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English in a Globalized World: Exploring Lingua Franca Research and Pedagogy

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Contents

Practitioner Report

Examination of Beneficial and Enjoyable Pronunciation Activities

Symposium Paper

Person-in-Context Theory and Spirituality in the Japanese College EFL Contexts:
Implications from Theory, Survey, and ELT Practice

* The two papers are contributions from the plenary speakers of the JACET 56th
International Convention (2017, Tokyo) at Aoyama Gakuin University, Tokyo, Japan,
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Invited Papers

English as a Lingua Franca: Why is it so Controversial?

Barbara Seidlhofer

University of Vienna

Abstract

As networks of digital communication have vastly extended over recent years and changed all our lives, whether we like it or not, so the use of English has spread to become a global lingual franca as the means for this communication. This is not a matter of dispute. What has been, and still is, a matter of dispute, however, among sociolinguists and language teaching professionals alike is whether this phenomenon warrants serious study. The study of English as a lingua franca has given rise to a good deal of controversy, and objections have been raised both about its sociolinguistic validity in theory and about its pedagogic relevance in practice. In this paper I will consider these objections, and suggest reasons why reactions to the study of ELF communication have so often been dismissive, not to say hostile. I will then go on to argue that what makes ELF study so controversial is that it challenges received ideas which are no longer in accord with the changed realities of the contemporary globalised world, so that what makes it controversial is precisely what justifies it as a significant area of enquiry. An understanding of the nature of ELF communication necessarily calls into question taken-for-granted assumptions that have hitherto informed how English has been described and taught. These assumptions are deep-rooted, often sustained by tradition and vested interests, and they cannot simply be ignored. ELF study is controversial because it undermines a sense of security in established ideas and practices. So I will also argue that it is important to consider how traditional assumptions can be acknowledged and some continuity retained in ELF study, particularly when following its pedagogic implications through to practical implementation.

Introduction

The JACET 56th International Convention was dedicated to the theme "English in a Globalized World: Exploring Lingua Franca Research and Pedagogy". The convention abstract stated:

> As the extent and diversity of English use continue to rapidly grow, we need to reconsider ELF by situating it clearly against the backdrop of a globalized world with considerations for issues in applied linguistics and language teaching.

This is what this paper seeks to do. It is true of course that the widespread use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) is a fact that we cannot but acknowledge (for a succinct explanation see the introduction to Murata, 2016). It is generally recognized that as international contacts such as in business and academia and networks of digital communication have vastly extended over recent years and changed all our lives, whether we like it or not, the use of English has spread to become a global lingual franca as the predominant means for this communication.

So this is not a matter of dispute. However, what has been, and still is, a matter of dispute, particularly among sociolinguists and language teaching professionals, is how this phenomenon is to be understood, and whether it is justified to take it seriously in terms of research and pedagogical implications. The description of the theme of this convention states very clearly that JACET has decided this **is** indeed worth serious study. And it should be noted that in Japan ELF research and thinking about implications for education policy and

pedagogy have been particularly strong over recent years (see D'Angelo, 2018). This is evidenced, for instance, in the founding of the JACET ELF SIG and *JACET ELF SIG Journal*, the Waseda ELF Research Group and *Waseda Working Papers in ELF*, the CELFIL (Content and ELF Integrated Learning) project (Hino, 2015), the English as a lingua franca program at Tamagawa University (Oda, 2017), Japanese data in the Asian Corpus of English (ACE), edited volumes on ELF with international publishers (e.g. Murata, 2016), international research projects and individual PhD projects at numerous Japanese universities, and an impressive number of contributions from Japan in recent issues of the *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca.*

Nevertheless, ELF has remained a controversial matter. So it seems appropriate, to enquire into **why** this should be so, and to show how insights into what is so controversial about ELF might actually open our eyes to what is so significant about ELF as both an area of research and as an orientation to teaching English in today's globalized world.

Earlier Controversies

In 2003 I edited a book called 'Controversies in Applied Linguistics.' The first section of the book dealt with controversies concerning the global spread of English, with contributions from Randolph Quirk and Braj Kachru, Robert Phillipson and other scholars focusing on world Englishes. The most striking manifestation of the spread of English was not then represented, for the study of ELF was in its infancy at that time – the VOICE project was founded a year or two later. If I were to revise this 2003 book, ELF would figure very prominently. For not only has it developed as an extensive area of study, but it has also given rise to a great deal of controversy. The idea that ELF is a phenomenon that warrants serious study still has not, on the whole, found favour with sociolinguists. Researchers in the field of world Englishes have tended to see it as somehow undermining the integrity of their own work. But what has met with the most hostile reaction has been the suggestion that ELF might

have possible implications for practical pedagogy. There is something about the very idea of ELF that raises the hackles of those concerned with TESOL and at times provokes them into surprisingly intemperate rejection. Why, it is of interest to ask, should this be so? What is this something in ELF that is so unacceptable, so provocative, and so annoying? We might actually start with a controversy that I did include, very prominently, in my 2003 book, the classic exchange between Randolph Quirk and Braj Kachru published in the journal *English Today*. The starting point of this controversy was a lecture Professor Quirk delivered nearly 30 years ago, in Tokyo, at the JALT Conference 1988.

To summarize briefly, Quirk[1] forcefully argued in this 1988 lecture that any manifestations of English that do not belong to some community or other as a property, i.e. varieties of ENL or nativised world Englishes, are not worthy of attention because no matter how widespread and socioculturally significant they are as a means of communication, they are not institutionally established, and their speakers are only capable of what he calls 'performance varieties' full of errors that are in need of correction. This is because he maintains that communicative effectiveness depends on correctness in terms of the norms of native speakers and/or Standard English (which he conflates). So for Quirk, native speakers are at the centre of the universe when it comes to English—no matter who uses it, wherever in the world it is used, and for whatever purposes. And after deploring a tendency he has observed in various teaching contexts 'to permit learners to settle for lower standards than the best' (p. 9) he concludes his paper like this:

> Certainly, if I were a *foreign* student paying good money in Tokyo or Madrid to be taught English, I would feel cheated by such a tolerant pluralism. My goal would be to acquire *English* precisely because of its power *as an instrument of international communication*.

The "instrument of international communication" here is assumed to be Standard English, equivalent to native-speaker English, and this assumption of the legitimacy of native-speaker centrality marginalizes all other users of the language as 'foreign.' This attitude comes across particularly clearly in the reference Quirk makes here to "a foreign student paying good money in Tokyo or Madrid". For the "foreign student" is of course not a foreigner in his or her own country, but referred to as such by the native speaker of English talking about the teaching of 'his' language in a country that is foreign to him—a prime example of 'native-centrism' that is particularly striking if we remember that the paper is the written record of a lecture delivered in Tokyo, where very obviously it was the (English native) speaker that was the foreigner.

Well, you might say, this happened 30 years ago, and surely things have changed drastically because the world has changed due to globalization, and because consequently the role and use of English in the world have changed and the "instrument of international communication" that Quirk talks about has become an object of study by the name of ELF. But how much has really changed?

It seems to me that when looking at the reasons why ELF research and particularly the discussion of its (potential) implications for teaching are a matter of lively controversy, the very same issues are still at stake today as those I have highlighted in my short discussion of Quirk's 1988 lecture. So I propose to have a closer look at what is controversial about ELF today, particularly from a pedagogical perspective, i.e. which objections have been raised by teachers of English (or those speaking on their behalf, e.g. teacher educators/ 'trainers'). In doing so, I am not claiming to have any complete answers, let alone 'solutions' or 'recipes,' but my main objective is to provide some insights into what has been perceived as problematic about ELF and to argue, at the same time, that what makes it controversial is precisely what justifies it as a significant and necessary contemporary area of enquiry. The main questions I intend to address, then, are the following:

- How is ELF defined, how is it different from familiar concepts of 'native' and world Englishes varieties?

- What is controversial about the study of ELF communication and the pedagogic implications this might have? Here the focus will mainly be on the concepts *community*, *variety* and *competence*.

- How is the widespread use of ELF relevant to thinking about English language teaching?

World Englishes and ELF

Kachru's (e.g. 1992) familiar concentric circles of world Englishes represent a historical and geographical model of the global distribution of English, with English as a native language (ENL) in the Inner Circle, English as a second language (ESL) in the post-colonial Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle, where English is taught and learnt as a foreign language (EFL). Despite substantial criticism from various quarters (e.g. Bruthiaux, 2003; Pennycook, 2009; Yano, 2009) the model has remained very popular. However, it is not suited for representing how ELF is being used in today's world. In spite of this, in discussions of the plurality and diversity of Englishes in the world (and their implications for pedagogy) we often encounter the two phenomena mentioned in one breath, as if they were interchangeable: 'world Englishes and ELF'. However, there is an important difference between the two concepts that is often overlooked: Kachru's model focuses on the delimitation of distinct (national) varieties of English, especially in the Outer Circle, as a hallmark of their independence, so that discrete entities such as Singapore English or Nigerian English are recognized as varieties in their own right precisely because they can be shown to be their own endonormative Englishes, independent of the language of the former colonizers. In contrast, ELF cannot be identified with any of the Kachruvian circles, it does not constitute

a variety. It thus does not come about through delimitation and separation of communal identities but, on the contrary, through its function as a means of transcultural communication that cuts *across* all three circles. ELF interactions can take place in, and involve speakers from, any of the three circles.

Observing ELF Interactions

Most if not all of the recent descriptive work in English linguistics has been based on computer corpora, predominantly those capturing English as a native language (ENL) and reflecting the usage of so-called educated, predominantly British and American native speakers of the language. In addition, corpora have been compiled of an array of varieties of English mostly in postcolonial settings where English is an official additional language, and thus have made possible descriptive work in the field of World Englishes. The scope of these corpora is primarily defined by reference to particular speech communities residing in certain countries or regions. The assumption here is that the usage of the speakers belonging to these speech communities represents different varieties of the language—Canadian English, East African English, Hong Kong English, and so on (see ICE, the International Corpus of English, and e.g. Kortmann & Schneider, 2008).

All these corpora of various Englishes thus focus on manifestations of the language in particular territories. However, since the first decade of the current millennium, corpora have become available that capture ELF interactions, i.e. the essentially extraterritorial use of English for international/intercultural communication. ELF does not fit the essentially geographical concept of *varieties* tied to *speech communities* mentioned above, defined as it is as the common means of communication chosen by speakers from different linguacultural backgrounds. ELF is used among people that may be native or non-native speakers of English, but the demographic and sociolinguistic reality today is that the vast majority of ELF users have first languages other than English. This means that countless interactions

worldwide take place every day in which only a small minority of native speakers of English, if any, participate.

It is these interactions that can now be studied by making use of ELF corpora, and so empirical research on ELF usage has been gathering momentum (Seidlhofer, 2012). There are now three professionally compiled corpora that are explicitly designed for the investigation of ELF communication: VOICE, the Vienna–Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE, see e.g. Seidlhofer, 2011), ELFA & WrELFA, the Helsinki-based corpora of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (see e.g. Mauranen, 2012), and most recently ACE, the Asian Corpus of English (see e.g. Kirkpatrick, 2016).

While effective communication had hitherto been assumed to necessarily involve conformity to the standard code and to the conventions of native speaker usage, the descriptive findings that have been emerging from ELF corpora indicate that ELF speakers are clearly capable of communicating without conformity. Linguistically 'incompetent' though many of them may be by reference to the norms imposed by teaching and testing, they have a strategic capability for making effective communicative use of the linguistic resources at their disposal. For the pedagogy of English, this suggests that the objectives for language learning might be revised to focus attention not on the production of language forms that conform to the norms of native speaker competence and conventions of usage but on the communicative process itself, dissociated from such conformity, whereby learners can develop a capability for exploiting the potential of the language beyond (mere) linguistic proficiency (for further discussion, see Seidlhofer, 2011, chapter 8).

Controversies about ELF

So what is so controversial about ELF, what are the objections to it? I will proceed by taking note of critical, dismissive or even hostile reactions voiced by applied linguists,

textbook authors and language educators and published in various books and journals, and then go on to consider how these relate to actual research on ELF communication.

The objection that is most persistently raised has to do with the linguistic status of ELF. ELF, it is said, is not a variety of English because its usage is fluid and irregular and cannot be systematized. This being so, it is not to be taken seriously as something to be (socio)linguistically studied.

An anecdote illustrates this view very clearly. In the year 2000 at an English studies conference in Helsinki, I was invited to contribute to a symposium convened by a scholar at Oxford University and one of the key researchers of the British National Corpus. After my talk, in which I had announced my plan to compile the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English, VOICE, his immediate reaction was: "Why on earth do you want to build a corpus of interactions people carry out via ELF? That is not a language!"

I still remember how surprised I was to get this reaction, amidst a conference that was actually being held via ELF, with delegates from a large number of first language backgrounds, and an unexpected response from an experienced and leading figure of corpus linguistics - a new technology designed precisely for observing the rich reality of actual language use – so why did ELF not qualify? Because it did not qualify as an institutionalized variety. So this corpus linguist disqualified it for the same reasons that Quirk had put forward more than twenty years earlier.

This is the orthodox view, namely that linguistics and sociolinguistics work with notions of specific, well-defined varieties of particular languages, and these are what descriptive linguists describe and what gets encoded in dictionaries and grammars. This is so 'normal' that most people are not even aware of it. So it is that 'languages' appear as well-defined entities on school timetables, and we ask such questions as: "Do you speak German/English/Japanese?" - as if you either had or had not acquired them. The notion of 'a language' or 'a variety' with well-defined formal characteristics is a convenient and

comfortable one, given authority by linguistic and sociolinguistic description, and representing a way for speakers to mark their identity as members of a community.

And of course it is the case that particular languages and varieties are conventionally always perceived to be firmly based in specific communities that 'own' them, and use them for the expression of their communal identity. The idea of a speech community as the setting for language use and language development is well entrenched – both in folk ideas and sociolinguistics, and also experientially through our primary socialisation. It seems normal to us that a certain speech community, e.g. the one we grow up in, is a "local unit" (Hymes 1962, see below) that speaks 'its variety', and that (only) the members of this group are the legitimate speakers of this variety.

There is strong sense that the 'indigenous' members of a particular speech community, the native speakers, are the only really legitimate speakers of a language. They serve as basis for linguistic theorizing, as informants for linguistic description and as authorities for language teaching.

And of course in the conventional view of language teaching, you need a model based on a particular variety, making reference to a particular speech community (with its particular culture included in the package), that can serve as the target. And the obvious model is one that has been fully and reliably described on linguistic authority.

So models for teaching have been traditionally based on those varieties of English that are associated with native-speaking communities. So teachers are asked: "Do you teach British or American English?" With reference to teaching, it is 'Standard English' that is normally understood as the taken-for-granted reference entity, codified in reference works and teaching materials. This represents the language in a state of suspended animation, kept apparently stable so that the codified forms can be approximated to, and emulated, by learners. Their success is then measured to the extent that they conform to this idealised

model. The assumption is that their ability to communicate in 'the' language depends on such conformity. But how valid is this assumption?

In the decade between 2000 and 2010, empirical research into how speakers from different first-language backgrounds use English as a lingua franca as their chosen means of communication gained momentum, and this research has demonstrated that communicative effectiveness clearly does not depend on conforming to correctness or the norms of usage of native speakers. But this poses a problem for teacher educators and writers of textbooks and reference works who have hitherto assumed that the only English that is pedagogically valid is one that can be codified as an established variety. Since ELF is not a variety, it can have no such validity. This is the view expressed by Michael Swan, author of the bestselling *Practical English Usage* published by Oxford University Press:

> It is … hard to see how ELF can be considered a language (or a set of language varieties) in its own right. … NNS English has nothing like the relative homogeneity found in the Englishes of NS communities; nor can one identify substantial NNS subgroups whose English is homogeneous in this way. For ELF to have a linguistic (as opposed to sociolinguistic) identity, it must surely exhibit its own distinctive and substantial system of linguistic conventions, even if these are more flexible and diffuse than those of a mother-tongue variety. (Swan, 2012, p. 385f)

It stands to reason that if teaching is seen to require a well-defined target model in the shape of (the forms of) a particular variety, and (as we have seen above) ELF is found wanting in that it is not a variety, this leads to the objection that "ELF cannot be taught". Another objection to ELF is the reverse of this. It is raised by those who mistakenly suppose that ELF **is** a variety. And the point made here is that it is a deficient version of the language that should be avoided because it encourages incompetence and in effect short-changes

learners by selling them defective linguistic goods. These are some representative examples of this objection:

… both teachers and students … would be obliged to embrace and foster a variety of English which up to now they have learnt to treat as inferior and by doing so risk undermining their academic self-image and limiting their professional aspirations."
(Sowden, 2012, p. 92)

Any attempt to define ELF as an entity distinct from native-speaker norms is doomed from the outset. If native speakers are no longer to be the model, who is? Kofi Annan? Angela Merkel? You non-native speaker teachers out there? And, if so, then WHICH of you? Or is the Nigerian security guy at my university who almost none of my students ever seem to be able to decipher? Or is it the Somali cab driver I had drive me to the airport last week, who spoke broken pidginised English?
(Hugh Dellar's Blog: https://hughdellar.wordpress.com/category/language-and-culture-elf/page/2/)

It may be surprising to encounter such a vitriolic public outburst by a teacher and teacher trainer at the University of Westminster, London. However, if we consult the currently most powerful language education policy document, the all-pervasive Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), we find statements in it that actually seem quite compatible with Dellar's tirade, such as this extract from the Illustrative Scale for B2 *Conversation:*

Can sustain relationships with **native speakers** without **unintentionally amusing** or **irritating them** or requiring them to behave other than they would with a native speaker. (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 76, emphasis added)

This fixation on native-speaker competence in the CEFR seems out of place, especially when it comes to the global role of English in the 21st century, an era of globalization and heightened mobility. On the other hand, it is precisely the important role that English has all over the world that forms the basis of the huge so-called 'international' English language teaching and testing industry dominated by British and U.S. American publishers. Therefore, another reason for resisting the overdue acknowledgement of the reality of ELF is the vested interests described by a senior figure in English language teaching (ELT):

To stand any chance of widespread adoption as a teaching norm, ELF needs to be accepted in educational circles, particularly in publishing and in test design. There is little sign that this will happen any time soon, and for very compelling practical and financial reasons. Neither ELT publishers nor examination boards can see any profit in killing the **goose that lays the golden eggs**, namely a standard variety of English, in favour of installing a fledgling ugly duckling with dubious public support among learners, teachers or sponsors. (Maley, 2009, p. 194, emphasis added)

It is easy to see that the questioning of ideas that have been, after all, foundational in language teaching / ELT and have long represented the solid basis for curricula, reference works, textbooks and tests can be unsettling if one has been operating with these certainties. So one can assume that most of the objections we have seen arise from a genuine concern about coping with recent current developments in the global role of English and in the (socio)linguistic research that investigates this, and so need to be taken seriously. Things have

after all been changing at a pace that is difficult to keep up with. But the social conditions and relationships between language and society out of which the notions of community and variety developed have undergone radical change in recent decades. They are themselves, therefore, in need of quite radical reconsideration.

Objections Reconsidered

So what can we say in summary so far? First of all, it is true that ELF is not a variety: it has no clearly defined, local and 'stable' community of users, **no speech community** in the conventional sense as described by Dell Hymes:

"a **local** unit, characterized for its members by **common locality** and **primary interaction**" (Hymes, 1962, p. 30, emphasis added)

ELF users come from a great variety of primary communities and communicate across a wide and indeterminate network of interaction. It thus follows that ELF interactions take correspondingly **variable linguistic forms**.

Importantly, what this also entails is that there can be no (formally defined) 'competence in ELF' in the same way as there is competence in an ENL or a world Englishes variety.

Again in consequence, there is no entity 'ELF' as such that can be taught: ELF is not **formally** defined but **functionally**, as "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice" (Seidlhofer, 2011, p. 7).

Taking these facts into account, how are we to react to the objections raised and presented above? Obviously, they would only hold if one were to accept that:

- language in use must always take the form of **varieties**

- that it must always be associated with particular **speech communities**

- that therefore what cannot be systematized by reference to established concepts is to be disregarded.

But as already been mentioned, we need to ask whether, or to what extent, these concepts of variety and community are (still) valid, particularly in the case of the global language English. Over recent years, the need for language professionals to face up to the facts of globalization has become increasingly evident: the need to "productively recast hotly debated sociolinguistic issues", and particularly "the hottest possible one: English in the world" (Blommaert, 2010, p. 182). While Blommaert's *The Sociolinguistics of Globalization* does not directly engage with ELF research and its pedagogical implications, its main theme is eminently relevant to our concerns here:

I believe that globalization forces us – whether we like it or not – to an *aggiornamento* [a bringing up to date] of our theoretical and methodological toolkit. Much as modernism defined most of the current widespread tools of our trade, the transition towards a different kind of social system forces us to redefine them. Such an exercise, however iconoclastic it may seem at first, cannot be avoided or postponed. (Blommaert, 2010, p. xiii)

In this sense, recognising the reality of ELF is indeed to recognise the reality of contemporary life, and to accept that traditional concepts require rethinking. With reference to the notion of speech community mentioned above, we need to find more appropriate alternatives that do not depend on "common locality and primary interaction" (Hymes, ibid.). Many communities are actually virtual communities, and those whose members do

communicate face-to-face may better be characterized as Communities of Practice (Seidlhofer, 2007; Wenger, 1998) or Transient International Groups (TIGs) (Pitzl, 2018). Instead of thinking of distinct language varieties, contemporary communication may better be described as engaging in translanguaging (García & Li Wei, 2014) via mobile resources (Blommaert, 2010) in a continuous process of adaptive variation (Widdowson, 2015).

For these reasons, the objections to ELF highlighted above actually serve as useful indicators as to precisely what is so significant about it – in grappling with the new reality of English in the world, they challenge us to think again about the nature of language and communication.

ELF and ELT

How can one take account of this new reality in the teaching of English? Have challenges to conventional concepts in sociolinguistics led us to also challenge conventional ideas about pedagogy? As we have seen above, the overarching, and quite defensive, question among ELT practitioners seems to be, "How do you teach something so unsystematic and elusive as ELF?" It seems that while it may have generally been accepted in these quarters that ELF should prompt sociolinguistic re-thinking, not many are happy to accept that ELF should prompt pedagogic re-thinking. The reasons given, and eloquently articulated in the extract from Swan (2012) quoted earlier, are that teaching requires something stable and systematic, a model to emulate, as presented in works of reference, etc. The objection, then, is that ELF use is so various and indeterminate that 'ELF' cannot be taught as a formal model. And yes, if one thinks of teaching as getting learners to conform to 'NS competence' – as prescribed in textbooks, reference works, curricula, tests, then this objection would be valid. But while teaching towards the (elusive) goal of 'NS competence' may seem realistic for the **teacher**, for the **learner** it is unrealistic: although this is what is **taught** it is usually not what is **learnt**.

Why should this be so? In his direct response to Swan's (2012) concerns, Widdowson explains:

One can understand why M[ichael] S[wan] spends so much time arguing that ELF is not a language or a variety that can be codified as a model, for in the conventional view of language teaching that he espouses, if it cannot provide a model for learners to conform to, then it can have little if any pedagogic significance. And if one accepts this view, he is absolutely right. But the essential point is that ELF research with its association of learning and use suggests a radical alternative to this conservative way of thinking. What this research shows is **how using and learning are dynamically inter-related**. (Widdowson, 2013, p. 192, emphasis added)

Using and Learning Inter-related

The descriptions of ELF interactions that are now available show us what ELF users (can) really do with the language they have learnt, and they reveal that many of the formal properties of ENL are not necessary for communication. Since most ELF speakers are (former) learners of English as a foreign language, such descriptions indicate what learners actually achieve as an adaptive communicative capability, not what they are expected to perform in their emulation of native-speaker linguistic competence – and what they very rarely do achieve as an outcome of years of learning, anyway. Therefore, observed characteristics of ELF usage can give us important pointers to how priorities might be shifted in setting learning objectives. In particular, they could indicate certain communication processes and strategies that might be focused on as having greater saliency or potential for use, especially in international contexts – and they can also help us realize that many ENL linguistic features that we tend to spend a great deal of time and effort on are surplus to communicative requirement (cf. Seidlhofer, 2011, chapter 8; Widdowson, 2016).

What we see in ELF is the communicative process whereby English and other linguistic resources are effectively used to negotiate meanings and human relationships - a communicative process crucial to the complex interactions between communities and individuals in the current globalized world. One can be dismissive of all this as pedagogically irrelevant:

> English as a lingua franca … is the description of the phenomenon that people are making use of their imperfect L2 repertoire to communicate more or less effectively in international and intercultural contexts. This is interesting and revealing but does not necessarily have implications for teaching. (Kuo, 2006, p. 217)

But it is surely more reasonable to suppose that how people actually use English in the real world should have some bearing on how learners are encouraged to learn it, and should lead teachers to give some critical thought to how far established ideas remain tenable.

Reflecting about old and new concepts in ELT pedagogy, they might conclude that the traditional objective for learning as the acquisition of **linguistic competence** in ENL / Standard English may need to be revised and that an ELF perspective suggests that a more realistic objective for learning is the development of a **communicative capability (**Widdowson, 2016) for exploiting linguistic resources, with the pedagogic focus shifting from formal correctness to functional appropriateness.

I am, of course, not suggesting that actual teaching priorities and procedures for their implementation will, or can, radically change overnight. But as reflective practitioners teachers of English can reflect on exploring the following possibilities:

- Emphasising communicative appropriateness in learner behaviour rather than conformity to correctness as a matter of principle.

- Giving differential emphasis to formal features of English by reference to their communicative value.

- Exploiting the learners' own language experience by translation and code mixing activities, bearing in mind that they are already communicatively capable in their own language(s) and can therefore extend this capability by drawing on English as a resource to extend their communicative repertoire.

- Prioritizing aspects known to be important for international intelligibility.

- Giving more time to communication strategies, proactive listening and accommodation skills and less to getting the linguistic forms right.

- In general, thinking of language learners as language users and allowing them to exercise their communicative capability without cramping them into conformity.

- Making teaching reactive to learning and not the other way round.

Conclusion

This paper has suggested that what is **objected to** in ELF points us precisely to what is so **significant** about it – in recognising it as the new reality of English in the world, it prompts us to think again about the nature of language and communication and therefore also about objectives in ELT. Thinking through issues of 'community', 'variety' and 'competence' and how they relate to ELF constitutes a complex but necessary challenge. Rather than denial, what we need, as English language professionals, is awareness of ongoing changes due to globalization, to be able to confront them in a pro-active way and develop our thinking so that is more in key with the contemporary world.

