen your socio-cultural awareness.

Build

Arrange lexical phrases to form grammatically accurate sentences. Strengthen your knowledge of English syntax.

How Many

Count the number of words you hear. Hone your perception of speech segmentation.

Definition

Select words with the same meaning to expand your vocabulary. Create connections between known vocabulary and more advanced synonyms.

Comp Q

Answer questions to check your understanding. Reinforce your comprehension of language in use.

Quiz

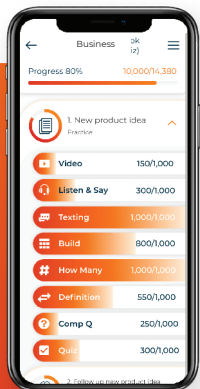
Answer multiple choice and cloze format questions to test your knowledge. A tried-and-true language learning activity.

...EVEN BETTER for teachers

1 Use our existing content, or have us add yours.

2 Create assignments in seconds. Track student progress, scores, and time-on-task.

3 Start for free with a class of 40 students or fewer.



- Scoring is handled automatically so that you can focus on teaching.
- Easily keep an eye on who is doing well and who needs additional support.
- Create assignments in seconds. Track your students' progress, scores, and time-on-task.