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Message from the Editorial Board Chair

This second volume of the *JACET International Convention Selected Papers* presents papers from the JACET (Japan Association of College English Teachers) 53rd International Convention (2014), held at Hiroshima City University, Japan, from August 28 to 30. This convention was held shortly after devastating landslides hit the Hiroshima region on August 20th. We wish to take this opportunity to express our gratitude to those who sent their condolences and donations and, above all, heartwarming encouragement.

This collection of Selected Papers from the convention features an invited paper written by plenary speaker Professor Kip Cates and a paper by a conference presenter. Professor Cates provides us with invaluable insight into the role that college English teachers can play in promoting peace and friendship. The paper by Mr. Yoshitaka Kato highlights the instructional value of transcription and proof-listening in the teaching of speaking.

Our call for papers from convention presenters was responded to by many participants with papers covering a wide range of topics. However, to maintain the highest quality suitable for an international audience, the Editorial Board had very stringent guidelines which resulted in the acceptance of only two papers.

As the Chair of the Editorial Board, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the reviewers, the Editorial Board members, and all of those involved in the publication of this second volume of the *JACET International Convention Selected Papers*.

Satoshi Hiramoto

Chair, The Editorial Board of the *JACET International Convention Selected Papers*, Volume 2

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Invited Papers

Building Bridges of Peace and Friendship: The Role of College English Teachers

Kip A. Cates

Tottori University

Abstract

This article argues that college English teachers have a special role to play in promoting peace and friendship through integrating ideas from the fields of *global education*, *peace education*, and *education for international understanding* into their classroom teaching. The author discusses the costs to society of violence and militarism, and describes UNESCO's 1974 *Recommendation on Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace*. To promote peaceful classrooms, he argues that teachers should draw on approaches such as communicative language teaching, content-based instruction, cooperative learning, and humanistic education as well as promote critical thinking about stereotypes and generalizations. Beyond the classroom, he describes ways to develop international understanding via out-of-class tasks and fieldtrips. The article outlines the special role that English can play in promoting peace in Asia and describes the author's experiences of designing Korea-Japan penpal programs and an annual *Asian Youth Forum*. He argues that teacher training in peace education can help to promote international understanding and describes opportunities for professional development. The article ends by noting that 2014 was the 100th anniversary of the outbreak of World War I and calls on college English teachers to promote tolerance, friendship, and peace in our communities, countries, and the wider world.

Keywords: peace, friendship, global education, international understanding

Introduction

We live in a world of violence, from bullying in schools to racial conflicts to wars between nations. These clashes are fueled by stereotypes, prejudice, ethnic hatred, distorted education, and nationalistic media as well as by aggressive governments, militarized societies, and a powerful arms industry. World military spending is currently estimated at \$1.7 trillion, with Japan ranked among the top 10 spenders. This money goes in part to fund the world's 16,000 nuclear weapons, 640 million guns, and 50 million landmines (SIPRI, 2015). The impact of this has been described by a former American president as follows:

The world in arms is not spending money alone. It is spending the sweat of its laborers, the genius of its scientists, the hopes of its children. Every gun that is made, every warship launched, every rocket fired signifies, in the final sense, a theft from those who hunger and are not fed, from those who are cold and not clothed.

Dwight D. Eisenhower 1953 Presidential Address (as cited in Larson, 1987, p. 62)

Personal Background

My interest in seeing language as a bridge of peace and friendship between peoples and countries comes from my background and experience. As a college student in Canada, I took part in youth exchange programs between English-Canadians and French-Canadians. This made me realize the value of language as a means of building bonds of friendship between individuals and communities in my own nation.

I grew up with family stories of World War I, World War II, and the battles against Japan and Germany. As a result, at university, I decided to specialize in *enemy languages*—German and Japanese—to understand the causes of war and to learn how wars can be prevented. Before coming to Japan to teach English in 1979, I spent a year in Europe working at international youth camps in Sweden and Germany. These camps brought together young British, French, German, Spanish, and other young people with the aim of promoting

friendship, respect, cross-cultural understanding, and a sense of European citizenship. These formative experiences have all contributed to the work I do in promoting peace and friendship through English language teaching.

The Role of Education

The mission that we have as educators has been outlined in UNESCO's *Recommendation on Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace* (UNESCO, 1974). This calls on teachers of all subjects in schools around the world to promote:

- an international dimension and a global perspective in education at all levels;
- understanding and respect for all peoples, their cultures, values, and ways of life;
- awareness of the increasing global interdependence between peoples and nations;
- abilities to communicate with others;
- awareness of the rights and duties of individuals, social groups, and nations towards each other;
- understanding of the necessity for international solidarity and co-operation; and
- readiness on the part of the individual to participate in solving the problems of his/her community, country, and the world at large.

The Role of Language Teaching

Promoting peace and friendship has always been a prominent language teaching objective. Rivers (1968), for example, mentions a 1933 report which proclaimed the value of studying foreign languages as “breaking down barriers of provincialism while building up a spirit of international understanding and friendliness, leading toward world peace” (p. 261).

How does foreign language teaching encourage peace and international understanding? In the 1980s, a special committee to examine this question was set up by the German

Commission for UNESCO. Its report, *International Understanding through Foreign Language Teaching* (Classen-Bauer, 1989), argued that foreign language teaching promotes international understanding in the following four distinct ways.

1. Promote students' knowledge of other cultures and ways of thinking.
2. Serve to break down national stereotypes and prejudices which stem from inadequate or superficial knowledge.
3. Enable students to acquire oral and written skills resulting in improved language proficiency. This helps to reduce misunderstandings, prevent conflicts, and promote effective communication across cultures, leading to individual enrichment and the facilitation of cultural, political, and economic exchanges between nations.
4. Enable learners to see their language and culture from an international point of view. By acquiring foreign language competence, students become less ethnocentric, can better identify with others, and become able to share their personal thoughts, values, lives, and cultural heritage with others.

The most significant attempt to outline the role of foreign language teaching in promoting international understanding is UNESCO's *Linguapax Kiev Declaration* (UNESCO, 1987). This made the following four specific recommendations to the world's language teachers.