Note

[1] I wish to emphasize that although I disagree with Randolph Quirk's views expressed

in his 1990 paper, I do so not in any spirit of disrespect, and I fully acknowledge his

unique life-long scholarly contribution to the study of English.

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Lingua Francas and World Orders:
The Place of English in a Globalized World

Phyllis Ghim-Lian Chew

Nanyang Technological University

Abstract

This paper offers an alternative paradigm in understanding and appreciating English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) in the wake of globalization and its accompanying shifting priorities in many dimensions of modem life, such as politics, economics, world orders, and last but not least, the recent emergence of English as the dominant lingua franca in the world. A model is created which argues that history is a theatre for the realization of lingua francas, be it tribal, city, national or global. The model shows the present as derived from the past and as a bearer of future possibilities. ELFs which arrive on the scene later are laid layer by layer on earlier ones. The model shows how languages evolve either vertically through the forces of evolution or horizontally through social contact. This paper begins with some theoretical debates in World Englishes (WEs) and includes, as a means of fleshing out the model, a sociolinguistic case study.

Keywords: English, lingua francas, world orders, complexity, globalization

Introduction

Kachru's (1985) "expanding circles" model has greatly contributed to our understanding on the sociolinguistics of the global spread of English and the existence of dynamic varieties of World Englishes (WEs). However, it has attracted criticisms pertaining to its relevance in an increasingly globalized world where identities are no longer pre-given

or tied to nationalist policies (Pennycook 2003), where "inner circles" of Englishes can no longer be thought of as the "original" owners (Bruthiaux (2003); and where the referential fuzziness within "ESL" and "EFL" hinders its practicality as an effective model (Nayar, 1997). Seidlhofer (2001) laments that the model is unable to inform and explain the bulk of communication between increasingly large numbers of non-native speakers in the world today.

While critics have been handy with the broom, an alternative model capable of matching important synchronic and diachronic developments have yet to emerge. For example, while globalization is intimately involved with the spread of WEs and ELF, one problem is that it is often discussed as if it were a *recent* phenomenon relating primarily to world financial markets and technological advances in information and travel (Giddens 1999, p. 10). To be fair, Mignolo (2000) has a longer perspective – tracing it back to the 16th century with the beginning of transatlantic exploration and the consolidation of Western hegemony (p. 236). However, both Giddens and Mignolo have typically viewed time within a history of European and American imperialism and thereby run the danger of not acknowledging the diversity and locations of globalization, such as the roles played by Arabic, Chinese, Russian and Japanese empires (cf. Rodrik, 2007). I believe that WEs and ELF is best studied under the wider umbrella of evolving lingua francas (LFs) and World Orders (WOs) and that the first step towards understanding linguistic phenomenon in a wider frame is to free ourselves from our own historical time, national-regional boundaries, and cultural perspectives. We should focus instead on dialectal, proficiency and functional ranges based on a sociolinguistic description of context and informed by cross-disciplinary discourses such as socio-politics and anthropology.

Rather than positioning WEs through a flat Kachruvian and static time frame, we should be conscious that language, like all things, is never static despite the tendency by the Greeks to view it as such. For Aristotle, movement and change apply only to the attributes,

and never to the substance of objects; change being secondary rather than primary. In contrast, in the Chinese worldview, change is primary, not secondary; and all things either make progress or lose ground and everything moves forward or backward. In addition, while the Western worldview is dualistic, dividing the world into two opposing groups such as "matter and form" and "reality and reason", the Chinese worldview, is a circular one. The Biography of Feng Yi, written in the East Han Dynasty narrates: "What is lost at sunrise can be regained at sunset" (cited in Zuo, 2001, p. 4). When a language is lost, that loss can be made up in other ways as time rotates. Hence, while the West emphasizes the synchronic opposition between loss and gain, the Chinese worldview combines the two through a diachronic perspective and encloses the opposition. In other words, phenomena such as language variation-loss-shift- revival-maintenance, etc. are intricately connected and form part of the wider circle of language change, language loss and language gain.

Language change may be viewed as a result of lexical diffusion (Labov, 1994), a phenomena whereby individuals tend to homogenize their linguistic behaviour with respect to similar parts of the lexicon. This diffusion among related words occurs because of the tendency of the brain to be efficient – that is, to use rules as much as possible in producing language.

To study WOs, a longitudinal stand and diachronic perspective will enable us to "stand back" and survey language changes. There are advantages of bringing together and finding linguistic patterns across world orders, cultures, classes and races, which are often thought to be incompatible. A study of analogical linguistic patterns across the globe is advantageous, not just to understand the linguistic practices of the past but also that of the present and the future. The discovery of patterns can raise questions, build links and generate predictions. Such a perspective takes into account cultural, ideological, and political factors as important agents of change. In other words, the universal rhythms of the rise and decline of LFs are often due to the particular language's response to meeting new

sets of challenges in liminal or transitional periods when one WO replaces another.

Lingua Francas and World Orders: An Alternative Model

One effect of lexical diffusion is the evening out of irregularities and extremities. Indeed, heterogeneity is evened out historically through the complexity principle, leading to a kind of integration and bonding of diverse lingua-cultures, resulting in a "unity amidst diversity". In line with the science of complexity and quantum physics, language change is seen as moving "from chaos to order": in the direction of holistic integration of more and more diverse elements (Chew, 2013). Languages which arrive on the scene later are laid layer by layer on earlier ones. Cavelli-Sforza (1994) has argued that languages evolve either vertically through the forces of evolution or horizontally through social contact. In Figure 1, social change is depicted as a spiral moving relentlessly onwards enclosing broader levels as time progresses. To understand this better, we may divide this momentum into broad historical periods, which within themselves contain various sub-periods. The analogy of a telescope may be helpful here. From the telescopic small end, one can peer into bigger and bigger concentric circles – such as looking into a future time; and from the telescopic large end, one looks into smaller and smaller circles – such as looking backwards into time.
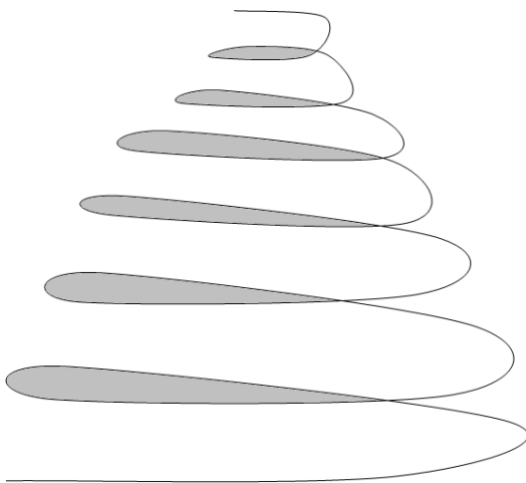
Figure 1. A model of evolving world orders and their respective periods of luminalities (shaded areas show liminality)
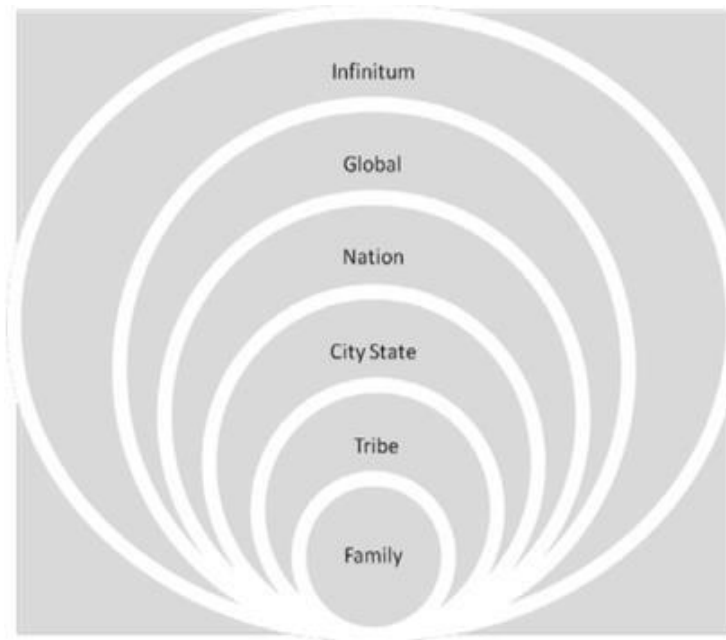
Figure 2. A model of evolving world orders and their respective periods of liminalities (indicated in the white bands)

Historical developments begin with the birth of the family, the advent of tribal society, the birth of city-states and eventually the nation and global state. Accompanying this evolving development of WOs, are their associated emergence of dominant LFs, such as Greek during the WO of city states, or Arabic during the WO of nation states -- LFs that will enable peoples in each WOs to retain group variation in language, religio- socio-political culture and yet be able to communicate with diverse peoples speaking diverse languages.

We will begin with the world order of the family. As migrating families move geographically apart due to increasing population and land pressures, the once familial language will inevitably diverge into various sub-languages. Hence, all human varieties of language can be traced backwards or "vertically" to some proto languages. While this is one form of linguistic stratification along the vertical genealogical axis, there is another along the

"horizontal" or geographical axis. An existing language is thus a compromise among several forms of speech from these vertical and horizontal dimensions. Of course, the further back the "borrowing" or influence takes place, the more difficult it is to separate the horizontal (geographical) results from the vertical (evolutionary) ones.

With time, thousands of families are spread over a wider area. In the original family, it was very simple: everyone has their own idiolect but there might be discerned a preferred idiolect, a "proto-LF" -- belonging perhaps to the patriarch or the most articulate member of the group which most aspired to emulate (Deutscher, 2005). When distances were large, the passage of time ensured that the language evolved to suit the specific needs of that particular family, soon making this proto-LF unintelligible to other families around them, whose own languages have also evolved around their contextual-environmental needs. Large families grow to become tribes or clans, which are organized largely on the basis of kinship and lineage usually sharing a common culture and language. Such groupings allow a finer division of labour and protection, the fruits of which are advantageous to all. Different tribes need an LF to communicate between themselves over issues such as agricultural, hunting and fishing rights. Usually the tribe which is the most powerful will have its language used as the LF. For example, the tribes in Arabia before the coming of Islam in the 8th Century, were a mixture of nomads, cultivators and traders grouped by a tightly knit system. There were constant quarrels between the tribes and blood feuds were endemic particularly over scarce land and resources. Eventually, the intense competition among them led them to the logical conclusion that one "super-tribe" should predominate so that their diverse competitive energies would be better used to the advantage of all (cf. Manning, 2005).

"Super tribes" founded the early city-states, which are usually part of larger areas, such as those of ancient Greece, namely, Athens, Sparta and Corinth. For example, King Menes (2300 BC), united tribal settlements in both the upper and lower Nile regions and understandably, his tribal language became the LF of the region since it was best able to

sponsor education, military service, trade and a common religion – in short, leading to the integration of the various tribes of Egypt. As for the languages of the subjugated tribe(s) they would be ranked according to the tribe's socio-political prowess. The amount of power one tribe has over the other tribes within a city-state would often be manifested by the mechanisms and means by which linguistic forms are sanctioned and what language(s) are deemed to be legitimate in varying settings. In time, some tribal languages would be lost as their once fierce loyalties become gradually assimilated under the city-state.

Always, with each WO, there are three operational layers, the past, present and future, each of which is associated with a LF (see Figure 3). In other words, if one was the "average" Ahmed living in a city in a time when the WO was hat of the city state, one would most likely be trilingual: using the tribal mother tongue with family, the tribal LF for use within the tribe, and the more "prestigious" LF to communicate with the elites of the city state. If one were a slave from a subjugated tribe, one would likely be speaking the "less valued" tribal tongue.

Yet, if one were the leader of the slaves and the intermediary between the ruler and the ruled, one is likely to attempt to speak the LF of the city-state. In addition, there are others who might have to speak more than three languages especially if they had migrated from another unrelated city-state; and yet others who will only speak one language because the LF of the time coincided with their mother tongue as well as their tribal and city tongue. The "power" of the super-tribe in charge of the city-state, corresponds directly to the power of its language, which is the LF of all the subjugated tribes under its purview.
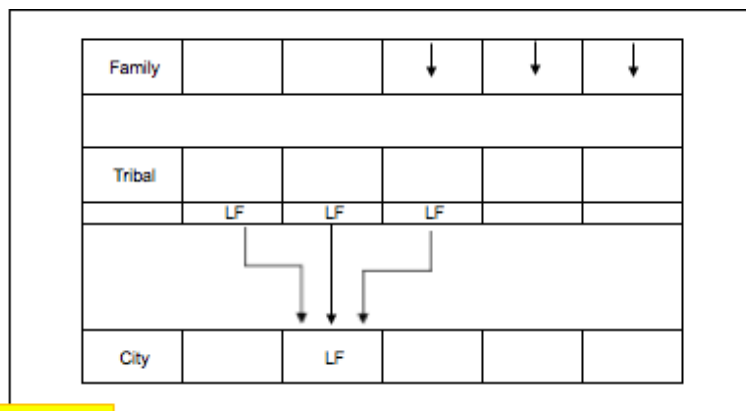
Figure 3. Language change: A tribe to city state scenario.

As city-states flourished, they also became increasingly competitive, e.g. the earliest cultivations in Egypt and Mesopotamia consisted of small city-states, which were often in armed conflict with one another. History repeats itself and once again, for a more permanent solution to end the perpetual warfare, a "super" city state will emerge to unite all the contending cities to form a "nation" held together this time not so much by culture and/or race but by solidarity to some common principle. For example, the Arab group of city-states was united by the Arabic language to form the Arab nation. We know that the Assyrians, Copts, Syrians, Chaldeans and Egyptians are not Arabs, but as they all began to study the LF (Arabic), it became their "national" identity. Similarly, although there are many religious groups in Syria such as Orthodox, Mussulman, the Dorzi, Nestorians, who consider themselves Arabs as they all speak Arabic, in reality some of them are Greeks and Jews (cf. Hanson, 2000).

In the WO of the nation state, we see once again, the citizenry of previous city-states, held together under the banner of nationhood, attempting to speak the LF of the nation with varying accents. Once again, there will be migrants from more remote areas of the "nation," who are likely only to speak in the LF of the previous city-state world order, hence suffering a temporary loss of symbolic capital until the "national" LF is mastered. In emergent world

orders, be it the time of the city-state or the nation-state, new varieties of the LF are often birthed when groups of people speaking different languages are in constant contact. At such times, there may come into existence a pidgin, which may later become elaborate and grow into a language in its own right. In the liminal periods between world orders, language change are evident: while some languages are birthed, others gradually disappear. Yet others, as noted in Aithison (1992), "commit suicide," such as when the speakers of the old language continue speaking it but gradually import forms and constructions from the dominant LF, until the old one is no longer identifiable as a separate language.

In every emerging world order, the greatest undertaking for the individual is to make himself understood - and the "linguistic solution" (Godenzzi, 2006) is often the mastery of the LF, so as to survive the structural changes of the new WO that the individual finds himself. In a nation state scenario, the LF is usually the one belonging to the most powerful city-state that has managed to coerce the others into its fold just as the LF of a tribal state is usually the belonging to the super-tribe which had subjugated all the states under its jurisdiction. The reasons for learning the LF are instrumental -- that is, a concern for efficiency, relevance and survival in the new economy.

In the nation state scenario, the LF will find itself in the forefront of change. Hence, LFs are never stable, standardized varieties nor politically neutral. It is often changed by speakers bringing a wider repertoire of both linguistic and non-linguistic experiences from other linguistic and cultural backgrounds. They are more prone to undergo linguistic simplification and reduction; hence, pidginized and creolized forms may appear as more and more diverse people gravitate to learn it. Its users are characterized by phonetic, morpho- syntactic, lexical and discursive diversity.

With time, and as more and more nation states come into existence, familiar problems once again begin to surface, as those faced by tribes and city states in the historical past. In 19th century Europe, for example, the worst clashes came when people of different

languages and cultures were living together. The conflict and quarrels between nations became so frequent that two World Wars resulted when bands of nations aligned themselves ideologically on either side in an effort at supremacy. This state of perpetual unrest and extreme competitiveness motivated leaders to look for a "new world order" that would channel national energies in a fairer and less destructive way - hence the birth of the "super" nation state, i.e. the global state. A familiar realization begins to surface – that is, that the integration of nation states under one global umbrella would be mutually beneficial since it would not only decrease military expenditure and destructive wars but also allow environmental preservation for the common good. Hence, once again, the liminal period began to see the familiar discussion as to which language belonging to which super-nation will emerge as the global LF.

While history may march on towards increasing complexity and integration of larger and larger diverse groups of people, it should be noted that it is possible to traverse backwards on the spiral -- temporarily at least. For example, nationhood can become excessive involving contempt, hatred and violence against peoples of other cultures and this would deter them coming together as a global state. Another example is that while the masses are destined to move with the flow of evolving WOs, there will always be groups of people at each evolving bands, who will prefer to stay in their existing WO. Hence, looking backwards into our spiral model, we may discern groups which are living under previous world orders either out of necessity, choice or accident. For example, while the 18th and 19th century saw the rise of nations, there were still groups which continued to live in tribal orders. Today, as nations begin to globalize, there will be some who prefer to retreat through political and/or geographic seclusion.

The Liminal Periods

Between each world order, such as the transition from tribes to city-states or city to

nation states, are the liminal periods, characterized by ambiguity and interdeterminacy. It is a period of transition where one's sense of identity dissolves to some extent, bringing about disorientation. Liminal periods are also periods of greatest contacts when family, commercial, cultural and other types of exchanges occur between populations that speak different languages. Such periods promote bilingualism and/or the emergence of mixed modalities and of the inevitable growth of LFs.

Each luminal period will see a new LF rising to the fore in relation to others, e.g. in 2000 BC, Akkadian replaced Sumarian. It is also a familiar phenomenon for one language to serve as lingua franca or language of special function (religious, commercial) over a large area of many languages as Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Arabic and French has done. Also, the beginning of each luminal period will see several contenders for LF status. For example, in the early 20th century, Spanish, Russian, Chinese, French, German were all contenders for global LFs.

Today, we live in one such frontier and at this historical bar, we are typically experiencing two concurrent, intensifying and opposing processes – globalization and localization. There are two opposing macro-cultural orientations – one perceiving linguistic globalization as an evil which runs counter to the cultural interests of local, indigenous or minority language groups (cf. Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000); while the other perceiving linguistic globalization as pragmatically advantageous in the nurturing of synergy and cooperativeness (cf. Brutt-Griffler, 2002).

Different emotions are evident in the pre- and post-liminal periods. At the pre-liminal period, people are totally against new LFs as they are suddenly confronted by social, economic and political changes. Difficult questions come to the fore such as: "Is it better to belong to one nation among competing nations or to a united world?" and "In which conditions do we have the greater opportunity for our own personal development?" come to the fore. By the post-liminal period, however, one LF will have clearly emerged as the

"victor" and this in turn attracts more people to learn it. Success breeds success especially as communication hinges on working more and more across existing borders.

Caveats

At this juncture, a caveat must be added to the discourse of WOs and LFs. While it is possible to extrapolate linguistic patterns on the basis of new system sciences, this does not mean that the extrapolation has the force of necessity in the real world. This is because the evolutionary logic exhibited in history is the same as the logic in the sphere of nature, which has more to do with probability and not necessity. Therefore, although a global state is the next world order, it is not guaranteed.

Indeed, the short term may be beset by a reversal of our spiral. Deviations and fluctuations of all sorts are not unexpected as the historical process always manifests a high degree of randomness and chance in its unfolding (Lazlo, 1989). If short term reversals and fluctuations that change our way here include nuclear or environmental catastrophes, the long-term future would also be affected. For example, if there is such a disaster, this would lead to a great reduction in human population and may trigger a dark age of isolated warring communities. If the degradation is not permanent, the surviving communities would eventually, after some time, become prosperous and grow populous again and would once again, after the temporary setback, set out towards the path of globalism through multiple processes of differentiation and integration.

But if there were permanent damages to vital processes in the life-sustaining environment, and the globe becomes uninhabitable or habitable only to low population density, this will result in the disappearance of our spiraling model. However, this is by no way an anomaly in evolution since 99% of all the species that had one time inhabited this planet have now become extinct; and a large proportion of the culturally specific human groups and their respective languages that arose in the history of humanity have likewise

vanished. Only the geographic time scale of the die-out would be new.

Case Study: Fujian, Peoples' Republic of China (PRC)

The PRC has been chosen to exemplify our study of LFs and WOs, as it can be said to be a microcosm of the world, being a multicultural, multi-religious and multilingual nation. Countless little traditions e.g. folklore, cuisine, festivals, clothing, etc. exist under the umbrella of a "great tradition". Since antiquity, different regional "dialects" have coexisted with different LFs – which are varieties of Chinese used by dominant groups in various capitals, such as Beijing, Nanjing or Xian. For example, when the classics *Shu jing (*the book of history) was written, it was done in 'yayan' (elegant speech), the LF used during the Western Zhou (1100-771 BC). In the Southern Song dynasty (1127-1279 AD) the vernacular which became the LF was based on the dialect of Jinling (today's Nanjing), When Dadu (today's Beijing) was designated as the capital by the Yuan emperor, the LF gradually shifted to Northern Mandarin. When these strong centralized regimes faltered and disintegrated every few centuries, China would be carved into contending states and its linguistic priorities reshuffled. China's linguistic history is therefore the story of a congeries of Chinese languages; some forgotten while others continue to command great political and cultural significance.

There are 22 centrally governed provinces in China out of a total of 33, and it is ironic that there are more scholarly data on the languages of the smaller subgroups of Papua New Guinea than on the languages spoken in each of these provinces. I have decided to do a linguistic survey of Fujian province not least because there is a dearth of research in this area or the fact that its linguistic fortunes is prototypical of other Chinese provinces; but also because it is the author's ancestral home where she has had opportunities for ethnographic research. Fujian borders Zhejiang to the north, Jiangxi to the west and Guangdong to the south, and Taiwan to the east, and has a population of 38 million.[1] Broadly, all the

multifarious languages of Fujian can be put under the category of *Min*, one of the many

Southern Chinese languages. *Min* can then be further subdivided into 7 dialects - some of

which are mutually unintelligible such as that of *Minbei* (the north, e.g. Fuzhou) and *Minnan*

(the south, e.g. Hokkien). *Minnan* will be our focus here and it can be further divided into

sub-languages of the different regions in Fujian itself, some of which are not mutually

intelligible (See Figures 4 & 5). Due to their considerable dialectal variation, the

classification of these sub-languages of Minnan has confounded linguists so this preliminary

analysis will be necessarily superficial and occasionally anecdotal. The Chinese are also

averse to discussing "languages" and prefer to use *fanyan* (dialects) to refer to Chinese

multilingualism, despite the existence of mutual unintelligibility. I will show that the Fujian

topography affords a rich and layered sociolinguistic study of languages (and LFs) in a

backdrop of successive periods of language attrition, preservation and maintenance.
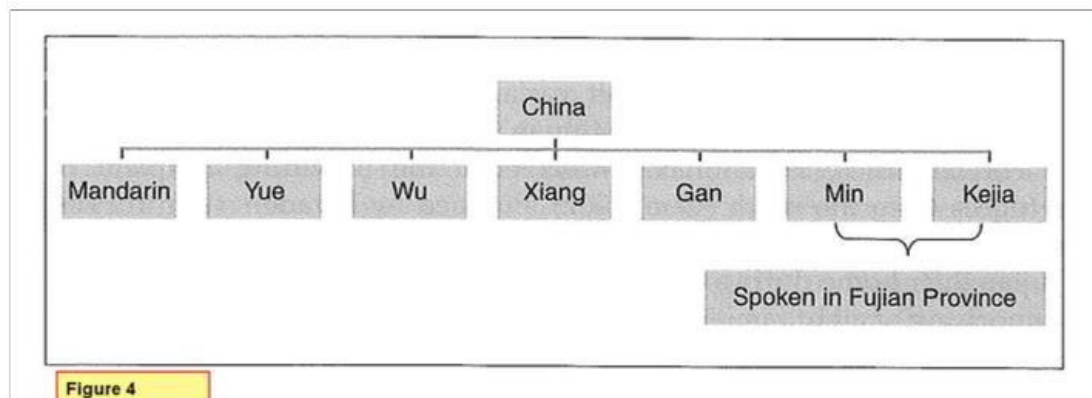
Figure 4. The languages of China (Only Min and Kejia are spoken in Fujian).
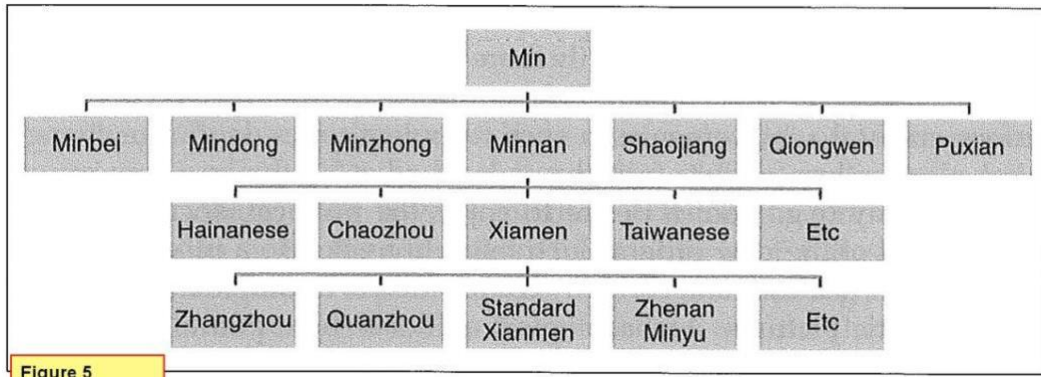
Figure 5. The Minnan language tree, many of which are mutually unintelligible.

The first peoples in Fujian were families of Austronesians living along the *Min* River which subsequently evolved into tribes or clans (Ma, 2002). These tribes were relatively isolated from China proper even when it was first united under its first Emperor, Qin, in 221 BC. In time, they were forcefully held together by powerful tribal kings who founded city-states in Fujian, such as, Fuzhou, Nanping and Quanzhou (Xu, 1992) by uniting individual tribes. Their little city kingdoms shattered during the Han dynasty when huge forces were sent by sea in 11 BC to bring Fujian's little kingdoms under that of China proper. Nevertheless, as distances were vast, these city-states were left very much to themselves and behaved more like semi-independent tributary states with their own languages and cultures. Not surprisingly, it took quite some time before spoken *Min* became Sinicized because the way plurality is shown in current *Minnan* pronouns reflect influences from local aboriginal languages such as *Tai* and *Miao*, which like the *Min* languages, use separate forms for singular and plural pronouns. Other variants of ancient Chinese non-Han sounds have also been found in *Minnan* (Zhou, 2006).

