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From the Chief Editor

Welcome to the 2020 *Osaka JALT Journal*!

This is only speculation, but I think it is safe to say that this has been the most challenging issue that the Osaka JALT Journal has produced so far. When the original call for papers was released in January of 2020, I was looking forward to a productive but not unusual year in my job as a university language teacher and looking forward to my first year as the editor of this journal. I did make a rookie mistake early on when I failed to aggressively promote the call for papers, though I didn't realize it until the February submission deadline passed and we had too few papers to make the journal. On the day that I decided to push back the deadline to the end of April, I don't believe that I had ever heard the word *coronavirus*.

My academic background is in computer science, and so I have some interest in the topic of information technology in language education. Some of my past work has focused on the particular difficulties of incorporating technology into language courses at Japanese universities. I never dreamed that nearly every university in Japan would undertake a massive shift to online courses with only a few weeks of notice. And even at the beginning of the crisis, I could not envision that university classes would *still* be mostly online at the end of the year with no end in sight.

Finding good reviewers is a typically a challenge for journals even in normal times. Few people actually enjoy doing reviews but are willing to do them when time permits because peer review an essential part of the academic publishing process. Finding reviewers—who are generally university faculty members—at a time when a global pandemic has upended their professional and personal lives is more challenging by an order of magnitude. So, let me offer especially deep gratitude this year to all our reviewers and editorial board members for their contributions to the journal. *Thank you*.

Despite the pandemic, this year we have succeeded in introducing a few changes to the journal that longtime readers will quickly notice. First, we have simplified the layout of each article and adopted tighter line spacing. Second, and more significantly, after reflecting at great length about the purpose and role of this journal, we have decided to adopt publication and reviewing standards that allow us to publish a greater number of papers than would otherwise be possible. Starting with this issue, our goal is to make the Osaka JALT Journal an even more inviting and accessible place to publish. While we hope to continue to attract submissions from experienced researchers, we also recognize that the majority of JALT members and readers of our journal are primarily teachers rather than researchers. Although we will continue to have a process of peer review and suitable editorial standards, we hope these changes will allow the journal to become an even more relevant and influential part of the grand discussion.

In this, our seventh issue, we are publishing eleven articles—our most ever. For the first time, we are publishing a book review: a review by Greg Rouault and John Nevara of the 2018 volume *Language Learning Strategies and Individual Learner Characteristics* by Rebecca Oxford and Carmen Amerstorfer. Starting off our regular papers, Arnold Arao offers *Moral Decision-making and the Foreign Language Effect*, which considers how the use of a foreign language may influence moral reasoning.

Alexander Sheffrin gives suggestions for resources and other guidance on films in language classes in *Media, Culture, and EFL: Using Films in Classrooms*. Yoshimi Ochiai provides an eye-opening analysis of junior high school English textbooks used in Japan (with a focus on how English speakers are depicted) in *An Analysis of Authorized Japanese Junior High School Textbooks for Liberating the Japanese Image of Speakers of English in Globalized Society*. Thomas Law provides an analysis of English pronunciation issues facing Japanese university students with suggestions for teaching practice in *English Pronunciation Issues Among Japanese College Students*. Chie Nakabayashi describes how her personal teaching goals, principles, and teaching context influence her lesson planning in *Lesson Plan Based on Teaching Principles*. Zeinab Shekarabi describes how critical thinking skills can influence second language writing quality in *Investigating the Role of Critical Thinking in Advanced Japanese L2 Academic Writing Using Outlining*. Naoko Sano Nakao uses conversation analysis to discuss how native English speakers signal changes in topics and the implications this has for teaching conversation skills in *Signs to Change Topics Give Chances for Turn-taking*. Alison Kitzman and Adam Crosby report on a survey of Japanese university students about their understanding of language learning goals in *Assessing Students' Understanding of Language Goals and Needs*. Curtis Chu and Todd Hooper look at reading comprehension and whether translanguaging (using multiple languages as part of a single communication system) might lead to better assessments of comprehension in *Utilizing the Concept of Translanguaging for Assessing English Reading Comprehension at the CEFR A2 Level*. Finally, Pearce Strickland focuses on the use of short lessons (mini modules) as a possibly effective option for foreign language education in elementary schools in *How do Mini Modules Affect Language Retention in Elementary School Foreign Language Classes?*

I would like to thank all the authors for their patience and understanding as we slowly but surely pushed this issue of the journal to completion. And finally, I would like to offer special thanks to our Associate Editor, Daniel Pearce. Dan, your support was an enormous benefit to me, and every paper in this journal benefited from your careful and thoughtful reading.

Robert Swier
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Book Review

Language Learning Strategies and Individual Learner Characteristics: Situating Strategy Use in Diverse Contexts

Rebecca L. Oxford and Carmen M. Amerstorfer (eds.) (2018) Bloomsbury Academic, 317p.

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What are language learning strategies? How can they best be researched? And, how can they best be taught and learnt? In *Language Learning Strategies and Individual Learner Characteristics: Situating Strategy Use in Diverse Contexts*, co-editors Rebecca Oxford and Carmen Amerstorfer seek to answer these questions and therefore help to define the future direction of language learning strategy (LLS) research and instruction. Their book is conveniently divided into four separate, yet unified, parts, with 12 chapters in total, along with an Introduction and Conclusion. Collectively, the chapter authors offer a global perspective drawn from the internationality represented by their native or home countries and the breadth of professional work and academic experiences. They provide readers with a discussion of 1) the theoretical foundations, 2) the research methodologies, 3) the diverse contexts, and 4) the strategy instruction involved in language learning strategies. While the title suggests correctly that one focus of the book is on individual learner characteristics within diverse contexts, it also can be said that this book is mainly intended to set the course for future expansion in LLS and to counteract researchers who have argued that LLS research and instruction has stalled since its heyday in the 1990s (e.g., Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Gu, 2012).

This review paper first takes a look at the secondary sources introduced in Part I. It then summarizes and offers a critique of the methodological issues in the learning strategy research designs in Parts II and III before covering the practical pedagogical applications from Part IV and concluding with reviewer comments.

The Theoretical Foundations of Language Learning Strategies
One major goal of this book is to address any theoretical deficiencies that have been identified previously. In noting a lack of theoretical rigor in discussions of language learning strategies, Macaro (2006) proposes "a revised theoretical framework in which strategies are differentiated from skills, processes, and styles" (p. 320). Gu (2012) and

others state that problems exist with the definition of language learning strategies. Tseng, Dörnyei, and Schmitt (2006) argue that language learning strategies are poorly defined and also suffer from weaknesses in research methodology. They suggest replacing the concept of learning strategies with that of self-regulation, shifting the focus of research to an underlying trait such as motivation. However, in Dörnyei and Ryan (2015), Dörnyei revisits the issue of theoretical impreciseness and tempers his initial criticisms by suggesting that the focus on individual differences in the more recent LLS research is a positive step.

Several authors in the book attempt to reconcile the concepts of language learning strategies and self-regulation. In the Introduction, Oxford and Amerstorfer highlight this relationship; however, they also seem to suggest that language learning strategies should be the overarching concept, with self-regulation only part of the picture. For example, they state that narrowly defining self-regulation as "the control that students have over their cognition, behavior, emotions, and motivation through the use of personal strategies to achieve the goals they have established" (p. xxv, cited from Panadero and Alonso-Tapia, 2014) neglects the role of teachers and others involved in encouraging strategic self-regulation. In Chapter 2, Cohen notes that over the years Oxford has "linked LLS with individual students' autonomy and self-regulation" (p. 32), a point which Oxford herself reaffirms.

In the Introduction, Oxford and Amerstorfer provide what they claim to be the "first theoretically integrated LLS definition" adapted from Oxford (2017):

> LLS are mental actions that are sometimes also manifested in observable behaviors. They are complex, dynamic, teachable, and at least partially conscious. LLS can be orchestrated to meet immediate learning needs in specific contexts. LLS can involve various self-regulation factors (e.g., cognitive, emotional/affective, motivational, social, and metastrategic) to (a) accomplish current language tasks, (b) improve language learning and performance, and/or (c) enhance long-term proficiency. (p. xxiv)

This definition appears broad enough to encompass most of the definitions proposed by the main language learning strategy scholars. It even highlights the need to differentiate between strategies for using a language ("language use strategies") and strategies for learning it ("language learning strategies") (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002). However, it also seems rather tentative and permissive so as to possibly be meaningless to some scholars, who Oxford (2017) calls out as strategy experts that should recognize their "cognitive style disparities" (p. 51) while focusing more on consensus-building.

The definitions of language learner strategies from several other writers appear throughout this anthology. For example, in Chapter 2, Cohen unsurprisingly focuses his definition on the consciousness factor and also argues that definitions "should clarify, not obfuscate…to use definitions that lay language learners can understand" (p. 32). In Chapter 3, Griffiths provides her definition: "actions chosen by learners for the purpose of learning language" (p. 55). However, this concise working definition may be too simple to counter the criticism that the concept of language learning strategies is poorly defined. It also does not clarify the questions Dörnyei (2010) asks: "What exactly is the difference between engaging in an ordinary learning activity and a strategic learning activity? … [W]hat is the difference between the processes of *learning* and *learning strategy*

use?" (p. 164). While Griffiths's definition may not be suited to anchoring a rigorous research paradigm, it is much more accessible to practitioners who as Ryan notes strive to "maintain enough flexibility in those frameworks to withstand the demands of the classroom" (Foreword, p. xxi).

It remains a matter of argument whether the debate over language learning strategies and self-regulation has been convincingly settled or if scholars are willing to incorporate them into the same framework. These disagreements in the theoretical foundations warrant a look at research methodologies.

Research Methodologies for Language Learning Strategies

Another key for this volume is to provide a guide for future language learning strategy research. Most LLS research that has been conducted has relied on the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), a Likert-scale questionnaire created by Oxford (1990). However, as Rose (2012) and others indicate, many scholars have decided that these same questionnaires "are inaccurate and unreliable" (p. 32). Perhaps Macaro (2006, p. 321) best summarizes the criticisms surrounding LLS research:

> Some of these criticisms concern the methodology used to elicit, measure, and classify strategies; some target the methodology used to carry out intervention studies; some focus on assumptions about the impact of strategy use; and some examine the lack of theoretical rigour of learner strategy research generally.

Language learning strategy research seems to suffer from methodological weaknesses, which even the editors are willing to admit. Oxford and Amerstorfer suggest that researchers using the typical questionnaires provide their audience with "caveats" (p. xxix) recognizing the limitations of such research owing to the diverse contexts and tasks for LLS use and the complexity or fluidity around LLS use. While identifying that experimental or quasi-experimental studies with a control group offer more optimal measures of strategy instruction, they seem to back off from the call for rigor by claiming that the Likert-scaled surveys criticized on statistical grounds can "offer a broad picture of LLS use" (p. xxix). They also point out that single group designs can serve as pilot studies, without actually acknowledging that such a design may be the only ethical option in real classrooms. Nevertheless, the editors do note that the degree of complexity in LLS use calls for a mixed-methods approach to assessment and research. Thus, in the studies collated in Part II of this volume, the chapter authors are responding somewhat to these criticisms of traditional methods by presenting new methods for LLS research. In addition to general strategy questionnaires from various taxonomies of LLS, the volume includes qualitative as well as quantitative methods with several studies delineated in enough detail to suit replication. Examples of approaches for strategy research and assessment include: think-aloud protocols; retrospective interviews; learner diaries or narratives; scenario-based questionnaires; interviews and observations; and a decision-tree based methodology.

Griffiths, in Chapter 3, provides the first example of LLS research methodology in the text, with a fairly conventional Likert-scale questionnaire. However, she explains in quite some detail her reasons for choosing a traditional LLS research methodology, thoroughly analyzes the reliability of the data, and humbly finishes with strong caveats

about any potential conclusions. In other words, she generally covers by example how some weaknesses of Likert-scale based LLS research can be addressed.

Gkonou, in Chapter 4, reports on a mixed-methods study into the learner characteristic of language anxiety conducted in Greece. Teachers based in Japan facing similar issues with learner anxiety will be interested in her belief that "to improve our learners' learning experience, we should give them the opportunity to voice their thoughts and share with us their emotions, anxieties, and worries about classroom language learning" (p. 79). Gkonou also observes that "it is vital for both learners and teachers to be able to turn their negative emotions into positive ones in order to create healthy relationships, positive group dynamics, and a positive class atmosphere" (p. 82). In the quantitative portion of her research, she utilizes the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) from Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) as a conventional questionnaire targeting the students' anxiety levels. Then, in the qualitative part, she employs a diary study of learner narratives and semi-structured individual interviews. While this study with only seven participants must be considered small-scale, it provides evidence of strategy use to cope with anxiety and a model for mixed methods design to improve rigor in LLS research.

In Chapter 5, after countering the claim of a decline in LLS research with details from a database search, Mizumoto and Takeuchi propose decision tree-based methods. They see these as a more flexible quantitative approach for research - in comparison to the conventional, user-friendly questionnaires more suited to pedagogical purposes. These two Japan-based researchers briefly explain the issues around questionnaire construction in LLS research, such as the lack of reliability, limitations to predictive validity, and the potential for measurement error with single-item scales used in some Likert-style questionnaires otherwise designed as a psychographic instrument. Mizumoto and Takeuchi then echo the call in other subfields of applied linguistics for increased methodological rigor incorporating appropriate statistical analyses for improved reporting, better quality research papers, and greater potential for replication. They introduce decision tree-based analysis as a "nonparametric, nonlinear method for predicting a phenomenon" (p. 111). They present a discussion of the features of decision tree analysis which allow researchers to explore a combination of situated strategy use and even diagnose EFL learners in need of further instruction. They conclude that this innovative method, while still relatively unused in applied linguistics beyond some corpus studies, does provide a quantitative alternative to the dominant Likert-scale based research, allowing scholars further avenues for principled research.

In Chapter 6, Amerstorfer claims that a mixed-methods approach "enables a broader and deeper understanding of a specific research problem" (p. 129). In her model study of German students, she employs SILL results as quantitative data and includes lesson observations and two types of semi-structured interviews for the qualitative component. The conclusion by Amerstorfer is that "a mix of research methods is appropriate and advisable for a study about contextualized, self-regulated language learning strategies" (p. 137). Of note for researchers is the way in which quan-qual methods were merged and not simply run independently or in parallel as in many mixed-method studies.

Learning Strategies in Context

Groups are made up of unique individuals with "interpersonal differences" and "intrapersonal dynamics" (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014) in situated contexts, all of which add complexity to L2 learning research and the aim of making broader generalizations while avoiding stereotypes. In Chapter 7, Gu asks (a) What is LLS research for? and (b) To what extent has LLS research achieved its purpose? (p. 145). He summarizes for a global readership the literature on LLS research done in China with a meta-analysis of the 67 most-cited articles. Gu explains that strategies for EFL learning in China have received considerable attention in research studies because, while few learners may achieve communicative levels of proficiency, the focus of research is on finding more effective and efficient ways of learning (p. 145). However, while exploratory studies in collectivist China have revealed favorable correlations between strategy use and learning outcomes, Gu notes that "the relationship between strategy choice, use, and effectiveness has been … complicated, and mediated by various learner-, task-, and context-related factors" (p. 150) with the end result being limited impact on learning and teaching practice. Additionally, and something that may resonate for Japan-based readers, a disconnect is said to exist between tertiary academia conducting the research, the top-down government policies, and the grassroots needs of the language educators. Gu's chapter offers little in the way of comment or critique on the quality of the methodology, research designs, or study instruments, leaving a gap for readers and replicators.

In Chapter 8, Psaltou-Joycey and Garrilidou examine how individual characteristics affect strategy use. Rather unique to LLS research, their investigation spanning across Greece uncovered the strategy use of young leaners and adolescents. Their findings suggest, as borne out in other studies, that gender, level of education, and perceived level of English proficiency affect the selection and use of strategies. However, their study of socioeconomic/sociocultural factors, as represented by region of residence, seems more tenuous. While correlation between strategy use and region of residence seems undeniable, it is difficult to claim any kind of causation based on socioeconomic factors. The authors themselves suggest that complex mechanisms "affecting motivation and beliefs about the role of FLs or individual characteristics" (p. 182) may be at the root of the matter and underlie the effects of gender, education levels, and perceived language proficiency.

In Chapter 9, Pawlak seeks to address his claim of a gap in the research by attempting to garner meaningful insight from pronunciation learning strategy use in form-focused and meaning-oriented tasks while analyzing contextual and individual difference variables. It is obvious from this chapter that research into pronunciation strategies is methodologically challenging. Pawlak himself notes that "the research project suffers from some weaknesses that may account for the difficulty in identifying definite patterns and teasing out the influence of moderating variables" (p. 203). In hindsight, he suggests that a mixed-methods approach would have been more fruitful.

The three chapters in Part III may not present the most rigorous studies and perhaps unintentionally advertise the methodological risks involved in LLS research. However, the authors have sought to more closely examine individual selves which Mercer (2014) describes as "the hub at the center of lived experiences" characterized by "a range of self-related cognitions, beliefs, emotions, motives, roles, relationships, memories, dreams and goals" (p. 160). Respecting the complexity of strategic L2 learning provides researchers

with an opportunity to see individual learner characteristics and the diversity in contexts. With LLS as part of the learner-context system, Ushioda's (2009) "person-in-context relational view" is most relevant for research into "the agency of the individual person as a thinking, feeling, human being, with an identity, a personality, a unique history and background, a person with goals, motives and intention" (p. 220). However, the push to make reported research more generalizable inevitably challenges researchers who must avoid "reduc[ing] the complexity of the interrelatedness between the diverse elements of an individual's psychology and the context they act within" (Williams, Mercer, & Ryan, 2015, p. 142).

Strategy Instruction and Teacher Training
Three chapters suggest future paths for preparing teachers and presenting LLS instruction. Chamot (Chapter 10) discusses the potential for pre-service strategy instruction training. She describes in detail the activities and assignments that address strategy training in three courses of one particular graduate-level teacher training program. The Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire distributed was extremely valuable as diagnostic information for program evaluation and improvement. However, since follow up observations of actual practices in subsequent teaching assignments have not been feasible, the study is limited to self-report data on the candidates' "self-efficacy related to their perceived ability to teach language learning strategies successfully" (p. 231). This leaves the crucial issue of whether strategy instruction is beneficial for future teachers (and their learners) relatively unresolved. As Chamot concludes that "many questions remain about the most effective way to integrate language learning strategies into second and foreign language teacher preparation programs" (p. 232), the call for longitudinal, ethnographic studies seems clear.

In Chapter 11, Bielak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak analyze the relationship between affective strategy use and anxiety with English majors in Poland. Their research mentions several scholars who have discovered a relationship between strategy instruction and improved language learning. However, in their concluding remarks on the limitations of their research, they hedge tenuously by stating "the present research suggests that there may well be some significant links between anxiety and LLSs that should be further investigated" (p. 256). Amid the suggestion of these positive links, a noteworthy observation is the awareness shown by English majors in Poland's EFL context of needing to deal with the negative emotion of anxiety and thus mobilizing strategies they have learned previously in order to do so. For this study situated in the exam-centric Polish education system, the authors point out the benefits from providing counseling and training to language majors in "the strategic art of learning languages" (p. 256). Readers in similar exam-driven contexts, such as Japan, can draw parallels to their own teaching and research situations.

In Chapter 12, Gunning and Harris discuss strategy assessment (SA) with young language learners (YLLs) who have received strategy instruction (SI). They note that there are different purposes and methods for strategy assessment by different stakeholders such as researchers studying strategies and teachers making decisions on pedagogy in the classroom. The chapter provides an overview of methods and tools with tips for teachers and researchers to design strategy assessment in the under-investigated YLL context. The authors' goal is to examine "how YLLs' strategy use in an authentic context can be appropriately (according to age) and reliably assessed, and how the effects of SI and SA

on strategy use and on learning can be gauged" (p. 281). However, this chapter is not empirically-based and the efficacy of SI is not examined directly.

Although another major goal of this book is to suggest future paths for preparing teachers and presenting LLS instruction, several chapter authors avoid waging a direct argument for the effectiveness of strategy instruction. In addition, Oxford and Amerstorfer (p. xxxi) merely state that "LLS are teachable, and expertly planned SI is valuable." In Chapter 1, Oxford, Lavine, and Amerstorfer present an imaginative exercise for developing learners' strategy awareness but avoid any empirical evidence or research-based discussion of the effectiveness of the activity. Although research in the literature does suggest a possible relationship between the use of strategies and success in second language learning, Macaro (2006) claims that it is debatable "as to whether it is the range and frequency of strategy use, the nature of strategies, or the combinations of strategies that is the key to successful language learning" (p. 321). In a meta-analysis of the effectiveness of second language strategy instruction, Plonsky (2011) reports only "a small to medium overall effect of SI" (p. 993) with several variables moderating the effectiveness of LLS instruction.

Conclusion

In this edited volume, various authors have targeted contributions on the theoretical foundations, research methodologies, and context-based instructional aspects of language learning strategies. Together with the editors, they have identified issues that need to be addressed further by LLS scholars and presented by teachers for strategic, self-regulated L2 learning. Moreover, readers are made aware of the complexity of language learning strategies, and the importance of the individual in diverse contexts.

As Amerstorfer and Oxford state in the Conclusion, this "book can be an inspiration to researchers, theorists, current and future L2 teachers, teacher educators, and university faculty in many countries around the globe" (p. 296). This is true, but unfortunately several questions still remain from both the chapters summarizing the literature and the primary studies. Is the concept of language learning strategies theoretically sound? Is the research valid and conclusive? Can strategies be taught and learnt effectively? And, assuming that strategy instruction is effective, how can teachers incorporate these strategies into their teaching? While this book deals with many major issues, it does not necessarily answer them. Further discussion and research are needed.

As with many anthologies, this is not an entry-level book for readers looking to isolate a comprehensive, firm theoretical understanding of learning strategies or to pick up as a how-to guide on researching and teaching language learning strategies (except for Chapter 12 on Young Language Learners). For individuals with a fundamental understanding of LLS and some applied practice with them, this volume can open and encourage new vistas to explore. Most, however, with a teaching, research, or policy interest in LLS may benefit from first going through Oxford's 2017 second edition titled *Teaching and Researching Language Learning Strategies: Self-regulation in Context.* Chapter 5 "Language Learner Strategies," in Gregersen and MacIntyre's 2014 title *Capitalizing on Language Learners' Individuality: From Premise to Practice* is also a useful, practical resource. That chapter, with two sets of strategic activity tasks to be completed in sequence, offers seven-step action plans on how to: raise and deepen learners' awareness, present and model strategies, provide opportunities to practice them, and monitor the self-evaluation and transfer of strategies to new tasks.

In this title, teachers in Japan can revisit the qualities of good language learners while better understanding the contextual variables and individual learner differences that influence cognition, motivation, and behavior. Researchers in a Japanese context can benefit from mixed-method models (used to reveal that anxious students use affective and metacognitive strategies along with positive psychology), an option for capturing quantitative data on situated strategy use through decision tree analysis, and tools for qualitative learner narratives. Finally, policy makers and educators can identify how teacher training in strategy instruction can impact on learners in the classroom.

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Moral Decision-making and the Foreign Language Effect

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Morality is an intrinsic part of our individuality. It guides us in our daily interactions and informs our outlook of the world around us. Yet, how intractable is morality? Though moral choices depend on various contextual factors, it would seem natural to believe that, as long as individuals understand the situation, moral decisions would remain constant regardless of the language being used. However, recent research has demonstrated that foreign language significantly affects moral decision-making outcomes. To date, researchers have looked at how foreign language affects the decision making process in language learners who have had significant time abroad. However, how does a foreign language affect the decision making process of those with less international experience? Moreover, at a time of cognitive maturation, does using a foreign language significantly affect the moral decisions of university students? To better understand the effect of foreign language on moral decision making, a study was conducted with Japanese university students studying English. The findings suggest that a foreign language attenuates cognitive functioning toward deliberate, utilitarian processing of moral dilemmas over emotional biases and heuristics. The implication of the Foreign Language Effect on Moral Decision-making (MFLE) are far reaching and diverse—economic, social, and political—involving situations where decision-making and cross-cultural communication intersect.

Keywords: foreign language effect, psychology, decision making

A train is hurtling down the tracks toward five unsuspecting people. You are standing next to a lever which, if thrown, will divert the train onto another track. However, you notice that there is another person on the second set of tracks. If you divert the train, you will save the five people, but will kill the one person on the other track. You have a decision to make: Would you sacrifice one person to save the lives of five other people?

The Trolley Dilemma and other similar moral thought experiments afford a glimpse at the tension between deontological biases—what people hold to be intrinsically right and wrong—and utilitarian values—actions which promote the greater good. By doing so we can better understand what constitutes "morality" as well as the factors that influence moral decision-making.

This is particularly important in late adolescence and early adulthood when individuals are emotionally and cognitively maturing. it is during this time when learners develop a concrete sense of their social identity and lay the foundations of the moral code that will inform future social interactions. How does a foreign language affect the moral decision making and even moral development of English language learners in this age group?

Literature Review

Traditionally, moral decision making has been thought to consist of an evaluation of preferences and needs to identify the optimal outcome to a situation and choosing the most appropriate path to that outcome. Moral choice is usually considered personal and with the exception of extremely mitigating circumstances, intractable. That is, following one's moral compass, a person can be counted on to make the same moral decisions. As a result, people are held responsible for the moral choice—their choices to do what is right and wrong.   As the ability to better understand the brain developed, so too did the idea that there is neurological component to moral decision-making and that choosing to do what is right and wrong has as much to do with biology as it does with "free will".

Recent research has attempted to identify the neurological mechanisms behind decision-making as well as areas in the brain associated with specific moral decision-making outcomes. Damasio and colleagues (1994) noted that the prefrontal cortex (the area of the brain associated with higher order cognitive processing) is involved in navigating social interactions. They examined how damage to the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (vmPFC) impedes decision-making, with individuals unable to recognize social conventions and exhibiting antisocial behaviour. This was the situation in the famous case of Phineas Gage. In another study, Blair (2002) attempted to distinguish the neurological differences between Antisocial Personality Disorder (APD) and psychopathy. The former is marked by severe antisocial behavior and *reactive* aggression, while the latter describes individuals exhibiting unusual callousness and lack of emotionality. Unlike individuals with APD, those with psychopathy exhibit *instrumental* aggression. In other words, whereas the aggressive behavior of those with APD is in response to some event, those with psychopathy deliberately use aggression as a means to an end. What Blair found in those individuals with psychopathy was that the tempo parietal junction (TPJ) does not respond to personalized harm. These individuals do not recognize threats to their safety. They do not understand the concept that "this could happen to me." This is an important factor that determines people's emotional reaction to moral and social situations (Blair, 2002).

Studies such as these have led researchers to develop a neurological model of moral decision making · Daniel Kahneman (2011) has suggested that there are two systems involved in decision making: system 1 processes, which are automatic, intuitive, and immediate, and system 2 processes, which are more effortful and evaluative. Deontological choices, such as "do not harm people" are driven primarily by System 1 processes. These are thought to center around the amygdala and activation of the connected default mode network or   DMN (Buckner & DiNicola, 2019). Utilitarian or consequential choices, the idea of "the greater good", are supported by System 2 processes, controlled by the prefrontal cortex (PFC), the part of the brain responsible for higher order thinking (Hayakawa et al., 2017).

These systems work in tandem to observe, examine, and understand situation. For the most part, system 1 processes are dominant with system 2 processes emerging when situations become more convoluted. When presented with a moral situation such as the Trolley Dilemma, the amygdala generates an initial negative response to personally harmful situations, while the vmPFC weighs that signal against a competing signal reflecting the utilitarian advantages of committing a harmful act. (Greene, 2014).

Incorporating a foreign language into the moral decision making process complicates matters and there has been much research conducted investigating MFLE

(Moral Foreign Language Effect), the effect of a foreign language on moral decisions (Bereby-Meyer et al., 2018; Costa et al., 2014; Geipel et al., 2015; Hadjichristidis et al., 2017; Vives et al., 2018; Volk et al., 2014)

Volk et al. (2014) suggest that using a foreign language depletes cognitive resources especially in individuals whose second language (L2) is not well developed. As a result, system 2 processes that act as checks and balances cannot function effectively. Therefore, these individuals are prone to "heuristically generated biases" (p. 16). That is, individuals are more likely to choose from affective, system 1, processing.

Similarly, Vives et al. (2018) also recognize the added cognitive load placed by using a foreign language but suggest that this depletion of cognitive resources "prompt[s] people to be more careful (and slower) when assessing the options afforded by the problem" (p. 2) therefore producing moral decisions generated by system 2 processes. This idea of *heightened systematicity*, suggests that using a foreign language primes the brain to think systematically (Keysar et al., 2012). Similarly, the idea of heightened utilitarianism suggests that by slowing down the deliberation process, the brain is primed to think in terms of utility and consequence (Geipel et al., 2016).

Other studies suggest that a foreign language attenuates cognition toward system 2 processes by blunting emotional reactivity or reducing the salience of moral and social norms and heuristics. Using a foreign language, dampens emotion by creating a psychological distance and leads to evaluating situations in abstract terms (Costa et al., 2014). This *blunted deontology* lends itself to system 2 processing by reducing emotional processing (Hayakawa et al., 2017). Moreover, Bereby-Meyer et al. (2018) note that foreign words themselves are less emotionally charged than those from a mother tongue.

Although the exact mechanism are not known, research to date has demonstrated that when presented with a moral dilemma in a foreign language prompted more lenient moral evaluations and less certainty in one's moral judgments, with decisions tending toward more utilitarian choices (Costa et al., 2014; Geipel et al., 2015). However, the research conducted has been with participants who have had extensive experience with a second language—either living overseas or having studied the foreign language for many years. There has yet to be an examination of the MFLE on individuals who have not had a lot of international experience nor have yet gained the social and emotional experience of being a regular member of a workplace.

University age students are at a time in their lives when they have just started to better understand their individual identity and are in the process of understanding their social identity. It is a crucial time of social and emotional development. How does the MFLE affect these students? To better understand this, students at a Japanese university were asked to participate in an exploratory research

Methodology
Participants
First and second-year students attending a Japanese university were invited to participate in this study. Based primarily on accessibility, scheduling, and course of study (English language track), a sample size (n=85) was determined (43 female, 42male: M_{age}=18.5, age range=18-19 years). Participants were informed of the purpose of the study and asked for consent. Using participants' reported TOEIC scores (M_{score}= 442.6, range 375-575), the English level of the participants was determined to be pre-intermediate (CEFR B1, range A1-B2).

Students were assigned into one of two groups: the control or native language (L1) condition (n=42, 21 female, 21 male, M_{score}= 441.4), and the foreign language (L2) condition (n=43, 22 female, 21 male, M_{score}= 442.9, P=0.889).

Table 1
Analysis of groups

	Participants		Avg. Age (years)	English Level (TOEIC)	
L1 Condition	*42*	21 (f) 21 (m)	18.45	441.4	470.4 412.5
L2 Condition	*43*	22 (f) 21 (m)	18.5	442.9	470.7 415.0

df=83, t=0.14,P=0.889

Instruments

Following previous research (Costa, et al., 2014; Geipel et al., 2015), students were presented with modified versions of the classic trolley dilemma and a modified dilemma in their native language (L1), Japanese and a foreign language (L2), English. The Trolley dilemma is a hypothetical situation where individuals must choose between saving the life of five other people at the cost of sacrificing the life of someone else.

This thought experiment opens investigation into the tension between deontological beliefs (heuristics such as it is wrong to kill someone) and utilitarian thinking (that is, "the greater good").

The original trolley dilemma and a modified version involving a boat rather than a trolley were used for this study. The English versions were re-worded to be easier to understand and then translated and back translated into/from Japanese. The final versions were compared and verified by native language speakers to verify consistency of content and meaning.

Procedure

Participants were presented with moral dilemmas (see Appendix A), each with a choice involving the death of an individual in order to save five. The presentation of dilemmas was counterbalanced, delivered entirely in Japanese (L1) or English (L2). The native language condition group were given the dilemma first in Japanese and were later presented with the modified version in English. The foreign language condition group were given the problem first in English and then in Japanese. Participants had to choose to do the action and select *YES* (i.e., but would save five other people. pulling a switch, diverting course) or select *NO* and do nothing. Participants were also asked to sketch the problem to demonstrate their understanding. Nonresponses, unintelligible responses or responses with no sketch were removed from the final analysis. The remaining responses for each situation were measured for internal consistency (α=0.89, "good"). The final sample size (n=80) consisted of 20 females and 21 males (n=41) in the native language condition and 19 females and 20 males (n=39) in the foreign language condition. Statistical analysis further showed a significant difference (p=0.022) between moral decisions when the dilemmas were presented in learners' L1 and L2. Between group analysis showed that the decisions between the control and test group in L1 were quite similar (p=0.003).

Results

Native language (L1) condition

This group was presented with the trolley problem in their native language and reported similar results (see Figure 1) to previous findings (Geipel et al., 2015). Fifty-nine percent of participants chose to sacrifice the life of one person to save the lives of five others (system 2, utilitarian processing, UP) while forty-one percent decided that it was better to do nothing (system 1, deontological processing, DP) and let the trolley follow its course.

Figure 1
Trolley Dilemma (L1 condition)
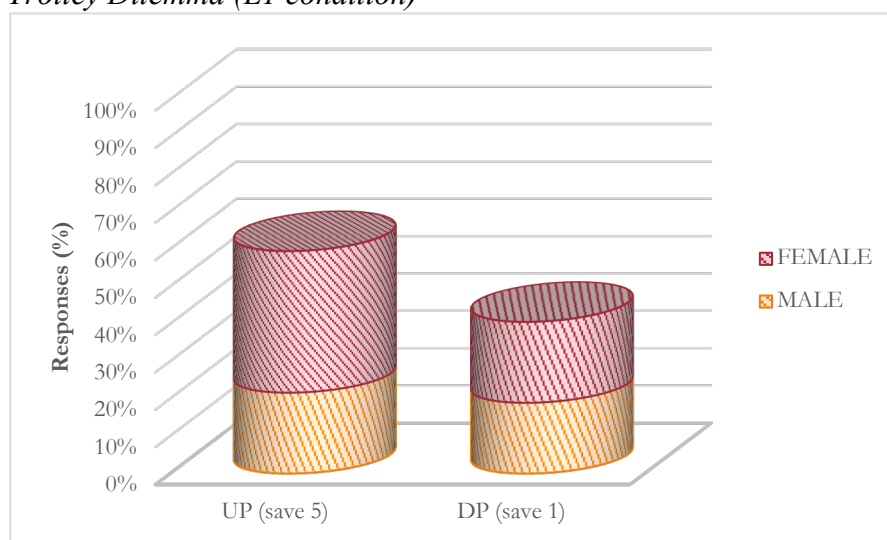
Foreign language (L2) condition

This group was presented with the trolley problem in English, their foreign language (L2). There was a 17-percentile point increase when presented with the same dilemma in a foreign language (L2). Seventy-six percent of students chose the more utilitarian option of sacrificing one person to save five others, while only 24% chose to do nothing see Figure 2).

The foreign language condition group was also given an additional moral dilemma to verify that there were no biases associated with the group. The dilemma was a variation of the trolley dilemma and presented in Japanese (L1). Not surprisingly, the group reported similarly to the native language condition, with 62% reporting that they would sacrifice one person to save five others (Figure 3).

Figure 2
Trolley Dilemma (L1 vs L2)
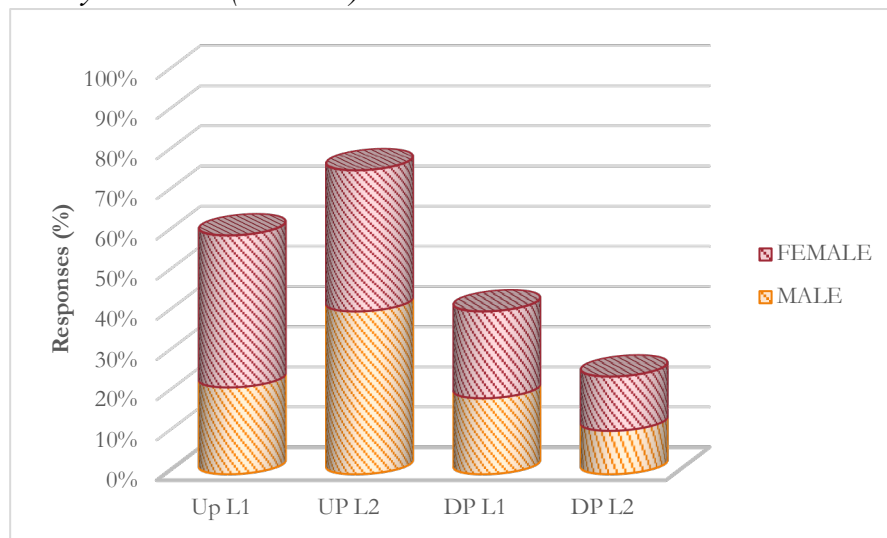
Figure 1
Trolley—Boat Dilemma
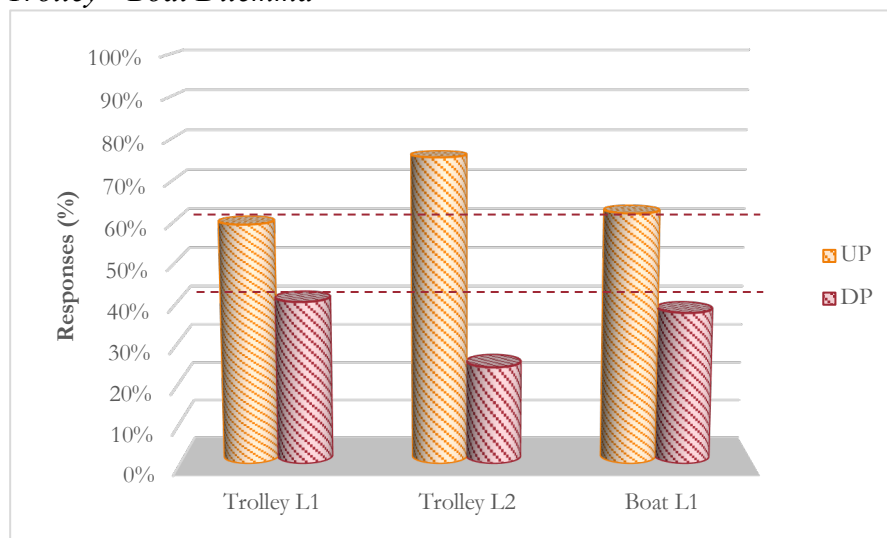
Discussion
The findings from this study lend support to the MFLE hypothesis that foreign language affects how individuals process decisions. Although, at face value, the choice to save five others by sacrificing one person might seem easy, that the majority of participants chose not to pull the lever, suggests participants struggled with the deontological bias against harming people. This tendency has also been seen in other similar research (Costa, et al., 2014). However, when presented in a foreign language, even though participants understood that both situations represented a choice between sacrificing the life of one person to save five others, participants overwhelmingly chose the utilitarian option. In fact, there was a 17% increase in utilitarian responses. This increase is in-line with other studies. For example, Costa et al. (2014) reported between 13 to 26 percentage point

increases in utilitarian choices between mother tongue (L1) and foreign (L2) language (p. 3).