1. Be aware of their responsibility to further international understanding through their teaching.
2. Increase language teaching effectiveness so as to enhance mutual respect, peaceful co-existence, and co-operation among nations.
3. Exploit extra-curricular activities such as pen-pal programs, video exchanges, and overseas excursions to develop international understanding.
4. Lay the basis for international co-operation through classroom co-operation using language teaching approaches responsive to students' interests and needs.

As Rivers has pointed out, much traditional language teaching makes vague references to promoting peace and tolerance. However, this has often remained wishful thinking.

It may be well to ask whether international understanding, let alone world peace, (has) been promoted by the considerable amount of foreign language teaching in the world. Diligent learning of foreign words and phrases, laborious copying and recitation of irregular verb paradigms, and the earnest deciphering of texts in the foreign language can hardly be considered powerful devices for the development of international understanding and good will. (Rivers, 1968, p. 262)

If we expect our college English teaching to promote peace, friendship, and international understanding, we must include these objectives explicitly in our language programs, materials, and methods.

Exploring New Fields

One key step in achieving this aim is to explore fields such as *global education*, *peace education*, and *education for international understanding*. Exploring related fields to help improve our teaching is nothing new. Good teachers have always gone to other disciplines to learn new ideas, techniques, and resources. Teachers who wish to deepen their knowledge of grammar turn to the field of linguistics. Teachers interested in motivation turn to the field of psychology. In the same way, if we are serious about teaching English to promote peace, friendship, and international understanding, we need to turn to the fields which specialize in these areas.

- *Education for International Understanding* aims to build knowledge, respect, and curiosity about the peoples and countries of the world. Education for international understanding can provide language teachers with ideas, techniques, and resources for teaching about peoples, customs, and cultures, and for creating teaching units on Asia, Africa, Ainu, and Aborigines.

- *Peace Education* deals with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to build a peaceful world. Peace education can provide language teachers with ideas, techniques, and resources for designing lessons on topics such as war, peace, conflict, violence, and on peacemakers such as Gandhi and Martin Luther King.
- *Global Education* aims to develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to become responsible world citizens. Global education can provide language teachers with ideas, techniques, and resources for designing lessons on global awareness and social responsibility, and on global issues such as AIDS, refugees, and world hunger.

Global Education

Much of my work over the past 30 years has dealt with global education and language teaching. Global education has been defined as “education which promotes the knowledge, attitudes and skills relevant to living responsibly in a multicultural, interdependent world” (Fisher & Hicks, 1985, p. 8). Another definition states that “global education consists of efforts to bring about changes in the content, methods and social context of education in order to better prepare students for citizenship in a global age” (Kniep, 1985, p. 15). As an approach to language teaching, global education aims at enabling students to effectively acquire a foreign language while empowering them with the knowledge, skills, and commitment required by world citizens for the solution of global problems (Cates, 1990, p. 3). It also poses the critical question of “What is our responsibility as language teachers in a world of war, poverty, prejudice, and pollution?”

The goals of a *global* approach to education are divided into the four domains of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and action (Cates, 2000, pp. 241–243). Knowledge about the world, its peoples and problems is the first goal. If we want students to work for a peaceful world, they must at least know the nature of world problems, their causes, and viable solutions. Acquiring skills necessary to solve world problems is the second goal. These

include communication skills, critical and creative thinking, problem solving skills, informed decision-making, and the ability to see issues from multiple perspectives. Acquiring global attitudes is the third goal. These include global awareness, an appreciation of other cultures, respect for diversity, a commitment to justice, and empathy with others. The final goal is action—participation in the local and global community to work for a better world.

Content Areas

If we wish to promote peace and international understanding through English, what kinds of content should we address? I suggest that we integrate our classroom teaching with topics from three main content areas: *geographic literacy*, *world themes*, and *global issues*.

- *Geographic literacy* aims at promoting a basic knowledge of the peoples and countries of the world. This is no simple task. Many teachers have encountered students who cannot find their way around a world map or who think that the language of Latin America is Latin. Luckily, geographic illiteracy is a curable disease and a growing number of language teachers are working to address this. Some have designed EFL courses about countries of the world while others work to bring information, understanding, and excitement about the world's peoples, regions, and cultures into their classes.
- *World themes* refer to international topics that are shared by people around the world but expressed in different ways. These include daily life topics such as *world greetings*, *world food*, and *world music* as well as broader themes such as *world flags*, *world languages*, and *world religions*. Teaching these multicultural themes in content-based English classes allows students to see what the world's people share in common while comparing and discussing cultural differences.
- *Global issues* involve helping students to develop an understanding of important world problems, such as war and peace, human rights, world hunger, and the environment. As American global educator Willard Kniep (1987) argues, if young people are to be truly

informed about their world, their education must engage them in inquiry about the causes, effects, and potential solutions to the global issues of our time (p. 69).

The Dual Syllabus

Global education does not happen through good intentions alone. It must be planned for, prepared, and consciously taught. Students cannot learn what you do not teach. It does not do any good, for example, to teach English grammar and hope that students somehow become more international as a result. Rather, a good global language teacher must sit down and write up a *dual syllabus* comprising: (a) a set of language learning goals and (b) a set of global education goals. Once these are listed, the teacher's job is to design effective, enjoyable class activities that achieve both sets of objectives in an integrated, creative way. For college teachers interested in furthering peace and friendship, this means that our English language classes should include specific objectives to promote these aims.

In the Classroom

Designing classrooms which ensure effective language learning while promoting peace and friendship requires integrating ideas, materials, and techniques from a variety of areas within the field of English language education. These include approaches such as communicative language teaching (Littlewood, 1981), content-based instruction (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989), cooperative learning (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1998), and humanistic education (Stevick, 1990). By introducing a student-centered dimension to their classrooms which features "caring-and-sharing" (Moskowitz, 1978), language teachers can help to create a "peaceful classroom" (Smith, 1993).

A variety of ideas, activities, and materials exist to help us promote peace and friendship in our college English classes. Some EFL teachers design lessons on themes such as the Nobel Peace Prize. Others work with peace education videos such as *Rainbow War*

(Rogers, 1985) which visually dramatize the need for tolerance and understanding. Some teachers adapt ideas from peace education texts such as Drew (1995) and Harris and Morrison (2003). Yet others develop content-based units to promote peace through literature (Tanaka, 2015), design project-based courses on peace heroes (Yphantides, 2010) or create their own peace-themed textbooks (Brooks & Fox, 1994).