For centuries, Fujian has always been the unwitting recipient of refugees from the north. Pursued by invaders from further north, the Wu people from the vicinity of present day Shanghai made Fujian their home during the Jin dynasty (265-42 AD). These immigrants comprising of eight families settled in Fujian, intermarried with the local people

and adopted/modified their languages to their liking. Another large scale migration happened in 317-22 CE when a huge population from the north followed en masse the court of Ji Yuandi to Nanjing and Zhongjian. Such mass migrations meant that *Minnan* was no longer calmly evolving vertically from parent to offspring but also horizontally through contact with external forces (Mountain *et al*, 1992). As the northern migrants were always militarily more powerful, many features of their language were absorbed into *Minnan*. In such turbulent times, language change took place either forcibly (e.g. through an edict by the invading army) or voluntarily (e.g. from a desire to enjoy the political, social and cultural capital of the new WO). Such migrations led to a mix of initially divergent populations and certainlycontributed to a complexity of genetic and linguistic pictures. Archaeological evidence (ibid.) points to *Minnan* acquiring more and more Sinitic features, including borrowings of specific words, sounds and some grammatical rules (Guo, 2002).

However, those who resisted the linguistic change forced on them by Chinese emperors would find it more attractive to migrate further inland into the hills, and metaphorically backwards into our spiral, to the areas not originally occupied. Such migratory hordes would retain much of their original languages. Not surprisingly, there are still *Min* tribes, such as the *She,* which still remain tribal in organizational structure linguistically fossilized by choice, that was aided by difficult terrain facilitating little outside contact (Wang, 1998). Yet other groups became stagnated at the city-state level, for example, the cities of Longyan and Zhangping in southwestern Fujian, where there still exists distinct non-Sinicized sub varieties of *Minnan* language. In particularly harsh political conditions, such as during the Taiping rebellion where up to 90% of the inhabitants in some towns and cities of Fujian were reportedly killed, streams of migrants would migrate outside the province for better protection. In their efforts to settle in new places, the *Min* migrants would willingly assimilate features of the foreign tongue to theirs, hence evolving new varieties of Min that would be further modified with each passing generation. For example,

in Shangrao, Jianxi, and particularly in the city of Cangshan, only parts of the *Minnan*
population can speak their original mother tongue. Simultaneously, as they left their original
fertile lands, such lands became available for people who live in shacks coming down from
the hills; or other settlers from nearby provinces who would help fill the gap and who were
regarded as relatively more "desirable" by the invading army (Jiao, 2007). Their languages
would then undergo a further process of assimilation and acculturalization.

Fujian's fortunes peaked during the Song dynasty (960-1279) when the region around
Quanzhou became a major city of world significance, as recounted by the Italian traveler,
Marco Polo. From here, Chinese explorers reached as far as the east of Africa or even
America (Menzies, 2004). Indeed, it was the staging and supply depot of Admiral Zheng
Ho's naval expedition. Hence, the preeminence of Quanzhou also meant the rise of its city
tongue to LF status. The people from the other cities of Fujian, such as Wuyushan, Sanming
and Ningdei flocked to its shores attracted by its culture and wealth. Their version of *Minnan*
was variant and sometimes unintelligible, so they gravitated to Quanzhou LF (QLF) as the
"linguistic solution" to further their economic and cultural aspirations. An LF was needed
not just to communicate with the people of Quanzhou but also amongst themselves. During
such times, code-mixing, code-switching, as well as different varieties of standard QLF
proliferated. Diglossia was practiced. On formal occasions, the QLF and *Nanjinghua*
(Nanjing was then the imperial capital) functioned as official or "H" languages while other
"subjugated" city tongues were used for informal, intimate and "L" occasions (cf. Brown,
2004).

While the linguistic profile so far narrated has been that of an oral world, the written
script was a part of the "H" group of languages, which would distinguish a high official from
a low one. Writing is preserved, otherwise Cantonese, Minnan, etc. would all become
foreign languages, unintelligible to Mandarin speakers. However, in writing Chinese
characters, *Minnan* speakers also have a tendency to add a sizeable number of special

characters unique only to Fujian province and sometimes used in informal writing (just like Cantonese). Despite the linguistic fluency of Quanzhou elites, Nanjing's (then the symbolic centre of Chinese culture and language) efforts to teach the officials in Quanzhou their dialectal pronunciation were of limited success. *Minnan* speech continues to be unintelligible to the northerners and in 1728, the Qing emperor, Yongzheng, issued a decree requiring all government officials to learn Mandarin (the northern LF) because of communication problems among government officials from different provinces (Li, 2006).

Amoy (present day Xiamen) overtook Quanzhou in importance when the latter's harbour began to silt up. Hence, migrants moved south to the port city of Amoy in the 19th century, hence making standard Amoy rather than standard Quanzhou, the LF of Fujian (cf. Chen, 2001). Then, Amoy was one of the five treaty ports open to foreign commerce and a major centre for the export of tea and the import of opium. It was a city where many tongues co-existed (tribal, city, the imperial tongue) and there was a prevalence of code-mixing and code-switching. People from various villages, towns, regions and cities in Fujian, e.g. the Hakkas from Southwest Fujian or Shantou would learn Amoy as a means of economic survival. Pidgin English was also spoken as Amoy city attracted many Europeans, Arabs and Jews.

In the 20th century, the Chinese nationalists, influenced by the European concept of nationhood, attempted to promote a national language as a means of communication. Here, *putonghua* ("common speech"), originally a low-class variety of Mandarin from the north which came into general use at the end of the Qing dynasty, and had the connotation of being an adulterated form of the standard *Guoyu* ("national language") then spoken, was chosen as the "standard" oral base of a pan-China LF (Chen, 1999). The idea of an LF was propelled further in 1958 when Premier Zhou En Lai initiated a decree to implement *putonghua* as the medium of instruction for all schools from first grade to university throughout China. Where Fujian was concerned, this was a radical move in view of the fact

that *putonghua* and *Minnan* were mutually unintelligible. It also came at a time when most language teachers in the south were as unfamiliar with the Beijing speech as their students (cf. Guo, 2004). Nevertheless, persistent efforts to implement the language has paid off -- today, in Fujian, it is possible to shop, buy a train ticket or ask street directions by using only *putonghua*, a far cry from the 1970's where many *Minnan* tongues were spoken. However, while intra-regional migration in the 20th century has homogenized the Min tongues, there are still mutually unintelligible tongues, such as *Minbei* and *Minnan*. There has been some resistance to the imposition of *putonghua,* viewed as a language of northerners, cultural elites, hegemonic or dominating political parties but these are less played out in the streets (humorously) than on local television. Fujian television may use *Minnan* as a form of humorous contrast to the powerful north and occasionally to maintain the cultural hegemony of Fujian. In this respect, *Minnan* is used as the signifier of the historical past, the intimate and domestic, the mundane, uncultured and philistine behavior (Gunn, 2006).

While nationhood has engendered the slow death of many *Minnan* tongues in the past two generations, significantly, it has taken place without bloodshed and street protests probably because *Minnan* is not replaced but is just "coated" with yet another layer. Hence, in the alleys and more intimate settings of Xiamen, most southerners still speak the same "dialects" as their grandparents. Further inland, in Fujian, there also remain well-defined communities within the larger sub-language groups, as the Fujian hills have protected their languages from being too quickly assimilated by the succession of Chinese LFs. But even there, the technological locutions of new ways of life of a "new" global WO will eventually reach the most intimate levels of language.

We should be careful not to view *Minnan* only in opposition to *putonghua* because *putonghua* itself has been contested and is always straining against its own division and multiplication in order to fulfill a mission to overcome the local cultural hegemonies and their contests for status (Guo, 2004). Movements to promote *putonghua* as an LF have also

varied during this time and from place to place in the degree they have sought to dominate literature and mass media or elected to accommodate local languages. Like ELF, *putonghua* itself is spoken in many different accents and dialects, some more prestigious than others. What began as a limited dialect has now become a conglomerate of mushrooming regional varieties, united only by the grammar and core vocabulary of the written script. In the past century, it absorbed many words from the surrounding languages so as to widen its function and there are, inevitably, progressive embellishments in the way of local vocabulary. Interestingly, at the heart of linguistic discussion in China today, it is no longer *putonghua,* the national LF, but rather the emergent global LF of the new WO. There is a great impatience on the part of Fujianese to master what is considered *"the next LF"*, hence the mushrooming of private schools offering to teach English in one way or other. Not surprisingly, in Xiamen, as with other coastal cities of China, enrollment in private schools are way above the national average, as these cities are fuelled by the presence of foreigners and faster economic growth. In such environments, questions such as that posed by Seidlhofer (2006): "How can one promote a common language of the community while supporting equal rights for all community languages at the same time?" is best replaced by "How can one learn the LF of the age quickly so as to ensure everyone has an equal chance of living well?" This is not just the general pragmatic attitude of the Minnan peoples but of the majority Chinese in China.

Conclusion

Elsewhere (Chew, 1999), I have argued that an unfortunate aspect of the world debate on culture is the emphasis which some have placed on the preservation of culture, almost with the same attitude that one has towards the preservation of museum pieces. While all kinds of loss, including language loss, is a situation deserving of the greatest empathy, sometimes sacrifices are necessary for the collective good in view of the inevitability of

Change. While the widespread use of English gave English-speaking nations a head start in the world arena, this will only be relevant initially. As more and more non-native speakers begin to learn English from an early age, they will naturally compete with traditional native speakers for literary and journalistic prizes. The mechanistic view that English is incorrigibly permeated with imperialism is rather stereotypical since it denies the dynamic and complex social-economic potential of language change. A language must be at the service of the people who use it. Historically, the adoption of LFs has often not been viewed as a threat to the existing languages but as a key to a share of the period's symbolic power. Hence, the growth in the use of English should be seen more as part of a complex process of evolution of world orders rather than as mere linguicism.

The rise of the big blue marble has become the icon of the age we live in, whether we realize it or not. It is the backdrop to television news, the logo for international conferences, sports events and for commercial enterprises. However, whenever there is change, there is resistance. Therefore, it is not surprising that we are also witnessing a worldwide increase in nationalistic and ethnic fervor. Poststructuralists are generally suspicious towards meta narrative. There is a tendency to reject universalism, although in science the more universal a theory the more truthful it is. These developments are the final efforts of various segments of humanity to establish and affirm their present respective national boundaries. From a psychological perspective, this is an essential aspect of the development of human societies, as well as for a human individual. But humanity's journey towards ever-greater complexity and integration moves on, propelled by the science of complexity; and by some stroke of its own sheer good future, ELF seem to be bound up with the new world order. Suffice to say, English should not rest comfortably on its laurels as the fortunes of LFs rise and fall in the theatre of history with remarkable regularity.

Note

[1] Retrieved on 11 February 2016 from: http://population.city/china/adm/fujian/

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Selected Papers

Research Articles

The Effects of Overseas Study on Japanese University Students: Challenges and Opportunities in the Development of Intercultural Competence and Impacts on Future Career[1)]

Misa Fujio

Toyo University

Abstract

This study investigated various challenges and opportunities that five Japanese university students faced during and after their study in the UK, with a focus on the development of their language and intercultural competence. This study, as part of a larger project, analysed data from two focus groups conducted in the middle of their study in the UK and one year after in Japan, in order to discuss not only their challenges and opportunities during the study but also how to connect their study results with their career in Japan. The first phase study analysed their comments in the first focus group, using the Modified Grounded Theory Approach (M-GTA). As a result, nine concepts were obtained, revealing that the participants faced various challenges not only at the individual level such as difficulty in speaking up in the tutorial, but also at the institutional level partly caused by the weaknesses of both Japanese and British educational systems. The second phase study, analysing comments in the second focus group, suggested a need for possessing academic expertise before studying abroad and for post-study to further improve the gains from studying abroad.

Keywords: study abroad, language competence, intercultural competence, connection to career, M-GTA

Introduction

Under the ever-increasing pressure for globalisation, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in Japan issued a report in 2011 which highlighted the qualifications needed for global human resources, with particular emphasis given to language ability (that implies English) and ability to understand different cultures (that is, intercultural competence) (MEXT, 2011). In order to foster global human resources, MEXT and related organisations now strongly encourage Japanese students to study abroad; as a result, an increasing number of universities have initiated overseas study programmes. On the other hand, the number studying abroad has reportedly been decreasing since the peak of 2004 (MEXT, 2011), due to various reasons, including the anxiety of studying abroad and insufficient financial support (Funatsu, 2012). A closer look at the breakdown of those studying abroad revealed that the numbers undertaking short-term study has been on an upward trajectory, though.

The present study is part of the author's Scientific Research (C) project investigating the qualifications needed for global human resources (hereafter, globally-minded leaders) and the challenges and opportunities of fostering the global workforce. In this project, the author has conducted a series of interviews and focus groups, not only with university students, but also with business people or academic staff working overseas. In this particular study, however, the author will focus on what kind of challenges and opportunities five Japanese university students faced during their study in the UK for nearly one year, with a major focus on the development of intercultural competence, and how they reflected their study after they came back to Japan, by comparing two focus groups conducted in the middle of their stay and after they came back to Japan.

Literature Review

In this literature review section, the author will summarise previous findings from research on studying abroad (SA), and then on intercultural competence, which is one of the focal points of this study. The limitations of the previous studies and the future research agenda will be clarified at the

end of each section.

Previous Studies into Studying Abroad

Starting with a seminal publication edited by Freed (1991), the role of the study abroad programmes for second language acquisition has been rigorously discussed. Some studies focused on the programmes themselves, and others compared these programmes with studying-at-home programmes. The challenge DeKeyser (1991) pointed out in the publication, how to connect classroom instructions to study abroad programmes and vice versa, still remains a big research topic.

Recently studies in this field have been expanding from the initial focus on the participants' language competence (such as fluency) or pragmatic competence (focusing on speech acts) to learning strategies, affective factors (anxiety or willingness to communicate, in particular) or even to the context of the SA programmes (such as how the participant is involved in her host family or in local networks), as reviewed extensively by Churchill and DuFon (2006).

Although almost all previous studies have reported the participants' gains in the abilities investigated, the gains reported have varied from study to study, depending on the participant or the context of the SA programme; therefore, as Churchill and DuFon (2006) pointed out, "the generalizations that may be made across programs are disappointingly few" (p. 27).

Kinginger (2013), overviewing the research trend of SA studies, pointed out the limitations of previous studies and the future research agenda. They include the necessity of bridging research into language-related outcomes and sociocultural outcomes. Considering the tendency that the former, research into language skills, has traditionally been conducted in a form of experiment while the latter, research into sociocultural outcomes, tends to employ an ethnographical and qualitative approach, the bridge indicates an integration between quantitative and qualitative approaches. In addition, Kinginger points out that research into long-term study is still lacking.

Recently, studies with Japanese participants have started to sharply increase in numbers. Many of the studies have investigated the outcomes of specific language skills through an overseas study.

For example, Tanaka and Ellis (2003) focused on the development in grammar, Kimura (2009) studied listening comprehension through a short-term stay of two to three weeks, while Sasaki (2007) investigated the development of the participants' writing ability over years. Other studies combined language skills and affective factors; for example, Kimura (2012) focused on the changes in the participants' writing skills and willingness-to-communicate (WTC) through a short-term study and the relationship of the two, revealing that the participants' writing score and WTC did not necessarily correlate. Otsuka and Negishi (2009) researched the effects of a short-term study on fluency as well as anxiety in English use and in English classrooms. Although the participants showed improvement in fluency and reduced anxiety, no definite relationship between fluency and anxiety was observed. As for long-term observation of one year, Fujio (2011) investigated the participants' fluency, use of communication strategies as well as turn-taking style with the interlocutor, a native speaker of British English. She reported that one of the participants did not show much improvement in fluency nor turn-taking style, which might be attributed to the native speaker's over-confident attitude that made the Japanese participant a more passive listener.

All of the above studies have reported some improvement in the skills investigated even through a short-term study abroad. However, few studies employ post-study tracking to understand how the participants' gains are maintained or even improved after they come back to Japan. One of these studies is Fujio (2014), which disclosed that the two participants, who improved significantly in fluency, complexity and use of communication strategies through a short-term study abroad in her previous study (Fujio, 2013), dropped in all three elements in a year, especially in fluency. This study suggests the importance of connecting a SA programme with classroom education after they come back to Japan.

Reviewing the previous studies, the challenges in SA research and the future research agenda can be summarised as follows:

1) Increasing the number of studies investigating the effects of long-term SA programmes;

2) Increasing the number of studies combining language and sociocultural outcomes;

3) Clarifying the benefits gained from SA and any negative influence, if any;

4) Observing the benefits from both quantitative and qualitative points of view;

5) Identifying personal differences that promote or slow down the participants' gains;

6) Observing more contextual factors such as influence by host family;

7) Identifying what Japanese universities should provide for their students in order to connect a SA programme with classroom education.

Intercultural Competence

Intercultural competence is a widely used but a very complicated term to define and has been investigated across several disciplines, including Communication Studies, Applied Linguistics, Intercultural Communication, or International Business Management. Terms such as Intercultural Competence, Intercultural Communicative Competence, or Cross-cultural Communication Competence are more or less interchangeably used, with a significant overlap in definition. Some researchers, such as Byram (1997), demarcate Intercultural Competence (IC) from Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC), regarding the former as the ability to interact with people from another country in the speaker's own language, and the latter as the ability to communicate with people from different cultures in a foreign language. On the other hand, some researches use an umbrella term to discuss the components in common. For example, Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) use the term, *Intercultural Interaction Competence* (ICIC) as an umbrella term*,* and define it as "the competence not only communicate (verbally and non-verbally) and behave effectively and appropriately with people from other cultural groups, but also to handle the psychological demands and dynamic outcomes that result from such interchanges" (p. 51).

Competence also displays many different facets, depending on the research focus, from the components, developmental stages, assessment of the competence, to the degree of adaptation to the

host country. Among these categories, the first type focusing on the components has been most frequently investigated (e.g., Byram, 1997; Gudykunst, 2004) and here the author will summarise two representative models which are particularly related to the present study.

One of the models most frequently referred to in the field of Applied Linguistics is that of Byram (1997). In his model, in addition to linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse competences (cf., Canale & Swain, 1980; Van Ek, 1986), intercultural competence plays an especially important role. It consists of knowledge, skills, and attitude as discussed in many other models (cf.,Ting-Toomey, 1999; Gudykunst, 2004), with the skill element further divided into skills of interpreting and relating (the ability to interpret new data from another culture and relate it to that from one's own) and skills of discovering and interacting (the ability to discover new knowledge in interaction), followed by one more element, critical cultural awareness. Although his model had significant impact in the field of Applied Linguistics, it is sometimes pointed out to be "less applicable to non-school contexts, where more immediate results are desired" (Spencer-Oatey & Franklin, 2009, p. 69) and the components still seem to be too abstract.

The model used to identify the development of the participants' intercultural competence in the present study is that of Spencer-Oatey and Stadler (2009). This model provides a more detailed breakdown of the components and includes a relational aspect such as 'rapport building' whose importance was reiterated by the participants in the current study, and a communicative aspect such as 'communication management' that incorporates the ability to choose the most appropriate language or to establish communication networks. In this model, the authors used the term, *intercultural competency*, and the following four categories. (The author, however, has retained the term, *intercultural competence*, in this study for familiarity).

1) Knowledge and ideas

information gathering / new thinking / goal orientation / synergistic solutions

2) Communication

communication management / language learning / language adjustment / active listening /

attuning / building of shared knowledge and mutual trust / stylistic flexibility

3) Relationships

welcoming of strangers / rapport building / sensitivity to social, professional context /

interpersonal attentiveness

4) Personal qualities and dispositions

spirit of adventure / self-awareness / acceptance / flexibility / inner purpose /

coping / resilience

The author will come back and refer to this model in the later analytical section. Here, at the

end of this section, she will summarise some challenges from previous studies.

1) The components in some of these models are too abstract to enable accurate identification.

Therefore, for comprehensive understanding and instruction of these components, some

context should be provided.

2) Since this line of research has mainly developed in North America and Europe, the

difficulties of using English seems to be underestimated. In the Japanese educational

context, it will be more practical to combine intercultural competence with language and

communicative competence.

3) For the same reason, the applicability of these models to the Japanese context should be

more widely discussed.

With regard to 3) above, Yamamoto and Tanno (2002) discuss the applicability of the

Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), a questionnaire to measure intercultural competence

developed by Hammer, Bennette and Wiseman (2003), to Japanese university students, concluding

that some modification will be needed for them to understand the questions well enough.

When measuring intercultural competence, a questionnaire such as IDI has been the most widely recognised method. However, as the author pointed out in 1) above, it is not easy to answer a questionnaire when sufficient context is not provided. In order to resolve this difficulty, a qualitative approach will be more useful. For example, Spencer-Oatey and Davidson (2014) suggests "The 3R Tool" to develop intercultural sensitivity, a weekly report consisting of 3Rs: Report the facts of what happened, Reflect on why it happened, and Re-evaluate after discussing with others. This is especially insightful in that the report includes the re-evaluation stage through a discussion of the facts with a partner, hopefully from different backgrounds, which allows the writer to compare his/her interpretation with the partner's.

In the present study, the author chose a qualitative approach to investigate the challenges and opportunities of five Japanese students studying in the UK, as will be explained in detail below.

Methodology

As summarised above, previous studies on SA programmes had a tendency to have investigated either language competence or sociocultural aspects including intercultural competence, and consequently studies investigating both are still limited. Therefore, the author designed research which allows her to observe both aspects by using a qualitative approach, instead of presetting the framework such as using a questionnaire.

Research Aims of the Present Study

As mentioned in the Introduction, this study is part of a big research project investigating the qualifications needed for globally-minded leaders, and the present study focused on and investigated the changes, challenges, and opportunities of five Japanese university students studying in the UK for a year. The main aims of the present study are:

1) to identify the challenges and opportunities of the participants in their study abroad;

2) to identify what kind of education is needed before and after their study abroad;

3) to identify the qualifications needed for globally-minded leaders, from the viewpoint of a Japanese university student.

Data Collection

In order to ensure the research project was as deep and objective as possible, the author collected multiple data. Specifically, the following five different types of data were collected from the participants. The major data was collected in London from October 2015 to March 2016, when the author stayed in the UK on sabbatical.

1) Two different types of questionnaire at the beginning and the end of research period;

2) Three semi-controlled interviews in English with a native speaker of British English;

3) Post-interviews with the author in Japanese immediately after the three interviews;

4) A Focus group among the participants in the middle of their stay;

5) A Focus group among the participants after they returned to Japan.

First, the questionnaires were administered to observe the participants' backgrounds in relation to their English education in Japan and communicative experiences using English. The second one, three interviews in English were conducted in order to observe their improvement in language competence (such as fluency) and strategic competence (such as the use of communication strategies), as well as their changes in intercultural competence which would be reflected in what they actually talked about in the interviews. They were conducted at the beginning of the first term (October 2015), the second term (January 2016), and at the end of the second term (March 2016). The third, the data in post-interviews conducted with the author in Japanese, was collected to further observe the gaps between what they intended to say and what they actually said in the English

interviews. Also, it worked as an important opportunity to disclose how they were feeling about their study in the UK. The last two, focus groups further revealed the challenges and opportunities of their study abroad. The first focus group was held in January 2016, in the middle of their stay and second one was completed within one year, in order to further evaluate their changes after they came back to Japan. It would have been ideal if another focus group had been conducted when the third term ended and they came back to Japan, that is, either June or July 2016. However, practicality did not allow the author to conduct the focus group earlier; the timing of their return to Japan varied from person to person and their schedule always conflicted until the end of February in 2017 when the second focus group was finally conducted. It turned out, however, that the end of February was very timely because it gave the participants sufficient time to reflect on their study abroad and consider their future career through their job-seeking activities.

To investigate various challenges and opportunities through overseas study and its impact on their future career in the present study, the author focused on the data 4) and 5) above and used other data to further interpret their opinions presented in the two focus groups. The advantages of using a focus group will be elaborated upon later.

Participants

The five research participants joined this project, in response to my research advertisement which was distributed in a pre-session class just before the first term by a professor at a college in London, an acquaintance of the author's. Therefore, they all attended the same college in London, with different majors as summarised in Table 1. The author explained the details of the project to each of them, and received their signature on a consent form, which stipulated that the data would solely be used for research purposes and they clearly understood the project.

All of the participants had very similar backgrounds in Japan; they all came from a famous public or private Japanese university; they all had very good English proficiency (including speaking skills) before they came to the UK, which was proven by their qualifications; and they had no prior

overseas experiences except short trips. All the participants joined an undergraduate programme except M1 who belonged to a Foundation Course, in which students study general subjects while improving English; however, he also took some professional courses such as International Business, Media and Social Science.

Table 1

Details of Research Participants

	Grade	Major in Japan	Classes Selected in the UK	Qualifications
F1	2nd	International Liberal Arts	4 (Development Studies, Business, Politics)	TOEIC 955 IELTS 7.0
F2	3rd	International Sociology	4 (International Relations, Politics, Economics)	TOEIC 960 IELTS 7.0
F3	4th	Development Studies	4 (Development Studies, Natural Resources, Development Economics, African Studies	TOEIC 780 IELTS 7.0
M1	2nd	Sociology	Foundation Course + International Business, Media, Social Science	IELTS 6.0
M2	3rd	Anthropology	4 (Anthropology, Development Studies)	IELTS 6.5

Note: F shows a female and M shows a male student, respectively.

Focus Group as a Research Method

The term, *focus group,* derives from "focused group discussion" (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008, p. 173) and is defined as "a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research" (Powell & Single, 1996, p. 499); therefore, it is a method effective in particular to collect opinions on a specific topic. Compared to an interview, a focus group has an advantage in collecting a comparatively large amount of information in a limited time frame and the topic discussed can be developed through interaction among the participants.

Some researchers point out that a focus group provides better insights when conducted among a homogeneous group in terms of gender, generation, etc. (e.g., Morgan, 1997). With regard to the number of participants, less than 10 is generally considered to be ideal; otherwise, there might be some participants who feel uncomfortable to speak up in a group.