What is it about using a foreign language that overcomes deontological biases and heuristics? Observations and follow-up interviews with randomly selected participants tended to point toward the fact that the decision-making process was affected more by either heightened utilitarianism or heightened systematicity, rather than a blunted deontology. In informal follow up interviews with participants, there was general agreement that dilemmas presented in either L1 or L2 were equally difficult in terms of emotion. In addition, during the activity, it was observed that participants tended to take longer when responding in a foreign language (L2) than when using their mother tongue (L1). Although there was no tracking of time, 20 minutes was allotted to complete the activities. Working in their L1, groups finished faster and there was more time to discuss the activity. After the task, participants compared their decisions with each other. On the other hand, groups working in an L2 requested additional time to complete the task. In addition, there was also a general tendency for participants to consult either the instructor or peers when using L2. Participants asked such questions as "Do I know these people?" or "Can I save both?" in L2 but not in L1. That is, when using L1, participants tended to come to a decision and compare their decisions with those of their peers, where participants wanted more information and sought advice from peers *before* coming to decision when using L2.

In an increasingly globalized world, it has become much more commonplace to interact with people from different cultures in a language other than one's mother tongue. Though the current language of international communication is English, the rise in popularity and usage of other languages such as Arabic and Mandarin, would suggest that more and more people will have to communicate in languages other than English, the common choice for L2. In light of the current research, using a language further from one's L1 would mean that the effects of using that foreign language would be more pronounced.

Future Research

Understanding the exact processes involved is the next logical step to understanding and leveraging the foreign language effect. What do individuals notice or focus on between L1 and L2? What regions in the brain are activated? To what degree does the foreign language effect impact more "real life" problems?

Understanding the various factors that contribute to our decision-making allows us to make decisions that are authentic. Although it can be argued that a more utilitarian approach to decision-making is beneficial, it is still important to recognize that emotions and personal and even cultural values play a significant role.

This is even more prescient when we consider that with the recent changes to the course of study, foreign language learning is starting at a younger age. In adolescence and young adulthood, when individuals are negotiating their identity, decisions inform their moral code. Will the increased presence and usage of a foreign language diminish traditional cultural values? These are questions that I hope future research attempts to answer.

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Appendix 1

Dilemmas Presented (English version)

Classic Trolley Dilemma

There is a runaway trolley barreling down the railway tracks. Ahead, on the tracks, there are five people tied up and unable to move. The trolley is headed straight for them. You are standing some distance off in the train yard, next to a lever. If you pull this lever, the trolley will switch to a different set of tracks. However, you notice that there is one person on the side track. You have two options:

1. Do nothing and allow the trolley to kill the five people on the main track.
2. Pull the lever, diverting the trolley onto the side track where it will kill one person.
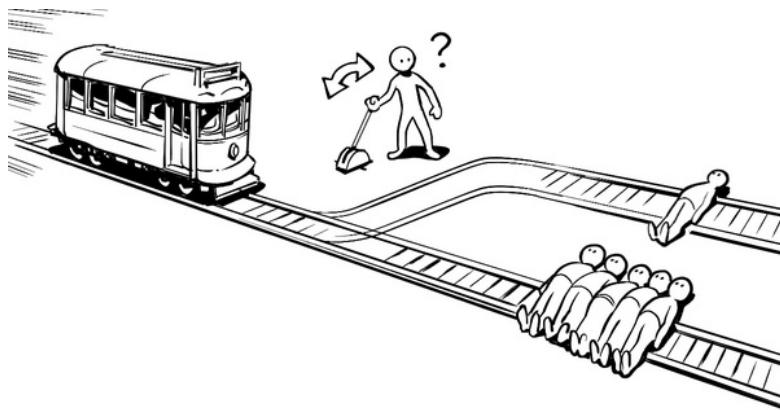
Modified Boat Dilemma

A boat carrying flammable material is out of control. It is heading toward a larger boat with five people on board. You have enough time to change the course of the boat away from the five people. However, the change in course means the dangerous boat will crash into a boat yard where there is one person working. You have two options:

1. Do nothing and let the dangerous boat hit the large boat with five people (The material will explode, and the five people will die).

2. Divert the boat into the boat yard (The material will explode and the person working there will die).

Media, Culture, and EFL: Using Films in Classrooms

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Abstract
Films are a popular source of entertainment worldwide. This paper introduces different listening, speaking, writing, and discussion tasks for EFL students centered around films. Idiomatic language, the use of movie trailers and voice overs, and different conversation topics concerning culture in films is also discussed, along with ideas for extended speaking and writing topics. Finally, these tasks are followed by commentary and a consideration of the usefulness of films as an English learning resource.

Keywords: films in classrooms, movie trailers, movie scripts, classroom activities, idiomatic language in films

The film industry is a global business of magnificent proportions. In total, the worldwide film industry box office accounted for over 40 billion dollars in 2017. When taking into account the additional revenue gained from films that are dispersed digitally through streaming, discs and rentals, the total film industry revenue accounts for a combined value of nearly 100 billion dollars (Robb, 2018). Not only is the film industry a huge business, but it has also become increasingly global and international. It is notable, for example, that nearly 70 percent of Hollywood studios' revenue are earned from international markets (Brook, 2014). Films, therefore, are a global, international, and familiar form of visual media that are useful for EFL students of all ages, cultures, and national backgrounds.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the usefulness of films and provide examples of how to use films as effective learning tools in EFL classrooms. This paper will also discuss idiomatic language, the use of movie trailers and voice overs, and different conversation topics concerning culture, along with ideas for extended speaking and writing topics. Finally, these tasks are followed by commentary and a consideration of the usefulness of films as an English learning resource, as well as providing insight and commentary of the utility of using films in classrooms.

Films and EFL: A Perfect Match
Films are a perfect match and useful addition to any EFL classroom. Not only are many EFL students frequently exposed to English language films, films are also popular sources of entertainment across all age groups. Most importantly, however, films have many educational benefits. Videos such as films, for example, are useful as they are motivating and interesting resources that are well suited as authentic classroom materials (Stempleski & Tomalin, 1990). Films are also indispensable as they can help to bridge language gaps among students stemming from deficient English language input opportunities (Bahrani & Tam, 2011; Bahrani & Tam, 2012; Li, 2009). In addition, video materials such as films

are helpful for students as they can be used to introduce and draw on a wide variety of topics which can then help to activate student life experiences and language learning into the classroom (Herron & Hanley, 1992). The educational rationale of using films in EFL classes, therefore, are numerous and also include but are not limited to the following:

> *Films can expose students to different varieties of English accents and dialects* (Martinez, 2002).

> *Films can introduce topics and offer good discussion and critical thinking opportunities* (Curtis, 2007).

> *Films expose students to authentic English that is frequently unable to be found as language in typical ELT textbooks* (King, 2002).

> *Films can give students visual references that can aid in language learning* (Long, 2003).

> *Film clips can be easily adapted into English lessons that incorporate both productive and receptive language tasks* (Sommer, 2001).

Using Films to Teach Phrases and Collocations
The English language is rife with numerous uses of idioms and collocations, which can be challenging for students learning English. Consider, for example, that there are over 25,000 idioms in the English language ("Idiomatic Expressions," n.d.). The good news, however, is that YouTube (https://www.youtube.com) hosts many clips from movie scenes that can be used to introduce and teach idioms and collocations to students. One good resource is Voice of America's Learning English Channel (https://www.youtube.com/user/VOALearningEnglish) which introduces many authentic uses of phrases, idioms, and collocations as part of its "English @ the Movies" series. At present, there are countless clips featured in the series that all share a similar format. In each clip, which typically run for about 2 minutes, a movie title and its plot is briefly introduced, and a scene from a movie is shown where an idiom, collocation, or phrase is played with a subsequent explanation of its meaning and use. The following are some examples of films and their use of phrases, idioms, and collocations featured as part of Voice of America's *English @ the Movies* series:

1. It really takes your breath away - *47 Meters Down* (Harris, Lane, & Roberts, 2017)
2. Not my cup of tea - *Forever My Girl* (Liddell, Monroe, Shilaimon, & Wolf, 2018)
3. Stop at nothing - *Jungle Book* (Favreau, Taylor, & Favreau, 2016)
4. Freaking out - *The Smurfs* (Kerner & Gosnell, 2011)
5. Piece of cake - *Power Rangers* (Bowen, Casentini, Godfrey, Saban, & Israelite, 2017)

Many of the expressions listed above are useful and idiomatic forms of language that can be valuable sources of input for EFL students to learn and utilize. In addition, as many of the above phrases would likely be difficult for EFL students to learn on their own using a typical dictionary, using Voice of America's English @ the Movies YouTube

channel can be a creative and interesting way to introduce colloquial language to students. When using the Voice of America's English @ the Movies channel, a recommended classroom procedure would be as follows:

1. Play the YouTube clip once and pause when the title and plot of the movie is introduced. Check student comprehension so that they understand the movie's title, plot and context.
2. Resume playing the clip and pause again when the phrase from the movie (*It really takes your breath away*, *not my cup of tea*, etc.) is introduced on the screen in bold and large letters. When the phrase appears on the screen, take a moment to ask students if they can think of the phrase's meaning based on its context.
3. Resume playing the clip to the end. After the clip finishes, check student comprehension and pronunciation of the phrase that was introduced.
4. As a follow-up activity, put students into pairs and assign them the task of creating a sentence or short dialogue using the phrase from the clip. Students can then practice their sentences and short dialogues with another pair or in front of the class in the form of a short demonstration.

Using Movie Trailers

Movie trailers are also useful resources for introducing different listening and speaking activities. One good online resource for choosing a movie trailer for use in the classroom is Trailer Addict (https://www.traileraddict.com). On its webpage, you can search for countless movie trailers which are categorized by genre, cast, and film studio, as well as by keywords and taglines.

Movie trailers are particularly well suited for a variety of classroom activities because they are often short, memorable, and use a variety of techniques meant to engage viewer interests in its contents within a very short time block (Vanity Fair, 2019). The short length of movie trailers, therefore, make them not only easy for students to recall and summarize in their own words in speaking exercises, but also make them well suited for activities in which students can listen and infer the meanings of keywords in memorable, visual contexts. In short, a single movie trailer can be used in many different classroom activities.

As an example, I have outlined explanations of two possible classroom activities from the movie trailer *47 Meters Down* which is a movie about two young women who go scuba diving with sharks off the coast of Mexico during a holiday. The trailer for *47 Meters Down* is available for viewing on the *Trailer Addict* webpage.

The first activity detailed below is a Cloze listening activity. The following is a suggested procedure:

1. Play the movie trailer once and instruct students to listen and write down new vocabulary words.
2. Play the movie trailer a second time and then ask students to think and brainstorm in pairs a meaning for each of the vocabulary words they have written down based on the context from the trailer.
3. Hand out the task sheet (Figure 1) from an excerpt of the trailer and instruct students to listen for the gap fills from the task sheet.

4. After students have completed the task sheet (Figure 1), make sure to go over the answers and instruct students to read from the script with emotion and voice in pairs.

Figure 1
Cloze and listening activity for trailer from 47 Meters Down *(Harris, Lane, & Roberts, 2017)*

> **Man #1:** It's like you're going in the zoo, except you're the one in the
>   1.__cage__.
> **Man #2:** Remember. The faster you breath, the faster you use up your air.
>   2.__Trust me____, once you're down there. You're not going to
>   come back up.
> **Girl #1:** This is amazing.
> **Girl #2:** 3. __It kind of takes your breath away_
> **Girl #1:** 4. ___Oh my God__! That's the biggest shark

The second activity detailed below is a movie trailer summary story board activity. A recommended procedure is as follows:

1. Play the movie trailer several times and instruct students to take notes on 4-5 key details and events from the trailer.
2. After students have taken notes from the trailer, hand out the task sheet (Figure 2) and instruct students that they will summarize and create a story board of the events from the movie trailer. Students could have the option of both working individually or in pairs. Instruct students to illustrate or sketch key details or events from the beginning and middle of the trailer, followed by a prediction of their own for the movie's ending.
3. After students have finished, have students summarize and share their movie trailer summaries and ending predictions using their story boards as visual cues.
4. If there is time, this activity can also be modified to have students make short presentations introducing the movie, its plot, and give reasons why or why not they would recommend others to see the movie.

Figure 2
Movie Trailer Summary Story Board task sheet

Scene 1 – Beginning	Scene 2 – important event #1	Scene 3 – important event #2
Scene 4 – important event #3	Scene 5 – important event #4	Scene 6 – End Prediction

An additional follow up activity using the move trailer from *47 Meters Down* would be for students to create their own fictional marketing campaign to build interest in the film. For example, one activity idea could be for students to create fictional Twitter hashtags that promote or describe the film based on its trailer. In Japan, Twitter is a particularly useful format for use in classroom activities because of its familiarity among many Japanese students. In Japan, for example, nearly one third of Japan's population use Twitter at least once a month (Wang, 2019). Among some of the possible marketing and hashtag one liners that students could create to promote the film could include the following:

1. #SharkAttack
2. #ScarySharks
3. #SharksTakeYourBreathAway
4. #SwimAwayASAP
5. #JustKeepSwimming

Depending on the students' English level, the activity could also be modified to include different stipulations for students, for example to use certain idiomatic phrases or adjectives, or to make sure to incorporate different types of figurative language. Students could also be asked to rank and give explanations for what they would consider to be the strongest one liners for use in a marketing campaign.

Using Films in Voice Over Activities
Films are also useful and innovative ways to draw student attention and focus into practicing the different uses of voice, intonation, tone, and emotion. One useful activity is the use of films as mediums to implement voice overs, or movie dubbing activities with students. A voice over activity, in which students watch a movie clip without the sound and then speak and insert their own voices for the characters on the screen, can be particularly engaging, useful, and advantageous as they can be fun role play activities in which students can "self-monitor and improve their oral performance" as they "put themselves into the persona of the characters whose voices they are dubbing" (Burston, 2005, p. 80-81). In addition, in a study done at Kanda University of International Studies, over 80% of students reported that they found voice over activities helpful to their English learning, with some students indicating that the exercise helped with "imitating native speaker's linking of words and intonation," (MacKenzie, 2009-11, p. 151).

Voice over activities are also good classroom activities because of their ease in implementation. With the advent of YouTube, dozens of movie clips can be found online as well as entire movie scripts through resources such as The Internet Movie Script Database (https://www.imsdb.com).

Although there are many scenes that can be easily modified into a voice over activity, one recommended movie clip is the dramatic final sequence on the suspension bridge from the film *Indiana Jones and the Temple of Doom* (Watts & Spielberg, 1984). This is a good sequence to use because of its short length, and simple dialogue accompanied with many opportunities for practice with voice, tone and emotion. The script (see Appendix 1) could also be used in a voice over activity with more advanced students who could be asked to modify and create their own dialogue for the scene.

The following is a recommended procedure for a voice over activity from the film *Indiana Jones and Temple of Doom*:

1. Play the clip once for students while having them take notes on the actions from the scene, its characters, and the voices and emotion that are featured in the movie sequence.
2. After students watch the clip once, hand out the script (Appendix 1) to the students and have them practice reading from the movie sequence. Make sure to go over the pronunciation and meanings of any words that students may not know.
3. After students have practiced reading the script, put students into small groups and assign a student in each group a character from the sequence to practice reading as a role play exercise. Then, play the clip again and instruct students to take notes on their role play character's voice and emotion.
4. Next, mute the sound and play the clip while having students perform a voice over in groups, paying close attention to the timing of the characters' voices and emotions. For more advanced students, after they have performed their voice overs, they could change or modify the character's names and dialogue.

Using Films to Talk and Discuss About Culture
Using films in the classroom offer many good opportunities to teach and discuss different elements of culture, society, and global issues with students that can help facilitate classroom discussions (Curtis, 2007). In addition, films are authentic materials that are often culturally relevant reflections of their host country's values that are useful for EFL students as they can "depict the foreign culture more effectively than other instructional materials," (Herron, Morris, Secules, & Curtis, 1995, p. 775). Films can also be easily used to teach about current events and new vocabulary words. As a result, many films can be easily used in the classroom as springboards for culture and discussion topics, depending on the level and interests of your students. For example, one useful film for facilitating discussion topics for marketing and business students, is the movie *Outsourced* (Gorai & Jeffcoat, 2006) which is about an American who is sent to India to train Indian call center workers. The script from the movie sequence can be found in Appendix 2.

After a teacher decides to either play the movie sequence or read and introduce the script (Appendix 2) with their students, many discussion topics that cover culture, marketing, and business could be facilitated and introduced such as the following listed below:

1. What are good or bad small talk topics in your culture?
2. Is good pronunciation always important? Why?
3. Do you want to speak like a Native English speaker? Why or why not?
4. Is speaking and learning English important in your culture? Why?
5. Is honesty important in business? Why or why not?
6. Is culture an important part of business? Why or why not?
7. What are the advantages of outsourcing? What are the disadvantages?
8. Are you interested in working at a call center? Are customer service jobs popular in your country? Why or why not?

In addition to using films as springboards for culture and discussion topics, films could also be used in the classroom as ways for students to give critiques about the representations of different cultures through film.

Benefits of the Whole Film Approach
Although many of the film related activities introduced in this paper involve the use of short movie sequences, in what is known as the short sequence approach, the whole film approach, in which an entire film is shown, can also be a useful exercise for students. Using the whole film approach can help students develop their listening skills without the constant interruptions from watching a film with multiple pauses and disconnected sequences. According to Wood (1995), viewing a movie in its entirety can help students develop their gist listening skills. Furthermore, viewing an entire movie can also be a confidence and motivational booster for students as they can see how much of a film they can fully comprehend, in addition to the benefits of becoming more fully engaged in a film's themes and contents (King, 2002). Although one of the drawbacks of the whole film approach is the need for showing a film in its entirety and thus using up class time, the whole film approach can be particularly useful in the classroom to help students think critically about a film and its contents. Allowing students the opportunity to think critically about a film can give instructors the opportunity to give students extended conversation and writing topics. Among some of the possible conversation and writing topics that could be used with students when employing the whole film approach include the following:

1. Did you like the movie ending? Why?
2. Think of a new ending for the film. What would you change? What would you keep the same? Why?
3. Who was your favorite character in the film? Why?
4. What was your favorite part in the film? Why?
5. Think of a sequel for this movie. What would be the movie's title? What would be its plot?
6. Do you think this movie has a message? What is it**?**

Conclusion
Films are engaging and memorable forms of media that are ubiquitous in modern life. As films are global and popular worldwide, many English language learners are familiar and interested in films and respond positively to their use in classrooms. Films are also motivating and authentic sources of English language materials that can provide students with unique opportunities to encounter different cultures, ideas, dialects, and idiomatic expressions, all while thinking critically and engaging in discussions about their content. Films are also easily adaptable for teachers for use with numerous classroom activities. Most importantly, films are enjoyable sources of entertainment that are easy to use and adapt as effective materials for English language teachers in their classrooms.

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Appendix 1

Script for the Suspension Bridge Sequence from *Indiana Jones and the Temple of Doom* (Watts, Spielberg, 1984) (01.43.14-01.45.45)

WILLIE: AHHHH!
MOLA RAM: Welcome
WILIE: Owwww!
INDY: Let her go, Mola Ram.
MOLA RAM: You are in a position unsuitable to give orders!
WILLIE: Watch your back!
INDY: You want the stones, let her go! Let her go!
MOLA RAM: Hahahaha. Drop them Dr. Jones, they will be found! You won't! Hahahaha. (yells in Sankirt) *kanaaa!*
WILLIE: Indy! Behind you!
MOLA RAM: Go on. Go on. Get moving.
INDY: Shorty. (speaks in Chinese) *Chao Chee. Lao Chu Chung cha.*
SHORTY: Hang on lady, we are going for a ride.
WILLIE: Ooooooo my god. Oh my god. Oh my god. Oh my god. Is he nuts?
SHORTY: He, no nuts. He's crazy.
INDY: Mola Ram, prepare to meet *Kali* in hell.
MOLA RAM: No! What are you doing?!
WILLIE: Ahhhh!

Appendix 2

Script for the Call Center Training Sequence from *Outsourced* (Gorai & Jeffcoat, 2006) (00.21.20-00.23.28)

TODD: Hello everyone. I'm Todd Anderson from Western Novelty, and I'm here to help integrate you into our business. Now, I gotta tell you, this center's numbers are nowhere near where they should be. Based on the customer complaints we've been having, it's a cultural thing. Basically, you people need to learn about Americans. It's all about bringing down the MPI. Things go faster if the customer feels they're talking to a native English speaker.

ASHA: But we are native English speakers. English is the official language of our government. You got it from the British and so did we. We just speak it differently. We say "internet," and you say "innernet."

TODD: Fair enough. That's exactly my point. I'm asking you to say "innernet." Next time you're on a call, try to listen carefully to the customer's pronunication, the slang, small talk, try to learn from them. Learn about America.

MANMEET: Sir? (raises hand)

TODD: Yes, you are?

MANMEET: Manmeet.

TODD: MAN-meet.

MANMEET: No, Manmeet. What I want to know is, what is "small talk"?

TODD: Oh, you know, that's like, "How you doing today?" "How's the weather in Arizona?" You can talk about sports.

MANMEET: Like cricket?

TODD: Never mind, forget sports. You want to sound American. If anyone asks where you're located, just say Chicago. Try that.

EVERYONE: Chicago.

TODD: Ok, when you make the "a" sound, hold your nose to flatten the vowel. Chicago.

EVERYONE: Chicago.

TODD: That's great. And if anyone asks how the weather is, just say windy.

ASHA: (raises hand)

TODD: Yes, you are?

ASHA: Asha, sir. Isn't that a little dishonest? I mean, I'm not going to lie. I'm not in Chicago. I'm in Gharapuri. When I was hired to do this job, I was told I would be selling products to a customer on the telephone. I did not know we had to be deceptive.

TODD: Well, a lot of Americans are upset about outsourcing.

ASHA: But sir, most of the products they're buying are made in China.

An Analysis of Authorized Japanese Junior High School Textbooks for Liberating the Japanese Image of Speakers of English in Globalized Society

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Abstract

English is a critical language for Japanese to communicate internationally in this rapidly globalizing society. Kachru (2017) estimates there are more non-native English speakers than native speakers in the world. Yamanaka (2006) claims that for more than a decade now, more non-native English speakers and their cultural presence are needed in authorized English textbooks. Since English as linguistic capital can be considered more valuable than its inherent value as a language, it is important not to depict English speakers in a stereotypical way in authorized textbooks for Japanese English learners. This study analyzes how current junior high school English textbooks depict English speakers and those who are having conversations in English. This textbook analysis found that authorized textbooks still put a stronger emphasis on English as a language to communicate with native speakers. Finally, employing current trading and foreign tourist data, this study proposes that more non-native English speakers should be illustrated in authorized textbooks in order not to provide a biased image of English speakers.

Keywords: English speakers, junior high school, textbook analysis

How to cope with this rapid, globalized society is one of the educational concerns among teachers. In Japan, the Central Council for Education of the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) publicized in 1996 that enhancing education for international understanding is key in the twenty-first century. In foreign language education for junior and senior high school students in 1987, the Curriculum Council considered equipping communicative competence and grounding international understandings to be critical elements in Japanese foreign language education (Murakami, 2007).

In order to investigate how foreign cultures are represented in a Japanese education, authorized textbook analysis is often employed by researchers because textbooks can be primary sources for EFL students to acquire cultural knowledge (Ashikaga, Fujita & Ikuta, 2001; Yamanaka, 2006). Particularly in a Japanese English classroom where English is taught as a foreign language, textbooks play an important role in providing learning input as they are often the only source of target input available to students (McGroarty & Taguchi, 2005). Ito, Takatsu, Nagayasu, Hirochi, and Fukushima (1994) mention that textbook analysis is a crucial research field due to its power to elucidate what kind of input the textbooks provides for learners.

There have been attempts to analyze the textbook contents and exercises from the perspective of communicativeness, as the textbooks often inadequately address sociocultural variables such as settings, interlocutor relationships, and information (McGroarty & Taguchi, 2005). Since the 1980s, it is said that teaching contents in authorized textbooks have been gradually shifting from American or English cultural understanding to other cultural understandings, including Japanese (Murakami, 2007; Inda, 2010). From Okunishi and Kimura's recent junior high school textbook analysis (2018), cultural diversity was shown to present information about the foreign lifestyle at a relatively shallow level, and some content about global issues was also seen. Magoku and Erikawa (2019) assert that only 5% of content written in 11 high school English Expression 1 textbooks cover social issues such as representations of otherness and environmental problems, and no content about race, class, gender, or sexuality was found. From these analysis results, publishers are showing efforts to include more cultural diversity; however, the textbook information for cultural understanding lacks depth and the content about social issues is still limited.

Kachru (1992) outlines the countries where English is spoken as a first or dominant language (Inner Circle countries such as the UK, the US, and Canada), used as a second or an *n*th language (Outer Circle countries such as India, Singapore, and South Africa), and taught as a foreign language (Expanding Circle countries such as Japan, China, and Indonesia) with his concentric circle model. Approximately 15 years ago, Yamanaka (2006) advocated in her analysis from a cultural perspective that a stronger focus on Expanding Circle counties' presence in textbooks is needed because Japan is bound to these nations by important political and trading ties.

The current study attempts to analyze what types of input the textbooks used in Japanese schools provide to learners from the perspective of English as the medium of communication. This textbook analysis focuses on the characters' national origins to reveal whether English is portrayed as an international language, as opposed to a communication tool with "native" speakers of English from Inner Circle countries in Kachru's Concentric Circle Model. Some researchers raise the issue of who "native" speakers of English are, so hereafter this paper will use the term "native" (in quotes) to refer to people living in Inner Circle countries. By exploring who are illustrated as English speakers in current textbooks, publishers can be more careful in selecting a visual representation in their future textbook publications, and teachers can complement the image of English speakers with more diverse nationalities for their EFL students.

English as Linguistic Capital

English is truly a global language, and no other language has ever held the same level of global sway (Melchers & Shaw, 2003). Japan's English education reforms and its urgent improvements have been discussed not only among the English teachers and learners but also among politicians and businesspeople (Fukunaga, 2017). As a national strategy, MEXT has issued two salient English education policies: The National Strategic Plan to Cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities" and the National Action Plan to Cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities," published in 2002 and 2003, respectively. These two documents hoped to promote English language learning among citizens as well as Japanese internationalization "by allowing Japanese to communicate with their international [English-speaking] economic partners" (Gottlieb, 2012, p. 13). In this regard, MEXT sees English as a critical language for Japanese to communicate internationally,

and sufficient English proficiency is believed to be the key that will allow the Japanese to succeed in a competitive global market.

Language is considered a tool not only for communication, but also one that plays other roles beyond an innate role as a language. Moore (2008) explains that the term "capital" is usually associated with monetary exchange, and immaterial forms of capital are called *symbolic capital*, which includes sub-types, such as cultural capital and linguistic capital (Moore, 2008). Symbolic capital establishes hierarchies of discrimination because the value of symbolic capital can be considered more valuable, and its value will be decided arbitrarily in reality (Moore, 2008). Schubert (2008) notes that language is an instrument of power and action as much as communication, and it can become a form of domination. Thus, English is linguistic capital that can classify people who have acquired English as the dominant group and people who have not acquired English as the subordinated group in a social hierarchy. Kachru (1992) claims that the suppliers of this linguistic capital are "native" speakers of English from Inner Circles countries, and the consumers are English language learners from Expanding Circles countries.

Kachru (2017) explains that it is difficult to determine how many people use English around the world, but he mentions that there are more "non-native" English speakers than "native" speakers. He also shows that there are two billion English users out of five billion in the world population if we accept an optimistic estimate. People living in Expanding Circles need to learn English to communicate with almost anyone in the global community, so they should be able to understand as many varieties as possible to be effective international communicators with a maximum scope of English proficiency (Melchers & Shaw, 2003).

However, in Igarashi's research (2017), the majority of Japanese university student respondents answered they wish to be proficient in American English even though they have never lived abroad. Most of the respondents who answered that they preferred American English thought that American English was the most popular and standard variety of English (Igarashi, 2017). Thus, Japanese English teachers nonetheless must consider how to teach English without introducing our students to the English hegemony initiated by the US and other Inner Circle countries. They need to discuss how to teach English in a way that empowers students living in Expanding Circle countries without giving students the prejudiced impression of "native" speakers of English.

The next chapter will explore what kind of images of English are conveyed to Japanese English learners under current English education. In order to examine these images, a textbook analysis will be undertaken.

The Courses of Study and the Authorized Textbook
The Authorized Textbooks for Junior High School and the Selection of Textbooks
In 2019, six publishers had permission to issue English textbooks for junior high school students, which follow the 2008 Courses of Studies. In this study, the author inspected two textbook series; *New Horizon* published by Tokyo Shoseki (Kasajima et al., 2018) and *New Crown* published by Sanseido (Kishine et al., 2018). According to Chuoh Kyouiku Kenkyusyo (2018), in the academic year of 2018, most of the public junior high schools in Shiga (where the author lives) adopted the *New Horizon* series (96 of 99 prefectural junior high schools), and two of five private junior high schools and three public (one national and two prefectural) junior high schools adopted the *New Crown*

series for their English courses. Thus, analyzing two of six textbooks will give an idea of the kind of textbook input provided to junior high schoolers in the majority of junior high schools in Shiga. These textbooks include the main textbook units, supplemental conversational exercises, and reading materials in their volumes.

Characters' national origins and their appearance illustration features

This section will analyze how the textbooks depict learners and speakers of English in the characters' illustrations. Both textbooks display characters and their conversations, which are illustrated in text and pictures in each unit. They were categorized into Kachru's concentric circle mechanically based on their national origins because there were no descriptions of what languages they consider their mother tongues or how they identify themselves.

In the New Horizon series (Kasajima et al., 2018), there are 12 characters. Four junior high school students are illustrated, and two of them are Japanese (male and female), and the others are from Canada (male) and India (female). Both Japanese students have one older sibling, and they are in the UK and in Australia for work or study. There is one female assistant language teacher from the US, and she has a younger brother working in Japan as a Chinese chef. The female Japanese character has a female friend from Australia, and the assistant language teacher has a female friend in the US. There are two male characters from Brazil; one is a soccer coach, and the other is a transfer student. In total, five of the characters are from Inner Circle nations, one is from an Outer Circle nation, and the remaining ones are from Expanding Circle nations.

In the New Crown series (Kishine et al., 2018), there are eight characters. Six of them are junior high school students from Japan (male and female), Australia (female), the US (male), India (male), and China (female). The others are English teachers, and one is a Japanese male teacher, and the other is a female assistant teacher from the UK. To sum, three are from Inner Circle nations, one is from a Outer Circle nation, and the others are from Expanding Circle nations.

In comparing the two textbooks, several common elements can be identified. Firstly, two Japanese junior high school students, one male and one female, are the main characters illustrated in the textbooks. Japanese English language learners will be able to feel an affinity for these characters, who are similar to them. Second, these two Japanese students have international friends in their classrooms. By including these foreign classmates, the textbook will be able to provide a context that the Japanese main characters need to use English to communicate with them. Third, the illustrations of the assistant language teachers (ALTs) are as white female teachers with blond hair from Inner Circle countries.

Since foreign language teachers are illustrated as having fair skin, there is some risk of projecting racially biased views on Japanese students. They might develop the prejudice that a "native" speaker of English is white. According to Kubota (2018), until the previous version of the junior high school textbooks, which was used until 2016, all the textbooks featured a white female teacher as an ALT. Only one of the six present textbook series—*Sunshine,* published by Kairyudo— replaced this illustration with a brown female figure. Kubota (2018) claims that projecting a white female ALT's image as an English teacher may promote racial prejudice regarding who can be a proper English speaker. The international students from Inner Circle countries are also depicted as white. Not showing people of color as "native" speakers of English from Inner Circle countries

in the textbooks may promote white supremacy in the Japanese English education system. Because students study English with these textbooks for three years while they are in junior high schools, they may develop the bias that a native speaker of English can only be a white person from an Inner Circle country. Kubota (2018) demonstrates how school education may form racial biases and defines this phenomenon as racial biases in academic knowledge. Biases provided in the academic knowledge system may lead to epistemological racism, and biased knowledge is inherited by individuals as their own knowledge. In short, presenting only white female characters as English teachers from Inner Circle countries and white international students from Inner Circle countries has the potential to shape a Japanese student's assumptions regarding the race, gender, and appearance of a native speaker of English.

Figure 1
Dialogue pairs in the interlocutors' groups of Kachru's concentric circle [%]
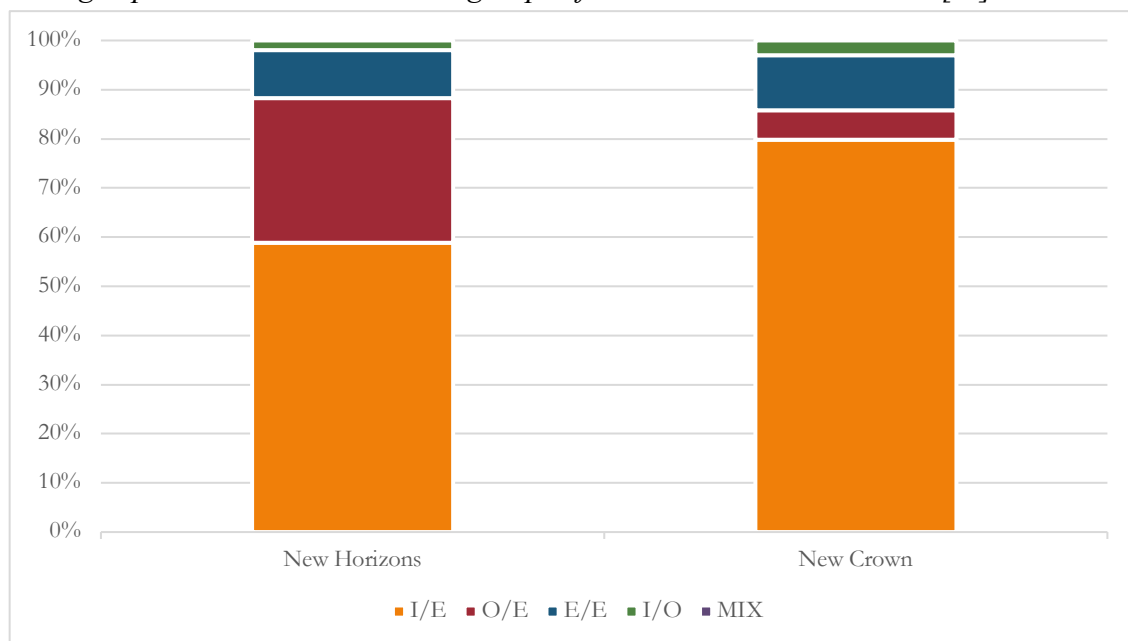
Interlocutors' National Origins

This section will discuss who has conversations in English in each textbook's main unit. These textbooks include the main textbook units, supplemental conversational exercises, and reading materials in their volumes, but this analysis only focuses on main textbook units. The several units include reading articles and speech scripts; however, this analysis focuses on dialogue texts, whose units have main characters' illustrations, for the review. Most of the dialogues were taken between two speakers, but a few were among three. Figure 1 outlines the percentages of the dialogues which were taken by various characters according to the status of their country of origin in Kachru's Concentric Circle Model. The dialogues written in the main textbook units were categorized into five types: I/E, O/E, E/E, I/O, and MIX. I/E indicates a dialogue among speakers from Inner Circle countries and Expanding Circle countries. O/E indicates one among speakers from Outer Circle countries and Expanding Circle countries, E/E indicates one among speakers from Expanding Circle countries, I/O one among speakers from Inner Circle countries and

Outer Circle countries, and MIX indicates one among people from countries covering all of the Kachru Circle countries.