Generalizations and Stereotypes

If we wish to teach for peace and friendship, we need to address the issue of prejudice and discrimination. Prejudice and discrimination have their roots in oversimplified generalizations of foreign peoples and nations. These are often perpetuated by the mass media. On TV, radio, the Internet, and newspapers, people talk about the Arabs or the Americans, or the Japanese without noting how diverse these groups really are. In their book *Global Teacher, Global Learner*, British educators Pike and Selby (1988) emphasize the need for students to be able to analyze media statements which generalize about other nationalities.

All or Some?

Does a newspaper or book speak of, for example, ‘the French’ when it really means ‘the French government’ or ‘many French people’ or ‘some French people’? (Pike & Selby, 1988, p. 269)

Another issue that English teachers should address is the topic of stereotypes. EFL students all too easily pick up mistaken images from the media and from those around them. Writers such as Ross (2011) and Shaheen (2001) have documented the distorted stereotypes of Arabs, Asians, and other groups that fill our TV shows, movies, and magazines. The negative impact that these stereotypes have on cross-cultural communication and international relations have been described by language educators such as Houghton, Furumura, Lebedko, and Li (2013) and Mathieson (2015). Our students need to be given the chance to analyze the images that appear in the media—as well as in our textbooks and teaching materials—and

encouraged to critically compare the stereotypes they find to reality.

Stereotypes include the distorted ways in which others see us. A good examples of this was shown in a special issue of TIME magazine entitled *How the World Sees Japan* (TIME, 2001). The cover portrayed the confused image of a *typical* Japanese family: a samurai father with a topknot, sword, and cell phone, a geisha mother in kimono carrying a Gucci bag, and a Japanese child playing with his robot dog, with cherry blossoms and Mount Fuji in the background. All that was missing was Ichiro, Godzilla, and a few ninja. This tableau indicates the kind of distorted images people tend to hold of other cultures—images often created, presented, or spread by the media.

Global educators use a variety of resources to help students go beyond stereotypes and see the world as it really is. These include DVDs such as *Young Voices from the Arab World* (AMIDEAST, 1998) which introduces the daily lives of Arab teenagers in the Middle East, the *Families of the World* series (Families of the World, 1995–2015) and the United Nations series *What's Going On?* (UN Works, 2003) which features Hollywood celebrities such as Richard Gere, Angelina Jolie, and Meg Ryan who introduce global issues such as street children, landmines, and AIDS.

Beyond the Classroom

Out-of-class tasks can be an effective way to help students begin to see English as a tool for building friendly relations, not just as a school subject or a set of rules to memorize for tests. Contact assignments that engage learners with the local community are one such task. Each year at my university, for example, I give a Golden Week holiday assignment where students have to go out, talk to a stranger, then write an English report on their experience (Cates, 1989). Students find that this homework can impact their lives in interesting ways. Some talk to international students on campus and make friends from Asia, Africa, or Europe. Some chat up the opposite sex and get a new boyfriend or girlfriend. Yet

others strike up conversations with local business people and get job offers as a result. Over the past 25 years, I have assigned this task to over 5,000 students and have watched them grow as confident communicators.

Arranging penpal or keypal programs is one way to get your students using English to communicate with young people around the world. Setting up an English *World Citizen* club or study group is another idea. Some schools have students write English letters to foster children from Third World countries. Yet others hold English charity events on campus to raise money to remove Cambodian landmines, to help African AIDS victims, to assist Iraqi children, or to re-build earthquake damaged schools in Nepal.

Some colleges add an international dimension to their school festival through English speech contests on global themes or by inviting English guest speakers from groups such as UNICEF. Others arrange volunteer activities where students pick up litter on local beaches or participate in charity walk-a-thons to end world hunger—all while using English in an out-of-class context.

School trips are a further way to promote international understanding. Language study tours to the U.S. and Australia can include projects on social issues to broaden students' experience beyond homestays, sightseeing, and shopping. As educators such as Hinkelman (1993) have shown, taking students to destinations such as India, the Philippines, or Korea can improve their English and promote mutual understanding as they learn about life in developing countries or in neighboring Asian nations.

International Events

Education beyond the campus means giving students opportunities to use their language skills, increase motivation, and raise awareness through real-world experiences. One way to move students from the classroom into the real world is to involve them in international events. For teachers eager to get their students involved, there are dozens of opportunities

available, ranging from overseas work camps and Model United Nations events to round-the-world cruises on Peace Boat and volunteer programs in Africa and Latin America.

At the national level, there are many events that college students can join. Each October, for example, I take 10–15 university students to Tokyo to attend *Global Festa*. This annual 2-day event is Japan’s largest gathering of non-governmental organizations involved with global issues, Third World development, and international cooperation. During the festival, students explore theme zones dedicated to human rights and peace, visit booths run by the 200 organizations taking part, learn about NGOs working to eliminate landmines, meet staff from organizations such as *Médecins Sans Frontières*, and talk to Japanese Peace Corps volunteers fluent in English who have just returned from countries such as Bangladesh, Guatemala, or Algeria.

What do students gain from this kind of fieldtrip? They learn that we live in a world full of diverse peoples, countries, and problems. They encounter Japanese volunteers who care about world issues and who are working for a better future. In addition, they learn that to cooperate across borders to solve global issues they need to speak English—the global language.

Giving students a chance to use language skills in real-world situations outside school is an invaluable experience that can promote personal growth, global awareness, and language learning motivation. Educating beyond the classroom, whether at the local, national, or international level, can be an exciting challenge and a valuable part of our work as English language educators.

Peace in Our Neighborhood

If we truly want to build a world of peace and friendship, we need to start in our own neighborhood—East Asia. A number of opinion polls show the challenges that teachers face in building good relations with neighboring nations. Two recent surveys, for example, found

that 76% of people in South Korea and 90% of people in China held unfavorable views of Japan (Genron NPO, 2013; Pew Research Center, 2013). There is an urgent need to work for better relations between China, Japan, and Korea, a task that college English teachers can help to promote.