In the present study, considering all the five participants had similar backgrounds in that they were studying at the same college in the UK, without particular previous overseas experiences, the author chose a focus group for data collection.

The first focus group was conducted in January 2016 and lasted for 1 hour and 34 minutes and the second one in February 2017 for 1 hour and 27 minutes. As is often the case in a focus group, the author assumed the role of facilitator and asked the following same questions in both focus groups except Question 1 which was only asked in the first focus group. In order to make the discussion more active, these focus groups were conducted in Japanese.

1. Background information (affiliation, reasons for overseas study, career plans);
2. What are/were the most exciting experiences during their study in the UK;
3. What are/were the most challenging experiences during their study in the UK;
4. What kind of skills or abilities they have improved the most;
5. What are/were the differences between Japan and the UK in university education;
6. What are the qualifications needed for globally-minded leaders.

Analytical Method

In the first phase analysis, all of the comments presented in the first focus group (during their stay in the UK) were transcribed and analysed, using the Modified Grounded Theory Approach (M-GTA). M-GTA was developed by Kinoshita (2003), based on the Grounded Theory Approach (GTA) founded by Glaser and Strauss (1967), and it is increasingly applied to studies in the field of Applied Linguistics or Intercultural Communication.

M-GTA shares the basic notions with GTA; therefore, it is an approach grounded on the data, instead of setting some fixed framework beforehand. That is the main reason the author used this approach for analysis in the current study, in which she intended to observe and categorise all the challenges and opportunities presented in the focus group, instead of categorising them into pre-fixed groups with prior assumptions. M-GTA sets a clear and systematic analytical process so that all the data can be analysed until the researcher reaches a "theoretical saturation," a point of not being able to sort out data any longer, signalling the end of the analysis (Kinoshita, 2003, p. 143).

In M-GTA, worksheets are used for clearer and simpler analysis, instead of fragmenting the data as conducted in the GTA, which might possibly make the analysis too complicated. In the first stage, "Open Coding" or the stage that considers all possible interpretable coding based on raw data (Kinoshita, 2003, p. 156), all the comments are sorted out into several worksheets, each of which stands for each concept. Each worksheet consists of 1) the name of the concept, 2) the definition of the concept, 3) variations (actual comments), and 4) theoretical memo. In the theoretical memo, all noticed or possible other interpretations are written down. Through this process, all possible interpretations can be reviewed and converged into several concepts.

In the next stage, "Selective Coding" or the stage that considers the relationship between concepts (Kinoshita, 2003, p. 211), related concepts are categorised into bigger groups. Then, the results are shown as a figure as well as a story line, a verbal report of the figure.

With regard to the analysis of the second focus group (hereafter called as the second phase analysis), the author used the categories gained from the first focus group (the first phase analysis) and compared the participants' comments so that the differences between the two focus groups will be highlighted.

Analytical Results

First Phase Analysis

Open coding. In the first stage, Open Coding, nine basic concepts are formed, which are

summarised with each definition in Table 2, to be identified at a glance.

Table 2

Nine Concepts[2] and Definitions

	Concepts	Definitions
1	Importance of speaking up and giving opinions	Speaking up itself is very important in a study abroad.
2	Lack of opinions	The fact that the participants don't have their own ideas on the topics is one of the reasons why they cannot speak up easily.
3	Logicality of English	The logicality of English sometimes facilitates their comprehension or presenting disagreements in English (rather than Japanese).
4	Differences in educational system (UK strengths)	Good points in the UK Educational system that facilitates their study
5	Differences in educational system (UK weaknesses)	Weak points in the UK educational system that slows down their study
6	Aptitude to survive overseas	Aptitudes necessary to survive in a foreign country
7	National differences in coping	Differences by nationality in the degree of coping with classmates
8	New findings of own culture	Studying abroad has become a good opportunity to discover new aspects of Japanese society.
9	Anxiety over the results of the overseas study	How much they can gain through this study or how they can connect their progress to a future career has become a worry.

Below, actual comments (variations)[3] will be presented for each concept, although they are limited to only two or three, due to the space limitation.

1）Importance of speaking up and giving opinions

● In the tutorial session, I'm always overwhelmed [by the other participants]. [For example] even if the tutor presents the correct answer, some students show disagreement, saying "Oh

I'm thinking this way because...'' It's so logical that sometimes the tutor cannot respond to it right away. (F2)

- [The degree of] speaking up individual opinions is different [from Japan]. Although we also have a seminar system in Japan in which nearly ten students discuss, the most important part is the summary by the professor at the end [rather than our discussion itself].   (M2)

2）Lack of opinions

- In my case, [I lose the timing to speak up] partly because I think over the topic and partly because I have no opinions at all. Since in Japan I was passive in the classroom and focused on remembering what was taught, I cannot think of my own ideas. (F3)

- I want to cut in at least once in a tutorial class. But I always wonder if I can say this at this timing and if it's logical enough. So, I often end up asking a question. I'm not sure if it's caused by my language ability or lack of opinions. Perhaps both. (F2)

3) Logicality of English

- As for reading, the structure of English articles is easier for me to understand and I can remember the content better. Actually I had a very hard time with [same type of] articles written in Japanese. They are too abstract to get the point. (F3)

- While discussing in Japanese, I feel it a little hard to disagree with others. But in English, I can say more easily, like "but there is another way of thinking." In English, I say what I cannot say in Japanese and [in this sense] my personality changes by the language used. (F2)

4) Differences in educational system (UK strengths)

- In Japan, many Japanese students are passive in the classroom and active learners are rather a minority. Here [in the UK], students ask questions spontaneously, not just getting information from professors. Even in daily life, they tend to pay more attention to current issues, and that is a very different point. (M2)

- One of the reasons [why the students here are eager to learn] is that their academic undergraduate achievement is very important for their career, because many of them go on to a postgraduate. Also, what they major is directly related to their job. (F3)

5） Differences in educational system (UK weaknesses / Japanese strengths)

- A friend studying in the US has to submit a short essay or take a short test every week. But in the UK we have only two reports in a year and term-end exams. So, the opportunities for output is rather limited, compared to the US. (F1)

- In the UK, even though we stay silent in the tutorial, we can still survive. (F3)

- Professors here seem to have more time for research while Japanese professors spend more time with their students, including teaching, office hours, and seminars. I appreciate the time that Japanese professors dedicate to us. (M2)

6） Aptitude to survive overseas

- I'm a passive person by nature. Although I didn't much realise it in Japan, it's not good here [in the UK]. It's very important to be more spontaneous and to take an initiative. (F1)

- I have some friends who are not happy with their life in the UK. For example, even a door is broken, the owner just leaves it for a long time. In a way, rather insensitive people [to these troubles] may be suitable [to stay abroad] than those who stick to Japanese way. (F2)

- In order to compete globally, we should have at least one ability we are confident with. If so, it backs up our identity and we may speak up [more actively], utilising the ability. (F3)

7） National differences in coping

- I'm wondering if nationality may influence who we make friends with. There are some nationalities that I can sympathise, such as Koreans, Germans or East Africans. But I don't have close British, French or Italian friends yet. (F3)

- It is easier to speak to Asian students because the speed of their English is slower [than that of native speakers] and their English proficiency is more or less similar. (M2)

8) New findings of own culture

- When I'm asked about Japan, I cannot explain it well. When I'm with my flat mates, I'm surprised at how well they know about their own countries. (M1)

- When we discuss the positioning of Japan [during and] after the War, my classmates criticise the Japanese imperialism without hesitation. While I was in Japan, I did not get much information nor have much debate [on this topic]. As there are many Korean and Chinese students, I can listen to various ideas from different perspectives. (F2)

9) Anxiety over the results of the overseas study

- I'm a little concerned if my English ability is really improving. I read a lot and now I can understand more words, but the words I can understand and I can actually use are different. So, I wonder if I can obtain English ability worth studying abroad before I leave here. (F2)

- I cannot still join a large group conversation, especially of native speakers. They use a lot of slang, political and social background or proper names I'm not familiar with. (F3)

- How I can connect what I'm studying here to my future career in Japan is the biggest challenge for me. I have five more months and what I can get through this study and bring back to Japan is what I'm worried the most. (F3)

All the comments above have a lot of suggestions for the English education in Japan, including both individual challenges and organisational challenges. Before moving on to the author's discussion, the analysis in the selective-coding will be presented here.

Selective coding. In the next stage, Selective Coding, related concepts are categorised into bigger groups. According to Kinoshita (2003), this is the stage in which the researcher's ability and interpretation is most displayed. The author categorised the concepts into four groups, which is summarised in Figure 1.

Institutional/National Level	→	Individual Level	←	Institutional/National Level

Challenges		Challenges		Challenges

5 UK weaknesses	1 Speaking up	4 UK strengths
7 National differences	2 Lack of opinions	(Japanese weaknesses)
	9 Anxiety over the results	

Success

3   Logicality of English
6   Aptitude to survive overseas
8   New findings of own culture
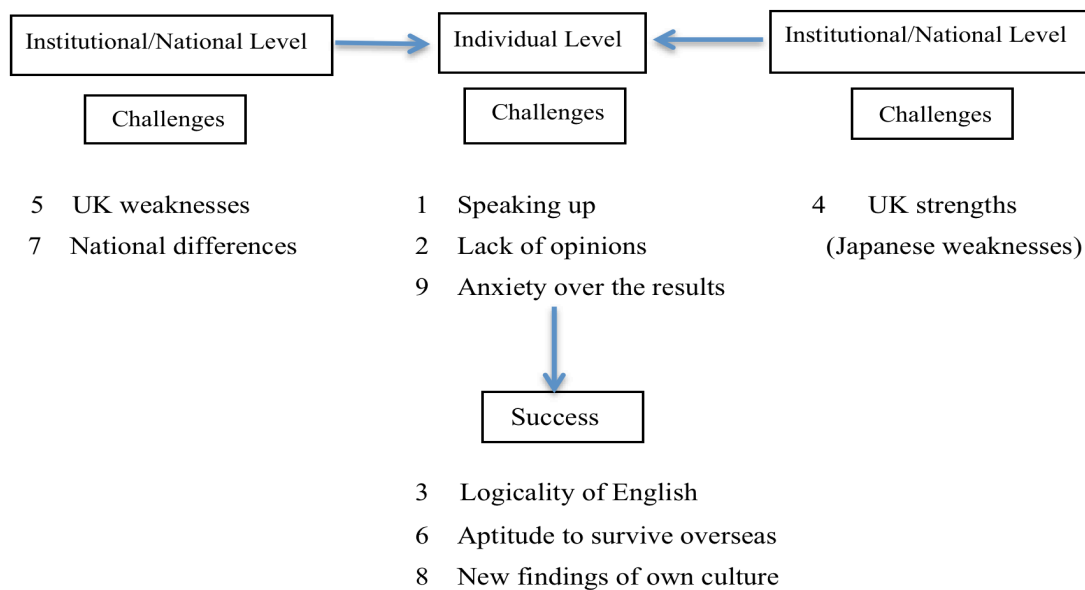
Figure 1.   Selective coding results.

As shown in Figure 1, the participants faced many challenges, consisting of not only individual challenges such as difficulties to speak up and anxiety over the results, but also institutional challenges stemming from both Japanese and UK educational weaknesses (No. 7, National differences, was categorised here because some participants mentioned the difficulty of talking to British or native-speaker classmates.). There are some factors, however, that help them in the classroom and in daily life, which includes logicality of English, their aptitude to survive overseas, and new findings of their own culture.

Summary of the first phase analysis. In addition to the above explanation of the selective-coding results (story-line), the author would like to summarise the most important points gained from the first phase analysis.

In the group of individual challenges, the difficulty of speaking up in the tutorial was commented on by all of the five participants. It is noteworthy that their lack of an opinion on the topic being discussed was repeated as a reason for the difficulty. They reiterated that since Japanese university students are accustomed to being passive in the current Japanese educational system, they have a hard time to develop their own ideas on the topics discussed in the tutorial. In addition,

several participants asserted the importance of having professional knowledge in the academic context, as represented by the comment in 6) aptitude to survive overseas. Enhancing the academic level itself will be an important challenge for the future Japanese higher education.

In addition to the challenges at the individual level, the students have faced with those at the institutional/national level, the weaknesses of the British educational system as well as those of the Japanese system. They include fewer chances to speak English than in the US, and difficulty in coping with British classmates. As presented above, the latter is partly due to their hesitation stemming from their language ability as represented by the comments 7) and 9) above. Considering that all the participants have a very good command of English (which is proven in their English qualifications), this must be an even more significant problem for the Japanese university students studying abroad with lower proficiency.

Lastly, in terms of intercultural competence, they commented on their new discovery on their own (Japanese) culture as well as their gains in aptitude, such as acceptance of, flexibility to, and coping with British culture (See the comments in 6) Aptitude). Therefore, in the model of Spencer-Oatey and Stadler (2009) presented in the section of Literature Review, they realised some improvement in the components of the personal qualities and dispositions in this first focus group, that is, during the first four months since they came to the UK; specifically, they commented on 'acceptance,' 'flexibility,' 'coping' and 'resilience' in the model. On the other hand, the participants were still struggling with speaking up in the tutorial (i.e., 'communication management' in the model) or making friends with European or British classmates (i.e., 'rapport building' in the model). Thus, this first phase analysis disclosed that the participants recognised some improvement in their intercultural competence in the category of 'personal qualities and dispositions,' but not necessarily in that of 'communication' and 'relationships.'

Second Phase Analysis

With regard to the second focus group, the author analysed their comments based on the categories derived from the first focus group, that is Figure 1, so that their changes will be compared

and highlighted. The analysis starts with their individual challenges, institutional challenges, and their success factors. As the second focus group was conducted after they came back to Japan and when some of them were involved in job-seeking activities, their comments displayed more individual variations than the first focus group when they attended the same college and were faced with similar types of challenges.

Challenges at the individual level. In the first focus group, all participants commented on the difficulty of speaking up in the tutorial and commented much less on other aspects of language competence. In the second focus group, the author asked the same question, about their improvement in language, communicative, and intercultural competence. With regard to language competence, the perception if having improved varied from person to person, as indicated by Table 3.

Table 3

Language Ability Perceived to have Improved

	Listening	Speaking (Informal)	Speaking (Formal)	Reading	Writing	Vocabulary
F1	◎	△	△	△	△	−
F2	△	◎	△	−	−	△
F3	△	○	△	○	○	△
M1	○	◎	△	△	△	○
M2	○	◎	△	△	△	○

Notes: ◎ indicates "particularly improved" and ○ "improved." △ includes both cases when they answered "not in particular" or "not as much as expected". − shows no comments.

As previous studies have disclosed, there is no consensus in the language ability students can gain through an overseas study. Similarly, in the present study, the perception of improvement varied from person to person. This possibly stems from the individual differences, not only in actual improvement but also in their perception, as implied by the following comments.

- The improvement in listening is difficult to judge, because even if I cannot perfectly understand the interlocutor, I can still continue a conversation. So, I can't tell how much I really improved in listening. (F2)

- My listening comprehension depends on the interlocutor. There were some classmates I couldn't understand well. They used a lot of slang or academically difficult vocabulary. (F3)

Likewise, F2 and F3 commented that they could not enrich their vocabulary as much as they had expected. First of all, the vocabulary used in lectures is limited, so their overall vocabulary did not increase across the fields. Second, even though they became familiar with some vocabulary through reading, they could not actually use them as their own vocabulary. In other words, they could not improve their vocabulary enough to change it from their passive vocabulary to active one. The gaps between their actual improvement and their perception will be an interesting research topic and will be investigated in the author's separate studies.

There are, however, two points in common among all the participants.

The first point is that they still find it difficult to speak English in a formal situation, group discussions in particular, in spite of the fact that some participants recognised their conversation skills improved remarkably. This might suggest that speaking in a formal situation, including how to take turns, should require specific education, in addition to conversational fluency.

The next point they all recognised is that they do not have to speak English like a native speaker and they feel more relaxed now to speak English (at least in daily conversation), released from their own expectation for "perfect English." They learned this point through their own experiences of hearing many immigrants or international students speaking English incorrectly but eloquently.

With regard to another individual challenge revealed in the first focus group, anxiety over the results, especially how to connect the study to their career, there were two opposite opinions presented. On the one hand, they all learned that UK society is more flexible than Japanese society

and there are more options they can choose after they graduate from university, including moving on to postgraduate study. On the other hand, F1 revealed her conflicts after she came back to Japan; there are still fewer chances for female students in Japanese corporations even though she hopes to utilise her English proficiency. Also, as M1 commented, university support after overseas study is very short in supply. Although many universities provide pre-study programmes, post-study programmes are paid much less attention. This will be the point to be reformed in the future, and will be discussed again in the section of Discussion.

Challenges at the institutional/national level. Their comments about institutional challenges, in other words, the weaknesses/strengths of the Japanese and British educational systems were nearly the same as the first focus group (See 4) and 5) in the open-coding section). As for the advantages of the British educational system, they repeated the importance of the discussion style in the tutorial as represented by the following comment by F2.

● We can learn more in the British system [than in the Japanese system]. Having a discussion really activates my brain. Through discussions, we can get new ideas from other students. Combined with mine, they become new stimulations. How long the topic stays in my brain is completely different [from the cases without discussions]. (F2)

On the other hand, there are also opinions disclosing some dissatisfaction with the British educational system.

● The essay writing in the UK or Europe has a fixed pattern, using theoretical evidence or citation of previous studies much more than in Japan. When we [follow this pattern and] put pieces like a puzzle, we can reach a reasonable conclusion and we can get a pass, as long as the essay satisfies logical consistency. But whether the conclusion is really practical or feasible is not assessed, at least at the undergraduate level. I felt a little dissatisfaction in that point and,

when I came back to Japan, I showed the essay to my Japanese supervisor. He asked me, "What do *you* think [rather than making a conclusion based on previous studies]?", but I was not able to rewrite it. (F3)

This comment and a very similar one by F2 are insightful in that they imply that there might be a limitation in teaching the Western-style essay writing, just focusing on logical thinking, and a possibility of utilising the advantages of Japanese seminar system, in which a professor and his/her supervisees spend more time together and are more closely tied; therefore, the professor understands his/her supervisee's personality and their way of thinking more deeply.

Success factors. In the first focus group, three concepts of logicality of English, aptitude to survive overseas, and new findings of own culture, were categorised as factors that helped them both in classroom and daily life in the UK. The largest difference in the second focus group was related to aptitude to survive overseas. Unlike the first focus group, they did not mention national differences as a challenge and, instead, regarded the difficulties in coping with as individual differences, as represented by the following comments.

- Although I was thinking British people are detached and difficult to cope with, I realised that they are more open than I thought at the very end of my stay. I realised that, once we become friends, they are very warm. (F3)
- Regardless of being British or not, we have similarities and differences in values. (F2)

These comments disclose that they somewhat changed their perception from connecting their communicative difficulties with national differences to relativising them as personal differences. In the model of Spencer-Oatey and Stadler (2009) presented above, they gained 'new thinking' in the category of 'knowledge and ideas,' and improved 'rapport building' in the category of 'relationships.' Also, some of the participants commented on the development of 'self-awareness' in the category of

'personal qualities and dispositions,' as a result of living by themselves, away from their family.

Discussion

The analytical results above indicate that Japanese students studying abroad (at least in the UK) may have triple-facet burdens: their individual challenges such as how to develop language or intercultural competence; how to cope with educational challenges caused by the weaknesses of both Japanese and the host country's educational styles; and how to overcome challenges at the affective level, such as hesitation in speaking to British classmates, caused by huge gaps in English proficiency between native-speakers and non-native speakers.

In this section, the author will further discuss and highlight some of the implications reported in the previous section which might be utilised in Japanese higher education.

The first implication is related to how to alleviate challenges at the affective level. As indicated by the comment in 6) Aptitude, possessing academic advantage seems to be a useful solution. If they study the related fields (even in Japanese) before they start a SA, they will be confident in their knowledge and be able to speak up more actively; otherwise they would bear the double burdens in comprehension, that is, both language and the content, which will lead to hesitation, fear, and pressure to speak up in the tutorial. The importance of learning content as well as the target language seems to be consistent with current trends in English education in Japan, as reflected in increasing attention to new methods such as CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning).

Another possibility might be a gradual exposure to English-speaking environment. It might be effective to start a first step with a programme conducted in countries where English is not used as the mother tongue or one involving only non-native speakers. In an interview with the author, F3 shared her unique and beneficial experience that contributed to improving her English proficiency before she came to the UK, specifically, her experience as a student ambassador to an international conference held by a non-profit organisation. In this project, as all other participants were non-native speakers of English, she felt relaxed to speak up and gained confidence in exchanging opinions with

them.

The second implication is related to SA programmes. It is especially important for individual participants to set clear purposes of their study and choose the most appropriate programme. In the current study, although all the participants appreciated their SA experience, they attributed the main benefits to their major and new thinking about their future options, not necessarily the development of language competence. The following comments in the second focus group include interesting observations.

- Comparing other SA programmes focusing on English with ours [joining an undergraduate programme], the former is more likely to improve English itself and skills measured by score. My friends who joined a language programme in the US for 3 to 5 months are now more familiar with useful expressions and achieve better scores. So, in terms of improving English, our way of studying may not be the best. (M2)

- I wanted to speak to my flat mates more. But I had to spend a lot of time preparing for classes and avoided speaking to them when I'm tired. If my workload had been smaller like a language programme, I might have had more chances to speak. (F3).

Another point arising in the second focus group regarding SA programmes is post-study environment. Both F1 and F2 revealed that, although they could not speak up in the UK as they wished, now in Japan they can speak up more in discussions, partly because the peer pressure they felt in the UK when surrounded by higher proficiency students is now removed. As implicated by DeKeyser (1991), there may be another phase to further improve their language competence after they come back to Japan. Therefore, post-SA programmes should be further investigated.

The third implication is how to make the most of the strengths of Japanese higher education. As presented in the analysis section, some participants appreciated the Japanese seminar system and the relationship between the professor and supervisee in Japan. Other participants showed a sort of

dissatisfaction with the Western way of essay writing. Although the importance of logical thinking underlying the essay writing in English is unquestionable, it might be more beneficial to incorporate something additional in the Japanese higher education. One possible option will be to incorporate a holistic point of view. As Nisbett and Miyamoto (2005) point out, Anglophone people tend to have an analytical point of view, which tries to analyse objects in pieces, while Asian people have a holistic one, trying to understand objectives as a whole through maximising the five senses. The importance of enhancing "sensitivity" based on the five senses both in education and in communication is argued for by Yanase (2016), not overemphasising the intellectual side that is basically supported and measured by evidence, numbers or logics. Recently there is a movement to try to master a foreign language by enhancing sensitivity (e.g., Murakami, 2017). The author also believes that the English education in Japan could have wider perspectives, instead of just following the trends of English speaking countries.

Conclusion

The current study has presented findings from two focus groups as major data, consisting of five Japanese university students studying in the UK for one year. It has revealed important challenges facing Japanese students, not only at the individual level but also at the institutional level caused by the weaknesses of both Japanese and British educational styles. It has also highlighted the difficulties they have faced after they returned to Japan, suggesting the importance of connecting a SA programme with post-SA programmes in Japan.

The current study, however, has limitations in respect of size and representation, in that all the participants were high proficiency students even before they studied in the UK and low proficiency learners were not included, even though the richness of description is most likely transferrable to various participants and situations.

In order to meet the various needs of this age of globalisation, many more studies are needed, both qualitatively and quantitatively, in order to reveal the challenges and opportunities students face

during SA programmes as well as pre- and post-SA instruction in Japan so that students will

maximise their gains through SA programmes.

Acknowledgements

Notes

[1] The title of this paper was modified from that of the paper presentation at the 56th JACET

World Conference, "The longitudinal changes of intercultural competency through

overseas study and impact on future career," considering that the current study discusses

not only the participants' intercultural competence, but also more broader issues, such as

challenges caused by the Japanese and British education systems.

[2] They are numbered just for convenience, not indicating any priority. The relationship

among the concepts are formed in the next Selective Coding stage.

[3] The comments were translated by the author in a way as close as how they were actually

commented. In order to make them easier to understand, some information was added in

brackets. The initial in the parentheses shows the speaker.

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Non-native Preservice English Teachers' Lexical Usage and Interactional Patterns in Transcriptions Coded on COLT Part B Scheme

Noriaki Katagiri

Hokkaido University of Education

Yukiko Ohashi

Yamazaki University of Animal Health Technology

Abstract

This exploratory quantitative case study attempted to analyze non-native preservice English teachers' target language use based on interactional patterns. We accumulated 14 non-native preservice English teachers on teaching practice demonstration during the years 2014 through 2016. We collected approximately 9,500 spoken English tokens, and 6,000 preservice teacher turns. We examined their spoken English tokens in genuine English utterances that excluded mixture of L1 and L2 utterances, and quantified distributions of teacher verbal interactions in five features classified in the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme (COLT) Part B coding scheme. The word frequency level measured by the benchmark wordlist showed that over 90% of the spoken tokens were distributed in the first 2,000 most frequently used words on the wordlist. N-gram analyses indicated the L2 phrases were classified mainly as instructional phrases used in the language classroom. The COLT coding revealed that the verbal interactions were less communicatively oriented due to the significance of giving information style than requesting information. The interaction coding also suggested that the L2-led interactions created relatively more communicative style due to the L2 significance in the not pseudo but genuine questions.

Keywords: preservice teachers, interactions, COLT, transcription, lexical usage

Introduction

Research Background

Ever since the governmental plan to "cultivate Japanese citizens to be able to use the English language" in 2002, the English education reform plans have not seemed to have caught up with its original goal. One of the most propellant measures of the reform plan is the current course of study by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan (MEXT), which stipulated that English should be principally taught through English in high school (MEXT, 2013). However, English proficiency of the high school English teachers is not sufficient. According to the MEXT's progress report on the reform plan, the English language proficiency of junior high school English teachers with Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) "B2" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 24) or higher amounted to 32% (MEXT, 2017). Also, the use of L2 (English) more than half of the class period resulted in Year 7, 72.3%; Year 8, 70.1%; Year 9, 66.8% (MEXT, 2017). Thus, empowering in-service teachers in lower and upper secondary schools is necessary (MEXT, 2014). Such need is urgent because the next course of study to be implemented in 2020 (MEXT, 2017) will mandate the junior high school English teachers to teach in English through English as well.