There were 48 and 34 dialogues seen in the *New Horizon* series and the *New Crown* series, respectively. The largest proportion of the conversations were constructed among people from the Inner Circles and Expanding Circles in both textbook series: 60% in the *New Horizon* series and 79% in the *New Crown* series. There was a large difference in the percentage of O/E dialogues (30% for the *New Horizon*, and 6% for the *New Crown*). Similar percentages of E/E dialogues (10% and 11% respectively) and the I/O dialogues (2% and 3% respectively) were found in both textbooks. The *New Crown* series did not include any MIX conversations. While taking this result into account, this analysis clearly illustrates that both textbooks portray English as a medium for people living in Expanding Circle countries to communicate with people from Inner Circle countries.

In contrast to the substantial proportion of I/E dialogues exemplified in both textbooks, it is estimated that the largest population of English users is from Outer or Expanding Circle countries. English is one of the unique languages used by a majority of the speakers as a second, nth, or foreign language. In Kachru's (2017) estimation, "India now has an English-using speech community equal to the population of the major Inner Circle countries combined (the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada)" (p.8). Furthermore, considering the growing population of China and its English education development, there are many more English−using Chinese than the total population of the United Kingdom, even if we estimate only 5% of the Chinese population uses English (Kachru, 2017). Having considered the distribution of English users globally, more conversation texts among English users from Outer and Expanding Circle countries need to be employed in Japanese English textbooks in order to illustrate that English is a language used for communication not only with a "native" speaker of English but also with a 'non-native' speaker. From a cultural presence perspective, Yamanaka (2006) notes that nations of the Inner Circle appear the most in her textbook observation, and the US appears the most frequently. That is why she claimed that a stronger focus on Expanding Circle countries presence in textbooks is needed because these nations are critical Japanese political and trading partners. From a geographical point of view, it would also be more natural for Japanese textbooks to implement more Asian English users as interlocutors rather than Western "native" speakers of English, too. Unfortunately, this study found that Japanese authorized textbooks still put a stronger emphasis on English as a language to communicate with people from Inner Circle nations.

Discussion

This study explains why it is important to convey an image of English speakers from Outer and Expanding Circles more in Japanese English textbooks. It also reveals whom Japanese EFL students are more likely to use English with and explores what nationalities need to be illustrated as English speakers in the textbooks.

American English is the most dominant variety taught in the Japanese English education system (Igarashi, 2017), and has more powers than other varieties of English. The early stage of Japanese foreign language education was significantly influenced by the US occupation policy (Hirokawa, 2014), at which time American English intervened in English education. It appears that MEXT has promoted American English through textbooks to cope with the globalized market. Putting a high emphasis on learning American English or American culture for Japanese in English education, however, is still

questionable. This section is going to explore with whom Japanese EFL students are likely to use English from Japanese trading partner's data and tourist data.

According to the Ministry of Finance of Japan (2019), China became the largest trade partner, replacing the US in 2009. Since then, the US has been the second-largest trading partner (Ministry of Finance, 2019). Table 1 shows Japans' top-10 import and export trading partners from 2000.

Table 1

Japan's 10 Import and Export Trading Partners [%]

	2000	2005	2010	2015	2018
1	USA [25.0]	USA [17.8]	China [20.7]	China [21.2]	China [21.4]
2	China [10.0]	China [17.0]	USA [12.7]	USA [15.1]	USA [14.9]
3	Taiwan [6.3]	Korea [6.4]	Korea [6.2]	Korea [5.6]	Korea [5.7]
4	Korea [6.0]	Taiwan [5.5]	Taiwan [5.2]	Taiwan [4.7]	Taiwan [4.7]
5	Germany [3.8]	Thailand [3.4]	Australia [4.2]	Thailand [3.8]	Australia [4.2]
6	Hong Kong [3.4]	Hong Kong [3.4]	Thailand [3.8]	Australia [3.7]	Thailand [3.9]
7	Malaysia [3.3]	Australia [3.3]	Indonesia [3.0]	Hong Kong [2.9]	Germany [3.2]
8	Singapore [3.2]	Germany [3.3]	Hong Kong [3.0]	Germany [2.9]	Saudi Arabia [2.6%]
9	Thailand [2.8]	Saudi Arabia [3.0]	Saudi Arabia [2.9]	Malaysia [2.6]	Vietnam [2.5]
10	Indonesia [2.8]	United Arab Emirates [2.7]	Malaysia [2.8]	United Arab Emirates [2.5]	Indonesia [2.5]

Note. Adopted from "Change in ratio to total import and export of Japan (by trade region or country)", by Ministry of Finance of Japan, 2019 (https://www.customs.go.jp/toukei/suii/html/time.htm). Copyright 2019 by Ministry of Finance of Japan.

As Table 1 indicates, the upper group of Japanese trading partners has consisted of mainly Asian counties. In 2018, eight out of 10 partners were Expanding Circles countries.

Next, the number of foreign tourists will be considered to study what nationality a Japanese citizen is likely to encounter in Japan. Based on the statistics shown by Japan National Tourism Organization (JNTO; 2020), Table 2 illustrates the top ten countries or regions by the number of visitors to Japan.

From Table 2, currently people from East Asian countries: China, Korea, Taiwan, and Hong Kong, are the most dominant visitor groups for Japan. In the past two decades, only four Inner Circle counties—the USA, Australia, the UK and Canada—are ranked among the top ten countries whose people visit Japan. In 2018, the proportion of visitors from the Inner Circle countries of the USA and Australia is relatively small (6.9%). JNTO (2019) summarizes Japanese overseas travels based on the available data published by UNWTO and each country, showing that the USA was the most popular country for Japanese overseas travelers in 2014 (3,620,224 visitors, including 1,511,739 visitors to Hawaii). After the USA, China (2,717,600), Korea (2,280,434), Taiwan (1,634,790), and Thailand (1,267,886) are marked as the most popular counties for Japanese travelers. As

this data shows, although the USA is the most popular nation for Japanese travelers, Expanding Circle countries located in Asia are frequently visited by Japanese citizens. Indeed, English has gained global acceptance as a world language (Kachru, 2017). Considering these Japanese trade relationships, the Japanese need to understand that they will use English to communicate with people who use English as a foreign language. Thus, American English need not always be the standard for Japanese English education. Regarding this data, it is clear that English teachers in Japan should not simply refer to the Inner Circle English alone as the critical international language; otherwise, students will associate only Inner Circle English with a key language of success in this globalized society. Globalization should imply respect for diverse cultures and languages. Overemphasis on Inner Circle English input may have a possibility of promoting an image of biased and English-hegemonic globalization in our students.

Table 2

Top 10 Countries/Regions by the Number of Visitors to Japan [%]

	2000	2005	2010	2015	2018
1	Korea [22.4]	Korea [26.0]	Korea [28.3]	China [25.23]	China [26.9]
2	Taiwan [19.2]	Taiwan [18.9]	China [16.6]	Korea [20.3]	Korea [24.2]
3	USA [15.3]	USA [12.2]	Taiwan [14.7]	Taiwan [18.6]	Taiwan [15.3]
4	China [7.4]	China [9.7]	USA [8.4]	Hong Kong [7.7]	Hong Kong [7.1]
5	Hong Kong [5.1]	Hong Kong [4.4]	Hong Kong [5.9]	USA [5.2]	USA [4.9]
6	UK [4.1]	UK [3.3]	Australia [2.6]	Thailand [4.0]	Thailand [3.6]
7	Australia [3.1]	Australia [3.1]	Thailand [2.5]	Australia [1.9]	Australia [1.8]
8	Canada [2.5]	Canada [2.2]	UK [2.1]	Singapore [1.6]	Philippines [1.6]
9	Philippines [2.4]	Philippines [2.1]	Singapore [2.1]	Malaysia [1.5]	Malaysia [1.5]
10	Germany [1.9]	Germany [1.8]	France [1.8]	Philippines [1.4]	Singapore [1.4]

Note. Adopted from "Annual change in the number of foreign visitors by region or country", by Japan National Tourism Organization, 2020 (https://statistics.jnto.go.jp/graph/#graph--trends--by--country). Copyright 2020 by Japan National Tourism Organization.

Conclusion

To cope with globalization, teachers must promote diversity to their students who represent the future generation, and we all need to celebrate the diversity of the world's many cultures. Foreign language education in Japan plays an essential role in protecting the image of diversity in the school system. However, this study found that the approach to globalization used in Japan's English education is biased. Japan's foreign language education has been promoting the supremacy of the Anglo cultures in Japan in the name of internationalization and globalization.

"Why do we need to study English? We won't use it if we do not go out of Japan." This is one of the most frequently asked questions in English classrooms from Japanese

students to Japanese teachers of English. Reviewing who are illustrated as English speakers in textbooks, this study came to a conclusion about how Japan's English education and teaching conveyed predetermined messages to Japanese students about who qualifies as speakers of English. Japanese students in English classrooms may feel that they are in the subordinated group in globalized society initiated by Inner Circle countries, and students might be skeptical as to why they need to learn English, or specifically American English. If the teachers continue to dodge such critical questions from their students concerning their education, they may end up unintentionally placing them at the bottom of a social hierarchy, where Inner Circle countries enjoy high status. It is hoped that the outcome of this present study will be of some use, as evidenced in the biases in Japanese language education and the misleading input of its textbooks, and those biases will be justified soon.

Acknowledgments

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English Pronunciation Issues Among Japanese College Students

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Abstract
Pronunciation tends to be one of the major challenges facing Japanese learners of English, yet it is not always given the pedagogical attention that it deserves. This paper, which is based on a case study of two 19-year old English learners from Osaka, highlights common English pronunciation issues among Japanese students. Analysis of the two learners' speech reveals pronunciation issues at both the segmental and suprasegmental level, in line with typical problems identified by previous researchers in the field. However, the analysis also points to the learners' grasp of certain key features of spoken English, potentially offering encouragement to teachers of English, many of whom may find pronunciation difficult to teach. In light of the analysis of the learners' speech, the implications for classroom teaching are discussed. Practical teaching suggestions, which relate not only to the students who participated in this investigation but also to others like them, are offered to help promote the notion that pronunciation awareness and practice should form an integral part of English lessons.

Keywords: pronunciation, speech analysis, phonemic transcription, L1-L2 transfer, CALL, English as an international language, college-age learners, young adults

This paper analyses the pronunciation performance of two Japanese college students reading a short dialogue. It identifies the difficulties they encounter and attempts to explain why English pronunciation is a problem for many Japanese learners of English. Activities that could help these students improve their pronunciation are also proposed.

While various factors, including knowledge of grammar and pragmatics, contribute to communicative competence, pronunciation undoubtedly plays an important role in second language (L2) learners' ability to communicate in English effectively. Indeed, Goodwin (2001) suggests that pronunciation is the feature of spoken communication by which learners' L2 proficiency is most readily judged. Given the influence of learners' first language (L1) in shaping their L2 speech, researchers tend to advocate setting "intelligibility", rather than accent-free speech, as a realistic pronunciation goal for L2 learners (Derwing & Munro, 2005; Goodwin, 2001; Levis, 2005). In this context, intelligibility has been defined as "spoken English in which an accent, if present, is not distracting to the listener" (Goodwin, 2001). For pronunciation researchers concerned with native speakers of Japanese learning English, attention has focused on identifying and prioritising for explicit instruction the English pronunciation features that tend to be most problematic, such as the /l/-/r/ distinction, as helping learners improve in these areas is likely to have the greatest impact on intelligibility (Riney & Anderson-Hsieh, 1993; Saito, 2007, 2011a, 2011b, 2014; Saito & Saito, 2016). Such studies have used a variety of approaches—including teacher surveys, reviews of EFL learning materials, and

classroom observations—to document common English pronunciation difficulties for Japanese learners. While the findings of these studies are informative and useful, relatively few case studies of individual learners have been carried out. It is therefore hoped that this paper may contribute to the growing body of research examining Japanese learners' pronunciation of English and add to teachers', materials developers' and other ELT practitioners' understanding of Japanese learners' needs with respect to English pronunciation. This could prove helpful given that, as Wei (2006) notes, pronunciation is an often-overlooked aspect of English education in EFL/ESL classrooms around the world, partly because teachers are unsure about how to approach it. In Japan, an additional factor behind the neglect of pronunciation may be that some examinations, such as the Center Test for university applicants, have not featured a speaking component.

With the above in mind, and in light of previous research into pronunciation issues among Japanese learners of English, this case study aims to address the following research questions: What differences are there between the two learners' production of segmental and suprasegmental aspects of English pronunciation? To what extent might the difficulties they encounter affect their ability to communicate effectively in English? What practical steps could be taken to address these issues?

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. The next section provides a brief profile of the two learners who participated in the study. Then, segmental and suprasegmental aspects of their pronunciation are discussed. Finally, the implications for pronunciation teaching in the learners' context are explored. The dialogue, alongside a transcription in broad phonemic script using Received Pronunciation (RP) as a model, is included in Appendix A. A transcription of the students' reading of the dialogue is in Appendix B. It is worth noting that RP was chosen as a relevant model because this case study's participants had previously studied for a limited period in countries that predominantly use British English, or a close relation thereof. Additionally, both students had expressed a desire to acquire a native-like British accent.

The learners and their learning context

Both participants in this pronunciation exercise, Saki (Student A) and Kihiro (Student B), are 19-year-old female second-year students majoring in English at a foreign languages *senmongakkō* ("vocational college") in Osaka, their hometown. Their L1 is Japanese and their English ability is around the low- to mid-intermediate level. They have both studied English for seven years in total, including six years at secondary school. In that time, they have both studied English in Australia and England, for a period of about three weeks in each case. Their secondary school English education focused on reading and grammar, rather than oral communication or pronunciation. Although they have been exposed to a more communicative approach in some classes at college, reading and grammar remain the main focus.

Learner pronunciation performance: segmental features

This section assesses the learners' performance at the segmental level and considers the factors affecting their pronunciation.

Vowels

English vowels are often problematic for Japanese learners. One of the main causes of difficulty is that English has up to 20 vowels compared to only five in Japanese (Gimson,

2008; Rogerson-Revell, 2011). Without explicit pronunciation instruction, Japanese learners of English tend to experience L1-L2 transfer problems at the segmental level, potentially resulting in comprehension difficulties for the listener (Piske et al., 2001; Saito, 2011a). Rogerson-Revell (2011) identifies several vowels that Japanese learners may find challenging, including /ɪ/ and /ʊ/ (absent in Japanese), as well as /æ/, /ʌ/, /ɑ:/ and the distinction between /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/.

In the recording, Saki and Kihiro articulate these sounds well, demonstrating good awareness of both vowel quality (tongue and lip positioning) and vowel quantity (sound length). However, their vowel production was not flawless. For example, on line 5 Saki incorrectly pronounces "quite" as /kwɪt/ rather than /kwaɪt/. This error could be remedied by reminding her of the "highly productive" rule governing so-called "silent e" for long vowel formation (Geva et al., 1993), as in pairs such as 'quit and quite', 'rid and ride', and so on. Further along line 5, Saki mistakenly articulates the ending of "chocolate" as /eɪt/, as in "late", rather than as /ət/ or /ɪt/. Here, Saki might benefit from comparing single-syllable nouns like 'plate' and 'slate' to polysyllabic nouns like 'palate' and 'chocolate' (although 'template' is an exception). Crucially, learners—and teachers—must make a clear distinction between the English sound system and English spelling, as "there is not always a direct correspondence between sounds and letters" (Rogerson-Revell 2011, p. 26).

The unreliability of English spelling as a pronunciation guide is the likely cause of another error that both learners make. Saki pronounces "appointment" on line 3 as /əˈpɔɪntment/ while Kihiro reads "problem" on line 8 as /ˈplɒblem/. In both cases, they incorrectly articulate the final e as /e/, as in "men", rather than as /ə/, also known as schwa. Riney and Anderson-Hsieh (1993, p. 31) refer to these substitutions for English schwa as "spelling pronunciations". Because such substitutions tend not to cause communication breakdowns and thus often go uncorrected, Saki and Kihiro may not be aware that schwa—the most frequently occurring vowel in English (Rogerson-Revell, 2011), but absent in Japanese—is used in unstressed syllables (e.g., ago /əˈgəʊ/). Learners like Saki and Kihiro could perhaps benefit from awareness-raising activities that focus on schwa—for example, a listening task involving a transcription on which they circle the words that feature this particular vowel sound.

Consonants

Some of English's 24 consonants can also cause problems for Japanese learners (Gimson, 2008; Lambacher, 1999; Rogerson-Revell, 2011; Wang et al., 2005). Two of the most troublesome English consonants for Japanese learners, and the pair which has received the most academic attention, are /l/ and /r/ (Riney & Anderson-Hsieh, 1993). As Gimson (2008, p. 224) highlights, the root of the problem is that Japanese has "no distinction between /l/ and /r/"—they are allophones in Japanese (Bloch, 1950, as cited in Sheldon & Strange, 1982, p. 244). Consequently, Japanese learners tend to "assimilate them into a single phonemic category as a flap sound" (Lambacher, 1999, p. 142).

In the pronunciation exercise under discussion, both learners struggle with /l/-/r/ distinction. Saki mispronounces "late" (line 3), "chocolate" (line 5) and "actually" (line 7), which she renders as /ˈreɪt/, /ˈtʃɒkreɪt/ and /ˈæktʃərɪ/, respectively. Meanwhile, Kihiro has difficulty with "delay" (line 2), "shall I" (line 6) and "problem" (line 8), which she seems to read as /dɪˈraɪ/, /ˈʃæraɪ/ and /ˈplɒblem/, respectively. There appear to be subtly different "variants" of r- and l-like sounds in play here, in line with those identified by

Sheldon and Strange (1982), but all deviate from RP—or any other standard English pronunciation model. Such mispronunciations can impede communication, perhaps less so in Japan but certainly among listeners in the rest of the world (Deterding et al., 2013, p. 44), especially when one considers the numerous minimal pairs that differ in this phonemic distinction, such as 'late' and 'rate', 'collect' and 'correct', and so on. Therefore, as Gimson (2008) and Rogerson-Revell (2011) highlight, the contrast between /l/ and /r/ should be considered a high priority—even for Japanese learners whose target is English as an international language (EIL). The teaching implications in this area are explored below.

Another well-documented problem for Japanese learners is the tendency to substitute the alveolar fricatives /s/ and /z/ for the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ (Lambacher, 1999; Rogerson-Revell, 2011; Saito, 2011b; Wang et al., 2005). This negative L1-L2 transfer occurs because the phonemes /θ/ and /ð/ do not exist in Japanese. The issue affects Saki's speech more than Kihiro's. While Kihiro demonstrates decent command of 'th'-sounds ('thanks' [θæŋks] and 'the' [ðə] on line 2; 'think' [θɪŋk] on line 6), Saki says /sæŋks/ instead of /θæŋks/ and /sɪŋk/ instead of /θɪŋk/, both on line 7. Again, such errors could impede communication. Yet Kihiro's performance offers hope that Saki's pronunciation of dental fricatives could be improved through training and practice, especially since their place of articulation—at the front of the mouth—makes them relatively easy to teach (Rogerson-Revell, 2011).

Learner pronunciation performance: suprasegmental features
Having examined the learners' segmental pronunciation performance, the present section discusses suprasegmental aspects of their speech.

Stress
The rules—or "tendencies" (Gimson, 2008; Rogerson-Revell, 2011)—governing English stress patterns often pose problems for Japanese learners of English (Riney & Anderson-Hsieh, 1993). However, word stress and nuclear stress (the main stress in a sentence or word group) play important roles in English, and incorrect use of stress can have a negative impact on intelligibility (Roach, 2000).

The key concept behind word stress is syllable prominence—the syllable(s) of a word which "stand out" (Gimson, 2008, p. 235). As Rogerson-Revell (2011) outlines, stress is achieved primarily through pitch change (a change in the frequency or speed of vocal cord vibrations) and syllable length, although vowel quality and loudness also play a part. Views on the importance of teaching word stress hinge on whether the perceived target is a 'standard' pronunciation model, such as RP, or EIL. For example, Gimson (2008, p. 322) argues that "accenting the correct syllable of words is a high priority for learners of RP", while Jenkins (2000) contests that word stress alone seldom causes intelligibility problems in EIL contexts. As Deterding (2013, p. 74) summarises, word stress seems to be "crucial" for native English speakers (NESs) but is not so important among non-NESs.

While Saki and Kihiro demonstrate a good grasp of word stress—as evidenced by their correct stress of words such as "Manchester" (primary stress on the first syllable) and "instead" (primary stress on the second syllable)—one area where they fall short of Gimson's RP-based standard is on weak forms. Gimson (2008, pp. 266-268) identifies around 50 "function words" (pronouns, determiners, auxiliary verbs, conjunctions and

prepositions) that are usually unstressed in connected speech to distinguish them from lexically important "content words" (verbs, adverbs, nouns and adjectives). When function words are unstressed, vowels tend to be weakened in length and quality. While Kihiro shows awareness of this process—on line 2 she correctly renders "a", "of" and "the" as /ə/, /əv/ and /ðə/—both learners incorrectly produce strong forms at times, as in Saki's reading of "was" and "your" (line 1), and Kihiro's reading of "from" (line 2) and "was" (line 4). Again, the seriousness of such errors depends on the target. According to Jenkins (1998), weak forms can be abandoned in EIL contexts, where strong forms are unlikely to affect intelligibility. While Gimson (2008) expresses sympathy with this view, he argues that the absence of weak forms creates a different rhythm of speech from that produced by NESs, and that the issue requires "prolonged attention" for Japanese learners (p. 323)—if their goal is native-like spoken English.

English rhythm is difficult for Japanese learners to replicate, as it differs significantly from their L1 (Saito & Saito, 2016). Although the concept lacks empirical support (Roach, 2000, p. 138; Rogerson-Revell, 2011, p. 160), English is generally described as a "stress-timed language" (Abercrombie, 1967, as cited in Roach, 1982), in which stressed syllables occur at regular intervals with unstressed syllables compressed between them, while Japanese is said to be syllable- or mora-timed (Roach, 1982; Rogerson-Revell, 2011; Kennedy, 2014), in which each syllable has about the same duration. Saki, in particular, tends to stress each word of a tone group fairly evenly, as on lines 5 and 7. Lacking a clear nucleus, her speech may sound monotonous to a NES's ear. Both learners would likely benefit from explicit instruction on word stress and the linked concept of nuclear stress, accurate use of which is "essential" (Jenkins, 1998, p. 122) as it "serves to highlight the key part of the message" (Deterding, 2013, p. 77).

Assimilation, Elision and Linking

Besides stress, modifications are another obligatory feature of fluent spoken English. As Rogerson-Revell (2011) illustrates, awareness of these processes is essential if learners are to understand NESs' connected speech, but they need not produce all of them in EIL contexts. One type of modification, assimilation, is common in rapid, casual speech (Roach, 2000). It refers to the process whereby a phoneme in one word changes the sound of a phoneme in a neighbouring word. In English, regressive assimilation—whereby a word-final phoneme (typically a consonant) is influenced by the following word-initial phoneme—is most common. Thus 'good morning' becomes /gʊb mɔːnɪŋ/, as the word-final voiced alveolar plosive /d/ in 'good' changes to a voiced bilabial plosive /b/ under the influence of the following bilabial nasal /m/ in 'morning'.

Another type of modification is elision, which involves the loss of a vowel or consonant in connected speech. For example, the cluster of consonants in 'next day' may be simplified to /neks deɪ/, with the /t/ elided. This process can be confusing for L2 learners of English, as sounds they expect to hear disappear (Roach, 2000). A third type of modification is linking, which describes the way certain words blend together in connected speech—the best-known case being "linking r" (Roach, 2000, p. 144). For example, 'four' is pronounced /fɔː/, but 'four eggs' becomes /fɔːr egz/ (Roach, 2000).

In the recording, Saki and Kihiro show partial awareness of such modifications, although they occasionally misuse them. On line 3, Saki reads "your appointment" as /jəˈpɔɪntment/ when in fact /jɔːr əˈpɔɪntmənt/, with "linking r", would be appropriate. Meanwhile, Kihiro articulates the question on line 4 as /wɒt ʃəd wi hæf tʊ drɪŋk/. In RP,

the pronunciation of 'have' as /hæf/ is restricted to the modal 'have to', meaning 'must'. The shift from /v/ to /f/ is a case of assimilation to the voiceless /t/ that follows. Kihiro likely failed to spot that "have" functions as a main verb here, so assimilation is not required. Also, Kihiro's lack of audible release on the word-final plosive in "minute" on line 8 is an example of incorrect elision as the word is in sentence-final position.

Intonation

Having reviewed word stress, nuclear stress, and other aspects of rhythmic connected speech, this section will consider intonation—"an important vehicle for meaning" (Rogerson-Revell, 2011, p. 179) in fluent spoken English. As already discussed, syllables and words are stressed through prominence, which is achieved mainly by changes in pitch. These pitch changes are complex, but the most common intonation patterns in English are falls, rises, and fall-rises, though level tones and rise-falls are also used (Gimson, 2008; Kennedy, 2014). Intonation in English has various functions, serving to divide utterances into thought groups (which usually correspond to syntactic units), signal the focal point of an utterance through placement of the nucleus, convey speaker attitude (e.g., surprise), and deliver grammatical, discursive and pragmatic information (Deterding, 2013; Gimson, 2008; Kennedy, 2014; Rogerson-Revell, 2011).

While most NESs become proficient users of English intonation from a young age (Rogerson-Revell, 2011), its complexity often poses problems for L2 learners. Nevertheless, Saki and Kihiro use intonation appropriately in places. For example, Saki uses a rising tone on the word "appointment" on line 3 to elicit a response, while Kihiro uses rising intonation across "shall I" on line 6 to indicate a question. Pitch movements can be difficult to identify, giving linguists an indication of the challenge facing EFL learners, but Saki appears to use a subtle fall-rise on "actually" on line 7. Unsurprisingly, however, both learners make intonation errors. On line 2, when answering a question about her trip, Kihiro seems to use a rising tone on "great" and a falling tone on "thanks", when one might expect the reverse—a falling tone on "great" to indicate a response and new information, followed by a rising tone on "thanks" to show politeness. That said, the impact on the listener is negligible and supports Jenkins' (2000) claim that tone choice rarely causes intelligibility problems in EIL contexts.

Both learners evidently struggle with aspects of connected speech. Their underuse of nuclear stress, modifications and intonation produces a staccato rhythm. This is unsurprising given that their English instruction to date has largely overlooked pronunciation and prosody. Another factor was likely the lack of preparation time prior to recording—when nervous, NESs also speak arrhythmically (Roach, 2000). Still, there are various ways that these learners' awareness and use of English speech patterns could be improved. For instance, Rogerson-Revell (2011, p. 226) prescribes judicious use of "jazz chants" (exercises in which students practise English speech patterns by repeating short phrases to music or a beat) and poems to "demonstrate the rhythm and intonation patterns of English", while Kennedy (2014) stresses the importance of interacting with NESs and observing their intonation patterns. Exposure to natural spoken English through TV shows, YouTube and other media can also be beneficial, allowing students to develop autonomously an awareness of English speech patterns.

Implications for pronunciation teaching

Saki and Kihiro's pronunciation difficulties are hardly surprising given that pronunciation teaching is a peripheral, non-compulsory part of English instruction in most Japanese schools (Wang et al., 2005; Tominaga, 2011). While this marginalisation of pronunciation is not unique to Japan (Jenkins, 1998; Levis, 2005), the situation in Japan is exacerbated by broader issues. These include students' anxiety about adopting English sounds and speech patterns, and fear of being publicly corrected; the high cost of private tuition; the prevalence of "katakana" pronunciation guides; and Japanese teachers' accented English pronunciation (Wang et al., 2005; Rogerson-Revell, 2011; Tominaga, 2011; Lund, 2015). Furthermore, Japan's policy—introduced in 2011—of teaching one period of English per week from grade five (ages 10-11), compared to four hours of English per week from grade three in China, seems insufficient (Aoki, 2011; Purves et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2005). Although there are grounds for cautious optimism that the situation is improving— schools in Japan are set to begin teaching English from grade three in 2020 (Tsuboya-Newell, 2017), while plans to introduce a speaking component to the aforementioned Center Test could generate a positive washback effect, incentivising schools to give greater priority to spoken English—further changes are required if more Japanese students are to develop good English pronunciation.

Focusing on Saki and Kihiro as a case in point, both could benefit from targeted pronunciation training. At the segmental level, vowels are of least concern. As discussed, their vowel errors could likely be rectified by highlighting spelling and pronunciation tendencies, and focused practice. The main priority is consonants, especially the distinction between /l/ and /r/ and—in Saki's case—the contrast between /θ/ and /s/. Errors involving these phonemes are significant as they may impede communication, or at least demand a high "degree of tolerance" from the listener (Rogerson-Revell 2011, p. 247). One approach is to begin with awareness-raising activities, including minimal pair exercises. Research by Bradlow et al (1996, as cited in Rogerson-Revell, 2011, pp. 212-213) demonstrated that "when Japanese learners are trained to perceive the /r/-/l/ distinction, their productions may automatically improve". Echoing this point, Gimson (2008, p. 335) recommends that Japanese learners focus on perception before demonstrations of correct articulation, which he carefully describes. Although correct production of /r/ and /l/ by Japanese speakers is "notoriously difficult to teach" (Sheldon & Strange, 1982, p. 244), research suggests that Japanese speakers can learn to recognise and produce the two consonants accurately, albeit over many years (Flege et al., 1995). As for the /θ/-/s/ contrast, the approach to helping Saki should be informed by Lambacher (1999, pp. 149-150). He describes the tongue positions for these phonemes, suggesting that they be learned alongside awareness-raising minimal pair exercises. Both Saki and Kihiro could benefit from using computer-assisted language learning (CALL) tools (Lambacher, 1999; Wang et al., 2005), which offer targeted training in recognition and production of problematic segmentals, and real-time feedback, in a low-anxiety setting.

At the suprasegmental level, as at the segmental level, it makes sense to prioritise areas that can affect intelligibility—specifically, nuclear stress placement and thought group division—as gains in these areas offer a "high return on investment" (Rogerson-Revell, 2011, p. 247). Intelligibility may be an imprecise term (intelligibility to whom?), as Rogerson-Revell (2011, p. 9) notes, but it seems a more appropriate goal than nativeness for most EFL learners (Jenkins, 1998, 2000; Levis, 2005), especially given the above-mentioned "tendencies" rather than rules that characterise English stress patterns.

Scholars who emphasise intelligibility agree that receptive and productive skills in nuclear stress placement are necessary (Jenkins, 1998, 2000; Roach, 2000; Gimson, 2008), and learnable (Pennington & Ellis, 2000, as cited in Levis, 2005). Rogerson-Revell (2011) advises teaching stress, rhythm and intonation by visual and kinesthetic means, using clapping, humming, poems and the aforementioned "jazz chants". Work by Saito and Saito (2016) supports the notion that explicit instruction could help Saki and Kihiro notice English rhythm and avoid producing monotonous speech.

At Saki and Kihiro's level, awareness of other aspects of connected speech— including strong and weak forms, assimilation, elision and linking—is more important than production. Awareness-raising could involve listening activities in which students mark these features in a transcript. As practice leads to increased fluency, they may develop the confidence to produce such features (Roach, 2000; Rogerson-Revell, 2011). For Saki and Kihiro, and learners like them, the most important thing—as Rogerson-Revell (2011) concludes—is that pronunciation be integrated into all language lessons.

Conclusion

The pronunciation difficulties encountered by the learners in this investigation reflect the significant phonological differences between Japanese and English, and the negative effects of L1 transfer. Additionally, the learners' errors illustrate wider issues within Japan's English education system. Given an excessive focus on grammar, coupled with anxiety over standing out from the crowd, it is unsurprising that students like Saki and Kihiro deviate from the norms of English pronunciation.

Nevertheless, their performance demonstrates that intelligibility in spoken English is an achievable target for Japanese learners, as both showed a grasp of segmental and suprasegmental aspects of English pronunciation. Furthermore, the introduction of English lessons from grade three in 2020 is a welcome development which, it is hoped, may give learners a chance to get to grips with English pronunciation—and all its complexities—from a young age.

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Appendix A: Dialogue and Phonemic Transcription
The dialogue text is accompanied by a transcription, in Received Pronunciation using broad phonemic script, indicating suprasegmental features such as primary stress, weak forms, intonation and linking.

A: Hi, how was your trip yesterday?
     || \haɪ | haʊ wəz jə /trɪp ˈjestədɪ ||

B: Great, thanks. Well, apart from a bit of a delay on the Manchester train.
     || \greɪt /θæŋks || \wel əˈpɑːt frəm ə ˈbɪt əv ə dɪˈleɪ ɒn ðə ˈmæntʃestə ˈtreɪn ||

A: Well, I hope it didn't make you late for your appointment?
     || wel aɪ ˈhəʊp ɪt ˈdɪdnt ˈmeɪk jə ˈleɪt fə jər ə/pɔɪntmənt ||

B: No, it was fine. Anyway, what should we have to drink?
     || nəʊ ɪt wəz ˈfaɪn || ˈenɪweɪ ˈwɒt ʃəd wi hæv tə \drɪŋk ||
     ('have' is main verb hence strong form; ditto below)

A: I quite fancy a hot chocolate. What about you?
     || aɪ ˈkwaɪt ˈfænsɪ ə ˈhɒt \tʃɒklət || ˈwɒtəbaʊt \juː ||
     (no coalescence in "about you" since "you" is stressed)

B: Mm, I think I'll have green tea. I'll go and order, shall I?
     || əm aɪ ˈθɪŋk aɪl ˈhæv ˈgriːn \tiː || aɪl ˈgəʊ ən ˈɔːdə /ʃəl aɪ ||

A: Thanks. Actually, I think I'll just have a coffee instead.
     || ˈθæŋks || ˇæktʃʊəlɪ aɪ ˈθɪŋk aɪl dʒʌst ˈhæv ə \kɒfɪ ɪnˈsted ||

B: Sure, no problem. I'll be back in a minute.
     || ʃʊə nəʊ ˈprɒbləm || aɪl bɪ ˈbæk ɪn ə ˈmɪnɪt ||

Note: The intonations marked here are only suggestions; other possibilities may be equally valid. The same is true of the number of sentence stresses. In some cases, alternative pronunciations may also be possible; for instance, "yesterday" can also take

the ending /-deɪ/ while "chocolate" can also be pronounced /ˈʧɒkəlɪt/ or /ˈʧɒklɪt/ (Collins Dictionary of the English Language, 1986).

Appendix B: Transcription of the learners' dialogue
The following is a phonemic transcription of the dialogue, as spoken by the two participants in this pronunciation exercise.

Saki (line 1): || \haɪ | haʊ wɒz jɔː ˈtrɪp ˈjestə\deɪ ||

Kihiro (l. 2): || /greɪt \θæŋks || \wel əˈpɑːt frɒm ə bɪt əv ə dɪ/raɪ ɒn ðə ˈmænʧestə ˈtreɪn ||

Saki (l. 3): || wel ˈaɪ həʊp ɪt ˈdɪdnt ˈmeɪk jʊ ˈreɪt fɔː jə/pɔɪntment ||

Kihiro (l. 4): || \nəʊ ɪt wɒz ˈfaɪn || ˈenɪweɪ wɒt ʃəd wi ˈhæf tʊ \drɪŋk ||

Saki (l. 5): || aɪ ˈkwɪt ˈfænsɪ ə ˈhɒt ˈʧɒkreɪt || wɒt əˈbaʊt \ju: ||

Kihiro (l. 6): || ˅əm | aɪ ˈθɪŋk aɪl ˈhæv ˈgriːn \tiː || aɪl ˈgəʊ en ˈɔːdə /ʃæraɪ ||

Saki (l. 7): || ˈsæŋks || ˅ækʧərɪ aɪ ˈsɪŋk aɪl dʒʌst ˈhæv ə ˈkɒfɪ ɪnˈsted ||

Kihiro (l. 8): || ʃʊə nəʊ ˈplɒblem || aɪl bɪ ˈbæk ɪn ə ˈmɪnɪt˥ ||

Lesson Plan Based on Teaching Principles

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Abstract
English teachers use different approaches to satisfy their learners' different purposes in EFL and ESL environment. Teaching principles are completely different based on contexts and learners. English teachers mainly teach explicit knowledge to help students pass exams, as the traditions of Japanese schooling supports test-based education (Crook, 2003). However, using traditional grammar instruction is not only inefficient but also inconsistent with requirements from MEXT. Therefore, implicit teaching through communicative activities is necessary for traditional grammar teaching approaches. In the first part, I describe general teaching theories and principles. Next, I write about teaching background and context. In the part of lesson goal and plan, I present lesson goal and plan explaining rationale behind them. Finally, I summarize the whole paper and put strengths, weaknesses and limitations of my lesson plan in the conclusion part.