My first experiment in promoting peace through English was a pen-pal program between Japan and Korea that a colleague and I started in 1991 (Cates, 1999; Nihon-kai Shimbun, 1991). This began with 50 Japanese students from our university and 50 Korean students from our sister university. The program resulted in a rich series of exchanges which accomplished our dual aims of improving students' English writing skills while building mutual understanding between Korean and Japanese youth. The program led to overseas visits where students met their pen-pals face-to-face in Korea. Earlier this year in 2014, I happened to meet one of the original Japanese students—now in her 40s—who had been part of our first wave of EFL pen pals. Amazingly, she and her Korean partner were still writing to each other! They had kept in touch for 25 years, had traveled overseas to visit each other, had married separately in their 30s, and then brought their families together to continue the exchange.

The Asian Youth Forum (AYF)

Part of my current work taking Japanese students into the world involves the *Asian Youth Forum* (AYF), an initiative which I founded in 1989. This annual event, organized by college English teachers, brings together EFL students from across Asia for an exciting week of seminars, workshops, and social events aimed at promoting cross-cultural communication, building international friendships, breaking down stereotypes, and discussing global issues—all through the medium of English-as-an-Asian-language.

Over its 15 year history, 13 different AYF events have been held in locations such as Seoul (Korea), Bangkok (Thailand), Taipei (Taiwan), Vladivostok (Russia), and Manila (the Philippines). Each event is a unique gathering of Asian youth. AYF 2008 in Tokyo, for

example, was hosted by the *Japanese Association for Language Teaching* (JALT) and brought together 110 students from 16 Asian countries, including Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, India, Pakistan, Singapore, and Vietnam.

These AYF events have given over 700 Asian youth the chance to learn about each other's countries, explore global issues, and make cross-cultural friendships. Attending this Asian Youth Forum is a life-changing experience. The students who take part in each AYF event not only improve their English skills but also broaden their horizons, deepen their understanding of other cultures, and begin to see themselves as Asian citizens with an important role to play in working for a better future.

My work in youth exchange has mainly involved using English to promote better relations among young people in Asia. There are many other examples of how English teachers have worked to promote peace between peoples and countries. One recent initiative was described by McCloskey (2014) who described the role of English in bringing together youth from hostile communities in Eastern Europe for an international EFL peace camp. Examples like this show the potential of English teaching for promoting peace and friendship in various regions of the world.

International friendship, trust, and respect can only be achieved through the actions of dedicated people in countries around the world. College language educators have a special role to play in promoting mutual understanding by providing opportunities for international exchange—through English—which bring together young people from neighboring countries and conflict regions.

Teacher Training

Teacher training is another area where important peace education initiatives have taken place. Forhan (1996), for example, described an EFL teacher training course which brought together Israeli and Palestinian English teachers for professional development and mutual

understanding.

The organization the *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages* (TESOL) has shown its commitment to promoting international understanding through a series of workshops which introduce English teachers to experts, resources, and ideas from the field of peace education. These have included *TESOL Day at the United Nations* (TESOL'91, New York) at which UN personnel instructed English teachers on how to integrate peace issues into their classrooms and *TESOL Day at the Carter Center* (TESOL'93, Atlanta, Georgia) where teachers attended workshops on conflict resolution run by peace education experts. In 1995, a *TESOL Summer Institute on Peace Education* was held which gave English teachers around the world a chance to learn the latest approaches for promoting peace through ESL.

My own involvement in English teacher training has ranged from peace education workshops in Lebanon and Costa Rica to global education talks in Vietnam, Pakistan, and Hungary. For 17 years, I taught a course entitled *Trends: Global Issues* for the MA-in-TESOL program of Teachers College, Columbia University at its Tokyo campus. This gave graduate students the chance to explore fields such as global education, peace education, and education for international understanding, then go on to design and teach model English lessons on these themes at their schools. If we want to effectively teach English for peace and friendship, similar courses need to be introduced in teacher training programs around the world.

Professional Development

Learning about concrete ways to promote peace and friendship through EFL can be an exciting aspect of professional development. One way is to explore the fields of global education, peace education, and education for international understanding through books, websites, and publications. Another way is to take part in workshops, seminars, and conferences, whether in Japan or overseas. One such event is *Peace as a Global Language* (PGL) <www.pgl.com> an annual conference which brings together peace educators,

activists, and NGOs. Other events include the *International Institute on Peace Education* (IIPE) <www.i-i-p-e.org> held each summer in a different world region and the *Institute for Intercultural Communication* <www.intercultural.org> which offers courses on cross-cultural understanding, empathy, tolerance, and peace.

A further step is to join a special interest group active in this area. The oldest of these is JALT's *Global Issues in Language Education* Special Interest Group (GILE SIG) which I chair. This features a quarterly newsletter, a website, and an active program of presentations around Japan. Similar groups overseas include the *Global Issues* Special Interest Group (GI-SIG) of the *International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language* (IATEFL) in England, and the *Social Responsibility* Interest Section (SR-IS) of TESOL in the United States. Of course, JACET's Kanto Chapter also has its own special interest group on *Global Education/ Education for International Understanding*. All of these groups issue publications, run websites, and provide ideas, activities, and resources that can assist interested language teachers.

JACET members wishing to learn more about recent trends in this field are invited to subscribe to the quarterly *Global Issues in Language Education Newsletter* <www.gilesig.org> which I publish. This provides news and updates on how language teachers around the globe are working to integrate global awareness, peace, and friendship into their language teaching. Interested teachers are welcome to contact me for a free copy of the newsletter or to subscribe.

This Time, This Place

The challenge of college English educators to teach for a world of peace has been articulated in UNESCO's constitution which states "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed" (UNESCO, 1946) and by educators such as Maria Montessori who wrote that "establishing lasting peace is the work

of education; all politics can do is keep us out of war” (Montessori, 1949).

What Japan—and every country—needs is young people with language skills, cross-cultural awareness, and international experience who can join with others in our global village to work for a peaceful future. College English teachers have a key role to play in this important task.