On the one hand, the current English education setting in secondary schools which requires the in-service English teachers to conduct communicative lessons in the target language, on the other hand, however, it is not until preservice teachers go on-site teaching practice that preservice teacher educators know their actual teaching skills. Conventionally, preservice teachers receive training in teaching practicum which usually lasts for as long as a few weeks to a month. Thus, the default value of teaching skills can be measured through this practicum period. If we obtain the default value of the preservice teachers on the teaching practicum, we will be able to propose relatively more effective teacher training programs. Such programs will lead to producing preservice teachers with relatively better teaching skills

when they are in service in the future. This is the inspiration for our research, and therefore, we attempted to analyze how preservice teachers conduct their lessons in the teaching practicum.

The Target Language Use

When we observe English lessons in secondary schools, we primarily focus on how communicative the English lesson is and how much the target language (TL), i.e., the English language, the English teacher uses. These two viewpoints are intertwined, and thus inseparable to analyze because the communicative language teaching (CLT) cannot be done without utilizing the TL during the L2 lesson. According to Spada and Fröhlich (1995), the target language (L2) "must be used" for the L2 development (p. 21).

In the 1980s, studies were conducted regarding preservice teachers in Japan. Osato (1980) attempted to improve preservice teachers' teaching skills through developing audio-visual teaching materials for communicative practice in the classroom. Ondo (1982) analyzed English language classroom interactions by examining eight preservice English teachers by tallies segmented by four-second in the talk length. The results revealed the average ratio of 63.3% in preservice teacher talk in "foreign language" (Ondo, 1982, p. 247). Ondo and Fujimori (1983) compared one preservice teacher's interactions with those of an experienced in-service teacher and found the English language use resulted in; preservice vs. in-service = 57% vs. 61%.

Regarding the in-service teachers, we do not have much recent TL use data besides the one announced by the MEXT (2017). The MEXT collected the data using the 3-point Likert scale although the data collection was nationwide. If the TL use had been quantified based on the TL utterances, we would have obtained the more precise description of how the in-service English teachers use the TL. Katagiri and Kawai (2013) quantified the utterances of in-service teachers' English in upper secondary schools and concluded that native teachers of English

assisted non-native English teachers to have communicative English lessons. Katagiri (2016) collected five in-service teachers' TL utterances in lower secondary schools and argued that the use of the TL in junior high school in-service English teachers was 63.6%. Katagiri and Ohashi (2017) reported that the use of TL in junior high school preservice English teachers was 32.9% based on six preservice teachers' entire utterances.

Communicative Language Teaching Analyses

Researchers created language classroom analysis schemes to date. A brief chronological listing of the classroom analysis method examples includes the Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) of Flanders (1970), the hierarchical classroom discourse structure proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), the communicative orientation of language teaching observation scheme (COLT) developed by Spada and Fröhlich (1995), and the Self Evaluation of Teacher-Talk framework (SETT) invented by Walsh (2006). The FIAC uses matrices to analyze teacher-student interactions. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) exemplified the initiation, response, and follow-up (IRF) patterns of teacher-student interactions structured in the classroom discourse. The IRF model formed the basis of language classroom analyses afterward and especially affected corpus-based classroom analyses. The COLT Part B uses classroom transcriptions to analyze communicativeness of language teaching, i.e., how "communicatively oriented" the interactions in the classroom are (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995, p. 7). Spada and Fröhlich (1995) proposed time sampling procedures due mainly to the difficulty of obtaining full transcripts of lessons because obtaining them is very time-consuming work.

Evaluation and Application of COLT Scheme

The COLT has been proved to be reliable classroom analysis schemes. For example, Aoki, Ishizuka, Yokoyama, Sakai, and Kawai (2008) used COLT Part B and examined the communicativeness of the university English language programs. They analyzed the teacher-student interactions coded on the COLT Part B scheme by incorporating sequential analyses (Markee, 2000). They concluded that the COLT Part B was an effective method to analyze

different teaching style of English university instructors. Katagiri and Kawai (2015) adapted the COLT Part B coding categories and developed a numerical coding using full transcripts. They enabled quantifying the literal coding with less labor. Ishizuka and Ohnishi (2016) invented the Online Platform for Transforming Foreign Language Research (CollaVOD) by embedding the COLT Part A scheme in the video system that researchers teacher trainers, as well as teacher trainees, can share the same lesson analyses online. The CollaVOD system increased the versatility of language classroom analyses. Sano, Katagiri, Sakai, and Shimura (2017) proved that COLT Scheme serves as a useful reflection tool for high school teachers. These research findings suggest that COLT could be considered to be a reliable tool for analyzing language classrooms. Therefore, the COLT scheme should serve as one of the established measurements for evaluating the communicativeness in language teaching.

Research Questions

Built upon the facts discussed in the preceding sections that said the unsatisfactory outcome of the English language reform, and the lack of data regarding the preservice English teachers' potential to conduct CLT lessons, it is of great interest to seek answers to the following research questions (RQs):

RQ1. How much target language (L2: English) do preservice teachers use?

RQ2. How communicative are preservice teachers in conducting their English classes?

Materials and Methods

Participants

Fourteen preservice teachers studying at a national university of education in Japan participated in the study. We collected the preservice teachers' classroom speech through opportunity sampling over three years, 2014 through 2016. The preservice teachers were juniors (the third year in college) with English language proficiency equivalent to CEFR B1

when the data collection took place. We explained the purpose of the study and obtained

consent forms from each participant. All the preservice teachers attended the teaching

practicum in September. We estimated that this period in the teacher training was appropriate

for the data collection because the preservice teachers had completed the courses that

qualified them for teaching English at junior high schools and they would not have further on-

site teaching practice after this period. Six of the participants (two males and four females)

taught Year 7 (the first year in junior high school), another six of them (two males and four

females) taught Year 8 (the second year in junior high school), and the rest two (two females)

taught Year 9 students (the final year in junior high school). The participants covered all

three-year grades in junior high school despite a discrepancy in their allotment in the teaching

practicum[1].

Procedure

Table 1 lists the five research steps to examine the 14 participants' (preservice English

teachers') teaching demonstrations in their teaching practicum. The procedure consists of

three stages; the first stage is collecting the participants' data through video recording their

Table 1

Research Procedure and Methods

Stage	Step	Purpose	Method
Data collection	1	Obtain preservice teacher English lesson demonstration	Video record lessons
Process the data	2	Quantify the target language use in the lesson	Transcribe utterances of the preservice teachers.
	3	Encode the full transcripts with COLT Part B features	Adapted COLT Part B scheme (numerical coding)
Analyze the data	4	Analyze their English words and word levels	・Word level distribution: *v8an.pl*[a] ・*N*-grams*: AntConc*[b]
	5	Characterize verbal interactions between the preservice teachers and the students	Quantitative analyses of the numerical coding

Note. [a]*v8an.pl* is a Perl script that runs on *Terminal*, a utility software attached to Mac OSX. [b]*AntConc* is computer software, which runs on Windows, Mac OSX, and Linux, created by Laurence Anthony. It is downloadable free at http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software.html.

teaching demonstration (Step 1). The following stages are twofold. The second stage

processes the obtained data. In this stage, we quantified the transcription (Step 2) to examine the language use and coded the transcription using the COLT Part B scheme (Step 3) for analyzing the verbal interactions of the participants. The third stage analyzes the processed data in Steps 2 and 3. We used computer software to calculate word usage (Step 4) and examined the communicativeness of the preservice teachers' lessons (Step 5) by the coded verbal interaction of the participants.

Results and Analyses

Preservice Teacher Language Use

This section overviews the participants' teaching demonstrations by observing the language use in their teaching demonstrations after Step 2 (Table 1). We transcribed the participants' teaching demonstration video recording, tabulated the transcripts by teacher turns, and coded their language use for Japanese (L1), English (L2), and the mixture of L1 and L2 (Mix). Figure 1 shows a coding spreadsheet sample. The transcripts were tabulated in the spreadsheet turn by turn.

	Utterances (Teacher and student speech)	Teacher coding representation	Student coding representain	Coding number	Off task	Target language	Information gap	Sustained speech	Reaction to form/ message	Incorporatio of student utterances
				1	Off task	L1	Giving Info. Predict.	Minimal	Form	Correction*
				2	---	L2	Giving Info. Unpredict.	Sustained	Message	Repetition
				3	---	Mix	Request Info. Pseudo requ.	---	---	Paraphrase
				4	---	---	Request Info. Genuine requ.	---	---	Commen
				5	---	---	---	---	---	Expansio
(Instructor) /				6	---	---	---	---	---	Clarif. request
				7	---	---	---	---	---	Elab. request
<JT>	Good morning, everyone.</JT>		2121000			2	1	1	0	0
<STS>	Good morning, Miss. Nishino, and Mr. Cameron, and Ms. Shimizu.</STS>	211000								
<ALT>	Good morning.</ALT>		2111000			2	1	1	0	0
<STS>	Good morning.</STS>	221000								
<ALT>	How are you?</ALT>		2213200			2	2	1	0	0
<ST>	I'm fine.</ST>		2213200							
<ST>	I'm hungry.</ST>	201207								
<ALT>	Hungry.</ALT>	101205				2	0	1	2	7
<JT>	<J>Mada nijikanme dayo.</J></JT>	221005				1	0	1	2	5
<ALT>	What's for lunch?</ALT>		2013204			2	2	1	0	5
<ST>	Curry rice!		2023204							
<ST>	Egg curry rice!									

Figure 1. Numerical coding sample on the spreadsheet aligned with the transcripts.

Table 2 shows the quantitative summary of the participants' teaching demonstration by the data collection years (2014, 2015, and 2016).

Table 2
The Number of Teacher Turns/Concatenated Numerical Coding Cases

Year	Participant ID (Grade)	Turn Count by Target language use			Turn count (n=6,059)	L2 ratio (%)
		L1	L2	Mix		
2014	1 (Y9)	230	161	0	391	**41.2**
	2 (Y7)	397	283	0	680	**41.6**
	3 (Y8)	111	13	1	125	**10.4**
	4 (Y7)	205	121	0	326	**37.1**
2015	5 (Y9)	147	59	71	277	**21.3**
	6 (Y7)	472	373	0	875	**42.6**
	7 (Y8)	133	47	6	186	**25.3**
	8 (Y8)	119	180	80	379	**47.5**
	9 (Y8)	374	85	51	510	**16.7**
	10 (Y7)	596	76	98	270	**28.1**
2016	11 (Y8)	128	240	97	465	**51.6**
	12 (Y7)	123	452	77	652	**69.3**
	13 (Y7)	163	269	42	474	**56.3**
	14 (Y8)	147	196	106	449	**43.7**
	M	*238.9*	*182.5*	*44.9*	*432.8*	***38.1***
	SD	*156.1*	*129.3*	*42.8*	*203.1*	***16.2***
	Minimum	*111*	*13*	*0*	*125*	***10.4***
	Maximum	*596*	*452*	*106*	*875*	***69.3***

Note. L1=the number of turns spoken in Japanese. L2=the number of turns spoken in English. Mix=the number of turns containing L1 and L2. Y=a year grade that the participant taught, e.g., "Y7" indicates the first year in junior high school.

Regarding the participants' L2 use based on the turn frequencies, their L2 ratios ranged from 10.4% to 69.3% (*M*=38.1% and *SD*=10.4%). A Friedman test was conducted to evaluate differences among the three target language use groups, i.e., L1, L2, and Mix. The test results showed significance (χ^2 (2, $N = 14$) = 16.72, $p < .001$). The Kendall coefficient of concordance of .59 indicated fair differences among the three language types. Follow up pairwise comparisons were conducted using a Wilcoxon test. While more L1 and L2 were used than mixed ($p = .001$; $p = .003$, two-tailed), no statistical difference was observed between the L1 and the L2 ($p = .272$, two-tailed). These results indicate that although the participants displayed lower tendency in their use of the Mix (the mixture of the L1 and the L2 in their utterances), they were not likely to use either of the L1 or the L2 more significantly than the other regarding turn frequencies based on the language use.

Lexical Analyses

Following the research Step 4 (Table 1), this section displays the results of lexical analyses of the participants based on. We examined the word levels examined on the benchmark wordlist and analyzed the *N*-grams of the preservice teachers' L2 utternaces.

Firstly, Figure 2 shows the result of the participants' word level distribution based on the JACET 8000 basic word list[2]. The word list classifies eight levels each level containing 1,000 words with Level 1 (*most frequent*) words, Level 8 (*least frequent*), and unlisted words as Level 9.

The word frequency level measured by the JACET 8000 wordlist showed that over 90% of the spoken tokens were distributed in the first 2,000 most frequently used words on the wordlist, and the almost 95% covered by the 8,000 words in the wordlist. The remaining 5% contained words outside the range of the wordlist, proper nouns, and contracted forms. According to McCarthy (1999), a "sudden drop" (p. 235) can be observed in the word list in the most frequently use words ranked from the top down to 1,800th - 2,000th in rank.

McCarthy (1999) explains these most frequently used words can serve as core words. A study

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Word Level	84.91	25.511	1.802	0.828	0.126	0.409	0.21	0.451	1.289
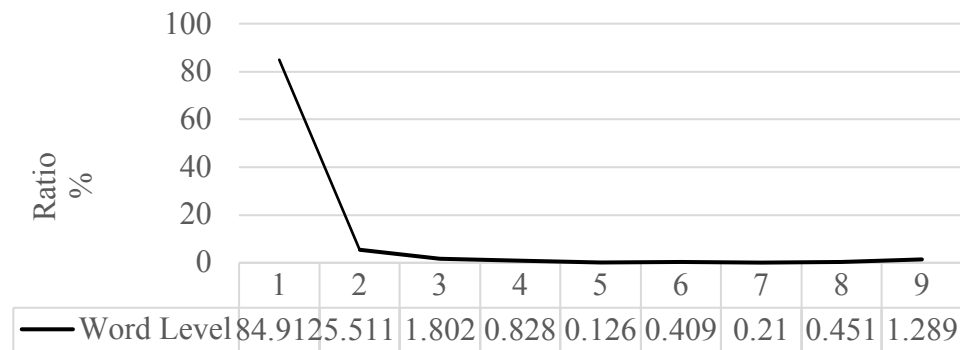
Figure 2. Word level distribution on JACET 8000 words.

by Katagiri (2016) yielded the similar results when he examined five junior high school in-service non-native teachers of English. The participants in this study showed the same characteristic in their L2 lexical usage, and thus, used such core lexical items to teach English in their practicum.

Secondly, we made *N*-grams (*N*=2, 3, and 4), and examined frequency distributions. The *N*-grams displayed skewed distributions (Figures 3 through 5). To be more precise, The *N*-gram frequency distributions also show the "sudden drop."
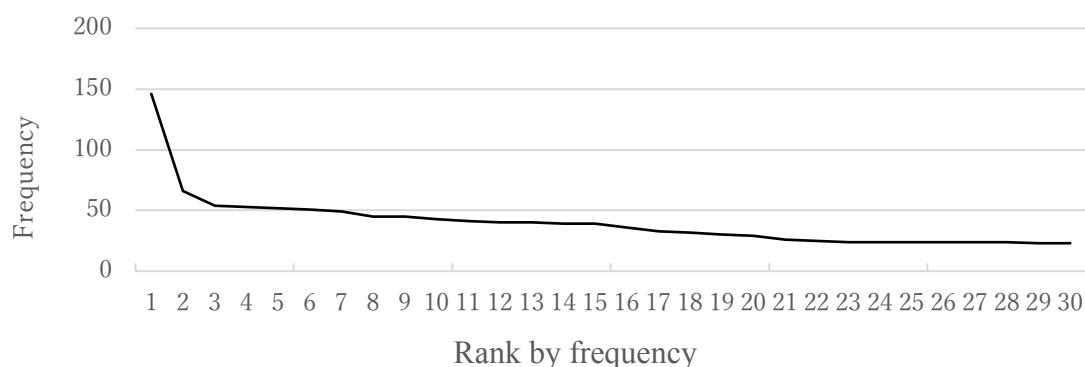
Figure 3. Bi-gram frequency distribution of the preservice teachers' L2 utterances.

In the *N*-gram frequency ranks (Figures 3 through 5), approximately the first five ranks seem to be the rank that initiates the drop, and after this rank, the *N*-gram frequency appears

to subside gradually. Thus, the *N*-grams that appear in approximately top 10 most frequent *N*-grams may be significant phrases that may constitute core phrases for the preservice teachers. Tables 3 and 4 list such core phrases (see also Appendix A and Appendix B for more tri-grams and four-grams respectively).
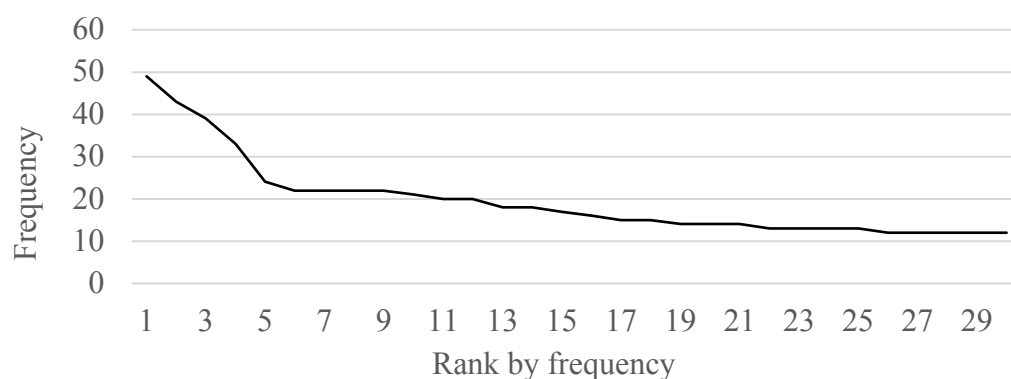
Figure 4. Tri-gram frequency distribution of the preservice teachers' L2 utterances.
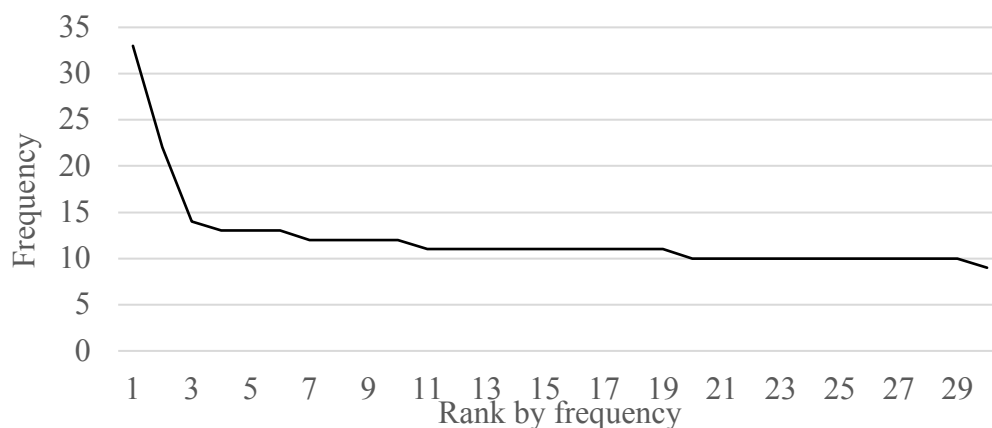
Figure 5. Four-gram frequency distribution of the preservice teachers' L2 utterances.

The most frequently used bi-grams (Table 3) seem to indicate core phrases that include action verbs such as *sit* (rank 3), *repeat* (rank 4), *let* (rank 9), and *look* (rank 12) that the participants used to conduct their lessons in English. The other bi-grams in the table can also be categorized as classroom management words to interact with the students, for example,

down please (rank 10), *very good* (rank 11), and *how about* (rank 21). We must note,
however, that *mustn t* is ranked second because this bi-gram was one of the grammatical items
dealt with at the time of the data collection (around September) when we recorded the
participants' Year 8 English lessons. Such context-dependent *N*-grams need careful attention
when analyzing the data.

Table 3
Top 30 Bi-grams

Rank	Frequency	Bi-gram[a]	Rank	Frequency	Bi-gram
1	146	do you	16	36	are you
2	66	mustn t	17	33	ok sit
3	54	sit down	18	32	i will
4	53	repeat after	19	30	want to
5	52	it s	20	29	you like
6	51	thank you	21	26	how about
7	49	after me	22	25	you have
8	45	don t	23	24	give you
9	45	let s	24	24	he is
10	43	down please	25	24	is my
11	41	very good	26	24	okay so
12	40	look at	27	24	the desk
13	40	you must	28	24	this is
14	39	stand up	29	23	ready set
15	39	you must (not)	30	23	set go

Note. [a]Bi-grams in contracted forms are shown without contraction character *'* (an
apostrophe) due to the software processing to delimit words, and therefore, *mustn t*
represents *mustn't* or *must not*. Thus, *it s*, *don t*, and *let s* represent *it's* (*it is)*, *don't* (*do not)*,
and *let's* (*let us*) respectively.

The tri-grams and four-grams (Table 4) appear to follow the same direction as the bi-
grams because we can observe the same action verbs and content words. For example, pairs
of *repeat after me* (tri-gram rank 1) and *ok repeat after me* (four-gram rank 4), and *sit down
please* (tri-tram rank 2) and *ok sit down please* (four-gram rank 1). Such examples indicate the
core phrases that the preservice teachers used to manage their English lessons through the
target language.

Table 4
Top 10 Tri-grams and Four-grams

Rank	Frequency	3-gram	Rank	Frequency	4-gram
1	49	repeat after me	1	33	ok sit down please
2	43	sit down please	2	22	do you want to
3	39	you mustn t[a]	3	14	you want to be
4	33	ok sit down	4	13	i will give you
5	24	do you like	4	13	ok repeat after me
6	22	do you have	4	13	what do you want
6	22	do you want	7	12	back to your seat
6	22	ready set go	7	12	get one million yen
6	22	you want to	7	12	go back to your
10	21	how about you	7	12	sit down please how

Note. [a]*mustn't* is interpreted by delimiting the contraction, and came out as a bi-gram *mustn t,* which should indicate *must not.*

These *N*-gram analyses seem to indicate the core phrases that the preservice teachers uttered relatively more frequently among their L2 turns to conduct their English lessons. The interactions when the preservice teachers used such expressions can be defined as the managerial *mode* that intends to "organize the physical learning environment" and the materials *mode* to "provide language practice around a piece of material" (Walsh, 2006, p. 66). We can conclude that the preservice teachers primarily intended to conduct their lessons in the L2 when they used L2 at all, although their varying L2 ratios (ranging from 10.4% to 69.3%) may not be as high as expected by the MEXT's stipulation (Table 2).

Verbal Interactions

COLT Part B coding categories and features. Table 5 lists the COLT Part B categories and features for coding teacher verbal interactions. The COLT Part B has six features (shown in the column heads) such as *target language use*, *information gap*, and *sustained speech*. Each category, except for *off task*, and includes several categories indicated by the corresponding coding number in the first column. For example, the category *L1* in the *target language use* feature is coded as "1", and the category *giving information*

unpredictable is coded "2" in the *information gap* feature. Thus, the categories that are represented literally are numerically coded according to the feature they belong to. Such numerical coding will be locally tabulated for quantifying the categories. Table 5 has the turn counts of the categories underneath each feature. For example, the turn count of the *L1* amounts to 2,758, and so does that of *giving information unpredictable* category 1,456.

Table 5
COLT Part B Coding 6 Features with Categories[a] and Verbal Interaction Count

Coding number	Off task	Target language use	Information gap	Sustained speech[b]	Reaction to form/ message	Incorporation of student utterances
1	Off task	L1	Giving Info. Predict.	Minimal	Form	Correction[c]
	40	2,758	2,142	5,178	2,388	1,629
2	---	L2	Giving Information Unpredictable	Sustained	Message	Repetition
		2,641	1,456	700	904	288
3	---	Mix	Request Information Pseudo request	---	---	Paraphrase
		659	408			27
4	---	---	Request Information Genuine request	---	---	Comment
			331			607
5	---	---	---	---	---	Expansion
						39
6	---	---	---	---	---	Clarification request
						20
7	---	---	---	---	---	Elaboration request
						53

Note. L1=Japanese language. L2=English language. Mix=the mixture of L1 and L2. Info.=information. Predict.=Predictable. [a]Adapted from Katagiri and Kawai (2015). [b]Spada and Fröhlich (1995) define "minimal" as the turn whose length is less than a few words long and "sustained" as consisting of at least three main clauses. [c]*Correction* is to be coded 10 for the sake of global coding from category concatenation since Spada and Fröhlich (1995) explained that this feature usually co-occurs with the other features in the same category, i.e., *incorporation of student utterances*.

Teacher verbal interaction. The numerical tabulation with categories coded locally was then concatenated to produce global numerical coding. We tabulated 262 global coding patterns among the 6,059 preservice teacher verbal interactions. Table 6 shows the 20 most

frequent verbal interactions of the preservice teachers in the concatenated numerical coding in the first column and the literal coding in the fourth column. The numerical global coding results were obtained by concatenating the numerical coding of the six features. The local numerical coding results in the six features (except for the off-task) represent six-digit numerals so that we can quantify the teacher verbal interactions. For example, if a teacher

Table 6
Teacher Verbal Interaction Count

COLT Part B Numerical coding (*N*=262)	Frequency (*N*=6,059)	Rank	COLT Part B literal coding
211000	599	1	L2/Giving Info. Predict/Minimal
121000	597	2	L1/Giving Info. Unpredict/Minimal
111000	595	3	L1/Giving Info. Predict./Minimal
101000	549	4	L1/Minimal
201000	474	5	L2/Minimal
221000	384	6	L2/Giving Info. Unpredict./Minimal
201204	121	7	L2/Minimal/Message/Comment
241000	116	8	L2/Request Info. Genuine requ./Minimal
231000	112	9	L2/Request Info. Pseudo requ./Minimal
321000	105	10	Mix/Giving Info. Unpredict./Minimal
131000	102	11	L1/Request Info. Pseudo requ./Minimal
311000	101	12	Mix/Giving Info. Predict./Minimal
101200	97	13	L1/Minimal/Message
301000	97	13	Mix/Minimal
222000	96	15	L2/Giving Info. Unpredict./Sustained
122000	77	16	L1/Giving Infro. Unpredict./Sustained
101204	75	17	L1/Minimal/Message/Comment
112000	68	18	L1/Giving Info. Predict./Sustained
202000	55	19	L2/Sustained
200204	53	20	L2/Message/Comment

Note. L1=Japanese language. L2=English language. Mix=the mixture of L1 and L2. Info.=Information. Predict.=Predictable. Unpredict.=Unpredictable.

turn is literally coded "L1/Giving Information Unpredictable/Sustained/Message/," its globally coded numeral will be "122200." Through this conversion, we quantified the preservice teacher interactions coded on the COLT Part B numerical coding scheme.