英語教師は外国語としての英語と第二言語としての英語の教育環境では学習者の多様なニーズに応え、それぞれの教育法を使っている。つまり教育方針は学習者と教育環境により違っている。受験勉強を伝統する日本教育のもとに、生徒がテストを通るために、英語教師は明示的な英文法教育法を使っている(Crook，2003)。しかしながら、伝統な英文法教育法は効率低下だけではなく文部科学省の方針にも合わないのである。本論では、伝統な英文法教育法にコミュニケーション活動を通し、暗示的な教育法を加え、授業計画を立ている。英語教育汎論,と自分なり教育方針を始め、教育環境と生徒特徴を紹介し、それから授業目標、授業計画およびそれにもとつく理論を書き、最後に授業計画の強み、弱み、制限をまとめる。

Keywords: lesson planning, teaching principles, implicit teaching

Theories and Principles
Theories
There are many theories and hypothesis about SLA, including Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis, Swain's (2005) output hypothesis, Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis and DeKeyser's (1998) skill acquisition theory, VanPatten's (1996, 2002) input processing theory, Schmidt's (2001) noticing theory, and frequency hypothesis (Hatch & Wagner-Gough, 1976). However, Ellis (2005) stated that there is no agreement about which theory is the best or which one should be taken in language teaching or learning, or whether instruction should be based on focus-on-forms, or focus-on-form approach, or grammar should be taught explicitly or implicitly.

Teaching Principles
Principle 1: Focusing on input without ignoring output and fluency development.
According to Nation (2007), language teachers should consider the balance of four strands: meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning and

fluency development. It would be ideal for teachers to cover the other three strands through class activities, though English education in public high school tends to focus on language-focused learning.

Principle 2: Form-focused instruction without ignoring meaning and usage.
Based on R. Ellis' (2012) definition, form-focused instruction (FFI) is "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form" (p. 271). In order to learn language accurately, meaningfully and appropriately, it is important for learners to focus on three dimensions of grammar: form, meaning, and use (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, 2014). In contrast to rote learning, cognitive psychologists emphasize the importance of meaningful learning for long-term retention (Ausubel, 1963) by relating grammatical forms to a familiar context (Brown & Lee, 2015). Grammar is a "byproduct" of communication and emerges from repeated use (Hopper, 1998).

Principle 3: Explicit teaching through deductive and inductive presentation.
Ellis (2003) argued that when accessing explicit knowledge, learners improved their grammatical accuracy significantly. However, many researchers argued that it is implicit knowledge, not explicit knowledge that decides L2 fluency (Ellis, 2005). Three different interface hypothetic positions explain the connection between explicit and implicit knowledge (Ellis, 2005). Krashen's (1981) non-interface position argued that explicit knowledge cannot be converted to implicit knowledge, and these two exist in different parts of brain. In contrast, DeKeyser's (1998) skill acquisition theory stated that explicit knowledge could be converted into implicit knowledge through practice. Ellis' (1993) weak interface position said that explicit knowledge plays an important role in noticing process by facilitating L2 learning through 'noticing the gap' (Schmidt, 1994).

Principle 4: Engaging all students.
Although it is difficult for teachers to design lessons by matching instruction to the learners' preferred approach, it is possible for teachers to cater their learning activities to their students' levels (Ellis, 2005). In a forty-student big classroom, some students might feel that classroom activities are too difficult, while others might feel too easy. In order to draw all students into classroom involvement, teachers need to create learning situations where all learners can enjoy so that all of them would become active participants (Dörnyei, 2001).

Principle 5: Motivating students by positive feedback
"Language learning is one of the most face-threatening school subjects because of the pressure of having to operate using a rather limited language code." (Dörnyei, 2011, p.40). Teachers need to create a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere to cope with failure and anxiety in language learning (Dörnyei, 2001). Dörnyei (2011) suggested that teachers should give positive information feedback, because it gives students information instead of judgments. Specifically, positive information feedback should be given regularly and promptly (Dörnyei, 2011)

Teachers' different teaching backgrounds and their personal teaching experiences shape their teaching principles. In order to teach language efficiently, some teachers might revise their principles after experiencing failures. Most importantly, teachers should apply

theories and principles carefully and flexibly based on their teaching contexts and learners (Hatch, 1978).

Teaching background and context
Personal Teaching Background
I have been teaching English in public high schools in Osaka for more than ten years. The main purpose of English education in high school is to help students pass the exam. Like other teachers, English teachers treat English as a common school subject rather than a language. Although students might get good scores in exams, they cannot use English for communication, which is not consistent with requirements from MEXT. In addition, test teaching is not very efficient for some students who are not good at understanding abstract knowledge. Rote memorizing test items might help these students pass the exam in a short time but the result is not long lasting. For example, although they could give the right answer for some test items in the mid-term exam, they fail to answer the exact same ones in the final exam.

Teaching Context
This year I am teaching first-year students in a public high school in Osaka. The standard deviation of the school is 42, ranking 230th among 290 high schools in Osaka. Most students in my high school will seek employment after graduation. The main purpose of the school is to help students build confidence and form good learning habits through all school subjects. Especially when students can pass challenging subjects such as math and English, they will feel that their hard work pays off and thus build confidence. Like other Japanese public high schools, teachers in my school have to follow the school curriculum and school year lesson plans. Students in the same school year will have the same test made a same teacher every 14 weeks and the average raw score in one school year should be kept at 55-60. In order to do this, teachers have to cram students with the same amount of knowledge during determined period and teach test items at certain degree.

Target group of students
Students in my high school are divided into three groups: basic, standard, and advanced representing low, middle and high proficiency. This lesson plan is made for the low proficiency group of students who share characteristics of young learners mentioned by Pinter (2006), featuring 1) understand meaningful message but cannot analyze language; 2) lower process of awareness of learning; 3) more concerned with self than others; 4) enjoy imagination and movement. On the other hand, they love games and motivated to learn if they receive compliments from their teachers. Since students usually cannot concentrate on one activity for more than ten minutes, if not engaging them with variety of activities, teachers will probably spend most of class time disciplining rather than teaching. Unlike students in advanced classes, students in basic classes are not good at understanding abstract terms like nouns, verbs and modals. Therefore, the instruction in this lesson plan tries to avoid these terms during explicit teaching.

Lesson Goal, Lesson Plan, and Rationale
In this section, I write about my lesson goal and plan. Then I discuss about rationale behind them. This lesson plan is under the limitation of the school curriculum, the whole school year plans, and target students. Since form-focused instruction still plays a main

role in Japanese public schools and the goal of my high school is to increase student's self-confidence through all subjects, form-focused instruction and motivation intervention take important positions in this lesson plan. This lesson plan uses lexico-grammatical approach and provides opportunities for implicit learning through simple classroom activities so that low proficiency students can easily attend. For example, every student can easily participate in reading aloud activity, which not only develops fluency but also reduces language anxiety as well. Interview activity (Appendix D) helps them learn target forms implicitly and improve communicative abilities, which is consistent with the requirements from MEXT.

Lesson Goal and Plan
Students will be able to understand the meaning of modal 'can', 'could', and use them in a communicative way (Appendix A). This lesson plan includes form-focused instruction, explicit and implicit teaching, lexico-grammatical approach, reading aloud activity, communicative activity, and other motivational strategies (Appendix A).

Rationale behind Lesson Goal
Traditional language instruction focuses on development of rule-based competence, but it is important to view L2 as a communicative tool (Ellis, 2005). Grammar emerges from frequent usage and is a "byproduct" of communication (Hopper, 1998). Although instructions do not have to focus only on meaning, opportunities for creating meaning should be included (Ellis, 2005). If teachers create meaning in a communicative and meaningful context with a pleasant atmosphere, learners can acquire language effectively (Prabhu, 1987; Long, 1996), develop fluency (DeKeyser, 1998), and be intrinsically motivated (Dörnyei, 2001).

Rationale behind Lesson Plan
At the beginning of the lesson, students learn target forms through form-focused instruction. There is plenty of evidence showing the positive results of FFI. For example, Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis showed that explicit FFI is more effective than implicit FFI. Spada and Tomita's (2000) meta-analysis showed that "explicit FFI is more effective than implicit FFI on simple and complex features in both the short and long term". (Spada, 2011, p. 231). The importance of FFI has been widely acknowledged in language classroom in noticing and massive input process (Polio, 2007; Nassaji & Fotos, 2001; R. Ellis, 2012), from explicit instruction to implicit teaching (Brown & Lee, 2015). After having explicit FFI, students learn the target forms implicitly through reading aloud and communicative activity. As mentioned before, the target group of students have low motivation and they cannot concentrate on one activity for more than 10 minutes. There are different teaching approaches and activities in this plan to keep them focused (Appendix A).

This grammar lesson plan fits into Nation's (2007) language-focused strand, which means deliberately learning language features including pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, grammar and discourse. During the first 5-10 minute of lesson plan (Appendix A), as an introduction of the target language form of "can do", students talk freely about class norms, like what they can do or cannot do during the class in Japanese. I will write some students' sentences in English and give direct translation in Japanese but in English order. For example, after writing the English sentence *Students cannot use*

cellphones in the class, I will write a Japanese translation following English order, "生徒たちは、できない使う携帯電話をクラスで". Students soon discover incorrect word order in the Japanese sentence. By doing this, they will pay attention to word order in English, which is one of the challenging aspects for Japanese learners. During next 10-15 minute (Appendix A), students do exercise on their worksheet (Appendix B) to consolidate their learning. Explicit teaching and learning can raise learner's metalinguistic awareness and help them notice a rule (Ellis, 2014). Focusing on grammatical form is efficient by facilitating a fast learning process (Lowen, 2011; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Ellis, 2014).

Grammar lesson usually adopts form-focused instruction, which is "any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learner's attention to form either implicitly or explicitly." (Spada, 2011, p. 226). However, three dimensions of grammar, form, meaning, and usage should be interconnected (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). According to Halliday's (2004) lexico-grammatical approach, lexis and grammar are connected and should be treated as a whole. Since low proficiency students are not good at understanding complicated things, direct translation is very efficient. After observing how to use "can" to make sentences and listening to the explanation about the position of "can", students can soon produce their own sentences, though they still would probably make mistakes like "He can speaks". If trying to understand the reason behind the usage of corrective forms of verbs, students have to deal with abstract terms like "verb" and "modal", which are far beyond their understanding. In that case, implicit learning through different activities is effective to solve this problem. In the following part of the lesson plan, learners will connect phonological forms with grammatical functions implicitly through every encounter of phonological forms of "I can read". "She can read". "He can read" in reading aloud and communicative activities (Appendix A). In contrast to the explicit teaching, implicit teaching involves no rule explanation without drawing learners' attention on form (Norris & Orgega, 2000). Implicit knowledge is unconscious and cannot be verbalized, but is accessed quickly and used for fluent communication (Ellis, 2005). For example, native speakers know how to make correct sentences in their L1 but cannot explain why an expression is correct (Segalowtiz, 2010). Many researchers consider that implicit knowledge plays a main role in L2 competence (Ellis, 2005).

After students writing the correct answers first on worksheet (Appendix B) and then on blackboard, they read aloud the sentences on worksheet (Appendix B) for internalization and memorization. Reading aloud can help learners memorize new information by boosting their working memory (Kadota, 2007) and raise language awareness (Lyster, Collins, & Ballinger, 2009). Successful L2 leaners use the reading aloud as an effective method to improve their proficiency (Gibson, 2008; Takeuchi, 2003). According to Kawashima's (2002) research, reading aloud activates many areas in brain and combines several cognitive process, from recognition of the words to analysis of meaning of words. Based on a meta-analysis of 18 studies, Swanson, Vaugh, and Wanzek (2011) found that reading aloud could improve children's language development in phonological awareness, print concepts, comprehension, and vocabulary. Reading aloud gives Japanese learners a sense of English rhythm (Takeuchi, 2003) and thus increase their confidence in speaking English (Shimono, 2018). Reading aloud facilitates reading and speaking fluency by making learners understand chunking, connected speech, and content words (Schreiber, 1987; Yamashita & Ichikawa, 2010). In this plan, reading aloud activity provides learners with opportunities for implicit learning and fluency

development, helping them memorize the content and prepare for the following communicative activity.

Halliday (2004) stated, "Grammar is meaning-making resource and to describe grammatical categories by reference to what they mean" (p.10). In this plan, students practice the target form of "can" in an interview activity and write down responses on the worksheet (Appendix D) to develop their communicative skills. After accomplishing the communicative task, they would get stamps on their stamp sheet (Appendix E).

Although Nation (2007) suggested that teachers should cover four strands through a whole course rather than in one lesson, this plan includes four strands in one lesson to keep students concentrated in a 50-minute class using different activities.

Since this lesson plan is for low proficiency students with low motivation, all activities in this plan have to be appropriate enough so that every student could easily participate in. Dörnyei (2001) said that the basic motivation conditions include teacher behaviors, pleasant classroom atmosphere and a cohesive group with norms. Dörynei (2001) also said that "the best motivational intervention is simply to improve the quality of our teaching" (p. 26), like explaining things simply (Wlodkowski, 1986), using simple materials (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989) and flexible teaching approaches and activities (Ellis, 2005).

During this lesson plan, students get explicit instruction and learn English word order by comparing L1 with L2 through direct translations. They have different activities to familiarize the target form without need to understand difficult terms like subject and object. It is easy for everyone to accomplish activities like reading aloud and writing answers on the blackboard. Easy explanation and simple activity in this lesson plan (Appendix A) give them a sense of success, which leads to self-confidence (Dörnyei, 2001).

Dörnyei (2001) said that learning L2 could be face threatening because learners would make mistakes and could not speak fluently. However, reading aloud can reduce language anxiety and create a pleasant classroom atmosphere (Gibson, 2008; Huang, 2010), because they can blend in with their classmates so that everyone can enjoy. Writing answers from worksheet (Appendix B) on the blackboard also makes them feel safe because they could prepare beforehand like asking help from their classmates and the teacher. At the same time, writing answers on the blackboard could display their effort in the public to increase their personal satisfaction (Dörnyei, 2001). Communicative activity (Appendix D) gives them opportunities to connect with their peers. The degree of correlation and cooperation among students decide the degree of success (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). It is also consistent with requirements from MEXT. After completion of each task, they would receive stamps individually on their stamp sheet (Appendix E), which serves as a recognition of the effort and a prompt feedback. Prompt feedback is more effective than delayed one due to learner's awareness of his/her progress (Dörnyei, 2001).

During the first 1-5 minute of this lesson plan (Appendix A), students write about weather, date, and their feeling on their reflection sheet (Appendix C). Then students bringing their textbooks and notebooks into classroom would receive verbal compliments. Bringing textbooks into classroom is a small effort for obeying class norms, which any students can easily accomplish despite their personal abilities. Attribution is a psychology term referring to the explanations about past failure and success have consequences on his or her motivation for future action (Weiner, 1992). The most two influential

attributions are ability and effort (Dörnyei, 2001). In school contexts, learners ascribe their past failure to uncontrollable factors like ability rather than changeable causes like insufficient effort (Dörnyei, 2001). Attribution training is to change negative styles by offering effort explanations (Ushioda, 1996) while refusing to accept ability attributions, pointing out that even low ability students can master average school subjects with effort (Dörnyei, 2001).

At the end of the lesson, during 45-50 minute of the lesson plan (Appendix A), students write their reflection again on their reflection sheet (Appendix C) to raise the awareness about the success and failure in learning process (Dörnyei, 2001). They write about what they understood or not understood, and what they did in the class. Through reflection, they could get a clear idea about their effort to develop autonomy rather than blaming failure to their low ability. Students receive comments on their reflection paper in the next class.   Offering positive information feedback rather than judgments against standards can increase learning efficiency (Raffini, 1993).

Motivational strategies in this lesson plan is based on Dörnyei and Ottö's (1998) process model of motivation explaining the changes of motivation in the L2 classrooms. According to this model, motivation have three states: preactional, actional, and postactional stage. Teachers in the classroom use the process model as a template for motivating strategies: creating the motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive self-evaluation (Dörnyei, 2001).

Conclusion
Due to restrictions in my teaching context, this lesson plan uses explicit grammar teaching, which is accepted by most students and teachers. In order to follow the whole school year's lesson plans, very limited time is available for communicative activities. All first-year students have to take a 100- point exam every 14 weeks. English teachers would take turns to make exam paper. It is very difficult for test makers to make a 100-point test with limited teaching contents, so all English teachers have to cram students with certain amounts of knowledge. However, in order to improve their learning efficiency, in this lesson plan students have opportunities to learn the target form through implicit learning in a meaningful context, as VanPatten, Williams and Rott (2004) say that crucial part of language acquisition is connecting form and meaning. Since this lesson plan is for low proficiency learners with low motivation, intervention for improving motivation takes a significant part in the plan. Activities like reading aloud, which almost everyone can easily participate in is effective to improve students' motivation. Immediate positive feedback including compliments, comments and stamps encourage all students to attend activities and obey the class norms through small efforts. Teaching principles should be adaptive to teaching context so that students can learn language in a pleasant learning environment. The strengths of this lesson plan are: 1) covering Nation's (2007) four strands of language teaching, 2) adopting a communicative activity required by MEXT, 3) providing activities engaging all students. The weaknesses of this lesson plan are low efficiency, limited input, and insufficient time for fluency development, which my learners need the most. In Japan, both teachers and students agree that it is students' responsibility to practice at home rather than using class time to develop fluency. Teacher's responsibility is to give new information and show students how to practice. For example, teachers show students how to read aloud in the class and they are expected to read aloud at home. That is what high proficiency students would probably do after

school while low proficiency students would probably not do. Practice after school makes a big gap between good students and mediocre students, who need support from teachers the most.

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Appendix A
Lesson Plan
Target Audience and Context: first year Japanese high school students in public school
Learner Level: Low
Class size: 40
Class length: 50 minutes
Lesson goal: Students will be able to:
- Understand the usage of modal in a meaningful context.
- Memorize the usage of modal and example sentences through activities

Enabling objectives: Students will be able to
- Listen to the explanation first
- Practice through work sheet (Appendix B)
- Write their answers on the blackboard
- Memorize example sentences through reading aloud activity. (Appendix B)
- Produce through writing and communicative activities. (Appendix D)

Materials: Textbook for the first year students.

1-5 minute: Greeting in English, attendance check, distribution comment sheet. Students write weather, date, feeling, on their comment sheet (Appendix C). Check students' notebooks and praise those brought notebooks to classroom. Asking students about class norms as an introduction.

5-10 minute: Explain modal 'can' in Japanese including meaning, usage, and form. Ask students to pay attention to the English word order and the position of 'can' in English sentences.

10-15 minute: Ask students to do exercise on their worksheet. (Appendix B)

15-25 minute: Ask students to write their answers on the blackboard. I give stamps on stamp sheet to those who write on blackboard. (Appendix E)

25-35 minute: Ask students to read example sentences aloud in chorus. (Appendix B)

35-45 minute: Ask students to practice the usage of 'can' through communicative activity, using worksheet to interview their classmates (Appendix D).

45-50 minutes: Students reflect what they learn and what they understand or not understand today, writing comments on comment sheet (Appendix C). Collect comment sheet and say goodbye to students.

Appendix B
Worksheet
A　次の日本文に合う英文になるように空所に適語を書きなさい。
　　[1]　私はその木に登ることができる。
　　　　　　　I (　　　　　) climb the tree.
　　[2]　私の姉は三か国語を話すことができる。
　　　　　　　My sister (　　　) speak three languages.
　　[3]　あなたはギターを弾くことができますか。
　　　　　　　(　　　　) you play the guitar?
B　次の英文を can を使って　"…できる"　という意味の文にしなさい。
　　(1) I use the computer.　_____
　　(2) He swims very fast.
　　(3) My mother writes a letter in English.
　　(4) You answer the questions.
C 次の英文を疑問文、否定文、過去形の文にしなさい。
　　She can play the violin.
1.
2.
3.
C　次の日本文に合う英文になるように　(　)　内の語句を並べかえ、全文を書きなさい。
１　ローズはそのコンピューターを使うことができなかった。
　　(Rose/ the computer/ not/use/could).
２　その少年たちは昨日、野球をすることができた。
　　(The boys/baseball/yesterday/play/ could).
３　あなたは英語ができる。
　　(You/English/can/speak)

Appendix C
Reflection sheet
毎日の English 授業
ふりかえりワークシート

| 年 組 番 名前（ ） 日付（ 年 月 日） | | | | | |
| 教科・科目（ ） | | | 単元テーマ（ ） | | |

■学習内容をメモしよう。

日付	天気	気分	理解できた点	理解できなかった点	理解度
					A　よくわかった B　分かった C　分からなかった
					A　よくわかった B　分かった C　分からなかった
					A　よくわかった B　分かった C　分からなかった
					A　よくわかった B　分かった C　分からなかった

Appendix D
Interview sheet

Lesson ❺ ワークシート (教科書 60 〜 61 ページ)	Class	Name

行きたい国の旅行案内をつくろう

▼国旗   ▼国名   ▼しるしをつけよう。

You can

It's

You can

It's

ワークシート ❺

Appendix E
Stamp Sheet
授業に参加する（質問に答える、黒板に答えなどを書きに来る、読む）とポイントを獲得することができます。ポイントが多いと成績に良いことありま

Investigating the Role of Critical Thinking in Advanced Japanese L2 Academic Writing Using Outlining

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Abstract
Given the important role played by critical thinking skills and an outlining strategy in second language (L2) learners' writing performance, the present study, it was investigated how critical thinking levels (high and moderate) influence the quality of L2 essays produced with outlining. Using Watson Glaser's Critical Thinking Appraisal tool, 48 L1 Chinese speakers with advanced Japanese proficiency were divided into two groups: high critical thinking level and moderate critical thinking level. Both groups wrote an argumentative essay in Japanese. Using an analytic writing rubric that assesses essay quality with three dimensions (content, organization, coherence), two Japanese native speakers rated the essays. The results showed significant differences in coherence, with the high-critical-thinking group receiving higher scores compared with the moderate-critical-thinking group. These findings suggest that higher-order thinking activates the writing process, critical thinking ability enhances essay quality, and using outlining supports L2 academic writing in students with low levels of critical thinking ability.

Keywords: argumentative essay, critical thinking, essay quality, outlining strategy, second language writing

Introduction
Cognitive activities in the writing process such as retrieving related information from the writer's memory to generate new ideas, organizing ideas to plan how to write in a cogent way, and creating a well-organized text increase cognitive load in writers (Kellogg, 1988; Shekarabi, 2017b). Due to this, writing is a complex task, and it is even more complicated to write in a second language (L2) since L2 witers need to pay attention to the use of language such as vocabulary, syntax, and rhetorical issues as well. Thus, improving text quality in L2 writing requires much effort and skill. To this end, researchers have long put effort into examining the effect of outlining as a planning strategy on text quality in both first language (L1) and L2 writing (Kellogg, 1988; McDonough, de Vleeschauwer, & Crawford, 2018; McDonough & de Vleeschauwer, 2019; Shekarabi, 2017b; Smet, Broekkamp, Brand-Gruwel, & Kirschner, 2011). In this article, "planning strategy" refers to how writers plan their ideas and take notes of their ideas before starting to write texts or essays.

While outlining improves text quality, in L2 writing, critical thinking cognitive skills also contribute to improving text quality (Shekarabi, 2017a). Critical thinking is "a process of deliberation and argumentation (Shekarabi, 2017a, p. 155)" in which critical thinkers clarify other's positions and analyze and evaluate reasons so as to express their

position logically. Critical thinking and essay writing share similar grounds since in the process of writing essays, particularly persuasive writing (argumentative essays), in which the main components are a thesis statement backed by supporting reasoning designed to achieve a cogent conclusion. Similarly, critical thinkers aim to influence others' position by expressing their own position (claim) and providing evidence and reasons so as to reach a persuasive conclusion. Therefore, critical thinking and essay writing are thus linked by a similar process. In this regard, empirical research shows that teaching and learning critical thinking skills improve essay writing performance (Fahim & Mirzaii, 2014; Shekarabi, 2017a).

Although the impact of a planning strategy and critical thinking on written production has been investigated separately in some studies, few empirical studies have investigated the effect of critical thinking and outlining on L2 writing. In response, in this paper, it is aimed to explore how high and low levels of critical thinking ability interact with an outlining strategy in enhancing essay quality in the writing of Chinese L1 speakers who are advanced learners of Japanese as a second language (JSL). This investigation will further explore the degree of effort needed to improve students' critical thinking abilities as well as the extent to which writing strategies and writing tasks combined with critical thinking might enhance L2 learners' essay quality.

Outlining Strategies in First Language Writing

Outlining as a beneficial planning strategy has been concerned exclusively with L1 writing in studies conducted over the last two decades (Kellogg, 1988; Smet et al., 2011). Outlining is employed as writers plan written texts such as essays before beginning to write their text. More specifically, outlining refers to preparing an outline of ideas and sub-ideas before writing an essay, whether mentally (mental outlining) or on paper (Kellogg, 1988; Shekarabi, 2017b), or today on a tablet, phone (written outlining).

As one of the pioneer researchers who dedicated much of his work on planning strategies and their effect on written production, Kellogg (1988) found that outlining positively affects essay quality. Kellogg performed two experiments. In the first experiment, 18 college students were randomly divided into four conditions: rough draft, polished draft, outline, and no-outline. Participants wrote a letter arguing for a particular form of public transportation system for disabled people under each condition. In the rough draft condition, participants were told to write down their thoughts on paper without worrying about how well-organized or well-expressed the ideas were. After they finished this first draft, they could revise their draft in terms of organization and expression. In the polished draft condition, as in the rough draft condition, the participants were asked to put their thoughts on paper, but they were told to try to express their thoughts as well as they could and produce a well-organized text from the beginning. In the outline condition, participants created a hierarchical outline of their ideas on paper before starting to write their text, and then they began to write using their written outline as a guide. In the no-outline condition, participants were freed from having to make any outline began writing their text. There was no time limitation for any of the groups except for 5 to 10 minutes for producing the written outline in the outline condition. Two raters independently rated the essays' quality on the dimensions of language use, organization, idea development, effectiveness, and mechanics. The outline condition showed the highest overall mean score comparing to the other three conditions. Kellogg (1988)

concluded that the outline strategy eases the attentional overload during the writing process and leads to higher-quality texts.

In the second experiment, Kellogg (1988) compared written and mental outlining. In this experiment, 20 college students wrote a persuasive essay under three conditions: no-outline, written outline, and mental outline. In the no-outline condition, participants began writing their essay immediately after receiving the topic but without any planning. In the written outline condition, participants were given time to produce a written outline before writing their essay, whereas in the mental outline condition, participants made an outline in their mind but were not permitted to write it down. Students then started writing their essay based on their written and mental outlines in each condition. The time allocation and essay assessment were conducted as in the first experiment. While there were no significant differences in mechanics in each condition, the other quality dimensions (language use, organization, idea development, and effectiveness) as well as overall mean scores were higher for both the outline and the no-outline condition. In addition, no significant difference was found between written and mental outlining. Kellogg concluded that outlining is an effective strategy for improving essay quality regardless of being in written or mental form.

Regarding the benefits of the outlining strategy, Smet et al. (2011) investigated the impact of electronic outlining on argumentative writing with a within- and between-subjects research design. In this experiment, 34 pre-university students wrote two argumentative essays with a one-week interval. Participants were divided into two main groups, which each group further sub-divided into two halves (Group 1: 1A and 1B; Group 2: 2A and 2B (my labels). In Group 1, both 1A and 1B wrote their essays using an outline tool (i.e., Microsoft's Outlining Function), whereas in Group 2, the 2A sub-group wrote their essay without using the outline tool while the 2B sub-group did use the outline tool. The principle of the argumentative essay (presenting clear arguments with appropriate reasoning), text structure, and number of arguments were evaluated as determiners of performance. Subgroups 1A and 1B on the one hand and 2A and 2B on the other were compared to each other independently. Results showed no statistically significant difference between 1A and 1B or between 2A and 2B regardless of whether or not they used the outline tool. However, 1B, who wrote their essay using the outline tool twice received higher scores than 1A, who used the outline tool only once. Moreover, comparison between Groups 1 and 2 showed that 1B, who used the outline tool twice outperformed 2B, who used the outline tool only once. Given these results, Smet et al. (2011) argued that electronic outlining enhances argumentative text quality and that making an outline using an outline tool is useful for organization and structure in texts but less so for word generation and argument development.

Outlining Strategies in Second Language Writing
Many L2 writing studies have been conducted to investigate text quality by manipulating planning conditions (e.g., McDonough et al., 2018; McDonough & de Vleeschauwer, 2019; Shekarabi, 2017b). Shekarabi (2017b) conducted a study of L2 essay quality and the impact of outlining. In this study, 60 advanced learners of Japanese as a second language (JSL) were randomly assigned to three conditions: outlining, no-outlining (free writing), and control, to write an argumentative essay in Japanese. In the outlining condition, participants produced a written outline in a hierarchical form in 5 to 10 minutes before writing their essay and then wrote an essay using their written outline. In the no-

outlining condition, participants were asked to begin writing their essay immediately after receiving the topic without preparing any outline. After they finished writing their essay, they were given time to revise it. In the control condition, participants were free to write the essay without any particular condition. Two expert raters independently assessed the overall quality of the essays as well as their content, organization, and coherence. Participants in the outlining condition received higher scores on overall quality ($\eta^2 = .89$), content ($\eta^2 = .90$), and organization ($\eta^2 = .89$) whereas participants in the no-outlining condition received higher scores for coherence ($\eta^2 = .85$). Due to these significant differences, Shekarabi (2017b) concluded that outlining not only improves overall essay quality but also enhances the content and organization of essays. However, manipulating planning conditions might affect other dimensions of essay quality, including coherence.

In L2 writing, linguistic components of texts as well as text quality were examined in terms of using outlining individually as well as collaboratively (McDonough et al., 2018; McDonough & de Vleeschauwer, 2019). McDonough et al. (2018) assigned 128 EFL students to three groups: collaborative writing, collaborative pre-task planning, and individuated pre-task planning (no collaboration). Students in each group wrote a persuasive essay. In the collaborative writing group, students worked with a partners to write their essay. In the collaborative pre-task planning group, students took notes of their ideas collaboratively to produce an outline with their partners, then, after they finished their outline (plan), they wrote their essay individually based on their collaborative outline. In the individual pre-task planning group, students individually organized their ideas to create an outline then wrote their essay using that outline. Essay quality was assessed using an analytic rubric (content, organization, language) and linguistic components of texts were measured using accuracy and subordination as complexity markers). Results showed that although students in the individual pre-task planning group received higher scores than both collaborative groups, the difference was non-significant. In addition, both the individual and the collaborative pre-task planning groups produced more subordination whereas the collaborative writing group produced more accurate text. McDonough et al. (2018) concluded that pre-task planning (outlining) is effective with text quality and complexity. Moreover, students produce more accurate L2 texts when they do so together.

To investigate how pre-task planning affects L2 writer's overall text quality (content, organization, grammar, vocabulary) and linguistic components (accuracy, coordination, subordination) in the longer term, McDonough and de Vleeschauwer (2019) designed a pre- and post-test study. Over a semester, 60 EFL students practiced three short persuasive writing tasks under two pre-task planning conditions. Before all the students separated to write their tasks individually, 30 of them planned and created an outline individually while the other 30 did so collaboratively. The genre of the pre- and post-test writings was the same as in the practice writing tasks, with students planning and writing their essays individually in each test. Results showed that in the post-test writing and the practice writing tasks, students who produced outlines individually received higher scores for overall quality while students who planned collaboratively received higher scored for accuracy. However, there were no significant differences in complexity measures (coordination, and subordination). The researchers suggested that making outline individually improves L2 text quality but that collaborative outlining leads to more accuracy over time.

To sum up, although there were some differences in terms of how and when to use planning in L1 and L2 writing research, the beneficial effects of planning, particularly outlining, on the improvement of text quality was clear.

Critical Thinking and Essay Writing

Critical thinking can be described as a set of cognitive skills such as interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference (Facione, 2011). Interpretation includes understanding the importance of positions and situations and expressing those situations and positions. Analysis consists of recognizing the relationship between information and reasons. Evaluation means assessing logical associations between ideas and statements. Inference includes recognizing reasonable factors that lead to persuasive conclusions.

As Shekarabi (2017a) explained, critical thinking cognitive skills (interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference) are necessary to supporting the cognitive activities writers apply while composing texts such as argumentative and persuasive essays. In argumentative essays, defining the writer's position (claim, thesis statement) through a line of reasoning that supports the main idea (claim) of the writer and convincing the readers are all necessary. Writers develop their line of reasoning through cognitive activates such as "clarifying information relevant to the [writing] task, analyzing that information, determining their main thesis and supporting evidence, and making a persuasive conclusion" (Shekarabi, 2017a, p. 158). Therefore, critical thinking ability is involved in the process of writing an essay, where the body of the essay supports the thesis as well as the conclusion in a logical way. Although a positive effect of critical thinking ability on essay writing has been argued in some studies (e.g., Hashemi, Behrooznia, & Mahjoobi, 2014; Kubota, 2011; Kuhn, 2018), some researchers have conducted experimental studies from different perspectives to find empirical evidence of the impact of teaching critical thinking on essay quality (e.g., Fahim & Mirzaii, 2014; Shekarabi, 2017a).

Shekarabi (2017a) investigated the effect of critical thinking (interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference) on the quality of argumentative essays. Shekarabi divided 54 advanced Japanese as second language (JSL) learners into three groups: critical thinking, academic writing, and control. In the critical thinking group, students were taught essay writing in conjunction with how to use critical thinking while writing an essay, whereas in the academic writing group, students were taught conventional essay writing. The control group received no instruction. After receiving instruction under each group condition, students wrote a Japanese argumentative essay. Using a Japanese analytic rubric, two raters assessed the overall quality as well as the specific components of content, organization, and coherence of the essays. The students in the critical thinking group received the highest scores for overall quality as well as for content, organization, and coherence. Since the participants of this study were homogenous in terms of both writing ability and critical thinking ability at the beginning of the experiment before receiving any instruction, Shekarabi concluded that critical thinking skills enhance essay quality.

Also in other experimental research, Fahim and Mirzaii (2014) explored the impact of dialogic critical thinking on writing performance. In a pre- and post-test research design, 43 upper-intermediate English as foreign language (EFL) learners wrote two argumentative texts under two conditions. Half the participants received only argumentative writing instruction, whereas the other half received the same writing

instruction as well as several dialogic critical thinking tasks that required them to read the provided dialogic tasks discussing different topics and then state their own opinion about that dialog and why they held that view. The essays were assessed using an argumentative essay rubric. Participants in both groups received higher scores in the post-test writing than in the pre-test writing, but comparing the post-test writing scores, participants who had been trained through dialogic critical thinking tasks received higher scores than those students who received only the argumentative writing instruction. The researchers concluded that while writing instructions can improve second language learners' writing performance, introducing students to critical thinking improves their argumentative writing ability.

Essay Quality in Argumentative Writing
While overall essay quality is assessed in terms of all text features, including content development, organization, coherence, language used, and mechanics (Hamp-Lyons, 1991), text quality can also be assessed by focusing on particular features depending on the writing genre. In argumentative writing, for example, particular features such as content, organization, and coherence might be more suitable since these features are widely associated with the genre of argumentative writing in which argument development, logical reasoning, and reader persuasiveness are crucial (Shekarabi, 2017b).

In the present study, essay quality is considered holistically as well as in terms of the specific components of the argumentative essay (content, organization, coherence) independently. Content refers to developing the argument, clarity, directness of the thesis statement, and the weight of supporting reasoning. Organization refers to the structure of a text in which information is embedded into an introduction, body, and conclusion appropriately. Coherence refers to consistency between and within paragraphs and sections.

Significance, Goals, and Hypotheses of the Study
Regarding the relationship between critical thinking, planning strategy, and writing, as Shekarabi (2017a) argued, critical thinking supports cognitive activities (evaluating and organizing ideas), developing them in a logical way, and creating a persuasive conclusion, all of which occurs while writers plan to compose essays, particularly argumentative essays. Similarly, writers receive help from critical thinking skills (interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference) as they try to clarify and analyze relevant information and determine their reasoning so as to create a logical conclusion. Therefore, critical thinking and planning are linked in essay writing. Furthermore, as has been shown in previous studies (e.g., Fahim & Mirzaii, 2014; McDonough et al., 2018; Shekarabi, 2017a; 2017b), greater text quality is linked to the use of outlining but also to the teaching and learning of critical thinking. If it is acceptable that teaching critical thinking and awareness of using critical thinking skills lead to higher quality essays, the next question is this: What might be the effect of inherent critical thinking ability in students on essay quality? In other words, since college and university students have some degree of critical thinking ability (high to moderate), it is reasonable to assume that inherent levels of critical thinking ability and knowledge of how to plan (outlining strategy) to write essays may influence essay quality as well as other dimensions of essay quality, namely content, organization, and coherence.

With this in mind, in the present study, the impact of JSL learner's critical thinking levels (high and moderate) as well as the use of outlining on essay quality (overall quality, content, organization, coherence) is considered. The hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 1: Critical thinking levels affect the quality of essays written using outlining.

Hypothesis 2: Critical thinking levels affect the three dimensions of essay quality (content, organization and coherence).

Method
Participants
A total of 48 Chinese L1 speakers (24 females, 24 males) of JSL learners were recruited to participate in this experiment. Their ages ranged between 21 and 29. All participants were first-year graduate masters students at a national research university in western Japan. They signed a statement of informed consent to participate in the experiment. Their level of Japanese proficiency was advanced with a level of N1 on the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT). Two writing tasks were employed to measure the participants' writing ability. In addition, the level of participants' critical thinking ability was measured using the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (WGCTA) (2002) test, with half the participants determined as having a high level of critical thinking and half as moderate. Participants wrote an argumentative essay as the main writing task under the condition of using an outlining strategy.

Raters
Two Japanese speaking graduate students who majored in Teaching Japanese as a Second Language evaluated the essays independently. They were trained to evaluate the essays based on an academic writing scoring rubric developed by Shekarabi (2017b). To reduce potential bias, the two raters were kept uninformed about the participants' critical thinking levels. Each participant's score was the average of the two ratings. Interrater reliability estimated through a Pearson correlation coefficient was .88, which was high, just demonstrating the reliability of the rubric and justifying further analysis.