The year 2014 marked the 100th anniversary of the outbreak of World War I, a massive tragedy that devastated Europe, traumatized a generation, and led to the deaths of 16 million people. The year 2015 marked the 70th anniversary of the end of World War II, a horrific war which resulted in incredible human suffering, massive destruction, and the deaths of 80 million people around the globe.

These anniversaries present a chance for us as college language teachers to reflect on the past, look to the future, and renew our commitment to building bridges of peace and friendship through English. The 2014 JACET convention in Hiroshima was a special opportunity for all of us to reach out, join hands, and begin working together to promote P.E.A.C.E.—PeaEducation for Action through Communicative English.

If language educators are to help overcome the stereotypes, prejudice, war, and violence that haunt our world, we need to rethink our approaches to curriculum design, teaching methods, classroom materials, and teacher training. The fields of global education, peace education, and education for international understanding can help us to build peaceful classrooms and schools while promoting tolerance, friendship, and mutual understanding in our communities, our countries, in Asia and the wider world.

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Selected Papers

Transcription and Proof-listening: Investigating Effective Speech Reflection

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Abstract

The present study aims to investigate how teachers should encourage learners to reflect on their own speech in order to improve their speaking skills. Specifically, this study compared the effects of two different types of speech reflection: transcription and proof-listening. Although transcription has gained much attention due to its positive effects on improving speaking skills, few studies have been conducted on proof-listening. Listening to recorded speech, however, may be sufficient for quick speech reflection. In the study, a total of 52 university students in Japan were divided into two groups. Both groups reflected on their speech under each condition (i.e., transcription or proof-listening), followed by the same task repetition, and completed a questionnaire about their attitudes toward the assigned activity. The findings indicated that proof-listening had more immediate effects on the improvement of speech accuracy; the proof-listening group tended to paraphrase the original utterances more dynamically, whereas the transcription group focused more on revising the original errors. Regarding learners' reaction to the assigned activity, however, the questionnaire results revealed that the transcription group found the activity more interesting despite its time-consuming nature. Pedagogical implications of both types of reflection and suggestions for further research will be presented.

Keywords: speaking, reflection, transcription, proof-listening

Introduction

Fostering ‘good’ speakers of English is one of the primary purposes of English education in Japan. Although the word ‘good’ can be interpreted differently depending on the educational context, recent task-based language teaching research suggests one possible model of an ideal L2 speaker in terms of speaking complexity, accuracy, and fluency, termed CAF (Housen & Kuiken, 2009). A ‘good’ English speaker in this context therefore can be defined as well-rounded, speaking accurately as well as fluently with rich grammar and vocabulary.¹ However, it is still considered difficult to develop learners’ speaking skills with balanced CAF. Skehan (1996, 1998) argues, for example, that the difficulty may derive from human’s limited attentional capacity, which results in trade-off between form and meaning during task performance. By utilizing insights on effective educational interventions, language teachers are expected to foster speakers of English with balanced development.

One typical speaking exercise in the language classroom is task repetition (e.g., Bygate, 2001), which can be defined as “repetition of the same or slightly altered task—whether the whole tasks, or parts of a task” (Bygate & Samuda, 2005, p. 43). Bygate (2006), on the basis of Levelt (1989)’s speech model, stated that learners become familiar with a task during repetition, and thus their attention shifts from the content to the form. Previous studies have investigated the effects of task repetition, finding that even simple repetition of a task improves learners’ speaking fluency and/or complexity to some extent (e.g., Ahmadian, 2011; Bygate, 1996, 2001; Date & Takatsuka, 2012; Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, & Fernández-García, 1999; Lynch & Maclean, 2000). However, the effects were not always consistent regarding the improvement of accuracy (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Ellis, 2009). One possible reason for this is that learners do not notice their own *mistakes*² (as opposed to *errors*) though they are treatable when noticed. Implied from this is the importance of post-task activities, which stimulate learners’ attention to their own mistakes.

As a post-task activity, speech reflection has recently been assisted by the development

of technology. One type of speech reflection is transcription, which requires learners to write down their recorded speech word for word. Previous studies have shown that transcribing one's own speech leads to the improvement of speaking skills, especially in accuracy (Lynch, 2001, 2007; Mennim, 2003, 2007, 2012; Stillwell et al., 2010; Stones, 2013) and learners tend to find transcription worthwhile as a post-task activity (Lynch, 2007; Stillwell et al., 2010). Given the large amount of time and effort required for transcription, however, it needs to be further investigated whether learners really need to “*see what they meant*” (Lynch, 2001) in order to effectively reflect on their own speech. Listening to their own recorded speech, for example, might suffice for learners' quick reflection. Lynch himself, as one of the research pioneers on transcription, actually noticed that point and called this *proof-listening* (named after *proof-reading*), which “involves learners recording, reviewing, and ‘editing’ their own speech” (Lynch, 2001, p. 125). Although he decided not to adopt this reflection in his class due to practical problems, its effects are worth investigation because proof-listening is also likely to elicit rich comments from learners and is in fact popular among them (p. 125). As far as the author is aware, no studies have been conducted so far to examine the effects of proof-listening. The present study therefore attempted to differentiate the effects of two different types of speech reflection: transcription and proof-listening. This led to the following two research questions.

RQ1. How do transcription and proof-listening affect the improvement of speaking accuracy?

RQ2. How do learners react to these two types of speech reflection?

The second question was added because a student-based retrospective evaluation is indispensable as “a task can only be said to have worked if the students have found it enjoyable and/or useful” (Ellis, 1997, p. 39).

Methods

Participants

The participants were 52 second-year undergraduate students in Japan. Their average level of English proficiency was intermediate, with a mean score in the TOEFL® Practice Test (Educational Testing Service, 1999) of 91.4 ($SD = 16.65$), which is approximately 64–70 in the TOEFL iBT® test. They were randomly divided into the transcription group and the proof-listening group. In the speech performance before the treatment, these two groups were confirmed equivalent in terms of their speaking ability measured by CAF (see Appendix A for the detailed results of the statistical analysis). Before the study, the participants were told that the task results would not affect their grades, and only students who signed written informative consent forms participated in this study.

Materials

For the purpose of this study, the following two materials were prepared: a speaking task and a questionnaire.