We argued that the preservice teachers used L2 to conduct lessons in English based on the lexical analyses, but the lexical analyses did not include how they led lessons in the L1 or the Mix. These 20 coding patterns (Table 6) include interactions made up of eight L1 utterances (40.0%), nine L2 utterances (45.0%), and three Mix utterances (15.0%). The rough estimation of the language use ratios falls in the L2 use ratio range (10.4%-69.3%). Such language use ratios observed in the global numerical coding imply that the preservice interactions might behave in the similar manner to their lexical usage we witnessed in the preceding sections.

Figure 6 illustrates the raw frequency coding occurrences by language use. Like the lexical frequencies (Figure 2) and the *N*-gram frequencies (Figure 3 through 5), the preservice teachers' verbal interactions represented by the target language use show sudden drops (with the Mix showing a less steep curb). Considering these drops, ranks around 5 to 15 appear to be the ones that distinguish the core interactional patterns of the preservice teachers.
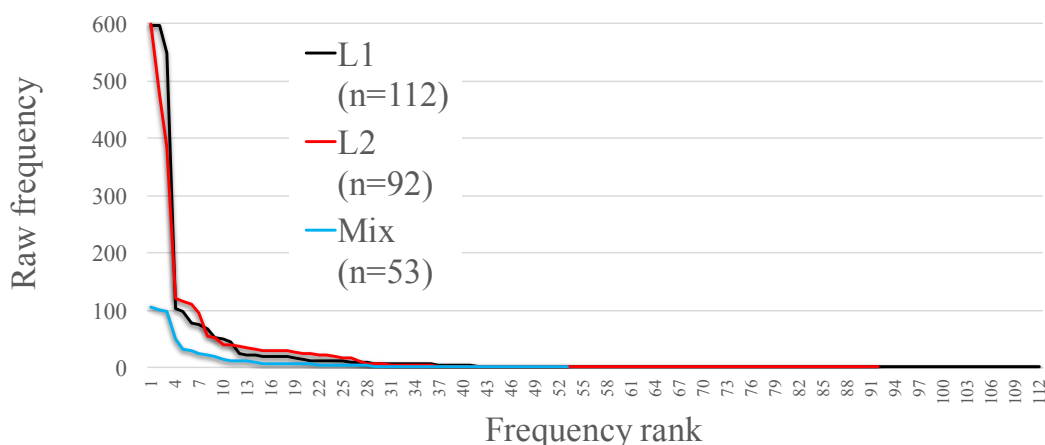

Figure 6. Raw frequency coding occurrences by language use.

Tables 7 through 9 respectively display the top 20 COLT Part B (literal) coding patterns of the preservice teacher interactions with their students. These three tables show that among the top 20 coding patterns, the *information gap* feature such as *giving information* and *requesting information* majorly constitutes the verbal interaction patterns despite the target language use (L1=75.0%; L2=70.0%; Mix=65.0%).

The global coding shown in Tables 7 through 9 illustrated the verbal interactional patterns consisting of more *information gap* features than the others. Such patterns can be

Table 7
Top 20 COLT Part B Literal Coding by L1 Frequency

Frequency (N=6059)	Rank	L1 Rank	Literal coding
597	2	1	**L1**/Giving Info. Unpredict/Minimal
595	3	2	**L1**/Giving Info. Predict./Minimal
549	4	3	**L1**/Minimal
102	11	4	**L1**/Request Info. Pseudo requ./Minimal
97	13	5	**L1**/Minimal/Message
77	16	6	**L1**/Giving Infro. Unpredict./Sustained
75	17	7	**L1**/Minimal/Message/Comment
68	18	8	**L1**/Giving Info. Predict./Sustained
52	21	9	**L1**/Request Info. Genuine requ./Minimal
49	23	10	**L1**/Sustained
45	24	11	**L1**/Message/Comment
24	40	12	**L1**/Minimal/Message/Repetition
22	43	13	**L1**/Sustained/Message/Comment
21	44	14	**L1**/Request Info. Genuine requ./Sustained
20	46	15	**L1**/Minimal/Comment
20	46	16	**L1**/Request Info. Pseudo requ./Sustained
19	49	17	**L1**/Minimal/Form/Comment
19	49	18	**L1**/Giving Info. Unpredict./Minimal/Message
16	54	19	**L1**/Minimal/Form
14	55	20	**L1**/Request Info. Pseudo requ./Minimal/Message

Note. L1=Japanese language. L2=English language. Mix=the mixture of L1 and L2. Info.=Information. Predict.=Predictable. Unpredict.=Unpredictable.

Table 8
Top 20 COLT Part B Literal Coding by L2 Frequency

Frequency (N=6,059)	Rank	L2 Rank	Literal coding
599	1	1	**L2**/Giving Info. Predict/Minimal
474	5	2	**L2**/Minimal
384	6	3	**L2**/Giving Info. Unpredict./Minimal
121	7	4	**L2**/Minimal/Message/Comment
116	8	5	**L2**/Request Info. Genuine requ.
112	9	6	**L2**/Request Info. Pseudo requ./Minimal
96	15	7	**L2**/Giving Info. Unpredict/Sustained
55	19	8	**L2**/Sustained
53	20	9	**L2**/Message/Comment
41	25	10	**L2**/Giving Info. Predict./Minimal/Form/Repetition
40	26	11	**L2**/Request Info. Genuine requ./Sustained
37	27	12	**L2**/Minimal/Form/Repetition
36	28	13	**L2**/Minimal/Repetition
33	29	14	**L2**/Request Info. Pseudo requ./Minimal/Message
31	31	15	**L2**/Minimal/Message/Repetition
31	31	15	**L2**/Giving Info. Predict./Minimal/Message/Repetition
29	33	17	**L2**/Giving Info. Predict./Sustained
29	33	17	**L2**/Request Info. Genuine requ./Sustained/Message/ Comment
27	36	19	**L2**/Sustained/Message/Comment
26	37	20	**L2**/Giving Info. Predict./Minimal/Message/Comment

Note. L1=Japanese language. L2=English language. Mix=the mixture of L1 and L2. Info.=Information. Predict.=Predictable. Unpredict.=Unpredictable.

Table 9
Top 20 COLT Part B Literal Coding by Mix Frequency

Frequency (N=6,059)	Rank	Mix Rank	Literal coding
105	10	1	**Mix**/Giving Info. Unpredict./Minimal
101	12	2	**Mix**/Giving Info. Predict./Minimal
97	13	3	**Mix**/Minimal
51	22	4	**Mix**/Giving Info. Unpredict./Minimal/Form
33	29	5	**Mix**/Request Info. Pseudo requ./Minimal
29	33	6	**Mix**/Giving Info. Unpredict./Sustained
25	38	7	**Mix**/Giving Info. Predict./Sustained
23	41	8	**Mix**/Giving Info. Unpredict./Minimal/Message
19	49	9	**Mix**/Sustained
14	55	10	**Mix**/Minimal/Message
12	58	11	**Mix**/Sustained/Message/Comment
12	58	11	**Mix**/Request Info. Pseudo requ./Sustained
12	58	11	**Mix**/Request Info. Genuine requ./Sustained
9	68	14	**Mix**/Minimal/Repetition
8	70	15	**Mix**/Minimal/Comment
8	70	15	**Mix**/Minimal/Form
8	70	15	**Mix**/Minimal/Message/Comment
6	81	18	**Mix**/Giving Info. Predict./Minimal/Form/Comment
6	81	18	**Mix**/Giving Info. Predict./Minimal/Message
6	81	18	**Mix**/Request Info. Pseudo requ./Minimal/Form
6	81	18	**Mix**/Request Info. Genuine requ./Sustained/Message/Comment

Note. L1=Japanese language. L2=English language. Mix=the mixture of L1 and L2. Info.=Information. Predict.=Predictable. Unpredict.=Unpredictable.

regarded as forming the fundamental language classroom discourse structure made up of IRF sequences. The preservice teachers conformed to the language teaching norm in this regard.

There might be an issue in calculating the language use by turns because of the length of the turns can fluctuate. However, among these top 20 coding patterns shown in Tables 7 through 9, the minimal speech ratio (minimal turn frequency vs. sustained turn frequency) in each target language use resulted in 89.4% for L1 (2079 vs. 257), 87.5% for L2 (1925 vs. 276), and 80.5% for Mix (475 vs. 115). Thus, we approximated that the target language use ratios were reflected by the turn frequency count.

Giving vs. requesting information. Table 10 shows the results of the Chi-squared test comparing the giving information and requesting information. The preservice teachers used significantly more *giving information* interactions than *requesting information* ones. This implies that the preservice teachers were more likely to teach, tell, and give answers to the questions they asked in their teaching demonstrations.

Table 10
Statistical Testing on Giving vs. Requesting Turn Count

Information Gap	COLT Part B coding	Target Language Use			Turn count (Mix excluded)	p-value
		L1	L2	Mix		
	Giving Info. Predict/ Minimal	595	599	101		
Giving Information	Giving Info. Predict./ Sustained	18	29	25	2,395	
	Giving Info. Unpredict/ Minimal	597	384	105		
	Giving Info. Unpredict./ Sustained	77	96	29		$p = .0000$ ** ($p<.01$)
	Request Info. Pseudo requ./ Minimal	102	112	33		
Requesting Information	Request Info.Pseudo requ./ Sustained	20	3	12	466	
	Request Info. Genuine requ./ Minimal	52	116	2		
	Request Info. Genuine requ./ Sustained	21	40	12		

Note. L1=Japanese language. L2=English language. Mix=the mixture of L1 and L2. Info.=Information. Predict.=Predictable. Unpredict.=Unpredictable.

Predictable vs. unpredictable and pseudo vs. genuine. Table 11 shows the results of the Chi-squared test comparing the categories in the same *information gap* feature. To be exact, we examined *predictable information* and *unpredictable information* (in the *giving information* category) and also compared *pseudo request* and *genuine requests* (in the *requesting information* category).

Table 11
Statistical Testing on Pseudo (Predictable) vs. Genuine (Unpredictable) Turn Count

Information Gap	COLT Part B coding	Target Language Use			Turn count (Mix excluded)	*p*-value (Mix excluded)
		L1	L2	Mix		
Giving Information	Giving Info. **Predict.**/Minimal	595	599	101	1,241	*p*= .0394 * (*p*<.05)
	Giving Info. **Predict.**/Sustained	18	29	25		
	Giving Info. **Unpredict.**/Minimal	597	384	105	1,154	
	Giving Info. **Unpredict.**/Sustained	77	96	29		
Requesting Information	Request Info. **Pseudo requ.**/Minimal	102	112	33	237	*p*= .4817 *ns* (.10<*p*)
	Request Info. **Pseudo requ.**/Sustained	20	3	12		
	Request Info. **Genuine requ.**/Minimal	52	116	2	229	
	Request Info. **Genuine requ.**/Sustained	21	40	12		

Note. L1=Japanese language. L2=English language. Mix=the mixture of L1 and L2. Info.=Information. Predict.=Predictable. Unpredict.=Unpredictable.

As for the *giving information* category, the preservice teachers used significantly more *giving predictable information* interactions than *unpredictable*. This result indicates that the preservice teachers were more likely to provide answers to the questions and confirm the content of the lesson materials. In this respect, the verbal interaction patterns of the preservice teachers were less communicative because the interactions did not base the communicatively genuine needs between the preservice teachers and their students.

Regarding the *requesting information* category, the preservice teachers did not show a statistical difference between their use of *pseudo requests* and *genuine requests*. However, considering the significantly less use of the *requesting information* interactions than that of

giving information interactions, we can safely judge that the preservice teacher demonstration lessons were still not quite communicatively oriented.

Information gap interactions and the target language use. We saw the preservice teachers' language use focusing on the L2 turn frequency and the L2 lexical frequency distribution based on frequency levels and the L2 *N*-gram characteristics. We also examined the preservice teachers' interaction patterns based on the COLT Part B coding features and categories. This section examines whether the preservice teachers' target language use differentiated the verbal interaction patterns.

Table 12 displays the results of the Chi-squared tests on the COLT Part B global coding of the preservice teachers' *information gap* verbal interaction count based on their *target language use*. All but the "Giving Info. Predict./Sustained" coding showed significance in the preservice teachers' target language use. These must have resulted from mainly the lower quantity of the Mix usage than the L1 and the L2 except for "Request Info. Pseudo requ./Sustained."

Table 12
Statistical Testing Results on COLT Part B Coding Count by Language Use

COLT Part B coding		Frequency by target language use			Chi-squared test
		L1	**L2**	**Mix**	
Giving Info. Predict/	Minimal	595	599	101	$x^2(2)= 380.004, p < .01$
Giving Info. Predict./	Sustained	18	29	25	$x^2(2)= 2.584, ns$
Giving Info. Unpredict/	Minimal	597	384	105	$x^2(2)= 336.382, p < .01$
Giving Info. Unpredict. /	Sustained	77	96	29	$x^2(2)= 35.419, p < .01$
Request Info. Pseudo requ./	Minimal	102	112	33	$x^2(2)= 44.952, p < .01$
Request Info.Pseudo requ./	Sustained	20	3	12	$x^2(2)= 12.401, p < .01$
Request Info. Genuine requ./	Minimal	52	116	2	$x^2(2)= 115.259, p < .01$
Request Info. Genuine requ./	Sustained	21	40	12	$x^2(2)= 16.796, p < .01$

Note. L1=Japanese language. L2=English language. Mix=the mixture of L1 and L2. Info.=Information. Predict.=Predictable. Unpredict.=Unpredictable.

Table 13 displays the results of the Chi-squared tests using the same data set that excluded the Mix count. If we disregard the Mix usage due to the significantly low quantity and examine the target language use effect on the preservice teachers' interactions, we will see the L1 use had significantly more "Giving Info. Unpredict./Minimal" and "Request Info.Pseudo requ./ Sustained," which is to indicate that the preservice teachers depended on the L1 to disclose unknown information and to ask referential questions rather than the L2.

Table 13
Statistical Testing Results on COLT Part B Coding Count by Language Use (Mix Excluded)

COLT Part B coding	Frequency by target language use		Chi-squared test
	L1	**L2**	
Giving Info. Predict/Minimal	595	599	$p = .4654$, *ns* $(.10 < p)$
Giving Infro. Predict./Sustained	18	29	$p = .0719$, + $(.05 < p < .10)$
Giving Info. Unpredict./Minimal	597	384	$p = .0000$, ** $(p < .01)$
Giving Info. Unpredict. /Sustained	77	96	$p = .0855$, + $(.05 < p < .10)$
Request Info. Pseudo requ./Minimal	102	112	$p = .2693$, *ns* $(.10 < p)$
Request Info.Pseudo requ./ Sustained	20	3	$p = .0002$, ** $(p < .01)$
Request Info. Genuine requ./ Minimal	52	116	$p = .0000$, ** $(p < .01)$
Request Info. Genuine requ./ Sustained	21	40	$p = .0102$, * $(p < .05)$

Note. L1=Japanese language. L2=English language. Mix=the mixture of L1 and L2. Info.=Information. Predict.=Predictable. Unpredict.=Unpredictable.

The L2 may have more significantly affected the preservice teachers in their use of "Request Info. Genuine requ./ Minimal" and "Request Info. Genuine requ./ Sustained" interactions. Although the preservice teachers used the significantly smaller number of *requesting information* interactions than those of *giving information* (Table 10), they seemed to incorporate more referential questions in the L2 whether the questions were *minimal* or *sustained* when they used the L2 to interact with the students. On the one hand, the preservice teachers tended to depend on the L1 in "Giving Info. Unpredict/Minimal," and on the other hand, they used the L2 to initiate interactions coded as "Request Info. Genuine requ."

Discussion and Conclusion

Answers to the Research Questions

Our research findings will give answers to the two research questions we proposed. We will discuss the answers with evidence found in our research results.

RQ1. How much target language (L2: English) do preservice teachers use?

The preservice teachers' choice of the target language use in our data varied among the participants (Table 2). The L2 use ratios by turns among the participants ranged from the minimum of 10.4% to the maximum of 69.3%. These varying L2 use ratios may not be able to generalize the preservice teachers' L2 use. However, if we focus on each participant's *target language use*, we will see that the preservice teachers' use of the L1 and the L2 use did not show a significant discrepancy, but showed significantly less use of the Mix over the L1 and L2. In this sense, the preservice teachers should be encouraged to incorporate more L2 runs when teaching English.

The preservice teachers' L2 use seemed to correspond to the general lexical frequency appearances which show the sudden drop after the first 2,000 words in the benchmark word list (Figure 2). The *N*-gram analyses also witnessed the same tendency in the most frequently used *N*-grams (Figures 3 through 5). The preservice teachers used the core L2 lexical items to conduct their teaching demonstrations when they had opportunities to have verbal interactions with their students in the L2 (Tables 3 and 4).

RQ 2. How communicative are preservice teachers in conducting their English classes?

Measuring the communicativeness based on the *information gap* category and analyzing the interaction results imply a general answer to this question. The preservice teachers were more likely to conduct English lessons by using significantly more *giving information* verbal interactions than those consisting of *requesting information* (Table 10). This tendency shown in the information gap category statistically proved to be more *giving*

predictable information style rather than *giving unpredictable information* style (Table 11). Thus, the preservice teachers' English lessons are less communicatively oriented than otherwise since the genuine communication relies on exchanging unpredictable information rather than predictable information.

Comparing the target language use showed significance in the information gap category features (Table 12). Excluding the interactions made up of the Mix, the mixture of the L1 and the L2, due to relatively lower occurrences than the other two, and focusing on the L1 and the L2 revealed the significantly more frequent use of "Request Info. Genuine request" in the L2 than the L1 whether the interactions were *minimal* or *sustained* (Table 13). This implies that for *genuine* communicative purposes, the preservice teachers utilized more L2 than L1when interacting with the students. Therefore, we conclude that although the preservice teachers were not so communicatively oriented as the MEXT's expectation in terms of the L2 use, they were more communicative once they resorted to the L2 to initiate communicative interactions with the students. However, considering the approximately even use of the preservice teachers' L1 and L2 turns, the quantity of the L2 communicative turns coded as "Request Info. Genuine request" needs multiplying.

Limitations and Future Research Proposals

We are aware of at least four limitations to our research. We will state these limitations to enhance the quality of the future research to be proposed in this section.

First, since the present research is a case study to have a glimpse of preservice teachers' communicativeness in their teaching demonstrations by obtaining the data through opportunity sampling, we could not estimate a specific number of participants until we finished sampling the data from all the participants. More participants would enable us to obtain a new insight into the preservice teacher interactions based on the degree of their L2 use for example. We need to have a wider variety of preservice teachers who teach different

school grades, and preferably who teach at different times of the school year so that they will have interactions with the students in different stages of language development.

Second, the COLT Part B coding had revealed relatively fewer cases of *reaction to form/message* and i*ncorporation of student utterances* appearing with the *information gap* categories such as *giving info* features and *requesting info* features (Tables 6 through 9). However, basing the interaction analyses on the feature, "form/message" should have been more emphasized due to the skewed occurrences of the *form* usage over the *message* focused interactions of the preservice teachers (Table 5). If we assist the preservice teachers to initiate more *message*-oriented interactions as well as "incorporating the student utterances" such as *paraphrase*, *expansion*, and *elaboration request* categories in the COLT Part B scheme, we will evaluate how much communicativeness the preservice teachers develop in conducting their English language lessons. Analyzing the lessons focusing on the materials and the use of four language skills would give us new perspectives regarding the preservice teachers' communicativeness. The COLT Part A (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) coding features such as "participant organization," "content control" and "student modality" can examine such qualitative features. Synthesizing the COLT Part A analyses with the present study results would enhance the precision of interpreting the interactions between the preservice teachers and their students.

Third, we were unable to examine the verbal interactions among the same year grades (Year 7, 8, and 9) due to the insufficient number of the participants for us to conduct statistical analyses. Analyzing the verbal interactions based on the year grades that the preservice teachers taught might have yielded findings that would have been more clear-cut. In this sense again, we need to have more participants in the future research, or we must at least keep on accumulating samples of teaching practicum demonstration of preservice teachers who will contribute to the research.

Finally, it would have been pedagogically more beneficial to include the student verbal interactions. The primary focus of this case study was on the preservice teachers' teaching demonstrations, and thus, we dealt with the preservice teachers' verbal interactions exclusively. However, since in the IRF discourse model *R* usually represents the students' responses, incorporating the students' verbal interactions with the preservice teachers would reveal cases why the preservice teachers used more L1 than L2, and whether the preservice teachers' L2 genuine questions triggered communicative interactions with the students. Analyzing teacher-student interactions sequentially, for example, could be a possibility of the future research.

Pedagogical Implications

Based on the research findings regarding the preservice teachers' verbal interactions, we will propose the following two points to be instructed to the preservice teachers who are to carry out the next course of study's guideline that stipulates teaching the English language in principle through English at the lower secondary level.

Firstly, it would be advisable for preservice teacher trainers to encourage the preservice teachers to incorporate more genuine questions in the L2. We found the L2 superiority in the verbal interaction quantity to the L1 in genuine questions. The focal point was that the L2 interactions were found to be significantly smaller in number. If the preservice teachers are to increase the L2 *genuine* questions in teaching, they will be able to conduct more communicative English lessons, and their students will eventually benefit from such a communicative language teaching style.

Secondly, it would be better for the preservice teachers to control the interactions to be more message oriented. Although the global coding did not show co-occurrences of *form* or *message* features with the *information gap* features, the local counting of *the form* (n=2,338) and that of the *message* (n=904) deserve attention (Table 5). The majority of the preservice teachers' verbal interactions were uttered (and therefore coded) in either L1 or L2 (Table 2),

resulting in the preservice teachers having depended on the L1 for instructing and teaching lessons with *giving information* interactions to instruct and teach lessons (Tables 10 and 11), and on the L2 for having communicative interactions (Table 13). The preservice teachers' preferred use of the *form* interactions to the *message* interactions might support the dominance of *giving predictable information* interactions over asking *genuine* questions. If preservice teachers are to utilize more message-oriented interactions, they will be more likely to conduct more communicative English lessons.

Notes

[1] It was practically impossible to control the allotment of the preservice teachers due to the teaching practice system in Japan. Usually, the preservice teachers are arbitrarily assigned to teach a specific (year) grade based on the mentors whom they will be assigned to in the teaching practicum.

[2] The current version of the JACET 8000 basic word list was renewed in 2016. We used the previous generation of the JACET 8000 published in 2003 for our analyses due mainly to the compatibility of the results shown in the previous studies using the predecessor of the current version.

Acknowledgements

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Appendices

Appendix A	Appendix B

Top 26 Tri-grams	Top 30 Four-grams

Rank	Freq	3-gram	Rank	Freq	4-gram
1	49	repeat after me	1	33	ok sit down please
2	43	sit down please	2	22	do you want to
3	39	you mustn t[a]	3	14	you want to be
4	33	ok sit down	4	13	i will give you
5	24	do you like	4	13	ok repeat after me
6	22	do you have	4	13	what do you want
6	22	do you want	7	12	back to your seat
6	22	ready set go	7	12	get one million yen
6	22	you want to	7	12	go back to your
10	21	how about you	7	12	sit down please how
11	20	do you know	11	11	are here you are
11	20	raise your hand	11	11	do you have any
13	18	are you ready	11	11	down please how about
13	18	what do you	11	11	here you are here
15	17	please stand up	11	11	please how about you
16	16	you must not	11	11	thank you very much
17	15	ok repeat after	11	11	where is my pen
17	15	ok thank you	11	11	you are here you
19	14	here you are	11	11	you mustn t[a] eat
19	14	want to be	20	10	after me you mustn[b]
19	14	where is my	20	10	again you mustn t[a]
22	13	i will give	20	10	day is it today
22	13	mustn t[a] eat	20	10	me you mustn t[a]
22	13	switch the roll	20	10	ok are you ready
22	13	will give you	20	10	once again you mustn[b]
26	12	back to your	20	10	repeat after me you
26	12	down please how	20	10	t[c] eat too much
26	12	get one million	20	10	what day is it
26	12	go back to	20	10	you have any questions
26	12	is my pen	30	9	look at the blackboard
26	12	ok do you	30	9	sit down please ok
26	12	ok very good			
26	12	one million yen			
26	12	ready go ok			
26	12	stand up please			
26	12	thank you very			
26	12	to your seat			

Note. Freq=Frequency. [a]*mustn't* is interpreted by delimiting the contraction, and came out as a bi-gram *mustn t*, which should indicate *must not.* [b]*mustn* results from *mustn't*, which is separated into *mustn* and *t* by the computer software's de-contraction process. [c]*t* comes out of *not* which is separated from the contracted form *mustn't*.

Note. Freq=Frequency. [a]*mustn't* is interpreted by delimiting the contraction, and came out as a bi-gram *mustn t*, which should indicate *must not.*

Student Views of the Monolingual Method

Shigeko Shimazu

Tamagawa University[1]

Abstract

Owing to globalization, the demands of communicative skills in English have increased. Consequently, the monolingual method has prevailed in English teaching and learning, which focuses on learners' interactions with other people and environment to nurture communicative skills in English. This study explores students' experience and opinions about the monolingual method in depth in semi-formal interviews. The result showed that two students supported the method while seven students did not; five students had mixed views and saw advantages and disadvantages. This study discusses possible impacts of the monolingual method on English education.

Keywords: the monolingual method, globalization, mother tongue, accuracy, fluency

Introduction

In the last few decades, through migration, economic exchange, and access to digital communication, several varieties of English have arisen due to the global need of vernacular language (i.e. English). In reality, global competition at work (e.g. an official use of English at work) and in education (e.g. internationalization of education) appears to be fierce. Concomitantly, the omnipresence of English as a lingua franca entered Japan and the Japanese government set the goal of promoting communicative skills at all levels in 2002. This national

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[1] The author's current affiliation is Komazawa University.

effort was led by curriculum reforms. One was the JET program which invites native English speakers to teach in Japan and to introduce their cultures. Also, textbooks were revised and adapted to include more communicative dialogues. At the university level, many universities created language programs that implicitly focus on English as an International language.