Instruments
Rubric
A six-point Japanese academic writing rubric (Shekarabi, 2017b) was used to assess Japanese argumentative essays in the study. The rubric was validated by Shekarabi (2017b) for Japanese writings with an interrater reliability of 0.90. The rubric consisted of five criteria: content, organization, coherence, language accuracy, and mechanics. Content consists of argument development, clarity of thesis statement, and line of reasoning. Organization consists of an appropriate essay structure, logical connections between introduction, body, and conclusion, and a comprehensible outline of the main idea. Coherence consists of using appropriate conjunctions and discourse makers, and consistency within paragraphs as well as in the text as a whole. Language accuracy and mechanics consist of grammatical and appropriate use of Japanese writing rules.

Pre-writing tasks

To assess participants' pre-existing mastery over writing, participants were required to write two essays (one argumentative, the other expository) before the main experiment. Two raters assessed these essays based on the same rubric that was used for the main experiment.

To check the assumption of normality and homogeneity of variance in the distribution of scores in both tests, the Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene's test was used. Table 1 displays the results. To see if there was any difference between the two groups before the treatment started, an independent-sample *t*-test was conducted for the argumentative pre-test ($t = .800$, df $= 91.23$, $p > .05$) and another for the expository pretest ($t = .205$, df $= 94$, $p > .05$). The results showed no statistically significant difference between the two groups.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics, normality, and homogeneity of variance for the two pre-writing tests

Pre-writing tests	N	Mean	SD	Shapiro-Wilk Test		Levene's Test	
				Value	*p*	Value	*p*
Argumentative	48	79.08	12.00	.133	.200	5.43	.02*
Expository	48	74.33	10.85	.132	.200	1.99	.16

Note: Since the *p* value is significant, the result of the unequal variance *t*-test was reported above in the text ($t = .800$, df $= 91.23$, $p > .05$).

Critical thinking test

To evaluate the critical thinking level of the participants, the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal measure (WGCTA) was used. The educational research institute of Pearson Education validated the WGCTA with internal consistency reliability of .93 and test-retest reliability of .73. The measure includes 80 items divided into five subtests. Each subtest contains 16 items. The subtests are entitled as follows: 1) Inference: considering the falsity of the statements based on the given data; 2) Recognizing unstated assumptions: recognizing presuppositions in each statement; 3) Deduction: distinguishing whether the given conclusion necessarily follows the information provided; 4) Interpretation: determining whether the given information is supported by the conclusion; and 5) Evaluation of the arguments: differentiating between relevant and strong arguments from irrelevant and weak arguments. To show how the items of the WGCTA are, a sample example which cited from the user-guide and technical manual of WGCTA (2012) is provided as below.

Example of Recognition of Assumptions (p. 3)
Statement: "We need to save time in getting there so we'd better go by plane."
Question: "Going by plane takes less time than going by other means of transportation."
Choose one answer:　　　Yes ☐　　　　　No ☐

WGCTA determines three levels of critical thinking: low, moderate, and high. Using WGCTA for this study, half the participants in the study were evaluated as having a high level of critical thinking and half as moderate. The determination of exactly 24 high and 24 moderate critical thinkers was accidentally as the researcher made no selection. None of the participants were found to have a low level of critical thinking.

Procedure
Using outlining, participants wrote an argumentative essay consisting of 800 Japanese characters within 40 minutes about the advantages and disadvantages of using technology under whichever condition they were placed in. The number of Japanese characters and the time allotted for writing were determined based on a pilot study conducted before the main experiment. Participants were given five to 10 minutes to make an outline before starting to write. They were then given 30 minutes to write their essay using their outline.

Results
With regards to Hypothesis 1, namely that critical thinking levels affect essay quality, an independent-sample *t*-test was run to compare the mean scores of the high- and moderate-level critical thinking groups with overall mean scores for the essays. Descriptive statistics are shown in Table 2. Normality and equality of variance were calculated using the Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene's test, respectively. Results showed that scores for overall quality were homogenous in terms of equality of variance ($p > .05$) but not normally distributed ($p < .05$). Results are shown in Table 3.

To examine Hypothesis 2, namely that critical thinking levels affect the three dimensions of essay quality (content, organization, coherence), an independent-sample *t*-test was run to compare mean scores for content, organization, and coherence independently in the two groups of high and moderate levels of critical thinking. Descriptive statistics for content, organization, and coherence are shown in Table 2. Normality and equality of variance were investigated using the Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene's test (Table 3). Equality of variance was confirmed for the scores for content and overall quality ($p > .05$) but not for the scores on organization or coherence ($p < .05$), nor was normality found ($p < .05$). Accordingly, these results were taken into consideration and the *t*-test results were reported. To avoid a Type 1 error, the alpha level of .01 set for accepting or rejecting the hypotheses. .

Table 2
Descriptive statistics for content, organization, coherence, and overall quality

Group	N	Content		Organization		Coherence		Overall Quality	
		Mean (SD)	SE	Mean (SD)	SE	Mean (SD)	SE	Mean (SD)	SE
High level CT	24	21.83 (2.31)	.47	18.66 (5.42)	1.10	21.16 (3.35)	3.56	101.16 (9.62)	1.96
Moderate level CT	24	21.50 (1.64)	.33	18.33 (3.85)	.78	17.83 (3.60)	.73	96.83 (9.35)	1.90

CT = critical thinking; SE = Std. Error Mean

Table 3
Tests of normality and homogeneity of variance for score for the content, organization, coherence, and overall quality

	Levene's Test		**Shapiro-Wilk Test**		
	F	***p***	**Value**	**df**	***p***
Overall Quality	.521	.474	.911	48	.001
Content	2.98	.091	.927	48	.005
Organization	10.08	.003	.871	48	.000
Coherence	15.19	.000	.569	48	.000

Regarding Hypothesis 1, while there were differences between the mean scores of high- and moderate-level critical thinking groups, the *t*-test revealed that the difference was not statistically significant (*p* > .01). Results (Table 4) show that critical thinking levels (high or moderate) do not affect overall essay quality. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was rejected.

Regarding Hypothesis 2, mean scores for content, organization, and coherence were compared between the high-level and moderate-level critical thinking groups. The results of a *t*-test showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the high critical thinking level group and the moderate critical thinking group for coherence (*p* < .01). This means that students with high levels of critical thinking produced more coherent essays compared to students with moderate levels of critical thinking. However, there was no statistically significant difference for content or organization (*p* > .01). Results are shown in Table 4. Hypothesis 2 is therefore accepted in terms of the coherence dimension but not for the content or organization dimensions.

Table 4
Independent-sample t-*test for high and moderate CT groups for overall quality, content, organization, and coherence*

Scores	Groups	N	Mean	SD	df	t	*p*
Overall Quality	High level CT	24	101.16	9.62	46	1.58	.121
	Moderate level CT	24	96.83	9.35			
Content	High level CT	24	21.83	2.31	46	.57	.568
	Moderate level CT	24	21.50	1.64			
Organization	High level CT	24	18.66	5.42	41.48	.24	.807
	Moderate level CT	24	18.33	3.85			
Coherence	High level CT	24	21.16	3.35	24.96	2.93	.007
	Moderate level CT	24	17.83	3.60			

Discussion

This study investigated the effect of critical thinking level (high and moderate) and using an outlining strategy on overall essay quality and the three dimensions of essay quality (content, organization, coherence). Participants were divided into two groups (high-level critical thinking and moderate-level critical thinking) using the WGCTA measure. Participants then wrote an argumentative essay under the condition of using an outlining strategy.

The findings of the study showed that critical thinking levels affect the coherence of texts and that students with high levels of critical thinking produced more coherent essays. Indeed, whether the writer's argument through the body and the conclusion of the essay support the thesis statement is an important assumption in argumentative essay writing. For this, the coherence of the text, which is the consistency of paragraphs and different sections of a text, plays a critical role to leads readers to follow the writer's argument and the line of the reasoning (Cottrell, 2011; Shekarabi, 2017a). Thus, students with high critical thinking skills might advantage more form their critical thinking skills (i.e., analysis, evaluation, inference) to produce more coherent text than students with low skills of critical thinking. Also, it is assumed that reduction of cognitive load gave more space to high critical thinking group of students to benefit more from their critical thinking skills, since easing cognitive load increases the attention of students (Kellogg, 1988; Shekarabi, 2017b). However, there was no significant difference between the high critical thinking group and the moderate critical thinking group under outlining condition for overall quality, content, or organization. This means that students with high levels and moderate levels of critical thinking ability produced essays of almost the same quality when using a planning strategy.

These results show the effectiveness of outlining in raising essay quality might be greater than that of critical thinking ability. As Flower and Hayes (1981) explained, writers go through cognitive activities while composing a text, generating and organizing ideas, setting goals for their writing, and concerning themselves with the target audience. These cognitive activities place a cognitive load on the writer's working memory, which may affect text quality (Kellogg, 1988, 1990; Shekarabi, 2017b). Outlining strategy reduces this cognitive load and thus leads to increasing the attention writers can devote to generating sentences while writing the text, which gives writers a chance to produce essays of higher quality. This might be a possible reason of why students with both high levels and moderate levels of critical thinking ability produced essays of almost the same quality.

Another possible reason for finding no significant difference between high levels and moderate levels of critical thinking ability may be that the critical thinking levels of the students in the present study. As mentioned above, levels of critical thinking in students in this study were high and moderate. Since no students with low levels of critical thinking were found, no comparison occurred with students with low levels of critical thinking. It is possible that students with low levels of critical thinking ability may produce essays of lower quality compared with students with high levels of critical thinking ability since critical thinking ability affects essay quality (Hashemi et al., 2014).

Since the present study did not consider low levels of critical thinking ability, generalizing the findings of the present study would be unadvisable. A replication study is needed to examine all three levels of critical thinking ability (high, moderate, low). Moreover, since students with the same level of language proficiency (advanced)

participated in this study, examining students with different language proficiency levels is needed to determine the influence of critical thinking on essay quality.

Conclusion

Critical thinking ability is effective in raising coherence in texts. In addition, outlining itself is effective in raising essay quality as well as enhancing the content and organization of the text. These findings show that in addition to reducing cognitive load, which can be achieved by outlining, as well as improving overall text quality, critical thinking ability could be beneficial for other dimensions of essay quality, especially coherence. It is suggested, therefore, that outlining be used to produce higher quality essays, particularly for L2 writers. Since L2 writers need to focus more on language aspects of the text (syntax and vocabulary) as well as cognitive activities within writing (generating and organizing ideas), they experience higher cognitive load (Shekarabi, 2017b) and may, therefore, benefit from making an outline before starting to write. Furthermore, even students with low levels of critical thinking may produce high essay quality by using outlining. Teaching second language learners to use appropriate planning strategies is therefore key to L2 writing improvement.

The findings of the study will be beneficial to instructors in designing writing tasks as well as to textbook and curriculum developers in the field of second language writing. The findings will be particularly relevant to college- and university-level writing, where students are mostly evaluated in terms of their writing ability, which reflects higher-order thinking, especially as they are likely to be required to write essays or even publish papers.

In the present study, it was found the positive effect of critical thinking ability on essay quality; however, further research is needed to see the association between critical thinking ability and essay quality as well as the content, organization, and coherence. Moreover, it is suggested to compare the impact of critical thinking ability on different kinds of planning strategies such as free writing.

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Signs to Change Topics Give Chances for Turn-taking

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Abstract
Turn-taking is one of the most difficult behaviors for second language learners. Japanese students tend to be silent in the classroom and talk only when individually called upon. If they can understand signals that are used when native speakers change topics, it should be easy for them to recognize the relevant timing of their turn-taking. This discourse analysis allows teachers to understand how native-English speakers change topics during their conversation. The key signals found through the analysis are: 1) using discourse markers, 2) citing a third person not participating in the conversation, and 3) returning to the interlocutor's response. This study investigates the conversation between one native English-speaker from the United States, and one Japanese speaker who is the author of this paper. The stimulated recall interview with the participants shows that they often change topics when there is a pause, which is also an opportunity to promote learners' turn-taking.

Keywords: turn-taking, discourse marker, third person, reaction, pause

Turn-taking is the base of the conversation because without turns, there is no social interaction (Wong & Waring, 2010). However, turn-taking is one of the most difficult behaviors for L2 learners. Nakane (2005) states that students from East Asian countries are often found to be silent in the classroom, and the Japanese students show a tendency to talk only through individual nomination. The key reasons for the silence are lack of understanding, inter-turn pauses to formulate talk and relatively longer pauses because of the gaps in sociocultural norms. Regardless of L2 learners' need for a longer pause before turn-taking, English speakers display a strong orientation to a 'no gap no overlap' principle in Transition Relevance Places (TPR) (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson, 1978), and an average amount of time for a pause that participants tend to tolerate in English conversation is shorter than in other languages which require longer pauses (Jefferson, 1989).

Although Japanese speakers require (at least pragmatically) a longer period of time to formulate their thoughts or employ relatively longer pauses during interaction in English, this is not always the case when interacting in their first language, Japanese. Regarding turn-taking, Uchida's (2006) comparison of Japanese and American talk show discussions indicate that Japanese speakers take turns in the middle of the speaker's utterance more frequently than Americans do. She also found that turn-taking in the middle of the utterance in Japanese typically occurs to show agreement with or confirming the current speaker's utterance, contrary to English, in which it typically occurs when changing topics. In Japanese conversation, the listener confirms and

supports the speaker's utterance, therefore, the interlocutors cooperate with each other to take turns during interaction.

Research shows that it is necessary for teachers to instruct learners not only of L2 turn-taking style but also to construct interactions together with learners. Josef Williamson (2019) suggests that it is difficult for Japanese learners of English to adapt to the L2 style of turn-taking. His study shows that learners tend to revert back to their L1 style during floor management when discussing in the L2, even after explicit instruction on turn-taking practices. As Richard F. Young (2011) indicates, interaction between interlocutors should be done through collaboration, therefore, turn-taking should be done mutually between instructors and learners.

Brief Motivation

How can L2 learners know when to start talking when they are constructing what to say or why do native speakers allow a slight pause for turn-taking? Is there any way to actively attend to interaction as learners do when using L1? In such cases, knowing how the speaker changes topics or subjects should help them follow the discourse, and find appropriate time to participate. This article summarizes the findings on how a native English-speaker changes topics through conversation analysis, through examination of the research question: How do native English-speakers change topics during conversation, and for what reasons?

Participants and Context

One native English speaker from the United States, Melissa, and one Japanese speaker, Naoko, the author of this article, participated in the conversation. Melissa is an online English conversation instructor with twenty-one years of teaching experience. She recently acquired Teaching English to Speaker of Other Languages (TESOL) qualification. Naoko, the author, is an advanced speaker of English as L2, an English teacher at a language school in Japan, and is a student of Melissa's online course. This conversation took place as her second lesson of Melissa's course.

In this conversation, Melissa shared some of the language teaching activities she had learned in her TESOL diploma course. The key focus was on the activities that promoted interaction for English language acquisition.

Data Collection

The conversation took place during an online lesson which lasted for 25 minutes. Melissa agreed to have the conversation recorded. In the conversation, Melissa shared two kinds of teaching methods that included movement: 1) a balloon throwing activity in which a pair tosses a balloon to each other while saying a word, and 2) a walk-about activity wherein two people discuss what they see in a picture.

The recorded conversation data was transcribed for analysis (see Appendix B for full transcript), following the transcription keys shown in the Appendix A.

Three weeks after the conversation above, the researcher conducted a stimulated recall interview with Melissa for further understanding on how she changed topics and why. This interview was also recorded for the researcher's further investigation.

Analyses and Results
Examining the transcription on the utterances that led to subject change, three methods became apparent: 1) Using discourse markers, 2) Citing a third person not participating in the conversation, and 3) Responding to the interlocutor's reaction.

Key Findings
Using discourse markers
The definition of discourse markers used here is "a class of lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs, and prepositional phrases" (Fraser 1999, p. 931). The markers listed below are used as signals for topic change. Each discourse marker shows the relationship between the segment they introduce afterwards, and the prior segment.

Discourse markers "too, also, another, other"
The *too, also, another and other* provide additional context to ideas that were mentioned in prior segments. Melissa began the conversation by introducing the method using a balloon, and then the word *too* (L20), together with *another* one, signals to change the topic to another activity, walk-about.

7	Melissa	one was like (.) doing a balloon
8	Naoko	Balloon?
9	Melissa	back and forth to each other.

20	Melissa	Um, and then **another** one **too** was just we would hold arms (.)
21		and (0.5) we would pair up and walk around,

After introducing the first benefit of the ball activity, which is learning things in a series, the *also* (L54, 55) signals the second idea to stimulate your brain.

30	Naoko	What was the purpose of throwing the balls? (0.5)
36	Melissa	to (.) say (.) learn things in a series=like say the days of the week,
38	Melissa	or the [months]

54	Melissa	And **also** that activity um (.) of throwing embedded,
55		=and it **also** stimulates the (.) the language center in your brain (.)
56		at the same time.

Discourse marker "if"
The *if* is the signal of changing to different conditional statement from the previous segment. Up to L115, the explanation is on the condition of smooth procedure, the activity being fast paced, keeping on moving and repetitive. The *if* (L115) indicates to mention the case when the activity is interfered by an error of mispronunciation or forgetting what to say next.

111	Melissa	Yes yes um, you know (.) and because it's kind of fast paced (.)
112	Naoko	[Right]
113	Melissa	[keeps] things moving **(.)**
114	Naoko	Um

115	Melissa	and it's repetitive, and **if** they mispronounced [something]
116	Naoko	[Um]
117	Naoko	What [happens?]
118	Melissa	[Um] or (.) forgets, then you can easily do it again, you know,
119		and (.) repeat it, you know, too.

Discourse marker "but"

The *but* is a signal to show the contrast between the prior and the continuing segments. The explanation is first on beginners' usage, and the *but* (L144) gives a sign to change the target to the advanced students.

139	Melissa	And so the idea is that (.) for say beginners (.)
140		they're just simply repeating
141	Naoko	[Um]
142	Melissa	[and] they're getting the idea (.) but they don't need to know the vocabulary.
143	Naoko	[Aah]
144	Melissa	[**But**] for (.) more advanced (.) ones, you could (0.5)
145		you could do it in the other (.) another language,

Citing a third person not participating in the conversation

Bringing in a third person's statement or experience is a way to change topics by elaborating on the previous segments made by the speaker. In this case, after talking about the overall procedure of the walk-about activity, Melissa gave detailed examples of questioning during the conversation, that were recommended by the instructor ('he' in her utterance) of her TESOL diploma course.

227	Melissa	[and] we would walk (.) and, and talk
229	Melissa	[and] ask questions and look at the paper together
231	Melissa	And (0.5) one of us would ask
233	Melissa	um (.) about the mother, the other one would ask about the daughter
239	Melissa	[yea], yea. And (.) so,(0.5) **he**, you know, **he** had an example↑
240	Naoko	[Yes],
241	Melissa	[of] some questions, like um,(0.5) you know, "why are they",
242		"why is she smiling?"
243	Naoko	Um
244	Melissa	Or, what are her hobbies?

While the examples given by her instructor were relatively formal, Melissa shared a more casual and amusing experience by citing her partner's questions and answers made about the daughter shown in a picture.

279	Melissa	I remember, you know, **my partner** and I, we (.) sometimes
280		we did (0.5) some funny answers, you know too
281	Naoko	((laugh)) What do you mean by funny answers?
282	Melissa	Yea, I mean, you know, like when, when um asked about,
283		about the daughter,
284		Ah, you know, "what kind of personality does she have?"
285	Naoko	[Uh ha]
286	Melissa	[So,] we just say, "Oh I think you know she looks really sweet here."=

287	Naoko	[Yea]
288	Melissa	=[You know], but obviously does she, really is a brat
289		and she probably, you know, has a temper tantrum, you know

Returning to the interlocutor's response

Topics were changed depending on the interlocutor's response to the utterance. There were three common replies: questioning, confirming or providing no specific comments.

Questioning

The questions initiated by the interlocutor lead the speaker to change the topic. For example, as Melissa is explaining the second activity of walk-about, Naoko is confused and she does not understand why 'a balloon' was used in the prior activity, consequently questioning the purpose of the "balloon". Her question made Melissa revert back to the 'balloon' activity.

25	Melissa	[Um] Walk around the classroom and (.) do kind of chit chat (.)
26		kind of like, you know (.) some cultures they do=
27	Naoko	[Um]
28	Melissa	=[um] in the evening, and (.) um, (0.5)
29		[what was here]
30	Naoko	**[What was the] purpose of throwing the balls? (0.5)**
31		**Was it to make sure that it is your time (.) the person who was holding**
32		**the ball is going to be the person who's going to talk? (0.5) Is that**
33		**the [reason?]**
34	Melissa	[Yes], so, (.) so sometimes you could use it as a method
35	Naoko	Um
36	Melissa	to (.) say (.) learn things in a series=like say the days of the week,
37	Naoko	Um
38	Melissa	or the [months]

Confirmation of utterance

Once the interlocutor comprehends the previous segment, the speaker changes the topic for further clarification. The following discourse shows that Naoko's confirmation on the type of questions made during the activity and Melissa's utterance changes from 'examples' to 'types' of questions recommended.

149	Melissa	you could ask a quick question.
150	Naoko	[Aah↑]
157	Melissa	[You] know (.) or, "what's your favorite meat?" or, I don't know ((laugh))
158	Naoko	Um
159	Melissa	[Um]
160	Naoko	**[Something] that is, the question that is easy to answer.**
161	Melissa	Yes
162	Naoko	[Ah]
163	Melissa	[and] probably something that doesn't need to just say yes and no answer.

Providing no specific comments

Topic change occurred when the interlocutor did not make further comments or when there was a relatively long pause as shown below. As Naoko does not respond to or

questions the brain stimulation by movement, Melissa continues to explain the benefits of keeping students from getting bored which is followed by the discourse marker '*too*'.

81	Naoko	[So] based on your experience, do you think there's a big difference (0.5)
82		having all those movements tha … [by stimulating]
83	Melissa	[I do.]
84	Naoko	the brain? Oh, it does.
85	Melissa	Yea.
86	Naoko	**[Um],**
87	Melissa	[Yea] yea.
88	Naoko	[That's] interesting. **((pause))**
89	Melissa	[Yea.]
90		OK, and so then we had (.) um ((pause)) yeah, I do, I do think so (.)
91		and I think **too** again (.) that it keeps (0.5) students from getting bored.

Other findings

Discourse markers such as *also*, *too*, *another* and *other,* 'questions by interlocutor', and 'no comment by interlocutor or pause' were the key triggers that led to topic change-- Table 1 demonstrates the frequency of topic change (21) and how the speaker changed the topics.

Table 1
Frequency of changing topics.

Total # of topic changes	Using discourse markers※			Citing a third person※	Returning to interlocutor's response		
	also, too, another, other	*but*	*if*		*Question by interlocutor*	*Confirmation by interlocutor*	*No comment or pause* ※
21 [100]	8 [38]	1 [5]	1 [5]	3 [14]	8 [38]	2 [10]	8 [38]

Note: [ ] Percentage of frequency of each item versus the total number of topics that were changed.
※ Overlaps exist among items 'Using discourse markers', 'Citing a third person', and 'No comment or pause'.

According to the stimulated recall interview with Melissa, she states that she changes topics by emphasizing the discourse marker 'but'. By changing topics, this is a reaction to the interlocutor's question and pause. Therefore, she tends to avoid pauses or silence and she is eager to answer her students' questions and changes the topic based on their confirmation. However, she indicates that "at the end, I think I talked too much." She feels that she does not provide enough time for others to speak, saying, "if they were pausing, I think that someone has to say something because I feel uncomfortable. We call it an 'awkward pause'." The 'no gap, no overlap' rule stated by Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1978) should urge her to continue by providing a different topic when there is a pause.

Implications
Have learners become more aware of signals for subject change
Key discourse markers are also (too, another, other), if, but, and third person citation
Language learners need to be fully aware when it is time to take their turn to speak in a conversation, such as when they hear the discourse markers mentioned above. The discourse markers in conversation indicate that the speaker will change topics.

Confirm by asking questions
Giving an utterance in the form of a question will lead the speaker to change or return to the topic that the learner wants to focus on, such as the subject they do not comprehend or need to confirm.

Learners can follow L1 turn-taking style: show agreement or make confirmation
As learners prefer to pursue L1 style rather than orient to L2 style (Williamson, 2019), it may be important to utilize the Japanese turn-taking style below to have learners actively provide utterances.

When they recognize discourse markers, the listener can show agreement by saying, "I agree" or confirm the current speaker's utterance by repeating what the speaker has said. This turn-taking should lead to a smooth conversation because the utterance following the discourse markers, such as *also* or *but*, or third person citation, elaborate the previous utterance. By using *also* or third person citation, the speaker provides additional information, and by using *but*, they give a contrasting utterance. Therefore, when the listener finds these discourse markers, it is the timing that enables clear understanding of the previous utterance, resulting in agreement or confirmation of what the speaker has said.

Instructors and learners should cooperate: Provide long pauses to promote turn-taking
Interaction should be constructed equally between interlocutors (Young, 2011). The results from this study demonstrate that instructors can motivate learners to take turns by providing a pause.

Language instructors should be aware that, when there is a pause during a conversation, there is an opportunity to promote L2 learners' turn-taking. Giving a relatively longer pause than the norm allows learners to formulate their conversation and asking questions to help confirm understanding of the instructors' utterance. The results from this analysis indicate native speakers often change topics when there is a pause. However, as Nakane (2005) indicates, this pause may be because they have difficulty in understanding the content or they are preparing for turn-taking.

Limitations
As this analysis is based on just one conversation between a native English speaker from the US and the author, we cannot make claims on generalizing the findings from this study. Further analyses of native speaker conversations from other countries may show different results. Both speakers are TESOL professionals and the topic was on language teaching activities. L2 learners with non-advanced language proficiency levels should discuss different topics, such as everyday life, and may respond differently.

Future Research

As indicated above, additional analyses on the conversation with native speakers from other countries and L2 learners of non-advanced proficiency levels are recommended.

In addition, further research would be able to assess whether learners promote turn-taking through the following: a) teachers to instruct learners on the key discourse markers found in this study, b) teachers to provide a pause after uttering key discourse markers, and c) learners to show agreement or to confirm the speaker's utterance even in the middle of a conversation.

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Appendix A

Transcription Key
Adapted from Paltridge (2012)

↑	Shift into especially high pitch.
<u>now</u>	Stress
=	Latched utterances – no break or gap between stretches of talk
?	Rising intonation
.	Falling intonation
,	A normal pause as one would expect in speech.
…	A short pause of hesitation
(.)	A brief interval (about a tenth of a second) within or between utter
(0.5)	The time elapsed (by tenths of seconds) between the end of the utterance or sound and the start of the next utterance or sound
((pause))	A pause of longer duration than a hesitation but within the same utterance.
::	Prolongation of the immediately prior sound.
[ ]	Overlapping utterances.
(( ))	Descriptions of paralinguistic and non-verbal behaviors such as pointing and laughing.
((inaudible))	An intelligible utterance in which the subjects were speaking to themselves or holding space in the conversation.
-h	Inspiration (in-breaths).

Appendix B
Transcript (12'08")
RED BOLD   Features that led to topic change.
Blue   Topics (previous / later segments)

1	Naoko:	Do you have <u>any</u> (.) <u>topic</u> so that we can have some kind of interaction? (0.5)
2	Melissa	Ah, yea, Nao, um, (0.5) so I was going to say that I remember (0.5) in our class
3	Naoko	[Um]
4	Melissa	[that] (.) we had a couple of different methods
5	Naoko	[Um]
6	Melissa	[again] that include some kind of movement
7		.=But one was like (.) doing a balloon
8	Naoko	Balloon?
9	Melissa	back and forth to each other.
10	Naoko	Um
11	Melissa	Yea, balloon
12	Naoko	Um, huh
13	Melissa	or you could even probably throw a <u>ball</u> (.) and somebody would say a word
14	Naoko	Um
15	Melissa	or an idea, (.) and the other person would answer
16	Naoko	[A::ha]
17	Melissa	[=like] perhaps in the other language, you know, yea, (0.5)
18		or repeat it, (.) or in different ways you can use that method.
19	Naoko	**Um**
20	Melissa	Um, and then **another** one <u>**too**</u> was just we would hold arms (.)
21		and (0.5) we would pair up and walk around,
22	Naoko	Um
23	Melissa	walk around the (.) um (.) class, aha ((laugh))
24	Naoko	[So]
25	Melissa	[Um] Walk around the classroom and (.) do kind of chit chat (.)
26		kind of like, you know (.) some cultures they do=
27	Naoko	[Um]
28	Melissa	=[um] in the evening, and (.) um, (0.5)
29		[what was here]
30	Naoko	**[What was the] purpose of throwing the balls? (0.5)**
31		**Was it to make sure that it is your time (.) the person who was holding**
32		**the ball is going to be the person who's going to talk? (0.5) Is that**
33		**the [reason?]**
34	Melissa	[Yes], so, (.) so sometimes you could use it as a method
35	Naoko	Um
36	Melissa	to (.) say (.) learn things in a series=like say the days of the week,
37	Naoko	Um
38	Melissa	or the [months]

39	Naoko	[Um]
40	Melissa	or (.) or even just some, some vocabulary
41	Naoko	Um
42	Melissa	that um they (.) the person that was <u>throwing</u> (0.5) the balloon
43	Naoko	[Um]
44	Melissa	[or] the ball,
45	Naoko	Um
46	Melissa	would <u>say</u> (0.5) a word
47	Naoko	[All right]
48	Melissa	[Or even] an <u>idea</u> (0.5)
49	Naoko	All right.
50	Melissa	in one language, and then (.) the (.) other person is supposed to do it
51		back and to repeat it (.) or to say it in the next language
52		[you know]
53	Naoko	[Oh, okay]
54	Melissa	And **also** that <u>activity</u> um (.) of throwing embedded,
55		=and it **also** <u>stimulates</u> the (.) the language center in your brain (.)
56		at the same time.
57	Naoko	[Hu:::m]
58	Melissa	[It's it's] the <u>activity</u> thing of throwing and stuff is very close
59		to the language center in your brain.
60	Naoko	Humm. So what is the difference between (.) um throwing a balloon (.)
61		and <u>not</u> throwing a balloon? (0.5) You can just (.) you know (0.5)
62		you can say (.) "please repeat after me." But [what is the] di….
63	Melissa	[Right, right]
64	Naoko	What is the <u>advantage</u> of throwing a balloon?
65	Melissa	So like you said the thing is that (.) is that <u>movement </u>(0.5)
66	Naoko	Um
67	Melissa	the fact that <u>you</u> <u>are</u> moving your arm
68	Naoko	Um
69	Melissa	or per perhaps even the hand (.) eye (.) thing that
70		you are watching the balloon (.) and and making your arm move (.)
71		then it stimulates (.) um a place in your brain=
72		=that's very close to your language center [in] your brain
73	Naoko	[Oh:::]
74		So [it's stimulates your brain tissue]
75	Melissa	[Um (.) and there is there is] so it stimulates your brain (.)
76		it stimulates the thinking (.)
77	Naoko	[Um]
78	Melissa	[and]
79	Naoko	[Ah::]
80	Melissa	[process] and yea and
81	Naoko	So based on your experience, do you think there's a big difference (0.5)
82		having all those movements tha … [by stimulating]
83	Melissa	[I do.]

84	Naoko	the brain? Oh, it does.
85	Melissa	Yea.
86	Naoko	**[Um],**
87	Melissa	[Yea] yea.
88	Naoko	[That's] interesting. **((pause))**
89	Melissa	[Yea.]
90		OK, and so then we had (.) um ((pause)) yeah, I do, I do think so (.)
91		and I think **too** again (.) that it keeps (0.5) students from getting bored.
92	Naoko	Ah, all right,
93	Melissa	Um
94	Naoko	That's big.
95	Melissa	You know, I really think, I really think that there is a physical (.)
96		I think that there is a physical connection
97	Naoko	**Um**
98	Melissa	You know too (0.5) but **also too** (.) I think that it keeps things fun (.) and and
99		((inaudible)) students from getting bored.
100	Naoko	I see **(.)**
101	Melissa	Um, and so like you sa=**he** said (.)
102		that it was very good for things that are in a series
103	Naoko	[U:::m]
104	Melissa	[You're] trying to learn (.) like the days of the week, or months
105		or fruits (.) or (.) ((inaudible)) the names of (.) body parts or whatever (0.5)
106	Naoko	Is that [because]
107	Melissa	[or]
108	Naoko	you can you know you can continuously (.) [um]
109	Melissa	[Yes]
110	Naoko	keep on (.) doing the task or doing that activities?
111	Melissa	Yes yes um, you know (.) and because it's kind of fast paced (.)
112	Naoko	[Right]
113	Melissa	[keeps] things moving **(.)**
114	Naoko	**Um**
115	Melissa	and it's repetitive, and **if** they mispronounced [something]
116	Naoko	[Um]
117	Naoko	What [happens?]
118	Melissa	[Um] or (.) forgets, then you can easily do it again, you know,
119		and (.) repeat it, you know, too.
120	Naoko	OK.
121	Melissa	Um, [okay, so]
122	Naoko	[What happens] if you don't know what to do or what to say or you get you
123		know you get kind of (0.5) don't know what to say?
124		**In second language, you may not know the vocabulary, what happens?**

125	Melissa	Right, um (0.5) so then of course then there is a different method of teaching it
126	Naoko	**[Um]**
127	Melissa	**[but] also** you are (0.5) I guess it depends on the level (.)[of the student too.]
128	Naoko	[Ah, all right.]
129	Melissa	So like you said, sometimes (.) you can say (0.5) the (.)
130		the day of the week (.) perhaps you are teaching them English of course (.)
131		so you say (.) Monday
132		And (.) then they (.) and you (.) hit the ball or balloon to them (.)
133		and they repeat that, <u>Monday</u>.
134	Naoko	Ah, all right.
135	Melissa	You know, if they don't see it exactly right (.) then you can (.)
136		like say <u>emphasize</u> the part that they did wrong (0.5) and (.) do it (.)
137		so that they can repeat it and do it better or then you go on to <u>Tuesday</u>
138	Naoko	All right, [I see].
139	Melissa	[And] so the idea is that (.) for say <u>beginners</u> (.)
140		they're just simply <u>repeating</u>
141	Naoko	[Um]
142	Melissa	[and] they're getting the <u>idea</u> (.) but they don't need to know the <u>vocabulary</u>.
143	Naoko	[Aah]
144	Melissa	**[But]** for (.) more <u>advanced</u> (.) ones, you could (0.5)
145		you could do it in the other (.) another language,
146		or you could do it with <u>ideas</u>=
147	Naoko	[All right].
148	Melissa	=[You could] say, um (.) you know (.) ah (.) you could
149		you could ask a quick question.
150	Naoko	[Aah↑]
151	Melissa	[And] they can respond
152	Naoko	Like "what color do you like?
153	Melissa	Yes.
154	Naoko	All [right].
155	Melissa	[Right], right.
156	Naoko	Um
157	Melissa	[You] know (.) or, "what's your favorite meat?" or, I don't know ((laugh))
158	Naoko	Um
159	Melissa	[Um]
160	Naoko	**[Something] that is, the question that is easy to answer.**
161	Melissa	Yes
162	Naoko	[Ah]
163	Melissa	[and] probably something that doesn't need to just say yes and no answer.
164	Naoko	Okay, alright.