Speaking task. This study adopted a TOEFL iBT® typed integrated task (Educational Testing Service, 2009; see Appendix B for the task used in the study), in which learners were required to “understand academic lectures or texts and then to prepare spoken responses that demonstrate understanding of such stimulus material” (Lee, 2006, p. 132). This task was chosen because the class targeted at acquiring the language skills necessary in academic contexts, and the participants showed interest in this type of integrated tasks. Considering the purpose of the study, the task was partially modified (i.e., learners were allowed to spend more time in answering the question) so that they could prepare sufficient outputs for the following speech reflection.

Questionnaire. A further material used in this study was a questionnaire, which consisted of four multiple-choice questions. This questionnaire was conducted so as to

supplement the present study by better understanding learners' own evaluation of speech reflection activities. Specifically, the questionnaire asked whether or not the assigned speech reflection was useful (Q1), enjoyable (Q2), time-consuming (Q3), tiring (Q4) with a five-point Likert scale.

Procedures

The present study used a between-group design with two types of speech reflection as an independent variable (see Figure 1). The number of participants was 27 in the transcription group and 25 in the proof-listening group. Both groups were asked three times in total to summarize what they read and listened to. Between the second and third performance, the learners in the transcription group were asked to transcribe their recorded speech while those in the proof-listening group were asked to listen to their recorded speech, as much as possible within five minutes. All the speech was recorded using the *Movie Teleco* software installed on their computers. Because the aim of this study was to compare the pure effects of speech reflection, no feedback was provided regarding their speech performance during the study.

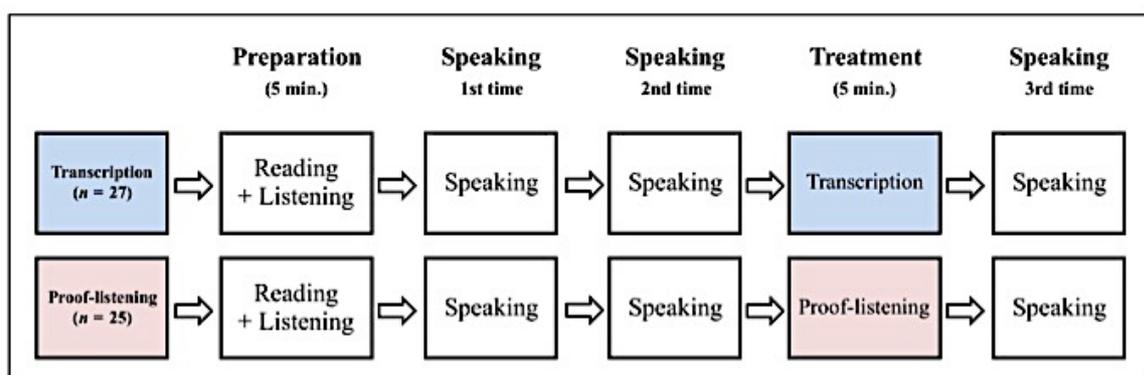


Figure 1. Procedures of the study.

Data Analyses

Speech data. All the recorded speech was first transcribed by the author and checked

by another rater, a near-native speaker of English, who started her PhD studies in Japan after completing high school in Australia and a master's course in the UK. She was judged as an appropriate rater in this study due to her excellent knowledge *about* English (e.g., she obtained a perfect 990 score in TOEIC just before this study was conducted), and her unfamiliarity with 'Japanese English' was considered fair for speech evaluation. Following the procedure of Koizumi (2005), the transcription was conducted with a policy of listening to learners' speech "sympathetically by taking the context into consideration" (p. 13). The rater was then asked to identify errors in speech by distinguishing local errors from global errors. This study defined local errors as errors that "affect a single element of the sentence" and "usually do not hinder communication" (e.g., errors in noun and verb inflections, articles) and global errors as errors that "affect the overall organization of the sentence" and "hinder successful communication" (e.g., word order, sentence connectors) (Burt, 1975, p. 61). Both types of errors were then further labeled as *revised* errors or *avoided* errors for the deeper understanding of error revision by the participants. This point will be fully discussed in the Results section.

Questionnaire. Regarding the four multiple-choice questions in the questionnaire, the differences between the two groups were statistically analyzed by non-repeated *t*-tests. The statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS version 20.0.

Results

Speech data

Figure 2 shows speech accuracy (measured by the number of error-free AS-units per unit) changed after the treatment in the transcription and the proof-listening groups. Both groups were originally equivalent in the level of speech accuracy, but after the treatment, a significant difference was found between groups with a medium sized effect ($t(50) = -2.42$; $p = .019$; $d = .68$). This result implies that proof-listening assisted learners in speaking more

accurately while transcription did not or made them less accurate.

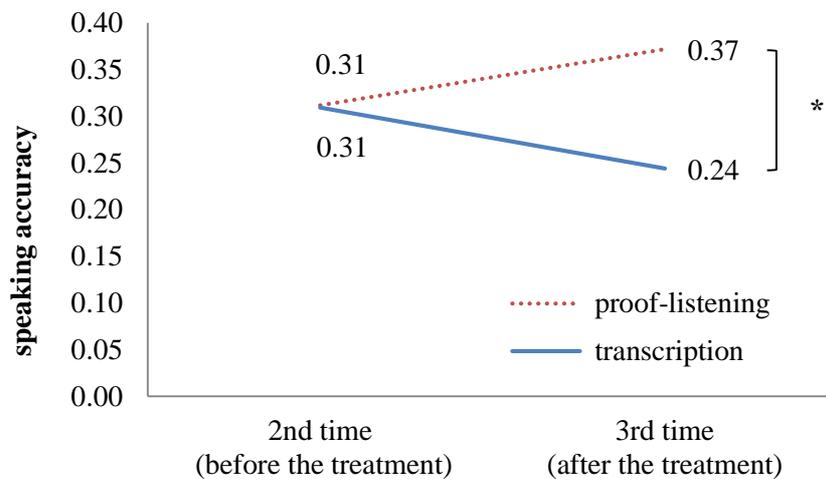


Figure 2. Speech accuracy (the number of error-free AS-units per unit) changed after the treatment. The solid line represents the transcription group while the dotted line represents the proof-listening group. * $p < .05$.