Consequently, English Medium instruction (hereafter the monolingual method) has become popular around the world. In European higher education, English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) is defined as the use of English language for content among students and teachers from different language background (Smit, 2016). The monolingual method in this study is defined as use of English for English study which is originated from this belief in forging communicative skills by using the target language. Squarely, English teachers are facing two main problems: 1) the task of selecting teaching methods, materials, and models of discourse and 2) assessment (e.g. accuracy or fluency). However, the author posits that while L2 learners are confronting with a lack of English milieu in life, the effect of the monolingual method is unclear. Therefore, there is a need for a critical awareness toward language teaching and its effects in class. The aim of this study is to explore the Japanese students' experiences and their views on whether or not they support the monolingual method of English study. The monolingual method in this study including two returnees' comments refers to teach and learn English as a foreign language in English. What follows will provide the conceptual framework and results of this study and the possible implications for English study.

Background of the Study

Traditionally, in Japan, university entrance examination is one of academic goal in Japan and that English is considered to be one of the most important subjects to be qualified to higher education. Takahashi (2004) wrote that, in the year 2000, around 95% of junior high school graduates in Japan advanced to senior high school, 70 % of which went on to universities or colleges. Woolfolk, Hughes, and Walkup (2008) wrote, "The average six year -

old has a vocabulary of 8.000 to 14.000 words growing to about 40.000 by age 11" (p. 68), while the curriculum decreed by the Ministry of Education, culture, Sports, Science and Technology (hereafter MEXT) covers only 2,300 at the time of graduation from high schools. This means that there is insurmountable gaps between native and nonnative speakers' vocabulary size while communicative skills are being neglected in class. It implies that EFL does not exist in instructional isolation, but it is closely connected and intertwined with a whole range of issues in national economy, politics, education and culture" (Makovara & Rodgers, 2004).

In reaction to the global changes, MEXT set the goal of communicative skills in English which is seen as a tool for the workforce in the capitalist society (Byram, 2008). It appears that Japanese students have shouldered many expectations from home, school and society until they entered the universities. Keeping in mind these students' dilemma, this raises the question whether this aim matches with that of the learners. What challenges are facing the stakeholders as to the monolingual method? The study aims to find students' perspective beyond market mechanisms. What follows will provide the conceptual framework and the results of this study, and the possible implications of English study.

Literature Review

Due to the global spread of English, the governments of non-native speaking countries have undertaken education reforms (Phillipson, 2009) including Early English education, monolingual instruction and an increased number of native English teachers. Globally, in non-native speaking countries, teaching higher education in English (EMI) in content studies has become popular in many non-English speaking countries (Tamtam, Gallagher, Olabi, & Naher, 2012). Without consensus about its effects, many schools encourage English only instruction of English study (hereafter the monolingual method). Squarely, English teaching and learning principles have been studied by numbers of researchers. There are three

perspectives on the use of the monolingual methods: 1) the method would have positive

impacts; (Hashimoto, 2004, p. 2) 2) There should be reverse effects in learning (Bjorkman,

2017; Hornberger, 2005; Matsuura, Fujieda, & Mahoney, 2004; Weschler, 1997); and lastly, 3)

L1 use would be necessary (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Liao, 2006).

Firstly, Cummins (n.d) wrote that the mother tongues and target language should be

kept separately which emphasizes instructional use of the target language (TL) encourage

students to think in the target language with minimal interference from L1. This principle

initially gained widespread acceptance more than 100 years ago (Howatt & Widdowson,

2004). In much similar vein, Tamtam et al. (2012) and Hashimoto (2004) support the method

and noted that graduate students who learned through English only instruction would have

higher chances of recruitment. Correspondingly, in Europe, the monolingual method aims to

promote internationalization of higher education to expose the learners with students with

different cultures (Muszynska, & Gomez, 2015; Smit, 2014). Concomitantly, learners are

expected to develop intercultural attitudes in global era by studying in teams of the students

from diverse societies (Glatza, 2015). Despite various advantages of the monolingual method,

a number of problems are reported (Nha & Burn, 2014). The learner is expected to be active

in the monolingual class (Horwitz, 1999). Its goal is to develop communicative competence,

which is the ability to use English in a social setting (Hymes, 1970). However, at present,

code-switching, and phonological and grammatical accommodations of L1 are heavily

penalized whereas Standard English is still widely seen as the ideal goal for English as a

foreign language (Murata & Jenkins, 2003), which raise the question of assessments. Nha and

Burn (2014) wrote that the rapid spread of the monolingual methods does not imply success

owing to lack of competent teachers, students' English proficiency, and inadequate support

including time and teaching materials. Howritz (1999) pointed out that the impacts of

translation vary with the different target language learning, he also noted that EFL learners

support guessing which implies that it is difficult to use English without any errors. Nha and

Burn (2014) argues that English only instruction has mixed results because the method relies on personal factors including teachers' and students' English proficiencies. Consequently, it takes more time to comprehend the same context. According to Glatza (2015), in Austria, the impact of English only instruction is intercultural experience rather than content learning. Muszynska and Gomez (2015) considered that success of education is measured by the results, and he examined bilingual education in four countries (Poland, Spain, the Netherlands and Belgium). The result showed that teachers' qualification is the greatest issue for implementing the bilingual method while students' achievements vary. They emphasize the urgent need for teacher' training and material development. In sum, as Maybin (1993) noted, English studying involves not only language skills but also culture.

　　　Thirdly, Matsuura, Fujieda, and Mahoney (2004) noted that the students prefer the use of mother tongue (hereafter L1) in class. Wescheler (1997) studied the monolingual method in a Japanese school and reported that Japanese schools are not ready for its implementation because of a lack of dedicated time for EFL. While there is a lack teacher' English language proficiency, teachers' affect in EFL is higher than in other subjects (Horwitz, 1999). Importantly, as language catches up with cognition in late infancy and early childhood Bowerman and Levinson (2001) and that there is a lack fairness. The study (Shimazu, 2013) shows that the family environments in early days has long term effects on leaners' psychological and academic performances. Lastly, another important issue is learners' beliefs about language learning (Horwitz, 1999). In Japan, owing to a lack of English milieu, most EFL learners have instrumental motivation rather than integrative motivation (Horwitz, 1999). While these positive/negative views in debates are impacting in the above quotations, the author feels that efficiencies of the monolingual method would be entwined to learners' environment and motivation rather than culture differences or ability. The next section will consider the research methods used in this study.

Present Study

Methods

In order to investigate the question in a new/original way, my approach was to ask the students' opinion about EFL. The reason for this is that a direct experience of EFL and the students' views of EFL would give insight into the realities of EFL.

Data Analysis

The data analysis aims to identify students' ideas and ideologies by inferring from the semantic context and the students' experiences. The goal is to identify the contexts and the meanings of themes found during the data analysis. Finally, the extracted data are used to answer the research questions.

Tools of Data Analysis

Thematic analysis emphasizes the similarities and differences of the data (Breakwell, Hammond, Fife-Schaw, & Smith, 2008). The benefit of the thematic analysis is in its flexibility and it is useful method to report experiences, meanings, and the reality of the participants (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The data analysis of this research is data driven and followed steps of the inductive thematic analysis from the constructivism paradigm by reviewing the data by reading transcriptions many time to feminize the data to search for the important themes from the contexts of the students' answers. The tools of this research include opening codes to generate initial codes, axial coding to compare and contrast students' voices, and to link emerged themes together in relation to the main theme. Prevalence emerges from the data which are not to be used to determine right or wrong from the number of the different speakers, but to look for areas unknown to the researchers from a constructivism paradigm.

Participants' Profiles

The participants were 7 BA, 6 MA and 2 PhD students at Japanese universities. It was the first contact with all the interview participants, thus it was possible to maintain neutrality

and avoid bias. In order to protect participants' anonymity and confidentiality, details of the location of the interviews and detailed demographic data will not be included. However, taken together, the participants came from different high school backgrounds which includes public and private schools in metropolitan, local, and overseas areas. The participants' academic background includes mathematics (1), linguistics (1), psychology (1), international relations (3), Arabic language study (1), pharmacy (1), and humanities (1).

Procedure

From the pilot study, it was found that interview locations would affect the result. Owing to the first gatekeeper at the university, the interviews started in the reserved meeting room at the department of engineering on August 3rd. There was some difficulties in finding more participants. But it was possible to interview the students until the data saturation arrived.

Data Transcription

For the first transcription, I went through several listening of the same content to get preliminary ideas. I checked the first transcription back against the recordings for accuracy and found that some interview questions were not collected from two interviewees because those interviews took place late at night due after attending a seminar for English teachers in Asian countries. Later, the two students to ask for the second interviews to clarify the content of the first interview. Additionally, during the reading of the data, it was found that some students' answers were not clear. Then, e-mails were sent for following-up questions and all students except one replied with gratitude quickly.

Findings

Hereafter, the data analysis will begin with the first main question and the students' views on the principles of EFL. They are introduced in three groups: neutral views which include general statements (e.g. advantages or disadvantages): followed by supporting opinions for a principle and then disagreements with the principle. This is a broad

categorization and used as a means of organizing the data by grouping the students.

"I learned English by the monolingual method at my junior and senior high schools and the students naturally adapted to English-only classes, and they took it for granted. Gradually, when we advanced to higher grades, students started to prepare for university exams. Then, at senior high school, teachers began using Japanese for explanations because Japanese was easier for students to understand cognitive meanings and their translation. In the monolingual class, students understand surface meanings but they cannot check accuracies. Then, it is difficult to develop logical thinking. For example, a teacher' explaining in Japanese is more persuasive to understand grammar rules and its applications than in English. Therefore, it is rather hard to choose the language of instruction. In reality, it is important to have both monolingual and bilingual instructions. (Ms.)"

This student (1) learned English by the monolingual method at her private school and was neutral in her view. It is useful to note that many private integrated schools have their own school goals and most students at this type of school are from affluent families. The general point the student is making is that the use of the monolingual method prevents learners from getting a thorough understanding of grammar and meaning and so although she says students adapted naturally to this method, it has weaknesses and therefore both monolingual and bilingual methods are needed. This corresponds with the two goals which MEXT pursue; i.e., communicative skill at junior high school and accurate reading for university entrance exams at senior high school. She stated that Japanese students are now behind on both goals of its dual objective.

Another student (2) also took a mixed view but pointed out the lack of feasibility in the monolingual instruction:

"The idea is neither good nor bad. Because beginner students cannot understand English at all and lesson by half measure is not good. Furthermore, there are not enough competent teachers to teach English by the monolingual method. It takes time for students to learn English by

only English. (Mr.)"

This student (2) took the view that Japanese schools are not ready to use the monolingual method. For example, there is a lack of competent teachers for English – only class. He focused on the problem of understanding which the first student had commented on: the students may not understand the contents well if it is taught only in English. Finally, he said that, it takes time to promote the method and, since the classroom time is limited, the efficacy of the monolingual method may be obstructed by a lack of teachers' readiness and students' proficiency levels.

The other student (3) attended an international school and was also uncertain: "The suitability of the monolingual method depends on students' ages. I was only six years old when I attended an international school without any English knowledge, and this early start contributed to my smooth transition. However, I am not sure if students understand grammar concepts at an early age. I was able to be familiar with learning English because I was learning in English. In Japanese school, it is good to mix both bilingual and monolingual. (Ms.)"

This student (3) began attending an international school at the age of six and agreed with student 1 that she adapted 'smoothly', but she also agreed with Student 1 that students at early age do not understand the logic of grammar. She does not say if this is a problem in the way that student 1 does, but she agreed that both methods are necessary, as the both previous student have stated. This student and the others seem to believe that, at elementary school, the monolingual method might be better at learning a language - an issue we shall discuss under research question 2.

Now, the data analysis turns to students who agreed with the method. Student (5) described her view from a socio-cultural perspective. Even though she begins by expressing a reservation, she goes on to express her support for this approach:

"The monolingual method is not always the best method. Nevertheless, it is suitable for

Japanese students who are shy especially for Japanese students to practice using English. Students tend to use Japanese language whenever it is available. Japanese society is very conservative to people from different cultures. For example, how many students can help foreigners in trouble by saying "Can I help you?" When I was China, when I could not speak Chinese well, but Chinese people helped me. In the research room, we share space with foreign students and Japanese students are reluctant to mix with students from different countries. It is only a matter of time to get used to intercultural communication. (Ms.)"

This student (5) visited China and France for her internship, and agreed that the monolingual method is good for Japanese because of their reticence. She implies that because Japanese students are shy and Japan is a conservative society when dealing with foreigners, they would benefit from the English-only class. In another part of the interview, she described the psychological sensitivity of Japanese students as compared to students in China and France and wished that the students would increase their communicative competence by the monolingual method. She seems to imply that the method would affect students' personality and make them less shy.

Another student (6) talked about her experience in Arabic language class and contrasted with her experiences of learning English:

"From my experience, one American lecturer from Protestant church taught English conversation by the monolingual method whereas the most English course is taught in Japanese. I think monolingual method is better to improve English, but it creates gap between fast learners and slow learners. The monolingual is more difficult in small class. Before I entered the university, I had not experienced monolingual method at schools. Now, I attended an Arabic language course by the monolingual method. In the class, when students do not understand a meaning well, the teachers use gestures to help students to convey meanings, to get image and convey feelings well. The monolingual method takes a longer time and higher costs. But it would be an effective way to learn a language naturally. (Ms.)"

This student (6) agreed with the student 1 and 2 in that English-only instruction is not always easy for students to understand the contents. However, she supported the monolingual method because it would improve English proficiency with the increased exposure. Interestingly, she supported monolingual class in larger class where the students are passive learners whereas in a small class, the monolingual method creates gaps in the level of understanding between beginners and advanced leaners of English. Then, contrasted with other students (1.2), she had a more positive attitude toward the monolingual class, because she was impressed by NETs versatility of using gestures to make students understand what is happing in class and helps lift the students out from anxiety and dismay in English only classes. Ultimately, she supported the monolingual method in higher education.

Student (7) described some advantages of the method:

"I think the monolingual method is useful because we can learn how to think in English. It is difficult to speak English unless we change our cognitive mode into English. But at university, many students have to think in L1 first and change to L2. Meanwhile, it is rather difficult to switch two languages at a time. Let me see...But NETs do not use Japanese in class. So…I still think it is more comfortable for students to have a mother tongue. When I was learning French in England, I felt it more comfortable if a French teacher spoke some English in class. For example, when the teacher asked the students "Do you have any questions?", even if someone had a question, he/she would not know how to ask the question in English or they would be caught in fears that if he made a language mistake, suspect that other students would correct his errors. Thus, the monolingual method would be compound fears to the student. (Mr.)"

This returnee (7) learned French in the U.K. and described an advantage of the monolingual method in that students are expected to think in English in the monolingual class and it would be better not switch languages. However, he worries that students would be placed in fear in English only class to ask helps in the class that inhibits effective learning. This shortfall of the

Japanese students' reticence may present in class with students with different English proficiencies. It implies that the students learning would be muted with anxiety. However, in another question, he described English only class in the direct method and said that English only instruction would be difficult for public school at early age, but suitable for advanced learners for higher motivations and goals. It implies that advantages of the monolingual methods run in proximity to its disadvantages.

Now, the data analysis will turn to look at the students' views who mainly disagreed with the monolingual method.

The next student (8) pointed out the importance of fairness:

"I am not in favor of the monolingual method because it will widen gaps among students and it would be more damaging than helpful. (Mr.)"

This student (8) learned English for the first time at Junior high school and said that the monolingual method widens the gap between learners. The implication seems to be that teachers would not treat students equally, which creates discrepancy between fast learners and slow learners. He implied that levels of English proficiency differ at schools because parents send their children to private language lessons to prepare children for competitive academic environment, while some others' English exposure is limited in EFL at school. It may also imply that the monolingual class has a relation with socio-cultural perspective.

For the monolingual method in beginners' class, a student (9) disagreed by talking of its lack of efficacy:

"The monolingual method is inefficient. For instance, we look at 'apple'; we will know its meaning at the first glance. In turn, it is difficult to contextualize texts without Japanese explanations. Therefore, it is more effective to give meanings with verbs and nouns in Japanese. I am in doubt to expect noticeable progress in only English. Nevertheless, the monolingual class could be effective to certain extent. (Mr.)"

This student (9) said that it is faster to explain in Japanese for young learners. He also said

that it is difficult to have a concrete idea without mother tongue, a theme we saw even among those in favors above. Therefore, he implied that mixing both Japanese and English makes meaning more explicit that symbolic including linguistic, development does not cause infants' concept formation.

The next student (10) talked about the mismatch between different cultures:
"At school, English only instruction...At junior high school; it is difficult to learn a new language in monolingual method because students do not have any linguistic knowledge to understand English. I worry that English-only class would create mismatches. What shall I say...? I mean that English language conveys different feelings from Japanese language and that it is difficult to understand English without using our mother tongue. Hence, I do not prefer the monolingual method. (Mr.)"
This student (10) also focuses on the difficulties of understanding, but adds the idea that languages convey different feelings, that it is difficult to communicate with people whose has different levels of English proficiencies. However, he added that different languages convey different meaning which supports linguistic externalism (i.e. Sapir-Whorf hypothesis) in that language control thoughts. Thus, he considered that the monolingual method is not good for compulsory education.

In order to improve these situations, another student (11) suggested:
"Let me see... if a classroom goal is to develop output skills (i.e. speaking and writing), the monolingual method is suited. In this case, teachers need to give students reminder notes in Japanese (e.g. test schedules) to avoid possible miscommunications. I guess that an efficacy of the method depends on the learning goals. If the goal is input skills (e.g. grammar, pronunciation), it is more efficient to use Japanese explanations. (Mr.)"
This student (11) said that the feasibility of the monolingual method depends on the goal. He suggested that Japanese explanations are more effective to provide receptive skills (i.e. input

skills in his term). Then, he referred to a need of 'reminder note' in Japanese to ensure students' levels of comprehension and interpretation.

By contrast, the other student (12) said:

"The monolingual method is difficult for beginners to understand English meanings. Therefore, memories become fuzzy and difficult to store in a long-term memory. Therefore, explanations in students' mother tongues are important. Indeed, translation is important as well. (Ms.)"

This student (12) began learning English at her primary school and said that the challenge of using English all the time in class is too ambitious. She offered some support for some other students' views in that the learners would fail to understand learning the context fully in the monolingual classes, and that this factor likely decides the levels of students' linguistic knowledge, which it would be assumed to be a lack of knowledge for later use. Therefore, she recommends teaching English through mother tongue to build concrete understanding. She might indirectly imply that it is difficult to develop language skills at school with the monolingual method.

Results and Discussion

This study investigated students' opinions about the monolingual method. The data showed that few students had attended schools that used the monolingual method during their compulsory education. However, in the interviews, students were aware of the advantages of using the monolingual method including extensive exposures to English and the opportunity to use English for students who tend to suffer from a culturally inherited reluctance to use English. Nevertheless, few students expressed trust in the applicability of English only instruction. The reasons include 1) impracticality (i.e. lack of teachers, large size class, and students' insufficient comprehension skills), 2) inefficiency (i.e. it's faster to explain in

mother tongue) 3) impracticalness (e.g. a shortage of English lessons), 4) misunderstandings may take place between speakers of different languages and cultures, or among students with different language proficiencies. In addition, 5) students cannot check accuracies of their understandings. Students' memories become unclear and they fail to develop skills to contextualize the knowledge into different situations. Lastly, 6) Japanese students preferred to have a comfortable atmosphere in the class and thus errors corrections become problematic in the monolingual class. In other words, L1 use in EEL classes is useful in the process of learning a foreign language in EFL environment.

In sum, it is suggested that the monolingual method, in most learners' opinions, is good for elementary school when students are less self-conscious and enjoy using English in class. Gradually, students prefer to have both Japanese and English instructions to ensure accurate understanding. It can be summarized that understanding language and culture is interrelated (Widdowson, 1997; Widdowson, 2003). Finally, the study supports García (2009) that the success of a monolingual method depends on the social environment rather than on the pedagogy.

Implications

This study focused on the specific aspects of the monolingual which are expected to be possible solutions to improve communicative skills in English and the way the theory would be implemented into practice. As has been discussed above, the effectiveness of the monolingual method has been entirely different in various areas of education. For example, the mixed results of this study imply that the mere exposure to English does not develop English skills. In particular, the efficacy of English only instruction depends on age and levels of learners' proficiency. Another notable finding is that the mastering of communicative skills is not a canonical outcome at school, but integrated skills at school and outside schooling.

This study concludes that higher education, although higher education is highly

structured in terms of the formal curriculum and both cumulative and exit assessment, has traditionally been *less* systematized in terms of imparting learning approaches and techniques. This relatively *laissez-faire* attitude means that individuals were, in effect, the freeholders of their own intellectual epistemology. Then, the students are receivers of the curriculum and the efficacies of the method vary individually. It implies that levels of attainment are always mediated social, cultural and individual environment. Considering that many students are suffering from a lack of English exposure, flexible use of L1 is important to avoid miscommunication, which may be coincide with "separate bilingualism" termed by Creese and Blackledge (2010). In order to grasp how English only instruction is accepted in EFL classroom in Japan, further studies are necessary.

Acknowledgement

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Children's Sound-Letter Recognition Knowledge Predicts High Self-Evaluation of English Abilities: Analyses of Questionnaires and Tests Given to Japanese Elementary School Children

Makiko Tanaka

Hiromi Kawai

Kanda University of International Studies

Abstract

This study investigated English vocabulary and sound-letter recognition knowledge of Japanese elementary school children and their perceptions of their English abilities. The Vocabulary Test and the Sound-Letter Recognition Test were conducted, and questionnaires were administered to the 5th and 6th graders, totaling 3,240, in a city's 54 public elementary schools in Chiba, Japan. The study examined 1) children's English abilities measured by the Vocabulary Test and the Sound-Letter Recognition Test, 2) their perceptions about their English abilities, and 3) if 1) and 2) were correlated. The results of the tests showed that English abilities of the 6th graders were significantly higher than those of the 5th graders. Factor analysis of the 13 items in the questionnaire culminated in three factors: 1) motivation to improve English, 2) interests in English and English classes, and 3) their self-evaluation of their English abilities, and the result of the Sound-Letter Recognition Test was most positively correlated with the children' self-evaluation of their English abilities. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the self-evaluation of their English abilities and the four predictors (vocabulary, sound-letter recognition knowledge, motivation to improve English, and interests in English and English classes). The study concludes that higher sound-letter recognition knowledge contributes to children's positive self-evaluation about their English abilities.

Introduction

This study investigated English vocabulary and sound-letter recognition knowledge of Japanese elementary school children and their perceptions of their English abilities. The Vocabulary Test and the Sound-Letter Recognition Test were conducted, and questionnaires were administered to the 5th and 6th graders, totaling 3,240, in Funabashi city's 54 public elementary schools in Chiba, Japan. The ultimate objective of the research was to examine effects of the current English education policy for elementary schools supervised by the Funabashi board of education and help them prepare for English education for the coming year 2020 when English will be incorporated into elementary school curriculum as an official subject.

Funabashi city's 54 elementary schools were designated as curriculum special schools (Kyoikukatei-tokureikou) in the year 2006, and since then English has been taught as an official subject from the 1st grade. The city's board of education has developed their original curriculum and a unified textbook to be used in all elementary schools in the city. Funabashi city had been investigating the effects of its education policy to validate its objectives and enhance children's communication abilities. Since 2016, however, the current researchers succeeded the city's project and began a large-scale investigation in cooperation with the board of education.

The study examined 1) children's English abilities measured by the Vocabulary Test and the Sound-Letter Recognition Test, 2) their perceptions about their English abilities, and 3) if 1) and 2) were in any way correlated. The questionnaire was administered to investigate children' perceptions about English activities, English classes, and their self-evaluation of their English abilities.

The current research is critical as the results show what children have learned from current English materials, the city's original English textbook as well as from *Hi, friends! 1 & 2* (MEXT, 2012), how much they progress over the course of a year, and if the current education helps children acquire skills to read and write alphabet and simple English words.

The Previous Studies

Since Foreign Langue Activities became mandatory for the 5th and 6th graders in 2011, no comprehensive research on elementary school children's English achievement has been conducted; that is, effects of English education under the name of Foreign Language Activities is not known. There is lack of research because Foreign Language Activities is not an official subject, currently elementary school teachers with no credentials to teach English are engaging in teaching English, and there is no valid method of assessing children's English abilities. In addition, the current English education aims to foster children's ability to "communicate" as stated below in the guidelines (MEXT, 2008), but what constitutes children's communication abilities is not certain.

Overall objectives of Foreign Language Activities

To form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages fostering a positive attitude toward communication, and familiarizing pupils with the sounds and basic expressions of foreign languages (MEXT, 2008).

It is, however, essential to investigate children' English abilities, as it will provide teachers with knowledge about how they can help children enhance their English skills. In assessing children's L2 development, the size of vocabulary is often tested as learning a useful vocabulary is central for young learners in foreign language learning at primary level (Cameron, 2001), and it is one of the determinants of L2 development (Langeland,

2012). Indeed, vocabulary acquisition is so critical that middle school children with poor L2 vocabulary knowledge are at risk in terms of L2 development (Roessingh & Elgie, 2009). Since elementary school English education in Japan also focuses on learning words at an early stage, testing their vocabulary knowledge from the textbook is valid to evaluate if they have acquired English successfully. As for the method of assessing children's vocabulary knowledge, Sylvén and Sundqvist (2016) claim using a multiple-choice format as it is easily administered and scored.

In addition to vocabulary, children need to be able to read alphabet letters as reading and writing simple words will be introduced into the elementary school English curriculum in 2020. As with vocabulary, knowledge about sounds and letters is an indicator of later success in English learning. Research shows that phonemic awareness, "an understanding that speech is composed of a series of individual sounds" (Yopp, 1992, 1995), and phonics, letter-sound relationship (Ehri & Nunes, 2002), are the basics of literacy development. Alphabet knowledge, the ability to name the letters of the alphabet, is a well-established predictor of children's later literacy skills (Piasta, Petscher, & Justice, 2012; Share, Jorm, Maclean, & Matthews, 1984; Treiman, Tincoff, & Richmond-Welty, 1997).

The National Reading Panel (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of phonemic awareness instruction, and the subsequent research claimed that phonemic awareness should be taught as it enhances reading and spelling ability significantly among young children (Ehri, Nune, Willows, Schuster, Yaghoub-Zadeh, & Shanahan, 2001). These studies suggest that instructions of alphabetic knowledge enhance children's ability to recognize letters corresponding to spoken sounds, and therefore, phonemic awareness has great effects on their later academic performance. According to Allen-Tamai (2010) and Zygouris-Coe (2001), it is important to foster L2 children's awareness of sounds before teaching phonics, in which children are taught that an alphabet sound corresponds to an alphabet letter. In Funabashi city, it is obligatory to teach alphabet knowledge and basic phonics, and these are incorporated in

the city's elementary school English curriculum.