165	Melissa	Yeah, [Um, huh.]
166	Naoko	[That's] a good idea.
167	Melissa	And, and then **the other method** that we had (.) uh, was called "Walkabout".
168	Naoko	[Walkabout]
169	Melissa	[We simply] (.) yes.
170	Naoko	Walking around?
171	Melissa	Yes, and so (.) we would um (.) link arms, [you know]
172	Naoko	[All right] okay.
173	Melissa	And pair up, uh (.) in our class we get about 70, 70 people, and of course,
174		many times he was expecting that we would be teaching a class (.)
175		of students too, so it's easy to pair up
176	Naoko	All right.
177	Melissa	But this is not something that we can do on the internet, you know ((laugh)).
178	Naoko	Yea, yea, that's [right].
179	Melissa	[Yea] [you know]
180	Naoko	[But still], how, how does it work?
181	Melissa	Yes, so we would link arms, and then walk around in the class,
182		and we kind of had some questions=and perhaps he showed us (.) a picture=
183		=We had this picture to look at ((actually showing a picture of a girl with her
184		mother in a park, but Naoko thought them to be two girls)).
185	Naoko	Okay, two girls.
186	Melissa	Um, huh.
187	Naoko	Near a pond.
188	Melissa	Maybe, maybe a mother and a daughter [sit there].
189	Naoko	[Ah, mother] and her daughter, okay.
190	Melissa	Yea, possibly
191		I mean, it's up to…and some of it is up to your imagination
192	Naoko	All right
193	Melissa	Uh, and then they had some (.) some questions
194	Naoko	**So what do [you] do with the picture?**
195	Melissa	[Uh]
196		about the mother, uh huh (.)
197		And (.) and even too just looking at yourself, you could say,
198		"well what do you think this mother, uh, is thinking?"[Or],
199	Naoko	[Ahh]
200	Melissa	um, or "why do you think that they are at the park?"
201	Naoko	[Okay]
202	Melissa	[or,] Whatever, or, why is she? (.) Whatever=
203		=It's sometimes (0.5) and it's funny you can do whatever you like.=
204		=If you make it humorous
205	Naoko	[Um]

206	Melissa	[Um] it's <u>even</u> <u>better</u>, you know, [um]
207	Naoko	[Okay,] it's like by using a picture
208		you're going to do some questions and answers to have, int, [uh]
209	Melissa	[Yes]
210	Naoko	uh, interactions?
211	Melissa	Right, right. [So, he]
212	Naoko	**[What do] you mean by Walkabout?**
213	Melissa	Uh, huh [So,]
214	Naoko	**[Do you] walk around the room?**
215	Melissa	We would like, we would link arms
216	Naoko	Um
217	Melissa	um, with our partner
218	Naoko	Um
219	Melissa	and then we walk around the classroom, (.) you know
220	Naoko	Okay ((still not getting it))
221	Melissa	And everybody, since there were many students,
222	Naoko	[Um]
223	Melissa	[we] had like 35 couples of, of students
224	Naoko	[Um]
225	Melissa	[and] we just would make a big circle↑
226	Naoko	[Um]
227	Melissa	[and] we would <u>walk</u> (.) and, and <u>talk</u>
228	Naoko	[Um]
229	Melissa	[and] ask <u>questions</u> and look at the <u>paper</u> together
230	Naoko	Um
231	Melissa	And (0.5) one of us would ask
232	Naoko	[Um]
233	Melissa	um (.) about the <u>mother,</u> the other one would ask about the <u>daughter</u>
234	Naoko	[Um]
235	Melissa	[or] also we would (.) <u>answer</u> each other and we did this for (.) for, I don't know
236		maybe 15 minutes [or something]
237	Naoko	[Ah, that's quite] long
238		**[Um]**
239	Melissa	[yea], yea. And (.) so,(0.5) **he**, you know, **he** had an example↑
240	Naoko	[Yes],
241	Melissa	[of] some questions, like um,(0.5) you know, "why are they",
242		"why is she smiling?"
243	Naoko	Um
244	Melissa	Or, what are her hobbies?
245	Naoko	[Um]
246	Melissa	[Um,] what problems do you think she faces?
247	Naoko	U:::m
248	Melissa	Um, how much TV does she watch?
249	Naoko	[Haa] ((laugh))
250	Melissa	[I mean], it's not really <u>obvious</u> in the picture↑
251		but these are all questions you could ask

252	Naoko	[Aah]
253	Melissa	[Or] maybe about (.) the little girl, about (.)
254		"how many dolls does she have?"
255	Naoko	[Um]
256	Melissa	[Um], when does she go to bed?
257	Naoko	[Oh]
258	Melissa	[Um,] do you think she (0.5) you know,
259		"what kind of personality do you think [she has?]"
260	Naoko	[A:::h]
261		**We really have to be <u>creative</u> to make a question**
262		**and also to <u>answer</u> the questions.**
263	Melissa	-h Yea, a little bit. Yea, it's it's this is for more intermediate
264		or advanced students.
265	Naoko	Okay
266	Melissa	And of course, it's (0.5) it's created to <u>stimulate</u> (.) [thinking]
267	Naoko	[Um]
268	Melissa	and creative answers
269	Naoko	**[Um]**
270	Melissa	[And] like you said <u>**too**</u> if (0.5) if you're kind of humorous↑
271	Naoko	[Um]
272	Melissa	[Um], it makes it (.) <u>better</u> I think that you got to remember things more↑
273	Naoko	Of course
274	Melissa	or you can make it humorous (.) if you like
275	Naoko	[Um]
276	Melissa	[Humor] is a good <u>tactic</u> for learning, too.
277	Naoko	[Ah,] all right
278	Melissa	Uh, huh. Yea.
279		I remember, you know, **my partner** and I, we (.) sometimes
280		we did (0.5) some <u>funny</u> answers, you know too.
281	Naoko	((laugh)) What do you mean by funny answers?
282	Melissa	Yea, I mean, you know, like when, when um asked about,
283		about the daughter,
284		Ah, you know, "what kind of personality does she have?"
285	Naoko	[Uh ha]
286	Melissa	[So,] we just say, "Oh I think you know she looks really sweet here."=
287	Naoko	[Yea]
288	Melissa	=[You know], but obviously does she, really is a <u>brat</u>
289		and she probably, you know, has a temper tantrum, you know
290	Naoko	What's temper tantrum?
291	Melissa	[Or, um, ahm, or, ahm] …you know, I don't know,
292		it's like "what kind of music do you think she listens to?"
293	Naoko	Um
294	Melissa	you know, you use some kind of funny and just say, you know,
295		some kind of <u>crazy</u> thing, you know, that doesn't seem what
296		that doesn't seem like a little girl will listen to, you know,

297	Naoko	Ah
298	Melissa	heavy metal, or you know some kind of ((inaudible))
299	Naoko	[I see, I see]
300		**You said temper temper I couldn't get it one word**
301		**you said temper something. What is it?**
302	Melissa	Temper tantrum uh huh. Yea.
303	Naoko	Temper tantrum. Would you input in the chat column, if you don't mind?
304	Melissa	Yes. <u>Temper</u> <u>tantrum</u>. ((typing in the chat column))
305		Um (0.5) so (.) It's (0.5) like a (.) you know, a <u>fit</u>, a fit of anger.
306	Naoko	Fit of anger? Okay.
307	Melissa	Yea, especially like when a child, um, yea, a fit of anger, um, let's see maybe
308		a lot of times, a lot of times…
309	Naoko	Temper tantrum
310	Melissa	yea, you might scream or cry or kick, and you know,
311	Naoko	All right.
312	Melissa	wave your arms or yea, you know,
313	Naoko	Okay, fit of anger.
314	Melissa	especially for a child.
315	Naoko	I see. This is my first time to learn this word.
316	Melissa	Yea, ah huh, [yea].
317	Naoko	[Thank] you.

Assessing Students' Understanding of Language Goals and Needs

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Abstract: This first of a two-part study analyzes whether English language learners at the first-year Japanese university level consider how their university educational needs may differ from high school needs and whether or not they are proactive in setting related goals for themselves. Using a 12-question survey based on an in-house English language goal-setting booklet used in class, 371 students were asked to reflect on the usefulness of goal-setting and their understanding of their potential new needs at the university level. The respondents felt goals were useful but reported they rarely made or used them themselves. They felt they understood their needs better than their teachers but failed to utilize common external tools to judge what those needs may be. Finally, the concept of frontloading (aka on-boarding) is introduced as a method to mitigate the anxiety first-year students might feel upon encountering new, more productively demanding, teaching methodologies. Continuing research is analyzing the differences in how teachers and students view their needs and goals, comparing their responses with the same survey instrument.

Keywords: language goals, language needs, self-motivation, frontloading, on-boarding

English language learning, arguably, is becoming more of a global necessity. Company training centers and schools, which have to deal with a large influx of students or differing levels and goals, generally set uniform standards that may or may not coincide or be understood by the learners. Further, individuals, who otherwise may not have felt a desire or need to study English previously, are now having to take on cultures, values, and a new language that may feel uncomfortably foreign to them or threaten their identity. Pressures from society, a teacher, or a boss may create external motivation, but without internal motivation and an understanding of one's personal needs and goals, language-learning success will be limited. Nowhere is this more evident than at the university first-year level where individuals are at a transitional developmental stage of life and often do not yet have a clear picture of their future needs – let alone how to deal with them. Using Japan a case study, teachers can consider how students in their own learning environment understand the need for individual learners to identify and pursue independent needs and goals.

Japan is the epitome of an English learning culture rent by pressures to globalize. An island nation, Japan has a history of isolationism. Non-Japanese population rates are rising, though total rates have not yet reached three percent (Itabashi). The group-oriented, us-and-them culture is not considered welcoming to outsiders. The citizenry is extremely

literate, having a surfeit of Japanese-language news, research, and education materials. Overall, society's need to seek external expertise and resources or to be 'global' is minimal. This then affects the perceived need for foreign language learning. Though one of the strongest and educated economies in the world, it is ranked 53rd out of 100 countries, trending steadily down, with "low English proficiency" by the EF English Proficiency Index in 2019. In ways, there have been moves by the government to reach out. The Ministry of Education identified its lack of internationalism as a barrier to growth. It created the Top Global University Project in 2014 to provide funding to universities to help them internationalize, but as of 2019, it still has only the same two universities in the top 100 world rankings (Times Higher Education). While some surface-level changes can be seen, there simply is no economic or social benefit to becoming proficient in English as there is in other countries.

Additionally, though it has become fashionable to replace many native words with foreign (often English) words, foreign language learning methods have not kept pace with current research. Native teachers, and the communicative methods that come with them, are fairly new to Japan. Primary and secondary English language education still tends to focus on the fundamentals of language, grammar, and vocabulary, and accuracy. Learners often do not encounter fluency-driven classes until university. Without understanding the differing rationales and goals, this abrupt shift may cause learners, who have been trained to value precision, to withhold respect for or cooperation with fluency-focused teachers. Additionally, due to Japan being such a homogenous society, the multifaceted differences brought by native teachers may cause affective stress and anxiety great enough to demotivate and inhibit the learning process. This is exemplified by the differing educational expectations between Japanese and Western university cultures. Historically, the student's future lifelong company will train them to suit their corporate culture—not a university. Global best-practices may interfere with more traditional management styles. Putting aside arguments of English hegemony and with these differences in mind, Japan presents as a good case study for how students understand their language goals and needs in this age of globalization.

Regardless of country, first-year university language learners face many challenges when encountering a variety of new courses. Without a firm understanding of tertiary-level goals or their own needs in the shift from language learner to language user, success may remain elusive. In addition, learners without personal goals may continue to rely upon external forces for motivation, never obtaining the internal motivation necessary for true success. How are learners to distinguish and appreciate the differences between the rationale behind one course controlled by the teacher using a textbook and another course with an active-learning environment with no textbook? Where are learners to develop an appreciation and understanding of various methods if no time is given to explaining them in class? Without this vital meta-cognitive information, newly introduced teaching methodology will remain ineffective, inhibiting, and demotivating to first-year students who have little understanding of the new expectations of university study. For students to find direction and establish personalized goals for learning, goal-setting and needs-analysis are common facilitating techniques.

Using statistical measures, this paper examines attitudes about goal-setting and needs-analysis from the learners' point of view, focusing on first-year students who are experiencing significant changes in their learning environment and expectations. Follow-

up research is in process that will compare these student responses to goal-setting with that of their first-year English teachers.

Needs and Motivation in Goal-setting

Needs analysis (NA), also referred to as needs assessment, can be defined as the process of deciding and prioritizing the needs of an individual or a group of learners. It is the critical first step that guides the goal-setting and syllabus design of the five-step curriculum development process as proposed by Richards (1984). Vella (1994) described NA as, "who needs what defined by whom" (p. 48). NA can be useful for distinguishing between objective needs, of the instructor or institution say, and the possibly more subjective wants of the learner. They come in various forms including, interviews, questionnaires, can-do checklists, and journal entries. Not only do NA provide empirical data to guide overarching institutional curricula, but they also differentiate individuals within the student body. However, it more often is the instructor, according to Stenhouse (1975), who is the primary agent interpreting and connecting the various needs and goals of the students and their institutions with little learner input. In traditional language curricula, students were language learners studying the fixed linguistic foundations of English as a tool for receptive communication while focusing on accuracy. More current communicative methodologies focus on getting students to be more fluent and productive language users who are capable of adapting to the flexibility of authentic daily communication. This methodological shift from teacher-centered learning, often with singular and controlled outcomes, to versatile student-centered learning, with undeterminable outcomes, has necessitated a greater use of NA and understanding of individual motivations.

Oxford and Shearin (1994) state that learning is directly connected to motivation, and only by understanding the attitudes, goals, and beliefs of students can educators understand what motivates students. This is just one of many steps in the learning process, but it may be the key to success. Gaining curiosity about the target language is the first step to authentic language acquisition (Figure 1). Once a strong desire to understand a language, the initial curiosity stage, is achieved, building a continued interest in the second stage where it then leads to the third stage of learners understanding their personal reasons or needs to persist. However, learners who have not successfully reached this stage and who lack personal goals are unlikely to take the risks necessary to persevere and achieve the ultimate goal of autonomy.

Figure 1
The learning process
Curiosity
➥ Interest
➥ Motivation
➥ Risk-taking, ambiguity tolerance, confidence
➥ Autonomy

According to Norton and Gao (2008, p. 110), motivation failure "assumes that motivation is a character trait of the individual language learner and that learners who fail to learn the target language are not sufficiently committed to the learning process".

However, motivation does not exist in a vacuum, nor is it mechanical, argued the "Father of Needs Theory," Maslow, in 1943 with his five-tiered needs hierarchy (biological maintenance, safety, belonging, esteem, and self-actualization). Deriving from his highest level, self-determination theory argues that motivation is a flexible combination of both external motivators, such as significant others or the learning environment and internal motivators, such as the aforementioned interest or the activity's perceived value (Williams and Burden 1997). Modern needs theorists, starting with economist Max-Neef (1991) further expounded that to actualize a person's potential is not based solely on getting certain needs satisfied. It also matters how those needs are satisfied. Max-Neef and his team initially divided satisfiers into those that do more to destroy motivation, pseudo-satisfiers that give a false sense of satisfaction, inhibitors that inhibit other needs and goals, and singular-satisfiers that meet a single limited goal. Only synergistic-satisfiers can meet multiple needs.

Therefore, it is not useful nor appropriate to either the student or the instructor to be solely responsible for creating a successful learning process. Language learning is not possible without the feedback, cooperation, and the "buy-in" of the learner. Brindley's (1984) research shows a mismatch between students and instructors regarding learning expectations, effective learning methods, and views of needs and preferences. Nunan (1988) noted that goal-setting can be instrumental in enabling students to take control of their own learning by establishing targets that they see as necessary in the progress of language learning. Nunan (1999, p. 233) also said, "Goal setting in language learning can have positive effects on motivation as well. When students do not perceive progress, they may become less motivated." Therefore, using NA to garner an understanding of what motivates students, from their perspective, can only but help the instructor and institution provide better English language classes. Curiosity and interest are increased by involving students in their own learning and personal goal-setting. Similarly, unsuccessful learners can mitigate future failure through a process of understanding their external and internal motivators. Goal-setting and NA are both vital in allowing learners to contribute in the creation of their own learning, which in turn helps them to gain the motivation and confidence that can finally lead them to be autonomous learners.

Research Background

The purpose of this research was to uncover attitudes about personal goal-setting and needs analyses first from a student's point of view and then compare those attitudes to those of their instructors. Burden (2005), stated that in Japanese universities, "learners are rarely asked in any overt systematic way about their learning experiences" (p. 3), so this research could also be a step in rectifying that deficiency.

That educators are not assessing students with NA could be due to three main reasons. One is the fact that the vast majority of English university classes have a large number of students, making it time-consuming to conduct an in-depth analysis of the students' needs. Another is that most classes are only 15 weeks of 90-minutes which meet only once-a-week. Under those conditions, it is difficult to fit in an NA survey, analyze it, create individualized programs, and execute them. The third reason is that some instructors are simply unaware of the benefits of NA and goal-setting for the students. If regular use of NA to clarify personal needs is not passed down as a value by the educational system, then learners, in turn, will not come to value the process either. Further, proficiency in making specific, measurable, achievable, related, and time-limited goals, known as

SMART goals, takes training. Have learners, specifically at the first-year university level, where expectations may be unusual or unexpected, been taught to value their own participation in guiding their learning by considering their needs.

In 2011, a 60-page booklet called My English Plan (MEP) was written to be used as supplementary material to the standardized textbooks and My Campus Plan used in a Business Department at a large Kansai-area university. The MEP intended to coordinate various disparate aspects of education, guide students to discover their individual needs and goals, and help them optimize their career development and job-hunting. It imbued a frontloading methodology, that is, spending a certain amount of time before class content was introduced to consider, on a metacognitive level, the objectives of the class, the goals and needs of the students, and the connection of course content to their future needs. The MEP aimed to connect three educator-vectors, which otherwise had little contact or cross-vector knowledge. These were: the part-time and full-time language teachers; the departmental-major teachers and the homeroom-like Basic Seminar teachers; and the campus facilities such as its career placement center, English language specialty center, and a center with non-credit language classes. The booklet also sought to coordinate non-language aspects of university life from college entry to job-hunting. Not only were there sections related to language skills, but also a Business English section, useful for both teachers and students unfamiliar with the specialized needs of the field, and a Progress Portfolio section designed to teach students how to consider, create, and integrate SMART goals into their learning. The Progress Portfolio was the crux the project with sub-sections including the university Can-do List, language learning factors and strategies, a four-year action plan, a career goal check, a resume builder, and more. It was intended to address the overarching goals of adjusting student expectations to meet university-level standards, promoting self-responsibility by preparing students for job-hunting needs from their first year, and promoting learner autonomy by guiding less motivated students towards goal-appropriate tasks. While the MEP was met with some degree of success and was accepted for departmental use, it is currently only being used in a small international studies program.

Methods and Procedure

A 12-point survey (Appendix I) was initially part of the pilot program for the MEP. A total of 12 native and seven non-native English teachers were first trained in using their select part of the MEP, then they piloted it in 13 first-year classes. Students in these classes had a native teacher once a week and a non-native "pair" twice a week with the MEP used in both. Teachers were requested to incorporate, at minimum, only the parts related to their classes at their convenience and were not supervised for their compliance during the one-year trial. Native and non-native teachers each had 12 ten-minute activities to complete over the year but were free to use any part of the booklet, especially those recommended for their individual class levels as marked. A separate follow-up survey ascertained that teachers generally found the MEP useful and successful in meeting student goals, but they did not go beyond the minimum requirements. Two reported struggling with incorporating it into their classes.

Though students were not overtly instructed about the purposes of the MEP, an English-Japanese bilingual survey was given at the end of the year asking them to rate their opinions on the MEP's potential uses and their attitudes about their own goal-making. It used a five-point Likert Scale and was carried out at the end of the pilot study year by

the native teachers. Responses for a small group of students doing a Business English minor, called IIP, were included. Additional surveys were conducted in subsequent years by the lead author to equalize the number of IIP subjects for research purposes.

Finally, with similar numbers of "regular" and IIP students, a chi-squared test was used to determine whether there might be a difference between the two sets of students. Intensive International Program students are eligible for the program by their top ranking on the departmental G-TELP or TOEIC Bridge test. They further self-select with a 10-point survey to determine their overall interest and level of motivation for studying abroad and becoming an international user of English. Presumably, these more motivated students with a clear purpose of studying abroad might be more aware of goals and needs than the "regular" students.

Research Questions
1. Do first-year students value or utilize goal-setting?
2. Are first-year students aware of the differing goals and expectations at the university level?
3. Do first-year students value the potentially differing goals of an external source (i.e. the teacher or textbook)?
4. Are the attitudes to needs and goals of first-year students, who self-select into a more rigorous program, different from those in regular classes?

Participants
A total of 371 students who had used the My English Plan answered 12 questions about their own needs and goals. The genders were almost equally represented with seven more males (179) than females (172), though 20 subjects did not identify their gender. "Regular" subjects accounted for 55.5% of the respondents. The lead author, the only participating IIP teacher, had 243 respondents (73.6% of the total number of respondents), with 165 (44.5%) being all the intensely trained "higher" level IIP subjects. Treatment for "regular" subjects was limited to the parts of the English skills sections of the MEP apportioned to teachers of first-year students who used general conversation textbooks. "Higher-level" first-year IIP subjects had three additional classes in English each week. Their intensive program covered both the first-year "regular" curriculum and the second-year "regular" curriculum consisting of conversational office and business English. They completed most of what the first- and second-year "regular" students would cover in the language skills, Business English, and Progress Portfolio sections of the MEP. Pilot teachers were unaware of the survey until it was to be given, so overt preparation and "teaching to" the survey was mitigated.

Results and Discussion
Overall, students value clear and specific language learning goals as seen by the Likert Scale averages and standard deviations (Appendix II) and breakdown of results (Appendix III). With (1) on the Likert Scale being "disagree," the average subject "agreed" (4.6 of 5 on the scale) with Question One: "Clear language goals are useful." A low standard deviation of 0.81 confirms all students value goals. Only 37 respondents, 10%, scored this at a (3) or less. Yet far fewer subjects actively made their own goals. Standard deviation jumped to 1.86, and the Likert dropped to 3.4 when asked to scale Question Two: "I made language learning goals for myself this year." However, not all

students are self-motivated, so Question Three inquired as to whether: "Having language learning goals provided in a textbook or by the teacher is helpful." Another lackluster average of 3.5 showed external motivations such as these were also not highly valued by most subjects.

A deeper look, however, corroborated the fact that these subjects all valued goals – just different types. The more internally motivated subjects reported 45.1% made their own goals at the 4- or 5-degree, and the possibly more externally motivated subjects reported teacher or textbook goals were helpful (51.2%) to the same degree. A tenuous correlation of making one's goals versus teacher/textbook goals (0.20) indicates a somewhat low crossover and the potential that subjects may prefer one type of motivation over another. Surprisingly, subjects who made their own goals did not find making them as useful as those who preferred external goals. Making one's own goals correlated weakly to finding goals useful at 0.09, whereas the relation between teacher/textbook goals and overall goal usefulness was noticeably stronger, though still weak at 0.27.

To see if attitudes were different between "regular" and IIP students a chi-squared (X^2) test was done. All 12 questions had an alpha level of one and all had a degree of freedom of four except the last question, which had a degree of freedom of three (Appendix III). Staying with the first three questions, goal usefulness and teacher/textbook goals both had p-values of $p = 0.25$ indicating there is no significant difference between the two groups of students. However, p-values for students making their own goals was the strongest (0.001) of all 12 questions. This called for a rejection of the null hypothesis regarding the attitudes of first-year students, who self-select into a rigorous program. The difference between the two groups was highly significant, and it seems that, in this case, IIP students actively make their own goals more than "regular" students do.

Question Four sought to ascertain if students take a prolonged proactive approach to goal-making with the statement: "I considered my language learning goals throughout the year." The average score of 3.3 indicates they do not. Those who valued externally created goals tended to also consider their goals more. Correlations to external factors such as teacher-textbook created goals (0.45), MEP guidelines (0.40), and teachers knowing the student's needs (0.37) were each moderately significant. Year-long goal-setters also tended to value the repetition of skills (0.32). While the reason for this cannot be extrapolated from this study, it is possible that a textbook or teacher may provide more regular and consistent goal support than what subjects can provide for themselves. The chi-squared values for those who consider their goals throughout the year were the second most significant ($p = 0.005$) indicating a difference between groups, and again in favor of IIP students.

Teachers are often trained or experienced in the principles of motivation, needs analysis, and SMART goal creation, but do students feel they can do a better job themselves in determining their own needs? Question Five posed this with: "I understand well what language skills I did not learn before and still need to practice." An average of 4.0 and a standard deviation of 0.94 revealed the high level of confidence subjects had for understanding their own needs with chi-square values showing no real difference between groups. This was equally borne out by Question Six, which stated: "My teacher understands well what language skills I did not learn before and still need to practice." To this, subjects reported a similar self-confident standard deviation of 0.99 and an average of 3.3, suggesting teachers know less than they do about their needs. One possibility

might be that native teachers were seen to be less aware of Japanese student needs. There was only a -0.02 correlation to self-awareness of goals and a 0.06 correlation to teacher-knowledge of needs – not a wide variation that might hint at good or bad teachers. Further study distinguishing native and non-native teachers would be necessary. Interestingly, students who made their own goals rated teacher-textbook determined needs and goals more highly than their own understanding of need. Whether this was due to lack of self-confidence, a high level of trust in the teacher, or simply ascribed respect of the teacher could not be determined. The correlation to those that know their own needs was a lower 0.09, yet the correlation to teacher-knowledge of needs was a higher 0.27. Similarly, the correlations between those that make their own goals to teacher-knowledge of goals (0.13) and those between textbook-teacher goal usefulness and teachers knowing needs (0.37) were higher. P-values of 0.05 indicate there is significant evidence that "regular" and IIP students differ in their attitudes about whether their teachers understand their needs.

The evolution of language learner to language user requires a significantly different approach to learning than most Japanese students typically experience at the primary or secondary level of education with the system's historically heavy focus on entrance exams. Students may believe they are better equipped than their teachers to understand their goals, but they are likely less knowledgeable about how to meet those needs and may have a misguided understanding of what lies ahead. Traditional Japanese learning techniques provide a valuable foundation for a language learner, but future demands on students in the workplace, business, or abroad, arguably require a more active communicative approach. Though students have been becoming more aware that English is more than a school subject, teachers still often lament how students are unaware of the higher expectations of university and are ill-prepared. Therefore, Questions Seven through Ten endeavored to see whether students could identify their as-of-yet unfulfilled foundational needs from high school and how those might differ from university.

Question Seven stated: "Repeating basic high school English skills (grammar, etc.) in this type of class is useful." Subjects highly valued the repetition of their basic skills (4.1 with a standard deviation of 1.00), which might be inferred to mean they understand they need those yet un-mastered skills and are still language learners. Question Nine: "My English language communication skills this year matched the level needed in this class," went on to juxtapose the accuracy-based skill-set students are familiar with from high school with the likely new skill-set encountered at the university level which requires more active production. In general, subjects were not very confident that they were English language users either with a 3.4 average (standard deviation 1.06). Admirably, subjects were aware (average 4.0) that the learning environments had differing requirements as asked in Question Ten, which stated: "The goals of high school English language classes are different than for university classes." Only 27 subjects (7.3%) rated the difference at a (1) or (2). There were no significant differences between the two groups of students valuing the repetition of skills (p = 0.05). However, there was a difference between groups and how they thought their high school and university skills matched (p = 0.025). Not surprisingly, the IIP students reported feeling less prepared for, and possibly more aware of, the skill-shift in their more intensive classes. It is also possible that teachers were more meta-cognitive in class, thereby raising awareness.

The final thought was to see what students might find helpful in the realization of the language needs and goals while at university. Businesses that address such goal optimizing call it "on-boarding." It is the process a company uses to train new employees

to understand its particular culture, methods, and values. Similarly, in education, we need to balance and adjust student expectations for their learning in a new environment. By presenting the institutional needs, goals, and expectations first, at the beginning of the university experience, or "frontloading" it, educators can help students to more quickly become aware of and adjust to changing needs. Less value-driven than onboarding, frontloading can provide students with the strategies to personalize their goals and become more effective language users. The sooner students become aware of the different language learning techniques and expectations of the university level, the easier it is to avoid the internal conflict created by an expectancy gap. The MEP was written for this frontloading purpose.

Question Eight was written to see if students might identify the MEP as a frontloading device or whether they could even ascertain the value of frontloading techniques. It stated: "An intensive introduction of basic language communication skills in the first year, first semester is more useful than slowly throughout the year." Subjects failed to recognize the benefits of learning new communication skills early on, nor did they notice how the MEP was used in class for frontloading.   On average, subjects rated an early introduction of basic skills at 3.3 with no significant differences between groups. Question Eleven, which stated: "My English Plan was useful for understanding my goals and needs," got equally low recognition as a tool for frontloading potentially new skills. These results were not unexpected. During the pilot, there were no controls on how teacher-participants administered the treatment vis-a-vis a frontloading technique nor discussion about it. Further, the MEP was intended for use across a wide spectrum, including Basic Seminar and departmental teachers who would have overseen the career goals sections. As is was, only the language teachers used the language skills sections. As for a difference between groups, there was highly significant evidence of differences (p = 0.01), and IIP again with the higher ratings likely due to known metacognitive teaching techniques.

Looking at the low results for teacher-knowledge, frontloading benefit, and levels match relative to the high results for self-awareness of skills indicates an assumption by the subjects that they already know how to study a language (i.e. reach their goals). However, this seems to go against what teachers experience and directly contradicts what subjects themselves report for Question Twelve, which stated: "I expect a __ grade in this class." While subjects seem to value making goals and know their own needs, nearly half (48.6%), regardless of group, lose their confidence and expect to get a 70-79% grade in the class (STD 0.86). (At the time of the pilot, there was no division for the 90-100% grade. Therefore, the scale for expected-grade is based on four points.)

Determining why or how subjects go from having a high value on setting English language goals, and possibly English itself, to a low value of their own performance in class is outside the scope of this study. However, those who considered their goals more regularly correlated highly with those who found the MEP useful at a strong 0.40, and those who found teachers or textbook goals more useful found the supplementary MEP to be useful to a statistically significant level of 0.51.

Conclusions and Teaching Implications

The biggest takeaway from this is that students do believe that goals are useful but may not have the wherewithal to make them regularly or use them effectively. They seem to believe that they know more about their needs than their teachers, yet a large number of

them rely on external sources, such as those very teachers, to guide them. There seems to be a large disconnect between instructors and learners.

Needs analysis is vital to curriculum design for instructors, and goal-setting is critical to language proficiency for the learner. It would, therefore, behoove educators to more overtly express their goals to learners and get learners to give voice to their personal needs and goals. Working together on mutual needs and goals could raise motivation and make the entire learning process smoother.

In the context of Japan, largely vested in the 2021 Tokyo Olympics and globalism as a whole, there is an awareness of the need for communicative language education. These goals are evident in the Ministry of Education (MEXT) guidelines, however, changes in teaching methodology are slow. There is little communication of needs and goals relative to the institution, teacher, or individual learners. While many Japanese high school students feel ready for English at a Japanese university, most are simply not at the communicative level of their foreign peers. This is borne out by the significant difference felt by the IIP student from their "regular" peers when rating how their skills match what is needed at the university level and how aware they are of the differences between high school and university goals. IIP students are taught at a faster pace, using metacognitive and active-learning techniques, along MEXT lines, and with the expectation that they be as communicative in those classes as they would have to be in similar classes taught abroad. However, fewer IIP students reported their high school level prepared them for such classes and more recognized the goals at university were different than their "regular" peers. This makes the overt expression of MEXT or other institutional goals in the classroom even more important—so students can adjust their expectations to match the new realities imposed by globalism.

In every teaching context where there is a large shift of expectations, goals, or learning-culture, communication and analysis of language needs and goals become paramount. If students are not making regular goals or do not have a realistic understanding of their future needs, what can instructors do? For a start, begin all courses with frontloading. Frontloading in education is the process of preparing new learners psychologically and metacognitively for the new behaviors and conditions they will experience in their new learning environment. In the corporate world, this is known as on-boarding. Just as an effective company trains its new employees, learning institutions would be well served to do the same. Frontloading gives time before the teaching of content with first a welcoming stage, followed by an assessment, building, and repeated feedback stages. In the welcoming stage, learners are introduced to their new learning environment, peers, and, expectations. In the assessment stage, some form of needs analysis is given with results communicated between all invested parties. The building stage develops how individual learning can occur within the restrictions of that environment. Optimally, this stage empowers learners and promotes autonomous learning to increase internally driven motivation. Feedback from both the teacher-expert and the individual occurs at all stages really, but follow-through throughout and at the end of the course can be considered a separate stage. Educators short on time can benefit from using some form of frontloading to quickly and easily unite educator and learner goals. Further, using it to adjust learning expectations smooths the way, improving difficult new learning situations. By using frontloading techniques, instructors can optimize their limited time in class while raising the motivation of learners and getting those learners to "buy-in" to language learning and succeed in both institutional and personalized goals.

Research is continuing which addresses these same issues from the point of view of the instructor. By using needs analysis and frontloading, teachers and learners will both be better prepared and adjusted to successfully meet the language requirements for our globalizing world.

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Appendix I

My English Plan Survey
All responses are voluntary and private and will not be used for anything other than
for statistical analysis for research purposes.

Sex: Male 男   Female 女   Year: _____ 年生

Write a number (1-5) in each box to show how much you: disagree (1) or agree (5)
1   2   3   4   5

1. Clear language learning goals are useful. (ex. TOEIC® score, number of
    vocabulary words) 言語を学ぶ上で明確な目標（TOEIC®スコア、語彙を増や
    すなど）を持つことは重要である。

2. I made language learning goals for myself this year. 言語学習に関して、今年
    度の具体的な目標を設定した。

3. Having language learning goals provided in a textbook or by the teacher is
    helpful. 教科書の冒頭に記載されている学習の目的、もしくは先生の提示する目標は役に
    立つ。

4. I considered my language learning goals throughout the year.
    1年間を通して、学習目標を考慮した。

5. I understand well what language skills I did not learn before and still need to
    practice. 言語学習に関して、自分に不足している、もしくは学習不足な点を理
    解している。

6. My teacher understands well what language skills I did not learn before and still
    need to practice. 私の先生は自分に不足している、もしくは学習不足な点を理
    解している。

7. Repeating basic high school English skills (grammar, etc.) in this type of class
    is useful. 高校英語で習った基礎的な英語（文法や発音など）をこのような授業
    で繰り返し習うことは有益であると思う。

8. An intensive introduction of basic language communication skills in the 1st
    year, 1st semester is more useful than slowly throughout the year. 大学入学後
    すぐの1年生時に習う基礎的な英語コミュニケーションの授業に関して,1年間
    を通してゆっくりと行うよりも、1セメスターで集中的に行うほうが効果的である。

9. My English language communication skills this year matched the level needed
    in this class. 私の英語コミュニケーション能力はこのクラスで求められるレベル
    にあっていた。

10. The goals of high school English language classes are different than for
    university classes. 高校での英語の授業の目標と、大学での英語の授業の目
    標は異なっている。

11. My English Plan was useful for understanding my goals and needs.
    「My English Plan」は私の目標とニーズを理解するために有用であった。

12. I expect a _ grade in this class. このクラスの私の成績は（優・良・可・不可）であ
    ると思う。

Appendix II

Likert Scale [1-5] results and correlations of 12-point student goals survey

	Q1 goals are useful	Q2 make own goals	Q3 text/teacher goals useful	Q4 consider own goals	Q5 know own needs	Q6 teacher knows my needs	Q7 repeating skills useful	Q8 intensive introduction useful	Q9 current skills matched needed	Q10 High school university different	Q11 MEP useful	Q12 expected grade (Scale 1-4)
Average	4.6	3.4	3.5	3.3	4.0	3.3	4.1	3.3	3.4	4.0	3.3	1.9
STD	0.81	1.86	1.03	1.11	0.94	0.99	1.00	1.16	1.06	1.03	1.11	0.86
X^2	5.0	18.7	1.1	14.8	4.4	9.9	2.0	1.0	11.5	10.3	13.3	5.3
n 371	371	370	371	368	371	370	370	371	371	371	366	350
Q1	–											
Q2	0.09	–										
Q3	0.27	0.20	–									
Q4	0.18	0.18	0.45	–								
Q5	0.27	0.09	0.27	0.21	–							
Q6	0.14	0.13	0.37	0.22	0.26	–						
Q7	0.23	0.09	0.32	0.32	0.29	0.24	–					
Q8	0.12	0.11	0.14	0.19	0.09	0.11	0.07	–				
Q9	0.10	0.14	0.25	0.28	0.06	0.21	0.17	0.18	–			
Q10	0.27	0.12	0.14	0.13	0.16	0.08	0.11	0.17	0.04	–		
Q11	0.27	0.24	0.51	0.40	0.19	0.22	0.28	0.14	0.20	0.26	–	
Q12	-.05	-.05	-.08	-.08	-.05	-.05	0.01	-.17	-.16	-.07	-.07	–
Teacher	0.11	-.10	-.02	-.17	-.02	0.06	-.03	-.04	0.07	-.04	-.11	-.05
Gender	-.01	0.03	-.09	-.12	-.04	0.04	-.03	-.09	0.00	-.05	-.13	-.01

Appendix III

Breakdown of results, n sizes, p-values, and chi-squared results by question

	Q1 usefulness			Q2 make			Q3 text goals			Q4 consider		
	reg	IIP	sum	reg	IIP	sum	reg	IIP	sum	reg	IIP	sum
1	1	4	5	13	5	18	6	4	10	15	6	21
2	5	2	7	36	15	51	27	21	48	35	22	57
3	17	8	25	78	56	134	69	54	123	73	63	136
4	41	32	73	46	68	114	62	57	119	51	62	113
5	142	119	261	33	20	53	42	29	71	31	10	41
n	206	165	371	206	164	370	206	165	371	205	163	368
p	0.25	X^2	5.0	0.001	X^2	18.7	0.25	X^2	1.1	0.005	X^2	14.8

	Q5 know			Q6 teacher			Q7 repeating			Q8 intro		
	reg	IIP	sum	reg	IIP	sum	reg	IIP	sum	reg	IIP	sum
1	5	1	6	10	5	15	4	5	9	19	11	30
2	13	8	21	23	18	41	8	8	16	30	27	57
3	30	34	64	85	81	166	28	24	52	72	60	132
4	86	69	155	52	48	100	68	60	128	48	39	87
5	72	53	125	36	12	48	98	67	165	37	28	65
n	206	165	371	206	164	370	206	164	370	206	165	371
p	0.25	X^2	4.4	0.05	X^2	9.9	0.25	X^2	2.0	0.25	X^2	1.0

	Q9 match			Q10 HS difference			Q11 MEP			Q12 grade		
	reg	IIP	sum	reg	IIP	sum	reg	IIP	sum	reg	IIP	sum
1	8	3	11	8	1	9	16	6	22	57	40	97
2	29	34	63	6	12	18	28	14	42	83	87	170
3	63	58	121	57	34	91	70	65	135	47	31	78
4	58	51	109	54	51	105	55	61	116	4	1	5
5	48	19	67	81	67	148	36	15	51	-	-	-
n	206	165	371	206	165	371	205	161	366	191	159	350
p	0.025	X^2	11.5	0.05	X^2	10.3	0.01	X^2	13.3	0.15	X^2	5.3

Utilizing the Concept of Translanguaging for Assessing English Reading Comprehension at the CEFR A2 Level

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Abstract
The full-scale implementation of the English Education Reform Plan in Japan will not only shift the English education system towards an even higher level of reliance on language assessments, but also discourage students from accessing their full linguistic repertoire through the policy of demanding classes to be conducted in English in principle. Therefore, to strive for liberation from the dominating monolingual orthodoxy in the TESOL community in Japan, this study explored the application of translanguaging in second-language reading comprehension assessment. 88 Japanese freshmen participated in this study. Data was collected using a past version of the General English Proficiency Test Elementary and a self-designed CEFR A2 level English Reading Comprehension Assessment (A2ERCA) focusing on inferential and evaluative comprehension. Two versions of the A2ERCA were created: One entirely in English (L2); and the other providing items, multiple-choice options, and open-ended items translated into Japanese (L1). Findings revealed that students taking the A2ERCA L1 version performed significantly better than those taking the L2 version; English proficiency of participants was highly correlated with the L1 version; and the student response rate for open-ended evaluative items showed an increase from 29% in the L2 version to 72% in the L1 version. Findings indicated that testing with the integration of L1 seemed to capture more of students' reading comprehension.