For a further analysis of the error revision, the percentages of local and global errors revised after the treatment were calculated (see Table 1). As a result, regarding local errors, the transcription group was found to encourage more appropriate revision of local errors than the proof-listening group with a small sized effect ($t(50) = 2.04$; $p = .046$; $d = .41$); whereas regarding global errors, no difference was found between the two groups ($t(50) = 0.59$; $p = .559$; $d = 1.05$). This result suggested that transcription did assist the learners in revising local errors more successfully than proof-listening, though the effects were not broad enough to emerge as an improvement of speech accuracy.

Table 1

Percentages of the Revised Errors

	Transcription ($n = 27$)		Proof-listening ($n = 25$)	
Local errors	32%	(43/136)	23%	(23/100)
Global errors	26%	(10/39)	25%	(7/28)
Total	30%	(53/175)	23%	(30/128)

Table 2 shows the percentages of local and global errors *avoided* after the treatment. Here, the avoided errors refer to erroneous expressions that were not used in speech after the treatment. The result indicates the following trends; regarding local errors, proof-listening tended more to encourage avoidance of local errors than transcription, though only a marginal difference was found between the two groups with a medium sized effect ($t(50) = -1.91$; $p = .062$; $d = .63$); and regarding global errors, no difference was found between the two groups ($t(50) = 0.61$; $p = .547$; $d = .13$).

Table 2

Percentages of the Avoided Errors

	Transcription ($n = 27$)		Proof-listening ($n = 25$)	
Local errors	13%	(17/136)	32%	(32/100)
Global errors	36%	(14/39)	36%	(10/28)
Total	18%	(31/175)	33%	(42/128)

When the avoidance occurs, paraphrased expressions are used instead. Therefore, the results of Table 2 indicates that the learners in the proof-listening group tended more to decide not to use the expressions they were not confident in and paraphrased more dynamically what

they said after their speech reflection than those in the transcription group. This dynamic paraphrasing seemed to have led to the improvement of speech accuracy.

Questionnaire

Results from the questionnaire provided insights into better understanding of the participants' experience of speech reflection. Table 3 summarizes their responses to the multiple-choice questions (Q1–Q4), including the mean and standard deviation.

Table 3

Results for the Close-ended Questionnaire Items (Q1–Q4)

	Transcription	Proof-listening			
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t (45)</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
Q1. Useful	3.86 (1.04)	3.44 (1.04)	1.39	.171	.40
Q2. Enjoyable	3.09 (0.97)	2.44 (0.96)	2.31	.026*	.67
Q3. Time-consuming	3.86 (0.99)	2.08 (0.86)	6.60	< .001***	1.93
Q4. Tiring	2.73 (1.24)	2.72 (1.20)	0.02	.984	.01

Note. The score ranges from 1 (do not agree at all) to 5 (strongly agree). The valid answers were 22 in the transcription group and 25 in the proof-listening group. * $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

The *t*-test results showed that significant differences were found between groups on whether the speech reflection was enjoyable or not (Q2) with a medium sized effect ($t(45) = 2.31$; $p = .026$; $d = .67$) and time-consuming or not (Q3) with a large sized effect ($t(45) = 6.60$; $p < .001$; $d = 1.93$). These results indicate that the learners in the transcription group, compared to those in the proof-listening group, found their speech reflection more worthwhile despite its time-consuming nature.

Discussion

The quantitative analysis of the speech data indicated that transcription and proof-listening had different effects on the improvement of local errors. The learners in the transcription group, more so than those in the proof-listening group, *revised* the original errors they made prior to reflection and restated their speech with more attention to grammatical correctness. A further qualitative analysis of the speech data suggested that transcription assisted in revising local errors such as singular-plural errors and article errors, which was consistent with previous studies (e.g., Mennim, 2003; Stillwell et al., 2010). Some examples are given below.

Example 1: revision of singular-plural errors

(before transcription) ...the listening passage provides *two example*.

(after transcription)...the listening passage provides *two examples*.

Example 2: revision of article errors

(before transcription) *Listening passage* shows two actual examples.

(after transcription) *The listening passage* shows actual examples.

Despite these positive revisions, however, transcription did not lead to an improvement of speech accuracy. This may have been caused by relatively small-scale revisions; some mistakes remained in the same AS-unit even after revisions, which prevented the effects from emerging in the measured speech accuracy.

On the other hand, proof-listening led rather to the *avoidance* of local errors and therefore more dynamic paraphrasing of the original sentences than transcription. Examples are given below.

Example 3

(before proof-listening) In the listening passage, *it is said that two points.*

(after proof-listening) In the listening passage, *two examples are given.*

Example 4

(before proof-listening) The reading passage says that *when the one know that they are visible to others, their activity is affected by this.*

(after proof-listening) The reading passage says that *the presence of others tend [sic] to alter the way people behave.*

Although the paraphrasing of the erroneous speech did not always lead to the improvement of speech accuracy as some of the learners made different mistakes in the newly paraphrased sentences (see Example 4), the effects of dynamic paraphrasing through proof-listening seemed to outweigh these non-positive revisions (see Figure 2). Avoidance or paraphrasing in the abovementioned speech could be described as communication strategies (e.g., Tarone, 1981) that L2 learners use to convey their intended meaning. Thus, proof-listening may have potential benefits when teachers decide to prioritize communicative aspects rather than grammatical development of their students' performance.

Regarding the learners' reaction to the reflection activities, the questionnaire results revealed that they showed more positive attitudes toward transcription despite its time-consuming nature. This finding was consistent with that of the previous studies (Lynch, 2007; Stillwell et al., 2010). The participants in this study seemed to be motivated to revise their speech through the transcription activity. However, it may not be concluded from only this evidence that proof-listening does not have any motivational merits. For example, the fact that 60 percent of the participants in the proof-listening group chose 4 (agree) or 5 (strongly agree) in the five-point Likert scale in Q1 (usefulness) suggests that almost as many of them

found proof-listening useful as those in the transcription group. Both types of reflection therefore can be included in the teaching options by practitioners.