Keywords: translanguaging, reading comprehension, assessment, critical thinking, CEFR A2

All aspects of language are dialogic, even utterances are full of intentions of others (Bakhtin, 1981). Unfortunately, the general perspective of language assessment bears a different view, as it tends to regard utterances as incompetency of expression, especially when utterances are compared with sentences. In this sense, if someone writes or speaks in an uttering manner instead of using complete sentences, the audience would be tempted to believe that the writer or speaker is incompetent in terms of using a certain language to convey their thoughts and ideas. In a society heavily influenced by neoliberal policies (New Public Management) where free market equals competition, competition equals the best value for money, and the best value for money equals optimum efficiency (Lorenz, 2012), the nature of assessments match the values of such policies.

In the educational context, greater emphasis is being placed on management and accountability, results over process, and doing more with fewer resources, which has led to the rise of management-style pedagogies (McLaren, 1998). For example, much time is needed to accumulate experience in order to become skillful at teaching and evaluating student performance, but significantly less time is required to learn how to use a specific assessment method and teach according to it. Another example would be the increasing datafication of schooling in the Japanese education system. Particularly associated with the use of data from standardized academic assessments, more and more benchmarks and indicators are being invented for the purpose of governing and control (Takayama & Lingard, 2019). Thus, assessments are being used widely in the modern era to manage the performance of students and the accountability of teachers, to administer and evaluate many people at the same time, and to obtain results with minimal processing or resource.

However, assessment should be regarded as dialogic instead of solely for the purpose of management, as it is an attempt of the assessee to communicate his or her knowledge to the assessor. It is crucial for language assessments to be fair and able to accurately assess what they proclaimed to, especially as test results are widely perceived to directly influence the future career path of a person as is the case with university English entrance exams (see Shea, 2009) or TOEIC (see Chapman, 2003). Passing such high stakes assessments could lead to benefits including progressing to a higher grade, achieving a diploma or scholarship, entering the labor market, or getting a license to practice certain professions. On the other hand, failing high stake assessments have consequences that could potentially exclude test takers from the benefits mentioned above.

For teachers, instructions tailored to tests may be undemocratic and ethically questionable, especially when the influence of tests could also be found in social and political dimensions (Shohamy, 2001). Take English (L2) reading comprehension assessments for example. It might be irrational, but is commonly practiced, for educators to have to teach how to comprehend questions in the L2 when the purpose of the assessment is to determine how well students can comprehend a certain L2 text. If students understand the meanings and messages in a text, the prerequisite for them to be able to convey this understanding is to first be able to accurately decode questions in the L2. One such test that attempts to determine examinees' reading comprehension questions in the L2 is EIKEN. Taking recent reading comprehension sections in the EIKEN test of practical English proficiency as an example, all of the questions and multiple-choice options were entirely in English (EIKEN Foundation of Japan, 2020a). EIKEN, a standardized English proficiency exam, has been utilized in Japanese society since its establishment in 1963, and it is still widely used today. More than 3.8 million examinees took the test in 2018 (EIKEN Foundation of Japan, 2020b). There are three types of EIKEN: Eiken Test in Practical English Proficiency, EIKEN Institution Based Assessment, and Eiken Junior.

This dominating monolingual orthodoxy is evident in the Japanese EFL learning context due to the sociocultural relationship between ideology and language (Turnbull, 2019a). Despite a recent study surveying students and teachers at the tertiary level in Japan that found the use of L1 Japanese is rather common in EFL classrooms (Turnbull, 2019b), further evidence on the dominance of monolingualism could be found in the English Education Reform Plan (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2014). The plan promotes gradual educational reform from 2014 to a full-scale implementation in 2020. As the reform devised policies that demand English classes

be conducted in English in principle at the secondary school stage, the English education system in Japan might lean towards an even higher level of reliance on language assessments. The growth from 2.6 million examinees taking EIKEN in 2014 to 3.8 million examinees in 2018 (EIKEN Foundation of Japan, 2020) could be a result of this reform.

On the other hand, the TESOL community in the United States has been challenging the monolingual principle for over 50 years, and this challenge began to gain momentum as an urgent equity issue within the last decade (Cummins, 2009). In language testing practices, schools in the United States could provide language-based testing accommodations to English language learners, such as translating tests into students' L1, modifying linguistic test items to be less language based, and allowing the use of dictionaries (Abedi, Hofstetter & Lord, 2004). Moreover, the concept of translanguaging has emerged and has been gaining attention. The term translanguaging was first coined by Cen Williams (1996) in Welsh to define pedagogical practice that employs two languages to cultivate students' productive and receptive language skills. García (2009) expanded and conceptualized a theory of translanguaging, arguing that bilinguals access different linguistic features or autonomous languages through the act of translanguaging to maximize communicative potential (García & Li, 2014). As such, speakers access their full linguistic repertoire while communicating, without having to be bound by the constant awareness of socially and politically defined boundaries of named, national, and state languages (Otheguy, García & Reid, 2015).

Though there is a generally positive attitude and towards the use of L1 in foreign language classrooms in recent years (Shin, Dixon & Choi, 2019), more attention should be paid to the use of L2 assessments. When the stakes of language assessments and the reliance on the results are increasing, assessments should be certain whether the limitation of using entirely the L2 could indeed capture what they intend to assess. Otherwise, an assessment would not be fair and may also prevent test takers from fully demonstrating their proficiency. This leads to the main concern of this study: Why do L2 reading comprehension assessments use questions in the L2 to assess how well one understand a certain text? Moreover, when understanding a certain text requires not only comprehension at the surface level but also make inferences and evaluations, why is it that multiple-choice questions, options, and open-ended response questions are limited to the L2? Providing multiple-choice questions and options in the L1, where EFL learners could access their familiar L1, could likely help them make better judgements by without having to first decode questions and options in the L2. Additionally, allowing open-ended responses in the L1 could likely allow the articulation of responses in sentences instead of uttering in a less familiar L2.

Research Questions

This study aims to explore whether the integration of translanguaging to assess reading comprehension performance could capture more of students' true knowledge, and in turn, contribute to a testing environment that would allow students to access their full linguistic repertoire. The framework of this study is in reference to the study of Chu (2017), and is driven by the following three research questions:

1. In English reading comprehension assessments, would English learners perform better on inferential and evaluative comprehension if multiple-choice questions and options were provided in the L1 (Japanese)?

2. What are the effects of different levels of L1 and L2 proficiency on performance in reading comprehension assessment with questions provided in the L1 or L2?
3. Could open-ended evaluative questions in the L1 and allowing L1 responses, compared to open-ended evaluative questions in the L2 and demanding L2 responses, capture more of EFL learners' evaluative/critical thinking ability?

Methodology
This section will describe how the A2ERCA was designed, how issues discovered in the pilot study led to the revision of the instrument. Additionally, the reliability of the revised instrument used in the main study, process of data collection, and research ethics will be discussed.

Design of Instrument
The A2ERCA was designed by three tertiary-level educators in EFL. Initially, five reading passages and a pool of 50 questions were designed. The reading passages included an advertisement flyer, a letter to a relative, a paragraph describing a story, a paragraph on history, and a paragraph describing medical beliefs.

Reading passages in the A2ERCA were designed with similar format as those that appear in simulation tests of the General English Proficient Test Elementary (GEPT Elementary) and reading materials equivalent to CEFR A2 level. The GEPT is a standardized exam developed by The Language Training and Testing Center (LTTC), a non-profit educational foundation in Taiwan. The GEPT is one of the most reliable English proficiency tests developed in Taiwan, and the test results are used by hundreds of government agencies, private enterprises, and over 400 schools (LTTC, 2019). Passing the GEPT Elementary was benchmarked to be equivalent to CEFR A2 level (LTTC, 2016a). In terms of the vocabulary in the A2ERCA, they can all be found in the GEPT Elementary word list (LTTC, 2016b) as a measure to ensure the level of the instrument. Another measure was readability. Reading passages in the reading comprehension section of the two sets of LTTC released pre-test GEPT Elementary items (LTTC, 2016c) were analyzed for their readability and sentence coherence using Latent Semantic Analysis. Additionally, a set of GEPT Elementary past paper was authorized for use in this study from the LTTC as part of a LTTC Research Grant, thus reading passages of past papers were also analyzed. Results from such analysis were referred to during the design of A2ERCA reading passages. The Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease and mean value of sentence coherence were slightly higher among A2ERCA reading passages. Details of the A2ERCA readability and sentence coherence can be found in Table 1 below.

Table 1
Range of Readability and Sentence Coherence: GEPT Elementary and A2ERCA

	Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level	Mean of Sentence Coherence
GEPT Elementary pre-test	70.8 ~ 84.1	3.8 ~ 6.4	0.05 ~ 0.26
GEPT Elementary	72.8 ~ 82.7	4.2 ~ 6.6	0.15 ~ 0.31
A2ERCA	75.9 ~ 85.5	4.5 ~ 6.1	0.21 ~ 0.34

Regarding the questions in A2ERCA, nine experts in the fields of English education, language assessment and reading comprehension were invited to participate in a test of

validity. The experts include professors in the field of reading comprehension, foreign languages, translation studies, lecturers in TESOL, and EFL teachers. They were asked to rate 50 questions designed among five reading passages on a scale from 1 to 10 and provide written suggestions, especially on whether they believe that the questions and multiple-choice options were aimed at capturing the targeted comprehension dimensions. Questions with content validity index (CVI) of 0.78 or above (Lynn, 1986) were adopted. CVI was calculated as the mean score among the experts. It represents the degree of agreement among different reviewers. The overall CVI for A2ERCA was .90, indicating a high level of content validity, as shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2
CVI of the A2ERCA

	Range of CVI	Overall CVI
Inferential Questions	.80 ~ .96	.89
Evaluative Questions	.82 ~ .94	.88
Total	.80 ~ .99	.90

Questions in the A2ERCA were targeting inferential and evaluative comprehension based on the concept of the three levels of reading comprehension (Herber, 1970). The three levels consist of literal, interpretative/inferential, and applied/evaluative comprehension. Inferential comprehension questions should assess students' ability to make inferences, thus requiring students to go beyond the facts from passages, and make inferences about meanings that are not explicitly stated in the text. Evaluative comprehension questions should assess students' ability to evaluate and analyze information obtained from the text. Evaluative comprehension requires a deeper understanding of the reading passage, interpretations of the meaning of the passage, and evaluation of information in the passage while integrating prior knowledge. Sample questions of inferential and evaluative questions were shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3
Sample Questions in the A2ERCA

	Question	Multiple Choice Options
Inferential Question	What is the author's opinion of people who leave money to their pets?	A. They are not common. B. They are very kind. C. They buy expensive pets. D. They help animals in need.
Evaluative Question	Which idea is best supported by the text?	A. Leaving money to pets can cause family problems. B. Rich people are better pet owners. C. Some things are more important than money. D. Animals don't have the same rights as humans.

The L2 version of A2ERCA was designed first, and then the questions and answer choices were translated into Japanese for the L1 version. Both versions provided the same reading text in L2, but the L1 version contained questions and answer choices in L1 while the L2 version remained entirely in L2. The translation into L1 was conducted by the

designers of A2ERCA, who were also bilingual speakers of English and Japanese. The designers discussed online to ensure that both the questions and answer choices were evaluating reading comprehension in accordance to the intentions of the L1 test design.

Pilot Study and Revision of the Instrument
Data from the pilot study was collected in 2017 with 176 Japanese participants at a private university in Japan. The purpose of the pilot study was two-fold. The first was to explore whether the difficulty of the A2ERCA was suitable for the participants at the participating university. The second was to explore the reliability of A2ERCA and make improvements before conducting the main study.

Results from the pilot study discovered that several questions were interpreted in a different way than intended, therefore leading to unintended results where almost all of the participants selected the same answer that was incorrect. It was discovered that misleading vocabulary choices were used in either the questions or answer choices; therefore these were replaced with more direct or simple words in the main study. Another problem discovered in the pilot study was that the reliability of the instrument was too low (with Cronbach a lower than 0.5). It was necessary to ensure that both L1 and L2 versions reached an acceptable level of internal consistency. Questions aimed at the literal comprehension level were too simple, so nearly all of the participants scored perfectly in that dimension. Therefore, questions based on the literal dimension were all removed. Inferential and evaluative questions with low internal consistency were removed, and new questions from the pool of expert validated questions were added into the main study.

Reliability of Instrument
Results from the revised A2ERCA in the main study indicated that after removing several questions from analysis, both L1 and L2 versions of the revised A2ERCA were reliable (see Table 4). Initially, 23 questions were employed, among which there were 10 inferential, 10 evaluative, and three open-ended evaluative questions. To improve reliability of the instrument, several questions in both the inferential and evaluation dimensions were removed for analysis, and a total number of 14 questions remained for analysis. Additionally, the reliability of three open-ended evaluative questions were not calculated, but were kept for exploring the differences in response rate and word count between the L1 and L2 versions. Therefore, in the revised A2ERCA, the overall internal consistency of the L1 version was .82 and the L2 version .78, indicating a high to moderate level of internal consistency (Taber, 2017 for both versions. In the inferential dimension, both L1 (.64) and L2 (.66) versions reached an adequate level of internal consistency (Taber, 2017) In the evaluative dimension, both L1 (.72) and L2 (.66) reached a moderate to adequate level of internal consistency. Details of the reliability of the revised A2ERCA can be found in Table 4.

Table 4
Reliability of revised A2ERCA in the main study

Revised A2ERCA dimensions	Items	Cronbach a	
		L1 version	L2 version
Inferential	6	.64	.66
Evaluative	8	.72	.66
Total	14	.82	.78

Regarding the reliability for GEPT Elementary, according to the GEPT official website, the reliability for the listening and reading sections were between 0.87 and 0.91 (Roever & Pan, 2008), indicating high levels of reliability.

Data Collection

One lecturer of English in a private university administered both GEPT Elementary and A2ERCA in his classes to 88 Japanese freshmen students. The students were English language majors, and the tests were administered during one of their English classes. Since GEPT Elementary is a standardized exam, it was administered in accordance to the instruction manual.

Twenty minutes were allocated for students to completed A2ERCA, and the students randomly took either the L1 or L2 version (the different versions were distributed to different sides of classrooms that had no set seating arrangement). There was only one correct answer for each question, but as for the open-ended responses, each question was graded with a 0, 0.5 or 1, depending on the extent to which the answers reflected students' evaluative thinking. The open-ended questions in L1 were first word-for-word translated into English by a native speaker of Japanese, and then graded by one of the lecturers who is also one of the three designers of the A2ERCA. Then, the other two designers reviewed the grading and discussed online to reach a consensus. Data was then entered into Excel format, checked for missing data and unusual responses (same or patterned answers for all questions), and analyzed using SPSS 17.0 software.

Research Ethics

Informed consent forms in Japanese were signed by all of the participants. Regardless of test results or the decision to participate or not, both the revised A2ERCA and GEPT Elementary did not affect their grades. The incentive was that students would have the opportunity to practice taking an official past paper of GEPT Elementary for free, which is similar to the Eiken in Japan. The tests were administered during the starting weeks of a new academic year, which was also perceived as a means for the lecturer to learn about their students' English proficiency level.

Findings

Statistical analyses were performed using EXCEL and SPSS 17.0 software. First, descriptive analysis was conducted to generate an overview of the data. Second, t-tests were conducted to compare students' English proficiency level, which was done to ensure that the two groups who took the L1 and L2 versions of the revised A2ERCA were comparable and without significant differences in English proficiency. Third, to reveal the differences between participants taking the L1 or L2 version, t-tests were again conducted to compare their performance on inferential and evaluation comprehension dimensions. Fourth, correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between English proficiency and performance on both the L1 and L2 versions of the revised A2ERCA. Fifth, one-way ANOVA was conducted to explore how students with high, middle and low levels of English proficiency perform differently on both versions of the revised A2ERCA. Finally, open-ended evaluative responses were calculated to compare the response rate and word count among the L1 and L2 versions.

Descriptive analysis

Descriptive statistics of performance on both revised A2ERCA L1 and L2 versions are shown in Table 5 below. Performance on inferential, evaluative, and open-ended evaluative dimensions were higher in the L1 version. There was a total of 14 multiple-choice questions, of which six were inferential questions and eight were evaluative questions. Additionally, there were three open-ended evaluative questions that were analyzed only for attempted response rate. Therefore, the total scores referred to in this study were calculated without the inclusion of the open-ended questions.

Table 5
Descriptive Analysis of Japanese Student Performance on the revised A2ERCA

	n		*M*		*SD*	
Student performance	L1	L2	L1	L2	L1	L2
Inferential questions (6)	45	43	2.96	1.00	1.58	1.27
Evaluative questions (8)	45	43	5.00	2.81	2.39	1.56
Open-ended evaluative questions (3)	45	43	1.64	0.70	0.71	0.67
Total (without open-ended) (14)	45	43	7.33	3.42	3.47	2.29

T-test: English proficiency of participants

To ensure that students who took the L1 version and those who took the L2 version were comparable, independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare their English proficiency, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Participants' English Proficiency

	GEPT Elementary Score				
	n	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Took L1 test	45	164.19	24.84	1.52	.132
Took L2 test	43	155.16	30.40		

$p<.05$

The English proficiency of the participants was measured using GEPT Elementary, which contains a listening and a reading section, both out of 120 points with the highest possible score being 240 points. The results did not reach statistical significance, therefore students who took the L1 or L2 test had a similar level of English proficiency.

T-test: performance on L1 and L2 versions of the revised A2ERCA

In attempt to respond to the first research question, whether multiple-choice questions and options provided in the L1 could more accurately assess students' knowledge compared to assessment entirely in L2, *t*-tests were conducted to explore and compare students' performance on the revised A2ERCA. Statistical significance was found between the two groups who took the L1 and L2 versions, as shown in Table 7. The L1 group (M = 7.33) performed significantly better than the L2 group (M = 3.41). Cohen's effect size value (*d* = 1.33) suggested a very large effect size. In other words, the average score of students taking the L1 version was higher than those taking the L2 version by 1.33 standard deviation. When Cohen's effect size value is converted into Cohen's U3, it

could be interpreted that 90.8% of those who took the L1 version will achieve a score higher than the average of those who took the L2 version. When Cohen's effect size is converted into common-language effect size, there would be an 82.7% chance for a randomly selected L1 test taker to perform better than a randomly selected L2 test taker.

Table 7
Results of t-tests on revised A2ERCA total score

	n	M	SD	t	d	p
L1 test takers	45	7.33	3.47	6.21	1.33	.002
L2 test takers	43	3.41	2.29			

p<.01

Regarding the second research question, whether abilities to make inferences and perform evaluative thinking were underestimated in entirely L2 assessments, *t*-tests were conducted to explore and compare student performance on both the inferential and evaluative dimensions in the L1 and L2 versions. Statistical significance was found on both inferential and evaluative dimensions between the L1 and L2 groups. On the inferential level, the L1 group (M = 2.96) significantly outperformed the L2 group (M = 1.00), as shown in Table 39. Cohen's effect size value (*d* = 1.37) suggests a very large effect size. In other words, the L1 group had a higher score than the L2 group by 1.37 standard deviation. Converted into Cohen's U3, 91.47% of the L1 test takers will achieve a score above the average of the L2 test takers. Converted into common-language effect size, there is a 83.37% chance for a randomly selected L1 test taker to perform better than a randomly selected L2 test taker on the inferential dimension.

Table 8
Results of t-test on inferential and evaluative dimensions of the revised A2ERCA

|	Inferential Comprehension					
	n	M	SD	t	d	p
L1 test takers	45	2.96	1.58	6.38	1.37	.017
L2 test takers	43	1.00	1.27			
	Evaluative Comprehension					
	n	M	SD	t	d	p
L1 test takers	45	4.38	2.17	5.10	1.09	.000
L2 test takers	43	2.42	1.31			

p<.05

On the evaluative dimension, the L1 group (M = 4.38) performed significantly better than the L2 group (M = 2.42), and Cohen's effect size value (*d* = 1.09) suggests a large effect size. The L1 group achieved a higher score than the L2 group by 1.09 standard deviation. Converted into Cohen's U3, 86.2% of the L1 test takers will achieve a score above the average of the L2 group. Converted into common-language effect size, there is a 78% chance for a randomly selected L1 test taker to perform better than a randomly selected L2 test taker on the evaluative dimension.

Correlation analysis: English proficiency and revised A2ERCA performance
To explore the relationship of English proficiency and revised A2ERCA performance on questions provided in L1 and L2, correlation analyses were conducted using Pearson correlation coefficient. Statistical significance was found between English proficiency and revised A2ERCA total score in both L1 and L2 versions. English proficiency was positively correlated with total score on both L1 ($r(45) = .34$, p<.05) and L2 ($r(43) = .35$, p<.05) versions. Scatter plots of correlations with revised A2ERCA performance were shown in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1
Scatter Plots of Correlation: Language Proficiency and A2ERCA Total Score
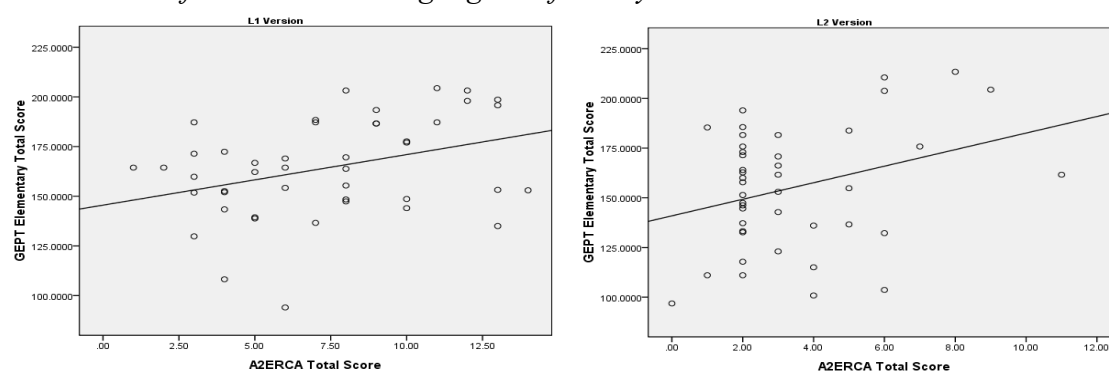
In addition to the revised A2ERCA total score, correlation analyses were conducted using Pearson correlation coefficient in the other dimensions as well. For the inferential dimension, statistical significance was found to be correlated with English proficiency in the L1 version ($r(45) = .32$, p<.05). However, English proficiency was not statistically significantly correlated with the inferential dimension in the L2 version. Scatter plots of correlations in the inferential dimension were shown in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2
Scatter plots of correlation: English proficiency and A2ERCA Inferential score
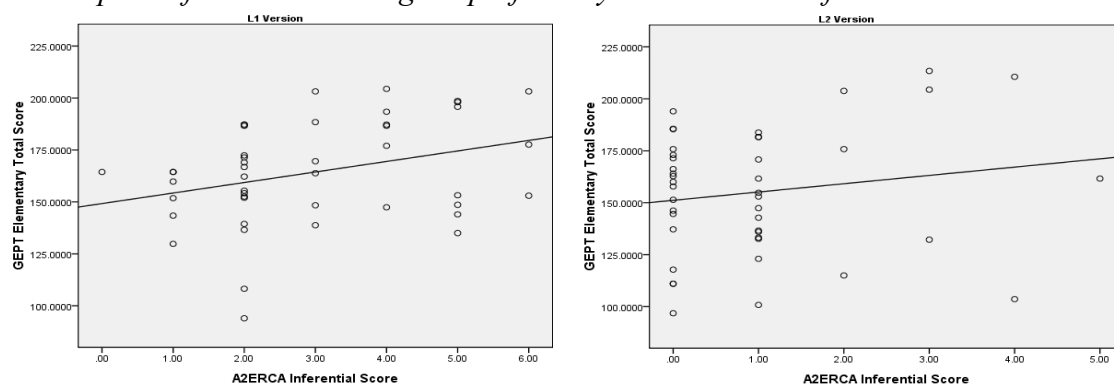
As for the evaluative dimension, statistical significance was found to be correlated with English proficiency in both L1 ($r(45) = .33$, p<.05) and L2 ($r(43) = .39$, p<.05) versions. Scatter plots of correlations in the evaluative dimension were shown in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3
Scatter Plots of Correlation: English proficiency and A2ERCA Evaluative Score
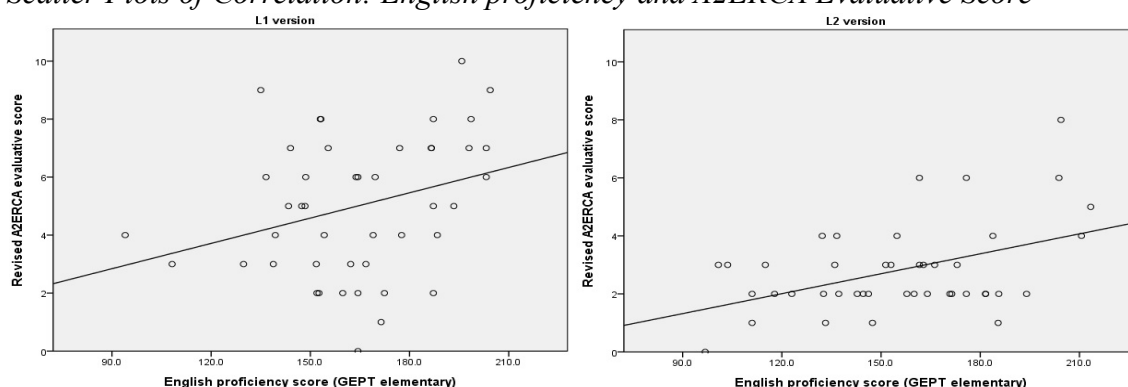
### One-way ANOVA: English Proficiency and Revised A2ERCA Scores

Since statically significant levels of correlations were found between English proficiency and both the L1 and L2 versions of the revised A2ERCA, to further investigate the relationships, one-way ANOVA was conducted to explore how different levels of English proficiency affects performance on inferential and evaluative dimensions on both versions of the revised A2ERCA. This is also an attempt to respond to the second research question. The participants' English proficiency was divided into high, low, and middle proficiency groups, and based on the suggestion of Kelly (1939), the top 27% were classified as the high proficiency group, bottom 27% as the low proficiency group, and the remaining 46% as the middle proficiency group. Both of the L1 and L2 test taker's English proficiency were classified for analysis.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare revised A2ERCA total score to three groups of L1 and three groups of L2 test takers with high, middle and low English proficiency levels. In the L1 version, there was a statistically significant effect of English proficiency on the total score for the three groups [$F(2, 42) = 4.06$, $p < .05$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicated that the mean of the total score in the high English proficiency group (M = 9.58) was significantly different (High>Middle, $p = 0.012$) from the middle (M = 6.29) proficiency group. However, the low English proficiency group (M = 6.92) did not significantly differ from either the high or the middle groups in the L1 version.

Whereas in the L2 version, the effect of English proficiency on the total score for the three groups was non-significant. The high (M = 4.41), middle (M = 3.05) and low (M = 3.00) English proficiency groups were not statistically significantly different from each other. A bar graph on comparing English proficiency levels with revised A2ERCA total score in both L1 and L2 versions was shown in Figure 4 below.

Figure 4
Comparison of English Proficiency Groups with A2ERCA Total Score
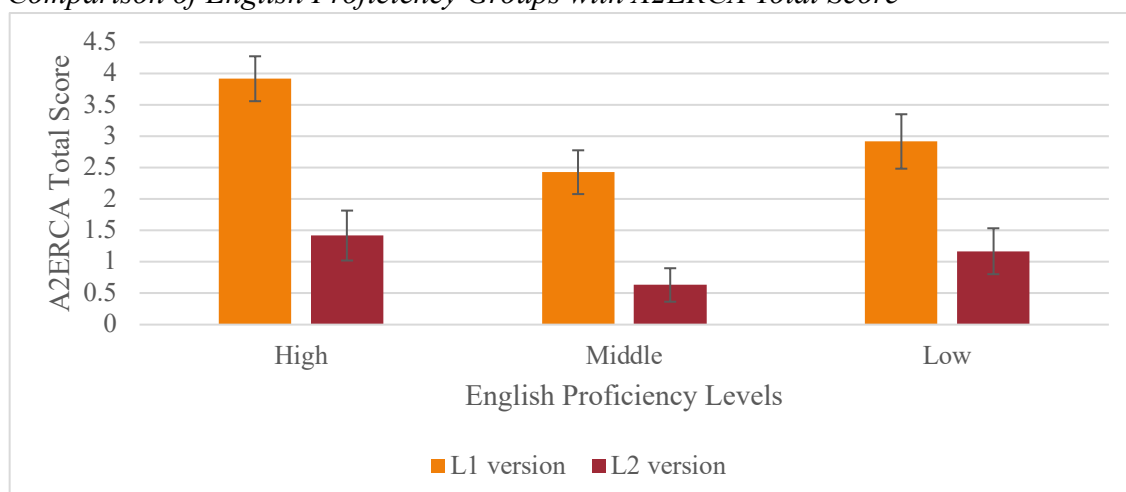
In the inferential dimension, a statistically significant effect of English proficiency on the inferential score for the three groups was also found [$F(2, 42) = 3.82$, $p < .05$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicated that the mean of the inferential score in the high English proficiency group (M = 3.92) was significantly different ($p = .030$) from the middle (M = 2.43) proficiency group. Once again, the low (M = 2.92) English proficiency group was not statistically significantly different from the other groups the L1 version. Whereas in the L2 version, no statistically significantly difference was found among the high (M = 1.42), middle (M = .63) and low (M = 1.17) English proficiency groups. A bar graph on comparing English proficiency levels with revised A2ERCA inferential score in both L1 and L2 versions could be found in Figure 5 below.

Figure 5
Comparison of English Proficiency Groups with A2ERCA Inferential Score
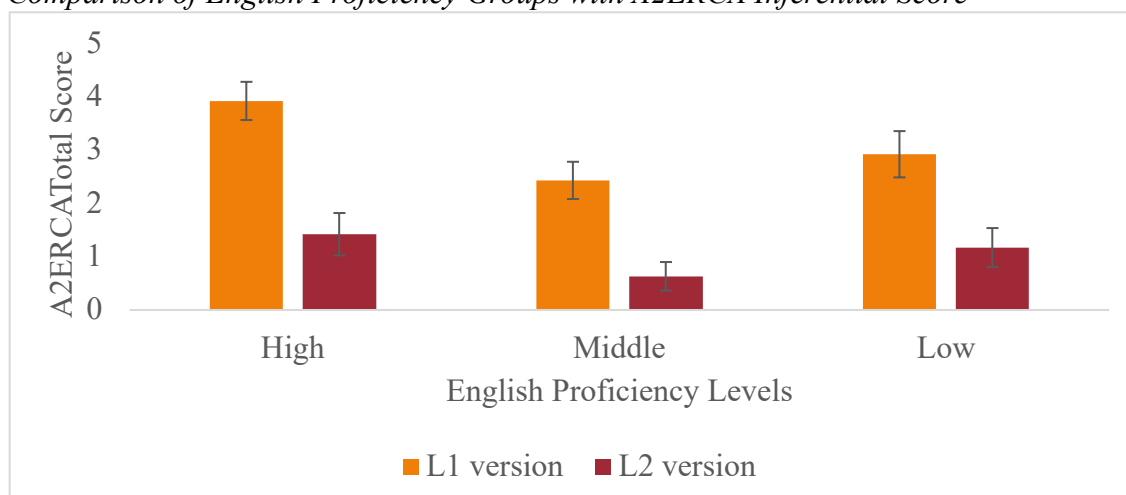
As for the evaluative dimension, no statistical significance was found on either the L1 version or L2 version. In the L1 version, the high (M = 5.67), middle (M = 3.86) and the low (M = 4.00) English proficiency groups were not statistically significantly different

from each other. This was also the same for the high (M = 3.00), middle (M = 2.42) and low (M = 1.83) groups in the L2 version.

Response rate and word count of open-ended evaluative questions

To address the third research question on whether open-ended evaluative questions in L1 could be more effective for assessing evaluative/critical thinking ability, the attempted response rate of open-ended evaluative questions was calculated. Regardless of whether participants provided a correct answer or not, if there was something written in the blank for answering an open-ended question, it counted as an attempted response. All of the attempted responses and questions that were left blank were calculated, and the finding is as follows.

The attempted response rate to open-ended questions in L1 that allowed an L1 response was 72%, (97 total attempted responses out of 135 total questions) compared to only 29% (37 out of 129) in the L2 version which required a response in L2, as shown in Figure 6. Students were much more likely to respond to open-ended evaluative questions when the questions were provided in the L1 and L1 responses were allowed. When open-ended questions were provided in the L2, more than 70% of the responses were left blank.

Figure 6
Attempted response rate of open-ended evaluative questions
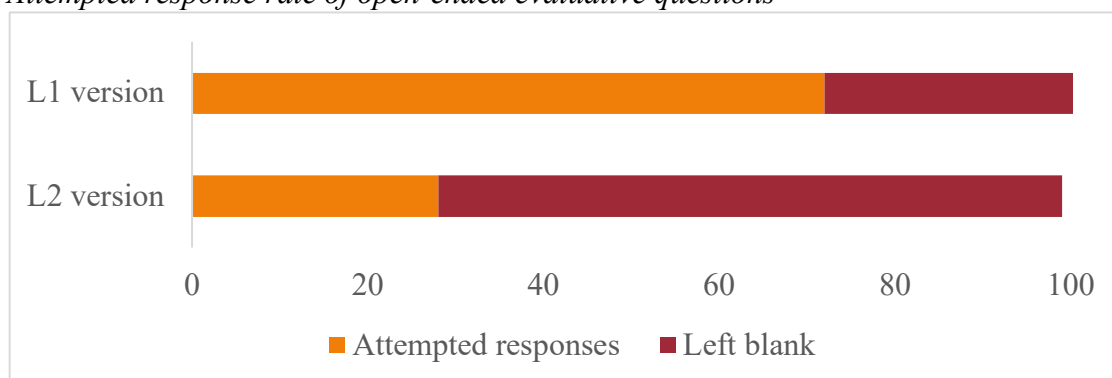
In addition to response rate, the average word count for the open-ended responses answers was also calculated. Items that did not receive a response were not included in this calculation. Among the three open-ended questions, the last one had the most blank responses, so the average word count was calculated with only the first and second open-ended questions. Out of 46 responses, the average word count for the first open-ended question in the L1 version was 21.7, compared to 28 responses and 18.5 words in the L2 version. Out of 42 responses, the average word count for the second open-ended question in the L1 version was 18.6, compared to 15 responses and 15 words in the L2 version.

Discussion

First, t-tests found statistically a significant difference in student performance between the L1 and L2 versions of the revised A2ERCA. When students were provided with questions and multiple-choice options in their native language, their average total score was two times higher than those who took the test with questions and options entirely in English. The effect was most significant in the inferential comprehension dimension, with L1 test takers achieving a mean score of 2.96 compared to a mean score of 1.00 among

L2 test takers. A large effect size was found in the evaluative comprehension dimension as well. While it seemed that testing with the use of L1 questions and answer choices allowed students to achieve higher scores, one of the concerns when making modifications to an assessment in the field of testing is that whether the same construct is being assessed after modifications (Abedi, Hofstetter & Lord, 2004). Addressing this concern, both L1 and L2 versions of the A2ERCA, which consist of the same reading passages, same questions and multiple-choice options, but one translated from English to Japanese, yet both tests showed similar levels of internal consistency, could be interpreted as both L1 and L2 versions were measuring the same constructs. Despite students achieving significantly higher scores in the L1 version, the reliability of the instrument remained similar with the L2 version, thus it seemed that modifying the A2ERCA into L1 did not disrupt measuring of the originally intended constructs in the L2 version. Additionally, the English proficiency of participants was positively correlated with the total score on both L1 and L2 versions to a near-equal extend, with Pearson correlation coefficients of 0.34 in the L1 version and 0.35 in the L2 version. In other words, the participants' English proficiency is reflected in the same pattern regardless of whether questions were provided in L1 or L2. In this sense, it seemed that students, without the pressure of having to decode questions and answer choices in L2, were better able to demonstrate more of their inferential and evaluative thinking.