Despite the findings described so far, this study has to admit some limitations. First, the limited numbers of global errors made in the original speech might have affected the results obtained in this study; contrary to the revision of local errors, no difference was found in the revision of global errors. Second, in order to raise the reliability of the study, long-term studies need to be conducted for other participants, tasks, and educational settings. These studies would help us to examine more effective use of speech reflection.

Conclusion

The aim of the present study was to investigate how teachers can encourage learners to reflect on their own speech in order to improve speech accuracy. Specifically, this study attempted to differentiate the effects of two types of speech reflection (transcription and proof-listening) and clarify the need for learners to ‘*see* what they meant’ (Lynch, 2001) during reflection. Evidence from the speech data and the questionnaire supported positive effects of both types of speech reflection; transcription can motivate students to revise their own utterances and lead to successful revisions of local errors, whereas proof-listening tends to encourage more dynamic paraphrasing of the original sentences, which may have more immediate effects on the improvement of speech accuracy. These findings suggest a possibility of combining both ways of reflection rather than adhering to one of them. By making full use of the merits of seeing and listening to recorded speech, practitioners may help their learners to develop well-rounded speaking skills.

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Notes

¹ In this study, the following measures were used to analyze fluency, accuracy, and (syntactic) complexity under the definition of Housen and Kuiken (2009) and Ellis (2009). First, fluency was defined as “the ability to process the L2 with native-like rapidity” (Housen & Kuiken, 2009, p. 461). This was measured by words per minute. Second, accuracy was defined as “the ability to produce error-free speech” (p. 461). This was measured by the number of error-free AS-units per unit. Third, complexity was defined as “the capacity to use more advanced language” (Ellis, 2009, p. 475). In this study, syntactic complexity was measured by the numbers of words per AS-unit.

² Errors and mistakes are supposed to be differentiated but it is not easy to do so as fixed terms such as ‘local errors’ and ‘global errors’ include both errors and mistakes. Therefore, in the subsequent sections, this study decided to use these terms (i.e., errors and mistakes) interchangeably whenever the meaning is clear in context.

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Appendix A: Results of the Speech Performance Before the Treatment

	Transcription ^a	Proof-listening ^b	<i>t</i> (50)	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)			
Fluency (words per minute)	62.22 (14.00)	58.17 (17.42)	.93	.358	.26
Accuracy (number of error-free AS-units per unit)	0.31 (0.23)	0.31 (0.24)	-.03	.973	.00
Syntactic Complexity (number of words per AS-unit)	11.08 (2.00)	11.08 (2.52)	.01	.992	.00

Note. ^a*n* = 27. ^b*n* = 25.

Appendix B: The Task Used in the Study

This integrated task consists of the following three procedures.

1. Reading

Social Interaction

People deal with each other every day. This interaction is at the heart of social life. The study of social interaction is concerned with the influence people have over one another's behavior. People take each other into account in their daily behavior and in fact, the very presence of others can affect behavior. For example, one principle of social interaction, audience effects, suggests that individuals' work is affected by their knowledge that they are visible to others,

that the presence of others tends to alter the way people behave or perform an activity.

2. Listening

(The lecture lasts for approximately one and a half minutes.)

3. Speaking

Question: How does the information in the listening passage add to the information in the reading passage? (This section was adapted for the purpose of the study.)

Note. From *The Official Guide to the TOEFL iBT with CD-ROM* (3rd ed.) (p. 274), by Educational Testing Service, 2009, Singapore: McGraw Hill. Copyright 2009 by Educational Testing Service. Adapted with permission.

Submission Guidelines

JACET International Convention Selected Papers, Vol. 2

SUBMISSION GUIDELINES

Manuscripts for the *JACET International Convention Selected Papers (JACET Selected Papers)* will only be accepted by online submission. Please read the following guidelines carefully.

Important Dates:

Submission Form Open: October 18, 2014

Submission Deadline: 11:59 PM Japan Time, January 9, 2015

Submission Form:

<http://www.jacet.org/2014convention/spsubmission/submission.html>

A. Requirements

1. A paper must be based on a presentation (oral or regular poster presentation) given at the JACET 53rd International Convention and the first contributor must be a member of JACET. All other contributors must have also presented the work at the JACET 53rd International Convention.
2. A paper based on a plenary lecture may be submitted as an Invited Paper (by invitation only).

B. Editorial Policy

1. *JACET Selected Papers*, a refereed, open-access electronic journal, encourages submission of articles on methods, pedagogical research, and topics of significance to teachers of English.
2. Manuscripts submitted to *JACET Selected Papers* must not have been previously published, nor should they be under consideration for publication elsewhere.
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6. Paper offprints will not be provided.

C. Guidelines

1. Manuscripts should not exceed 30 pages on A4 paper, including abstract, references, figures, tables, and appendix.
2. All manuscripts must be in English.
3. All submissions to *JACET Selected Papers* must conform to the requirements of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 6th edition.
 - 3.1 Prepare manuscripts using Microsoft Word (2003 or later).
 - 3.2 Use 12-point Times New Roman font.
 - 3.3 Leave margins of 2.5 cm on all sides of every page (A4 size, 210 mm × 297 mm or 8.27 in × 11.7 in). There are 26 lines to a page.
 - 3.4 Do not justify right margins.
 - 3.5 Do not use running heads.
 - 3.6 Create a paper without the author name(s).
 - 3.7 Include the title, an abstract in English (no more than 200 words), and key words (no more than 5 words).
 - 3.8 For pagination, use Arabic numerals placed in the upper right-hand corner of each page.
 - 3.9 Delete any textual references that refer to the author(s) and substitute with “*****”.

D. Submission Procedure

1. All contributors must complete a submission form on the JACET website, which can be accessed from the Submission Guidelines.
2. Contributors must follow the instructions below.
 - 2.1 Transform the Word file manuscript into PDF format, saving it under the author’s full name as in the following examples: suzukimasao or smithjohn. Submit the PDF file by clicking “choose file” on the submission form.
 - 2.2 If there are more than four authors, write all authors’ information on a separate file and send to the JACET office by e-mail: Author names, affiliation, membership number, postal code, address, telephone number, and e-mail address.
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