Second, the total scores in the A2ERCA among high, middle and low English proficiency groups were statistically significantly different from each other in the L1 version. The high English proficiency group achieved a mean score of 9.58, which was significantly different from the middle proficiency group who achieved a mean score of 6.29. Perhaps this could be interpreted as evidence that the L1 version was able to reflect the difference in performance between those with high and middle English proficiency at a statistically significant level. In addition, one unexpected finding was that the low proficiency group achieved a mean score that was slightly higher than the middle group. Comparing this with the L2 version where no statistically significant difference was found, it seems that students' inferential and evaluative thinking might have been undermined in the L2 version. The higher the English proficiency might not lead to higher scores on inferential and evaluative questions. In other words, students with low English proficiency might not be able to decode questions and multiple-choice options in L2, therefore unable to express their inferential and evaluative thinking, which explains why students in the students in the low English proficiency group performed better than expected in the L1 version.

Finally, the open-ended response rate was much higher in the L1 version, as students were much more willing to express their ideas in Japanese to answer open-ended evaluative questions. The attempted response rate to open-ended questions in L1 that allowed L1 responses was 72%, (97 total attempted responses out of 135 total questions) compared to only 29% (37 out of 129) when questions were in L2 and required responses in L2. Not surprisingly, those taking the L1 version achieved a significantly higher average score, as 71% of the open-ended questions in the L2 version were left blank. To shed more light on the third research question, the average word count in the open-ended responses were calculated. Those taking the L1 version responded in Japanese, and their responses were translated into L2 word-for word (the translator did not know that word count would be calculated). The L1 test takers responded with an average of 3.3 words more than those responding with L2. This finding seemed to be an example of successful

translanguaging, where the L1 test takers did not have to be constantly aware of the rules of English and thus were able to express more of their thoughts which maximized communicative potential (García & Li, 2014; Otheguy, García & Reid, 2015). When the open-ended questions were in L1 and allowed responses in L1, not only did the response rate increased by 42%, but also the responses were longer, which could be interpreted as expressions with more communicative content than those using only L2.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Since the lecturer who assisted in the administration of the revised A2ERCA could only allocate 20 minutes for students to complete the test, there might have been students who were not able to complete the test. This could be a reason that contributed to the low response rate among open-ended questions in the L1 version. However, during the pilot phase, the majority of students handed in their tests under 20 minutes, so we had reason to believe that 20 minutes would be sufficient for students to complete the revised A2ERCA. Additionally, data that scored consecutive zeros in the latter half of revised A2ERCA, which represents incomplete data, were removed for analysis. Second, although the reliability of both the L1 and L2 versions were similar, they only reached adequate level of internal consistency. It was very challenging to have items and options translated, and still maintain a similar level of internal consistency. Though this more or less serves as evidence that both L1 and L2 versions assessed the same construct, a higher level of internal consistency would be desirable. Future research could explore the application of translanguaging in reading comprehension assessments with different question formats. Also, obtaining scores for L1 proficiency could be included for analyzing the relationship between L1 and L2 test performance. Lastly, exploring different levels of difficulty in addition to CEFR A2 level would contribute to the field of L2 reading comprehension assessment.

Conclusion

This study found empirical data to support that the use of the L1 in an L2 reading comprehension assessment seemed to capture more of students' inferential and evaluative comprehension. More specifically, Japanese L1 undergraduate students with English proficiency at the CEFR A2 level performed better in English L2 reading comprehension assessment when the assessment offered questions and multiple-choice options in L1.

Testing with L1 questions also reflected more of students' English proficiency compared testing entirely in L2. While students in the high English proficiency group achieved the highest score on inferential and evaluative comprehension questions, students in the low English proficiency group were able to perform slightly better than those in the middle English proficiency group. This finding contradicts to the general assumption that the higher the English proficiency, the better one would perform in reading comprehension. Perhaps the ability to decode questions and options in L2 was a factor in whether students could answer inferential and evaluative questions correctly.

In addition to multiple-choice questions, open-ended questions that aimed to assess students' evaluative thinking were also more effective when the questions were in L1 and allowed response in L1. Students were significantly more willing to respond to open-ended questions with L1. Also their responses were longer with more information. It is suggested that the use of L1 for questions and options should be considered when assessing students' inferential and evaluative thinking in reading comprehension. The use

of L1 questions, options, and permitting L1 response to open-ended questions, allowed students to better express their thoughts and thus capturing more of what students really know.

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How do Mini Modules Affect Language Retention in Elementary School Foreign Language Classes?

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Abstract
For many elementary school students, time spent for foreign language classes is limited. Because of the difficulty of learning a foreign language the allotted time may not be sufficient in allowing students to understand enough information to progress with their ability to communicate in a foreign language. Time is an important commodity in education, and while giving more time to study a foreign language might garner better results, more time is not always available. This research was designed to look at very short periods of time given to working through foreign language material. Instead of having an entire extra class, this research looked at the potential short modules to enhance learning and help students remember and retain the content giving them a better opportunity for foreign language communication. This paper looks specifically at how the allocation of mini modules affects learning in elementary school students and what implications those effects can have on future elementary language learning.

Keywords: mini module, autonomous learning, social interaction, content level, translation, immersion, spacing, motivation

Effective use of time is a continual pursuit of teachers regardless of the subject being taught or the level of students. The focus of this paper is to see how implementing a specified extra amount of teacher-driven learning time outside of regular class time, referred in this paper as a mini module, can affect the learning outcomes of elementary school foreign language students. The idea of mini modules is meant to help with this issue by creating a specified time in which students will interact with the material multiple times between the regularly scheduled classes. More specifically, the mini module that this research is looking at is a short lesson, of only ten to twenty minutes, that teachers can use any number of times a week outside of the regularly scheduled full-length lessons. This module time could potentially have multiple positive outcomes to learning a foreign language. With the extra time, students should have the opportunity to review content learned in class, and have more chances to use their foreign language in a way that solidifies understanding and allows for class time to be spent engaging in more challenging material.

It is always difficult to manage class time and motivate students to continue their learning outside of the scheduled class time. It is the goal of this paper to find how effective this method of teacher-driven extra learning time can be. The implications of this research should illuminate how the process of using mini modules will affect language learning as well as give insight for teachers of any subject hoping to find a way

to better develop understanding of subject basics, and focus on helping students to retain information they have been taught in class.

Literature Review

There are a great deal of issues and challenges that come into play when looking at teaching a foreign language at the elementary school level. The literature review focused primarily on teaching English as a foreign language in countries such as Japan, Israel, Korea, Thailand and more. Other languages and content areas were also touched upon in order to help to flesh out the questions, including research that has been done on the topic of foreign language education, knowledge retention, time allocation and elementary school challenges.

Knowledge Retention

There is a continual expectation of teachers that the information they taught their students will remain and stick with them. In the previous literature, research on how knowledge retention happens, and what factors can affect memory and understanding, many different aspects of education have been covered.

Social interaction. Previous research has shown that the outcome of students learning is enhanced by the ability to rely on other students, and that their ability to learn together exceeds their ability to learn alone (Ahangari, Hejazi, & Razmjou, 2014). The use of games in class was shown to be an effective way for students to interact in an educational setting. Interacting with other students through the medium of games, students were put in a situation where they had similar goals as their classmates, and through the learning process would use competition as a mode of motivation, while simultaneously relying on their classmates for help. This kind of teamwork is "highly valued by constructivist theorists, who believe that social interaction is critical to learning" (Taheri, 2014 p. 548). Working with other students was a great way to learn the material, but it also helped with storing and retaining what was learned (Kosar & Bedir, 2018). While social interactions could clearly have a benefit on student achievement, explicit conversation or direct interaction was not the only form of beneficial socialization, and interaction with other modes such as written prepared materials, students could still gain the indirect benefit of others' help (Ahangari, Hejazi, & Razmjou, 2014).

Multiple Processes. Learning vocabulary has been shown to be a very important aspect of language education. In their research on the topic of meaning recall and retention, Ramachandran and Rahim noted that "vocabulary is the most sizeable and unmanageable component in the learning of any language" (2004, p. 162). Collaboration with others is just one of many processes that helped students learn vocabulary. By giving students multiple ways to remember their vocabulary, teachers have been better able to help students create lasting memory (Kosar & Bedir, 2018). Lee and Lin (2019) note that relying on multiple approaches to instruction could have a much better outcome on how vocabulary was learned. Teachers could further the development of vocabulary by helping students to learn to infer through reading, as well as developing other processes to help students acquire understanding more quickly and accurately through direct instruction.

Autonomous Learning. Another aspect of learning and retention has focused on student's ability to learn without the teacher being the focal point of instruction. There has been a growing interest in creating lessons and classrooms with a student-centered focus (Kosar & Bedir, 2018). When students became the focus of the learning process,

they were more likely to be involved in the learning and have a personal interest in what they were trying to do (Taheri, 2014). By scaffolding lessons in a way that presented the material in a clear fashion, but created a path to learning, teachers have been able to help students benefit from the ability to learn on their own, and work towards autonomous learning (Ahangari, Hejazi, & Razmjou, 2014). It was also important for teachers to choose "stimulating and appealing reading tasks and materials" (Sakine & Ahmad, 2014 p. 62). This helped to promote motivation to learn and could push students towards being able to learn autonomously.

Content Level. With the expectation of understanding and retention of information, particularly vocabulary, educators agreed that there must be awareness of the difficulty of the content material, and the amount of content covered at one time. Teaching too high a volume at one time has shown to have a lower level of vocabulary retention (Taylor, Aguilar, Burns, Preast & Warmbold-Brann, 2018). In learning vocabulary there has been shown to be multiple aspects of understanding: form, grammar, and meaning (Hatami, 2017). Acquisition of these three aspects come at different times during the learning process, and some understanding can occur early on, while complete understanding could take much longer to achieve. Repetition of content has been shown to be an important part of the process of learning vocabulary, but if the content was too difficult, particularly for younger students, retention would not occur (Taylor, Aguilar, Burns, Preast & Warmbold-Brann, 2018)

Translation Vs. Immersion. A final aspect of learning and knowledge retention that looked specifically at learning a foreign language that was examined in the literature review was teaching through translation or teaching through immersion. Getting students to be able to quickly recall and understand vocabulary helped students with interacting with the language on a higher understanding without translation. The effect of quick recall of vocabulary has shown to have a positive effect on students' overall fluency and comprehension (Taylor, Aguilar, Burns, Preast & Warmbold-Brann, 2018). While implicit teaching has had a positive impact on student communication, it is not perfectly effective in teaching vocabulary, particularly with younger students. One example of an implicit function of language was students gaining understanding through context. In the case of foreign language classes, this could be problematic as in some cases it was difficult to gauge if the students were making the correct inferences, and it took a very long time to learn a very little amount of information (Sakine & Ahmad, 2014). The best way to overcome the inefficiencies of implicit teaching was to pair it with explicit to get the benefit of both (Ramachandran & Rahim, 2004).

Time

In looking at preparing the best classroom experience and creating a learning environment that gives students the best opportunity to learn, it is important to understand all the aspects of learning that are affected by time. The literature for this section of education has looked at ways in which time constraints, and time allocation could affect education.

Brain Processes. A very important aspect of determining the effectiveness of educational practices was looking at how the brain works. There has been a great deal of research on how the brain processes information, and some of this research has been used to understand the processes taking place, and the processes necessary for language acquisition. Learning vocabulary has been shown to have come in multiple parts. While learning the basic form of a word, most notably the phonetics or pronunciation, could

occur very quickly, gaining a full understanding of the word has been shown to take much more time and practice (Weighall, Henderson, Barr, Cairney & Gaskell, 2017). Sleep has been shown to be an important factor in learning and retaining information. Henderson, Weighall, Brown and Gaskell (2012) stated that "sleep facilitates lexical integration in the developing brain" (as cited by Weighall et al., 2017, p. 14) This understanding of the brain showed that sleep could solidify content reception by the brain. Another side of the brain that researchers have looked at was short term vs. long term memory. Pan, Tajran, Lovelett, Osuna and Rickard (2019) noted in their research that teaching methods that take a linear approach to teaching may have a better acquisition rate for short term memory, while learning multiple processes at the same time, though initially more challenging, may have a better effect on the long term memory of students. Serrano (2011) looked at different methods for blocking information for study, and found that coding information retrieval for the brain happened differently given the way the content was learned.

Spacing. There has been shown to be a direct correlation with time spent on learning and how much students were able to learn (Blank, 2013). The correlation of time to learning was shown to be particularly true for learning a second language. Carroll (1967) and Stern (1985) noted that spending more time on learning a language could lead to higher proficiency (as referenced by Serrano, 2011). In looking at how much time should be dedicated to learning, there has been much discussion and research on spacing. Spacing refers primarily to time spent on learning and time spent in between learning sessions. Some of the research has shown that spacing out lessons and working through lesson material at different times has allowed for more concrete learning to take place. As noted in the brain-based section, individual sessions of learning can be useful for short term memory, but by spacing lessons to allow multiple chances to interact with the material, students were better able to develop lasting understanding. Some research has shown positive relations between taking a long period of time to teach a concept, while other research has shown better results with compressing instruction into shorter blocks (Rohrer, 2015). These shorter blocks in some instances have shown to have better short-term testing outcomes than the larger spacing. However, when tests were given well after the material was presented, the longer spacing proved to be more effective for knowledge retention and it showed that "longer instructional periods generally produce more durable learning" (Rohrer, 2015 p. 640).

Motivation. Motivation has been shown to play an important part in a student's ability to learn and become proficient in a second language. Deci and Ryan noted two factors of motivation for language learners: intrinsic and extrinsic (as cited by Yaghoubinejad, Zarrinabadi & Ketabi, 2017). Spending time learning at an early age could have a very strong impact on building lasting interest for that topic (Blank, 2013). (McQuillan, 2016) noted that as only the students can effectively gauge their own ability to read and understand specific concepts, it was up to the student's individual motivation to interact with the appropriate content level, and spend time reading in a foreign language.   While motivation has been shown to be an important aspect of learning, it is difficult to gauge how time can affect individual students' goals. Motivation factors changed constantly, so it was difficult to verify if more time studying a language would lead to greater motivation (Yaghoubinejad et al., 2017)

Teaching Methods. Simply allocating more time to education has not been the best way to ensure the most learning. It has been shown to be important that teachers look at

how they use their time and how they incorporate material in their classes to meet standards and goals (Blank, 2013). Setting appropriate goals and standards has become an important process in visualizing the effectiveness of classes. With specific goals in mind, it is important to look at the implementation of lessons, as "effective utilization of the resources is more important than the amount of resources" (Phelps, 2011, p. 30). One way in which teachers could utilize time to benefit students in the class was through small group work. This practice allowed students to cooperate, adapt, and gave teachers an opportunity to assess the student's ability to work with the material (Garrett & Hong, 2016). Another factor in making lessons work effectively, particularly with learning vocabulary in a foreign language was the correlation of meaning to the words at the same time (Weighall et al., 2017). Where there was time between learning a pronunciation and learning the meaning or having the opportunity to use the word, students had more trouble developing a solid understanding of the content. Another concept that correlated to optimum time usage in a class was blocking and sequencing. Blocking referred to teaching a block or entire section of information at one time, where sequencing fit a more linear teaching method by teaching one concept at a time and building on that (Pan et al., 2019). While the blocking method could be confusing at first and difficult to organize, it has been shown to have better effect on long term understanding.

Implicit and Explicit Learning. The implications of implicit and explicit learning have been shown to impact knowledge retention. It also was a necessary consideration for time usage in class. While direct, explicit, teaching has shown to have better impact on testing immediately after the instruction was given (Rohrer, 2015) implicit learning could have more impact on the depth of learning and understanding of vocabulary or concepts. Some aspects of learning, such as reading comprehension dealt with combining explicitly learned words with implicitly learned meaning from content. McQuillan (2016) found that students had the ability to learn more quickly from implicit knowledge gained through free reading, than did students who were given a direct reading sequence.

Elementary Teaching Challenges

In teaching a foreign language at the elementary school level, there have been many documented challenges. Teachers not only have had to deal with the difficulty of content, as well as student behavior and motivation, but also with many other overarching factors of elementary school education.

Policy. As the world has become more globalized, governments have put more emphasis on their citizens learning foreign languages. Policy makers often viewed starting language learning at an earlier age as better for student's ability to learn, particularly through immersion (García Mayo, 2018). In Korea, Schenck (2013) noted that the resources for foreign language programs were given to support diversity and the learning of the languages. In many cases this time spent learning about diversity and other cultures has overshadowed the actual language learning (Pesola, 1988).

In the past, a downturn in the economy resulted in less funding for early language programs in public schools (Rhodes, 2014). In their interview of 16 different leaders in the foreign language education field, Rhodes (2014) found that budget issues were a major problem in developing a strong and sustainable early language program. Sali and Kecik (2018) noted that many teachers had to overcome issues with lack of school materials and inadequate textbooks. Rhodes (2014) found that having a school board, and

group of teachers that were invested in having a positive language program could be particularly important where budget constraints create problems.

Teacher Quality. Hiring well-qualified language teachers is paramount to developing a successful foreign language program (Rhodes, 2014). There have been many instructional models that teachers could use, but the effectiveness of the instruction usually comes down to how well the teacher presents it, not how effective the strategy is. J. David Edwards, a retired executive director of the Joint National Committee for Languages at the National Council for Languages and International Studies in the United States, stated that "Teachers who have strong training in language teaching methodology, who use the language in the classroom all the time, and who are continually working on their own language skills are great mentors and role models for young language learners." (as cited by Rhodes, 2014).

It was found in the literature that by giving students multiple ways to interact with material they were better able to implement concrete understanding which lead to better knowledge retention. Students also were shown to have positive learning outcomes when they were able to learn with other students. While learning in a social setting had a positive impact on learning, the literature also noted the impact that autonomous learning had on students, and that helping students to take charge and be at the focus of the learning process created a situation where continual learning could take place.

Looking at how time influenced learning, previous research found that different parts of understanding came at different periods learning, and while some simple aspects of a topic could be learned quickly, it took time for more concrete understanding. Sleep was also shown to be an important factor in helping learners cement understanding. How much material was presented at a time had an impact on how well students learned, and by using blocking or introducing a lot of material at one time, or by spacing the material out, different learning outcomes could be achieved. Wile more time learning was shown to be a positive factor, implementing proper teaching methods, and appropriately motivating students to have a proper focus with learning was paramount to getting the most out of the time. By incorporating both implicit and explicit leaching methods in a foreign language class, better more complete understanding could be expected.

Among the primary challenges in teaching a foreign language in an elementary school setting, the literature noted the impact that policy had on the effectiveness of school programs. Having policy in place to allot for proper budget and correct focus of learning was sown to be an important factor to having quality language classes. With the proper policy also needed to be a focus on quality teachers who could properly introduce quality language learning practices.

Action Research Plan
Background and Purpose for the Research
This research was designed to look at mini modules and how a short teacher-lead class can affect language learning. The specific module used for this research was a fifteen-minute English phonics time designated by the Osaka City Board of Education. This module time was held twice every week. Both schools used for this research were given the same material for instruction.

From the literature it was shown that the focus of knowledge retention required multiple approaches and that the challenges in promoting better learning and lasting understanding were still being discussed. There was some clear information on how

student effectively learned a foreign language, how time affected this learning, and what the challenges to effective learning were. It is the goal of this research to add specific information on how the use of short teacher driven module times can impact learning a foreign language for elementary school students, through the specific research question: How do mini modules affect knowledge retention in elementary school foreign language students?

Hypothesis

Repetition of multiple modules in a week will help students retain the information they are learning in class. Furthermore, the research should give a view of how useful this use of time is compared to allocation of more full-length classes.

Design and Sampling

This action research was a quasi-experimental process using qualitative data. The population that was used for this research came from two different elementary schools in Osaka, Japan. In these schools, Japanese was the primary language with English being taught as a foreign language.

The sampling for this research was taken from a combination of teachers and students who had participated in mini modules as part of the English curriculum presented by the Osaka City Board of Education. The teachers interviewed were all Japanese homeroom teachers, who on a regular basis were required to use the mini module method in order to deliver short intermittent English phonics lessons separate from the regular English class time. Similarly, all the students for this study were ones who had taken part in the mini modules on a regular basis.

A purposive sampling method was used: All students and teachers who were chosen for this process fit a very specific set of guidelines, and all of them have a very similar educational background. The samples were taken from Japanese elementary school students of grades five and six who were studying English as a foreign language, and the homeroom teachers in charge of teaching the modules.

Instrumentation

The instrumentation for this research consisted of two parts. The first was a quantitative multiple-choice survey given to students regarding their experience with English and with their phonics time module. The survey consisted of five questions. Two of the questions were about their English class, and three were centered specifically around their phonics time English mini module. This survey was presented in Japanese to ensure that the students had complete understanding of the questions. The second instrument used for this research was a series of interviews taken with the teachers who were in charge of implementing the phonics module. The interview questions followed a similar pattern of looking at English class, and the phonics time. All of the teachers interviewed had regularly been implementing the phonics time with their homeroom class. The questions were presented in Japanese to ensure complete understanding from the teachers. The answers were recorded in on an audio device in Japanese and later translated into English for the purpose of this study.

Results
Student Surveys

For the first instrument used in this research, survey data was collected from 160 students. The survey consisted of five questions. The first two question were in regards to their general English class in order to learn about the general view towards learning English and to gauge if students were having difficulty with knowledge retention.

1. During English class how much of the English do you understand?
2. How often do you have trouble remembering English words you already learned?
    The next three questions were specifically about their mini module experiences
3. During the module time, how much of the English do you understand?
4. Does the module time help you remember English vocabulary?
5. How often do you use things you learned in phonics time for your English class?

Figure 1
General English Comprehension
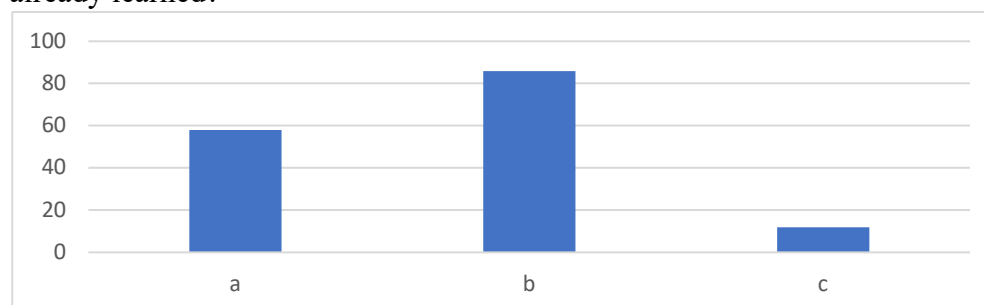Question 1. During English class how much of the English do you understand?
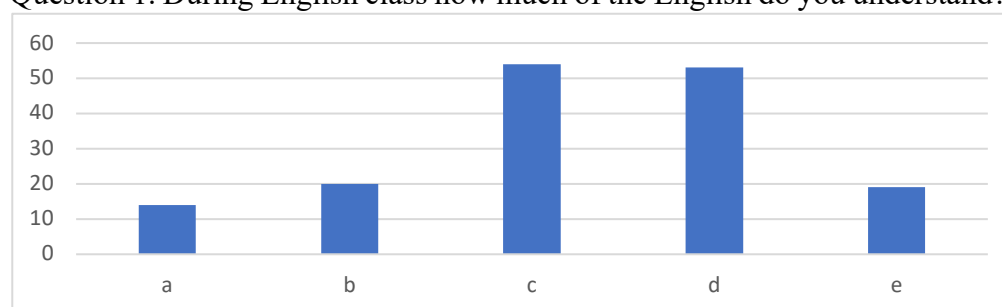
Students had the choice of answering a. None, b. Only a little, c. Some, d. Most, or e. All.

9% of the students answered that they didn't understand any of the English presented in their English class, 13% answered that they understood a little, 33% answered that they understood some, 33% answered that they understood most of their classroom English and 12% answered that they understood all of it.

Figure 2
Difficulty with English Retention
Question 2. How often do you have trouble remembering English words you already learned?

Students had the options of answering a. Never, b. Sometimes or c. Often.

36% of students answered that they never have trouble remembering English they have already learned, 54% of students answered that they sometimes have trouble remembering English they have learned, and 8% of students answered that they often have trouble remembering English they have already learned.

Figure 3
Module English Comprehension
Question 3 During the module time, how much of the English do you understand?
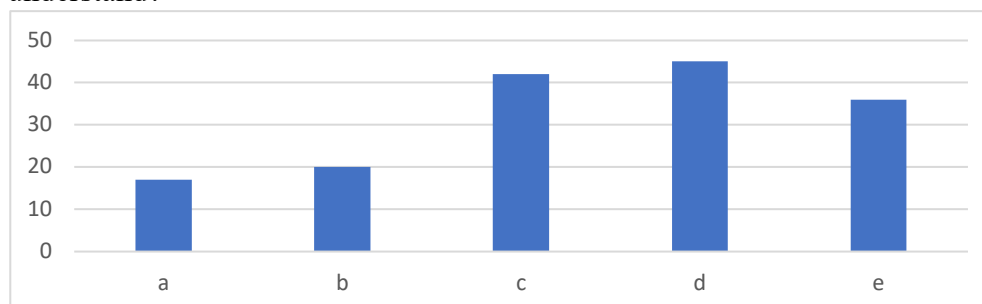
Students had the option of answering: a. None, b. A little, c. Some, d. Most or e. All.

11% of the students answered that they believed that they don't understand any of the English, 13% answered that they understood a little, 26% answered they understood some of the English, 28% of the students said they understood most of the English and 23% felt they understood all of the English used during the module time.

Figure 4
Module English Retention
Question 4. Does the module time help you remember English vocabulary?
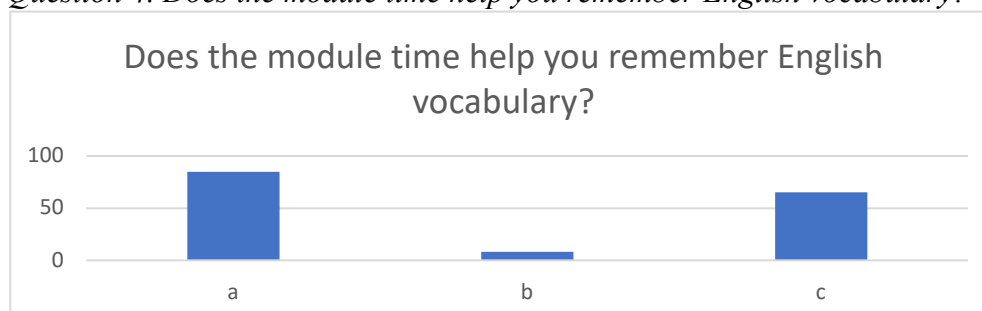

Students the option of answering: a. Yes, b. No or c. A little

53% of students answered that the module time does help them remember the English they are learning, 5% said that the module time didn't help them remember their English and 41% believed that the module time helped them remember English just a little bit. For this question there were a few students who left the answer blank.

Figure 5
Usage of Module English
Question 5. How often do you use things you learned in phonics time for your English class?
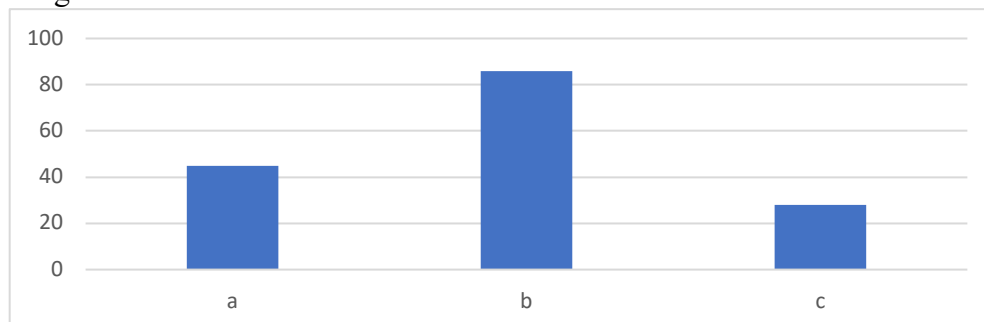
Students were able to answer: a. Rarely, b. Sometime or c. Often.

28% of students answered that they rarely use the English in their English class, 54% of students answered that they use the module content sometimes in their English class and 18% of students felt they often used the English covered in the module in their English class.

Teacher Interviews

For the interview process with the teachers seven teachers were interviewed from two different schools. They were presented with four questions:
1. Do your students have trouble remembering English they learned?
2. What positive affects do you see from the module time in your class?
3. Do you have any thing you would like to change with the module time?
4. How does the phonics time affect student's knowledge retention?

Question 1. Do your students have trouble remembering English they learned?
From the first question two teachers answered that their students don not have any difficulty remembering English. Among the other five teachers, responses were a bit more varied and informative. One teacher noted that knowledge retention of material was strongly tied to individual student ability and work ethic. Other teachers saw the relation to content difficulty and daily usage of content to students being able to remember what they learned. In cases where the content was easy to understand and cases where the students used the content often in everyday conversation, they were able to easily remember. But in cases where the content was more difficult and not often seen, students had a difficult time retaining the information.

Question 2. What positive affects do you see from the module time in your class?
The second question elicited the most information from the teachers. All of the teachers noted many positive effects from the program. Three of the teachers noted that the use of videos and animations gave students a positive experience that helped capture students interest, and pay attention throughout the module. Two teachers saw the rhythm from the songs and chants used in the module to be helpful to student learning. One noted that the rhythm helped students to use correct pronunciation, while another saw that it helped students practice content many times. Five of the teachers gave mention to the affect that

repetition had on students English learning process. One noted that by singing the songs over and over students were able to speak more freely and naturally in English. Another teacher saw student improvement because of them having this module multiple times in a week. One teacher saw that having English multiple times a week helped students become more actively able to learn in an English environment.

Question 3. Do you have any thing you would like to change with the module time?
For the third question, all of the teachers expressed that they like the module and would like to continue to use it with little or no change. One teacher mentioned that the only change they would make would to make sure the module was not given first thing in the morning. This teacher noted that when the students have their English module early, they are tired and have difficulty working through the material, and that they have less energy later in the day for other classes as well. Another teacher said that the module time is great, but they would like to add more story telling elements to help students understand what they are learning. One teacher saw that the general feeling of English learning in japan is that students believe learning English is difficult, however because of the module presenting English in a fun and easy way, these students don not really feel that way.

Question 4. How does the phonics time affect student's knowledge retention?
For the final question, answers were a bit mixed. All of the teachers saw a benefit to the student's English ability such as pronunciation and comprehension. One teacher said that because of the content time they see students build not only their knowledge but also their skill, and because of this there is an improvement in their English class. Another teacher noted the positive effect that the module has on giving students an opportunity to use English outside of their English class. One teacher noted that the process of the module time was particularly beneficial, because it did not just break things down into common basics, but actually gave student proper models for pronunciation. Another teacher noted that the module time helps build the students interest and willingness to study.

Discussion
The first question of the student surveys was given to gauge students opinion of their English abilities and to see where students saw that they needed extra help in order to function effectively in their English classes. From the survey we saw that 33% of students said they understand some of the English in their classes, and 33% understood most of the English, with the rest of the answers being fairly even with just a few students. This result gave a very good account of the student's ability showing that the majority of the class had a reasonable grasp on what was being taught in their English classes. Of course, in any classes some students will struggle more, and some students will excel, and given the numbers of this survey answer that is clearly shown.

The second question was given to students to see exactly how their experience may relate to this research. 36% of the students answered that they had no trouble remembering English.   This showed a high level of confidence in the student's ability to remember. With 58% of the students answering that they sometimes had difficulty we can see that there is still a majority of students who could benefit from finding better ways to work on knowledge retention. And with the smallest group of 8% of students who felt they really struggled to remember what they were learning. While the last group was the smallest, and the majority of students believed they remember relatively well or very well,

this group still represented a clear necessity for some students to build their knowledge retention ability.

The third question was presented to see how difficult the content in the module time was for students and to see how well they were able to interact with this content. The largest group of students at 28% thought that they understood most of what was being presented to them. With 26% answering they understood some and 23% answering that they understood all of the material presented in the module time. Less than 25% of the class answered that they only understood a little or none of the English presented in the module time. While it was clear that some students still needed some extra help, the high numbers for understanding showed a fairly positive trend that the level of material being presented in the module time was appropriate for these students.

The fourth question was asked to see very specifically if the students believed that the module time was helping their knowledge retention in English. Here there was a very positive response with 53% of students who saw the module time as helpful to their knowledge retention, and 41% who saw some benefit. With only 5% of students finding no help, this program from a student perspective looked to be successful.

The final question was presented to see how well the module content related to the students regular English curriculum. 28% of the students said they rarely used the English from the module in their regular English class, wile the majority of the class at 54% said they used the module content sometimes, and 18% said they used it often. While there was a strong output from students who were correlating the module content with their curriculum class, 28% of students didn't use the content in their class. This was a high enough number to suggest that the module, while focusing on pronunciation and vocabulary might be missing some of the necessary elements to fully incorporate the module content with the English class.

The results of the teacher interviews showed a very clear picture of the benefits of the module time. All of the teachers said they liked the module time and wanted to keep using it, with only a few of the teachers even having any comments on how to make it better. These small changes being to change the time when the module is held, and to add more story content to the module. With this general agreement on the positive aspects of the module, it could be surmised that the module does have a great deal of benefit to the student's English education.

Among aspects that the teachers most liked about the module was what kind of content was presented. Through the use of videos and animation sequences, teachers saw that the content was able to draw the student's attention and kept them interested in learning during the process. One teacher found that when the content aligned with the class content students had more energy and focus to try in the module time. Another aspect that was talked about was the use of rhythmic teaching devices in songs and chants. Multiple teachers noted that the rhythm helped students with their pronunciation and helped them with the repetition of the content.

The repetition of the English was noted to be one of the most important factors that this module allowed for. Five of the seven teachers noted in some way that the repetition of the English multiple times a week had a strong benefit to the students grasp of the English content. It was noted that because the students interacted with English multiple times in a week, they were getting better and better.

The final takeaway from the teacher's interviews was how the module time affected students view of English and their ability to learn and interact with the material. As one

teacher noted, the general view that students have of English education in Japan was that it was difficult, however given the frequency that the students interacted with it in the module and the fun and interesting way that the content was presented, these students were able to have a more positive outlook on English education, and not feel daunted by the prospect of learning it. This was made clear as one teacher specifically noted that the module lessons helped the students become more able to learn in an English environment.

This research showed a clear positive view from teachers on the benefits of this program and on the students' ability to interact with and use English. The methods of this specific module program were shown to have positive affects on how students were able to continue their English learning. Both teachers and students were able to notice some improvement of knowledge retention due to the module time, however given the teacher interviews and students surveys, it seems that knowledge retention wasn't the primary benefit of the module program.

Application and Conclusions

While this researched failed to give as clear an outlook on exactly how effective mini modules were in helping students retain knowledge, it did show many of the benefits this kind of program can have. There was some benefit shown to the program being able to help students remember their material, but in order to fully grasp that aspect of learning in the module, continued researcher and alternate instruments would need to be used.

Through the different teaching methods presented in this program, many positive affects can be observed. With the use of specific types of teaching methods, the teachers were able to get and keep student attention in order to help them interact with the material. The application of using digital material to get students attention and keep them involved should be implemented in many educational settings. And the simple aspect of providing ways for student to continually work through and repeat material is essential to teaching.

In the case of the mini module and how they correlate to the Osaka City English education system, the research provided in this study shows a clear positive outlook. The positive aspects that were discussed by the teachers, and the views that students had on their learning showed that presenting information in a short module time like this was a great way to help students practice without the strong pressure and mental fatigue that can come with longer traditional classes. As this was the first year that these modules were implemented in the public-school system as a whole, more time will be necessary to fully see the extent of the effect the module has on student ability.

When comparing the effectiveness of the mini module format to other learning formats such as regular class time or homework time, we can see that there are some clear benefits to the mini module time. Where traditional time in foreign language classes can have some difficulties in developing certain aspects of learning such as listening or pronunciation, the mini module presents a useful way to focus on those aspects. Homework can be a great way to promote autonomous learning with students, but it can also be difficult to make sure it is done correctly, and taken care of at the proper time for the best learning outcome. As was noted in the literature review, sleep was an important component to solidifying understanding, and by finding ways to space out lessons throughout the week to allow for students to interact with material multiple times, teachers can help to provide better instruction to students. Likewise, where the short period and less structured way that the module was run can have implications on complete

understanding of material, regular class time can focus on picking the language apart and working through more complex topics and structures.

The primary focus of this study was to look at the effect of mini modules on foreign language elementary school programs. Many of the concepts and ideas covered here however could be implemented in different aspects of education. It is possible that the module would work very well for older students, or with different subjects. It is also reasonable to expect that with different subjects or different student backgrounds, different troubles would be present, and different measures would need to be taken to make the program work effectively.

Ultimately this research has given a glimpse of the positive effects that a mini module can have on helping students interact with difficult material. There is more research that can be done on knowledge retention within these modules, and within education as a whole. As was presented in the literature, there are many sides of education that can and do effect student learning. By understanding the depth of those aspects of learning, continued teaching methods should be observed in everyday teaching, and the innovation of new methods should be continually developed, studied and given the outlook, implemented in schools to help the field of education continue to change and grow.

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