According to Cameron (2001), both vocabulary knowledge and phonological awareness are extremely important for L2 children in the early stage of learning. 'Sounding out' a written word or building up from its component letter or morpheme sounds of vocabulary that they know will speed up recognition of alphabet, and it also develops children's ability to hear L2 individual sounds and syllables in words, rhymes, chants, and songs.

MEXT (2015) conducted a nationwide survey to investigate the outcomes and problems of Foreign Language Activities after it was incorporated into elementary school curriculum in 2011. Seventy-two percent of the upper grades public elementary school children responded that they liked English, and around 80% of the first year junior high school students responded that English classes in elementary schools were helpful to them to learn English in the junior high schools. Regarding reading and writing, around 70% of the first-year students in junior high schools answered that they wanted to learn skills to read and write simple words and sentences while in elementary schools. Tanaka and Kawai' survey (2017) revealed that 66.1% of elementary school teachers believed that 5th and 6th graders wanted to read English. Their survey also showed that 55.1% out of 265 elementary school teachers from Chiba Prefecture, Fukui Prefecture, and Edogawa-Ward in Tokyo believed that elementary school children wanted to write English. Although these elementary school teachers seemed to realize their pupils' desire to read and write English, it was also revealed that these teachers did not know the basic method of how to teach children how to read and write alphabet letters and simple words. Thus, the present study investigated elementary school children's emotional state toward studying English and self-evaluation of their English abilities.

In addition to these research backgrounds, considering a large number of participants exceeding 50 elementary schools in this study, researchers administered two types of receptive tests and a questionnaire.

Research Questions

The importance of knowing children's knowledge of vocabulary and sound-letter recognition at an early stage of L2 learning and their perceptions about English language learning led the researchers to the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the vocabulary knowledge of the 5th and the 6th grade children?

RQ2: What is their sound-letter recognition knowledge?

RQ3: Is there any relationship between their vocabulary knowledge and sound-letter recognition knowledge?

RQ4: What are their perceptions of English classes?

RQ5: What are the perceptions of their English abilities?

RQ6: Is there any relationship between English abilities and their self-evaluation about their English abilities?

Method

Participants

The participants in the present study were 5th and 6th grade children from Funabashi city's 54 elementary schools. Each elementary school chose one 5th and one 6th grade classes and conducted both the Vocabulary Test and the Sound-Letter Recognition Test and administered the questionnaire sent via the Funabashi board of education. The total number of children who participated was approximately 3,241 (Table 1), which amounted to 30% of all the 5th (5,303) and the 6th (5,452) grade children (10,755 children in total) in the city in 2016. The percentages of the participants who took each test and the questionnaire are shown in the brackets below the number of the participants. The number of children who took the tests and who answered the questionnaire differed due to the absence when the test or the questionnaire was administered. The mean ages were 128.3 months for the 5th graders, and 141.1 months for the 6th graders.

Table 1

Participants in This Study

		N		
		Grade 5	Grade 6	Total
Mean age		128;3	141;1	
The number of the participants	Vocabulary	1,587 (30.0%)	1,654 (30.3%)	3,240 (30.1%)
	Sound-Letter Recognition	1,593 (30.0%)	1,648 (30.2%)	3,241 (30.1%)
	Questionnaire	1,589 (30.0%)	1629 (29.9%)	3,218 (29.9%)

Instruments

Tests. The following two types of tests, the Vocabulary Test and the Sound-Letter Recognition Test were developed by the researchers in order to evaluate English achievements of the city's elementary school children. The Vocabulary and the Sound-Letter Recognition Tests were conducted in class during the regular class hour under the guidance of homeroom teachers. The teachers were to follow the recording on CD, and the tests took about 40 minutes.

The vocabulary test. The Vocabulary Test assessed children' knowledge of English words frequently appeared in the textbook developed by the Funabashi city board of education and *Hi, friends! 1 & 2* (MEXT, 2012). The test had two parts, Part A and Part B, each containing 14 items. In Part A, children listened to a word and chose one picture out of three that defined the meaning of the word (a multiple-picture choice). In Part B, children listened to three words and chose one word that matched a picture on the test sheet (a multiple-word choice). Test samples are shown in Appendix A and the list of vocabulary in Appendix B. A multiple-picture choice and multiple-word choice test formats were used in order to raise the construct validity of the tests.

The sound-letter recognition test. The Sound-Letter Recognition Test was developed to examine children's ability of reading alphabet letters and words that they learned at schools. It also measured the ability to connect basic English sounds to alphabet letters with real words and nonsense words. The test had 35 items with five parts: matching onset sounds with uppercase letters (five items), matching onset sounds with lowercase letters (five items), word recognition (five items), recognition of alphabet names in lowercase letters (five items), and matching non-word onset sounds with lowercase letters (15 items). Test samples are shown in Appendix A.

Questionnaire. The items of questionnaire included if children are enjoying studying English (emotional state), if they understand English taught in classes (cognitive state), if they want to learn how to read and write simple English words (their desires for learning to read and write), and if they feel their English is improving (self-evaluation of their English abilities). The questions for reading and writing simple English words were included to find if the current phonics instruction of the city showed any effect on children' ability to read and write simple words, and if not, to suggest how the city can prepare children how to read and write when English becomes a mandatory regular subject in 2020 in which basic reading and writing will be taught. Children were to respond on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = "the least likely," to 5 = "the most likely." Table 2 shows the question items.

Table 2

Descriptive Analysis of Questionnaire Items

	Question items	Grade	N	M	SD
1	Do you like studying English?	5	1589	3.80	1.014
		6	1625	3.68	1.023
2	Do you enjoy studying English?	5	1587	3.98	.936
		6	1627	3.85	.955
3	Is it difficult for you to study English?	5	1589	2.87	1.085
		6	1628	2.93	1.125
4	Do you understand what you study in English classes?	5	1592	3.92	.929
		6	1629	3.93	.940
5	Do you understand what an ALT is saying?	5	1530	3.61	.959
		6	1593	3.53	.941
6	Can you read simple English words?	5	1575	3.12	1.312
		6	1620	3.38	1.246
7	Can you write simple English words?	5	1560	3.19	1.561
		6	1603	3.59	1.442
8	Do you want to be able to read simple English words?	5	1570	4.48	.892
		6	1619	4.48	.835
9	Do you want to be able to write simple English words?	5	1571	4.48	.904
		6	1617	4.48	.843
10	Do you want your teachers to teach you how to read and write simple English words?	5	1575	3.96	1.015
		6	1616	3.90	.995
11	Do you want to be able to pronounce English correctly?	5	1576	4.33	.937
		6	1615	4.32	.865
12	Do you speak English actively in class?	5	1568	3.43	1.142
		6	1619	3.36	1.120
13	Do you feel that your English has improved?	5	1566	3.66	1.056
		6	1622	3.59	1.058

Procedure

One of the authors is an advisor of the city's English Education Promotion Committee and suggested in-depth analysis of the children' English abilities, attitudes to study English so

that the current researchers could provide evidence-based suggestions to advance English education of the city. The authors prepared consent forms to the city's 54 elementary school principals and to homeroom teachers and asked them to distribute to the children's parents to cooperate on the present project.

Data collection. A university's TESOL teacher who is a native speaker of General American English participated in recordings of the test scripts. All the test materials were recorded in a university studio on ROLAND R-05 recorder ver. 1.03 WAV-24bit. The sampling rate of the model pronunciation recording was 48.0 kHz. The recorded materials were written to CDs. All the test materials, the questionnaire, CDs, and instruction manuals were sent from the city board of education to each elementary school. The tests and the questionnaire were administered under the guidance of the homeroom teacher.

Where there were more than two classes for the 5th or the 6th grades in a school, the schools had a leeway to choose one class for each grade and conduct the tests and the questionnaire at their convenience. Participants took the tests and responded to the questionnaire in July 2016. After the tests and the questionnaire were conducted, all the test materials and the questionnaires were sent back to the board of education and from there delivered to our university research center.

Data analysis. After the data collection, all the test items were marked on a binary scale: 1 as correct and 0 as wrong. All the questionnaire items were marked on the 5-point Likert scale. Both the test items and the questionnaire items were statistically analyzed using SPSS.

Results

Results of the Tests

Table 3 shows descriptive analysis of the two tests. The value of Cronbach's α for each

test showed satisfactory reliability. The mean values of the 6th grades were higher than those of the 5th graders in both tests. The mean values of the Vocabulary Test were higher than those of the Sound-Letter Recognition Test for both graders.

Table 3

Descriptive Analysis of the Two Tests

Tests	Grade	N	M	SD	α
Vocabulary (28 items)	5	1,587	20.7 (73.9%)	4.44	.804
	6	1,650	23.2 (82.8%)	3.97	
Sound-Letter Recognition (35 items)	5	1,589	22.7 (64.8%)	5.95	.849
	6	1,646	26.1 (74.5%)	4.93	

Note. The numbers of the participants in each test differ from ones in Table 1 due to some absences and a lack of data.
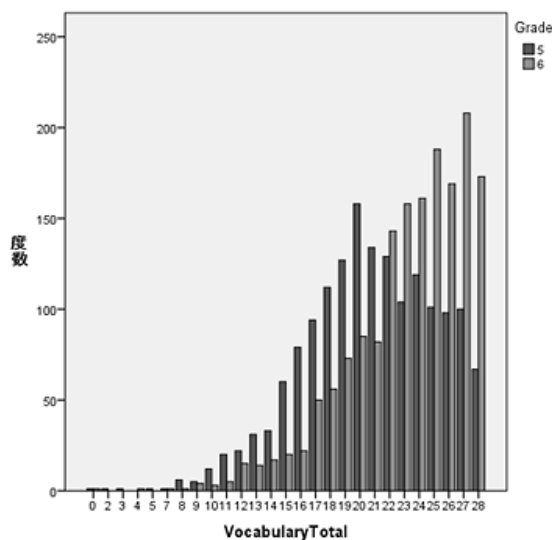

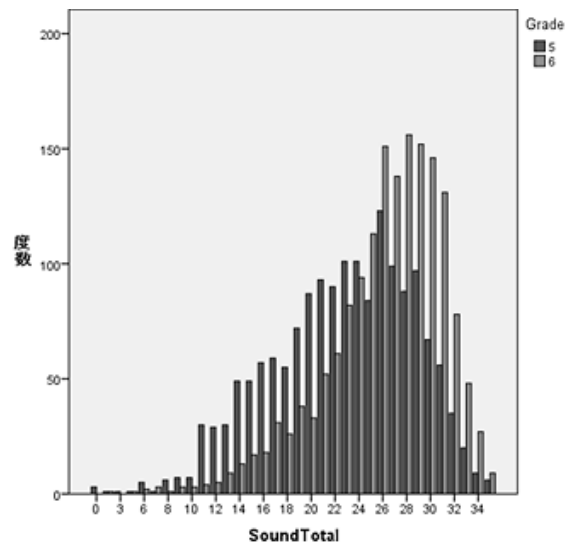*Figure 1*. Grade difference in the Vocabulary Test

Figure 2. Grade difference in the Sound-Letter Recognition Test

T-tests were conducted to compare the differences between the two grades in the two tests. There was a significant difference between the two grades in the Vocabulary Test: t (3,238) = -16.03, p = .000. Cohen's effect size value (r = .27) suggested small practical

significance. In the Sound-Letter Recognition Test, there was a significant difference between the two grades; t (3,239) = -18.05, p = .000. Cohen's effect size value (r = .30) suggested medium practical significance. These tests showed that the 6th graders gained significantly higher scores than the 5th graders in the two tests. Figure 1 and Figure 2 show the differences between the grades in each test.

Results of the Questionnaire

Table 2 shows descriptive analysis of the questionnaire. Item 8 (if they wanted to be able to read simple English words) and Item 9 (if they wanted to be able to write simple English words) gained the highest mean scores followed by Item 11 (if they wanted to be able to pronounce English correctly). Item 3 (if it was difficult for them to learn English) gained the lowest mean score. Table 4 shows a cross-tabulation table of the percentage per point in each grade.

While the rates of the participants who chose 4 and 5 on the 5-point Likert scale in Item 6 (if they could read simple English words) were 44.7% in Grade 5 and 55.6% in Grade 6, and those in Item 8 were 89.6% in Grade 5 and 90.1% in Grade 6. While the rates of the participants who chose 4 and 5 in Item 7 (if they could write simple English words) were 54.8% in Grade 5 and 67.8% in Grade 6, those in Item 9 were 89.2% in Grade 5 and 89.9% in Grade 6. The rates of the participants who chose 4 and 5 in Item 11 were 85.4% in Grade 5 and 84.8% in Grade 6.

Table 4

Cross-tabulation of the Questionnaire Items

Item	Questions	Grades	5-point Likert				
			1	2	3	4	5
1	Do you like studying English?	5	3.3%	5.2%	28.0%	35.4%	28.0%
		6	4.2%	6.0%	29.8%	37.0%	23.0%
2	Do you enjoy studying English?	5	2.1%	2.8%	23.9%	37.6%	33.5%
		6	3.0%	3.4%	26.4%	40.3%	26.9%
3	Is English difficult for you?	5	9.9%	28.9%	33.2%	20.4%	7.6%
		6	9.8%	27.4%	33.2%	19.4%	10.2%
4	Do you understand what you are studying in English classes?	5	2.8%	3.8%	18.7%	47.4%	27.3%
		6	2.9%	3.9%	18.9%	46.0%	28.3%
5	Do you understand what an ALT is saying?	5	3.9%	5.8%	32.6%	41.0%	16.7%
		6	4.0%	6.3%	36.3%	39.9%	13.6%
6	Can you read simple English words?	5	14.2%	21.0%	20.2%	27.6%	17.1%
		6	10.2%	16.4%	17.9%	36.7%	18.9%
7	Can you write simple English words?	5	21.6%	20.9%	2.6%	26.5%	28.3%
		6	13.0%	17.6%	1.6%	32.6%	35.2%
8	Do you want to be able to read simple English words?	5	2.5%	2.0%	5.9%	24.1%	65.5%
		6	1.9%	1.6%	6.4%	27.0%	63.1%
9	Do you want to be able to write simple English words?	5	2.9%	1.6%	6.4%	23.0%	66.2%
		6	2.1%	1.2%	6.7%	26.6%	63.3%
10	Do you want your teachers to teach you how to read and write simple English words?	5	3.6%	3.4%	21.9%	35.9%	35.2%
		6	3.6%	2.6%	25.9%	36.4%	31.5%
11	Do you want to be able to pronounce English correctly?	5	3.0%	1.6%	10.0%	30.3%	55.1%
		6	1.6%	1.6%	12.0%	32.4%	52.4%
12	Do you speak English actively in class?	5	7.8%	12.1%	26.3%	36.5%	17.3%
		6	7.0%	14.9%	28.0%	34.9%	15.2%
13	Do you feel that your English has improved?	5	5.0%	9.3%	20.4%	45.2%	20.0%
		6	5.7%	9.0%	23.2%	44.5%	17.6%

Factor Analysis

The explanatory factor analysis was conducted to determine the factor structure. The maximum-likelihood estimation with Promax rotation method along with Kaiser normalization was employed. Factor loadings over .50 appear in bold. Three factors were extracted. Factor 1 was named as *Motivation to learn English*, Factor 2 as *Interest in English classes*, and Factor 3 as *Self-evaluation of English abilities*. The reliability of each factor was calculated, with the Cronbach's α coefficient as shown in Table 5: Factor 1 was .898, Factor 2 was .843, and Factor 3 was .807.

Table 6 shows descriptive analysis of these three factors as variables. The 5th graders gained higher scores on 1. *Motivation to learn English* and 2. *Interest in English classes* than the 6th graders, while the 6th graders gained higher scores on 3. *Self-evaluation of English abilities* than the 5th graders. The points of Likert scale in Item 3 in 3. *Self-evaluation of English abilities* were reversed as the question of the item asked if English was difficult for the participants. *T*-tests were conducted to compare the differences between the two grades in the three variables. There was a significant difference between the two grades in 2. *Interest in English classes*: $t(3137) = 2.544$, $p = .011$, and in 3. *Self-evaluation of English abilities*; $t(3015) = -6.366$, $p = .000$. Cohen's effect size value showed 2. ($r = .05$) and 3. ($r = .12$), which suggested small practical significance.

The Relationship Between the Variables

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was conducted for all the five variables as shown in Table 7. The correlation value index $.70 < |r| < 1.0$ is regarded as very strongly correlated, $.40 < |r| < .70$ as positively correlated, $.20 < |r| < .40$ as weakly, and $0 < |r| < .20$ as almost uncorrelated. In case of a questionnaire, the correlation value r between .30 and .50 is interpreted as positively correlated (Dörneyi, 2007). Thus, there was a positive correlation between *Motivation to learn English* and *Interest in English classes* ($r = .544$), *Interest in*

English classes and *Self-evaluation of English abilities* (r = .473), *Self-evaluation of English abilities* and *Vocabulary* (r = .448), *Self-evaluation of English abilities* and *Sound-Letter Recognition* (r = .518), and *Vocabulary* and *Sound-Letter Recognition* (r = .671). There was a weak correlation between *Motivation to learn English* and *Self-evaluation of English abilities* (r = .350), *Motivation to learn English* and *Vocabulary* (r = .255), *Motivation to learn English* and *Sound-Letter Recognition* (r = .227), *Interest in English classes* and *Vocabulary* (r = .338), and *Interest in English classes* and *Sound-Letter Recognition* (r = .320). Although *Motivation to learn English* and *Interest in English classes* showed a weak correlation between test variables *Vocabulary* and *Sound-Letter Recognition*, *Self-evaluation of English abilities* showed a stronger correlation with *Vocabulary* and *Sound-Letter Recognition*.

Next, a Multiple Regression Analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between *Self-evaluation of English abilities* and four other variables. A significant regression equation was found (F (4, 2960) = 464.902, p < .000) with an R^2 of .385. As Table 8 shows, all the four independent valuables had significant p values (p < .000). Among the independent variables, *Sound-Letter Recognition* had the most positive regression weight, indicating that the scores of the Sound-Letter Recognition test were predictors of *Self-evaluation of English abilities* followed by *Interests in English classes*.

Table 5

The Result of the Explanatory Factor Analysis (*N* = 3,218)

Items	Factor 1 Motivation to learn English	Factor 2 Interest in English	Factor 3 Self-evaluation of English abilities
9. Do you want to be able to write simple English words?	**.920**	.468	.375
8. Do you want to be able to read simple English words?	**.908**	.465	.365
11. Do you want to be able to pronounce English correctly?	**.793**	.500	.357
10. Do you want your teachers to teach you how to read and write simple English words?	**.696**	.457	.298
1. Do you like studying English?	.488	**.899**	.526
2. Do you enjoy studying English?	.471	**.880**	.459
4. Do you understand what you are studying in English classes?	.421	**.663**	.638
13. Do you feel that your English has improved?	.421	**.593**	.409
12. Do you speak English actively in class?	.384	**.532**	.462
6. Can you read English alphabet letters and simple words?	.336	.450	**.846**
7. Can you write English alphabet letters and simple words?	.302	.377	**.756**
5. Do you understand what an ALT is saying?	.359	.533	**.637**
3. Is English difficult for you?	-.174	-.402	**-.544**
Reliability Cronbach's *α*	.898	.843	.807

Table 6

Descriptive Analysis of Three Factors

Factors	Grade	*N*	*M*	*SD*
1. *Motivation to learn English*	5	1,562	17.3	3.25
	6	1,607	17.2	3.09
2. *Interest in English classes*	5	1,536	18.8	3.97
	6	1,603	18.4	3.96
3. *Self-evaluation of English abilities*	5	1,491	12.8	2.86
	6	1,564	13.4	2.68

Table 7

Correlation among the Five Variables

Variables	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1. *Motivation to learn English*	1				
2. *Interest in English classes*	.544**	1			
3. *Self-evaluation of English abilities*	.350**	.473**	1		
4. *Vocabulary*	.255**	.338**	.448**	1	
5. *Sound-Letter Recognition*	.227**	.320**	.518**	.671**	1

Note. ** $p < .01$.

Table 8

Result of the Multiple Regression Analysis

	Variables	Multiple regression weights			
		B	SEB	β	p
Dependent	3. *Self-evaluation of* English abilities	2.581			
	4. *Vocabulary*	.059	.013	.092	.000
	5. *Sound-letter Recognition*	.168	.010	.344	.000
Independent	1. *Motivation to learn English*	.084	.015	.096	.000
	2. *Interest in English classes*	.198	.012	.283	.000

To summarize the results, the two tests showed that the 6th graders performed significantly better than the 5th graders. The three factors were determined in the questionnaire. It showed that the 5th graders were more motivated to learn English and significantly more interested in English classes than the 6th graders. The 6th graders, however, self-evaluated significantly higher in their English abilities than the 5th graders. The overall correlation analysis showed moderate and weak correlations among the variables. The

Multiple Regression Analysis found that the ability of English sound-letter recognition was the most predictive variable of the participants' self-evaluation about their English abilities.

Discussion and Conclusion

The research questions of this study were: (1) What is the vocabulary knowledge of the 5th and the 6th grade children? (2) What is their sound-letter recognition knowledge? (3) Is there any relationship between their vocabulary knowledge and sound-letter recognition knowledge? (4) What are their perceptions of English classes? (5) What are the perceptions of their English abilities? and (6) Is there any relationship between their English abilities and their self-evaluation about their English abilities? In order to find the answers to the research questions, the researchers examined 1) children's English abilities measured by the Vocabulary Test and the Sound-Letter Recognition Test, 2) their perceptions about their English abilities, and 3) if 1) and 2) were correlated. The researchers also conducted a Multiple Regression Analysis to examine the relationship between children's self-evaluation of their English abilities, and four other variables: vocabulary knowledge, sound-letter recognition knowledge, motivation to learn English, and interest in English classes.

As for RQ1, the 5th graders achieved 73.9%, and the 6th graders, 82.8% of the Vocabulary Test. This indicates that children have successfully learned vocabulary they were taught in the original textbook of the city and *Hi, friends! 1 & 2*. The result of the *t*-test showed that the 6th graders' test scores were significantly higher than those of the 5th graders. Furthermore, as Figure 1 reveals, the distribution of the 5th graders was negatively skewed, or skewed to the left (mean>mode), showing the scores fell toward the higher side of the scale and very few low scores. The distribution was even more skewed negatively for the 6th graders. On the whole, we can conclude from the result that children can get significantly higher scores within a year teaching and that the current instructions in Funabashi elementary schools are successfully implemented hitherto.

RQ2 was about the children' sound-letter recognition knowledge. Overall, their scores of sound-letter recognition knowledge were lower than those of vocabulary. However, the results of the test for the 6th graders were significantly higher (74.5%) than those of the 5th graders (64.8%). Both of these scores were more than 60% correct, which may indicate effect of the city's English curriculum that incorporated basics of phonics instruction in its textbook. Further research, however, is necessary to explain what contributed to the test result. That is, children may have received phonics instructions after school in a language school, and that may have influenced the scores of the Sound-Letter Recognition Test. Moreover, the effect of teaching vocabulary on sound-letter recognition knowledge is not yet known. Children may have acquired sounds of letters by a 'look and say' method as well as a 'sound out' each letter method.

The same tendency was observed in the distribution of the 5th and 6th graders. The distribution of the Sound-Letter Recognition Test in Figure 2 showed more negatively skewed for the 6th graders. Lower level children seem to eventually get better in a year of instructions.

As for RQ3, the correlation between vocabulary knowledge and sound-letter recognition knowledge was .671, which indicates that those who had good knowledge of vocabulary scored higher in the Sound-Letter Recognition Test. This also indicates that if children had low knowledge of vocabulary, teachers could not expect them to have high sound-letter recognition knowledge. This may suggest that teaching vocabulary stressing sounds be very important.

Items 1, 2, 4, 12, and 13 address RQ4 as they indicate their perceptions about and interest in English classes. Children seem to like less (Item 1) and enjoy less (Item 2) in the 6th grade than in the 5th grade, and although they seem to understand what they study in English classes (74.7 % for the 5th graders, and 74.3% for the 6th graders answered 4 or 5 in the scale in Item 4), they don't seem to feel that their English has improved as much (65.2% for the 5th graders, and 62.1% for the 6th graders in Item 13). Three factors (*Motivation to*

learn English, Interest in English classes, and *Self-evaluation of English abilities*) showed that the 5th graders were more motivated to learn English and significantly more interested in English classes than the 6th graders. Moreover, what is problematic is that children are not actively speaking English (53.8% for the 5th graders and 50.1% for the 6th graders in Item 12), which is more serious for the 6th graders. Further inquiry is necessary to find the causes of the tendency to become less active, less interested in English, and less enjoying studying English. We need to do further research if children' being less active speaking English is a phenomenon particularly seen for the 5th and 6th graders. Since one of the objectives of the English education stipulated by the MEXT is to cultivate willingness to communicate in English, this tendency must seriously be taken into consideration for improvement.

RQ5 was about children's self-evaluation of their English abilities. The 6th graders responded that they could read simple English words better (55.6% when 4 and 5 are combined in Item 6) than the 5th graders (44.7%). The 6th graders responded that they could write simple English words better (67.8% when 4 and 5 are combined in Item 7) than the 5th graders (54.8%). However, more 6th graders (29.6%) than the 5th graders (28.0%) responded that English was difficult (Item 3).

This drew attention of the researchers to two points. The children study the same chapters of the textbook developed by the Funabashi board of education for two years. That is, Grade 6 children learned the same parts that they learned when they were in Grade 5. Theoretically, the 6th graders should feel easier as they had studied the same parts in the previous year, but it was not the case. Another point is that, the 6th graders, nevertheless, felt that they could read and write better when compared with the 5th graders. We assume that more emphasis might have been placed on reading and writing in the 6th grade, but further research needs to be done to find what factors led children to achieve better in reading and writing. Interestingly, although they responded that English was more difficult, that they understood what an ALT was saying less (Item 5), and that they felt their English had

improved less than the 5th graders (Item 13), the 6th graders still evaluated their English abilities higher.

Lastly, RQ6 inquired if there was any relationship between their English abilities and their self-evaluation of their English abilities. Among the three variables, *Self-evaluation of English abilities* showed higher correlation values with *Vocabulary* (*r* = .448) and *Sound-Letter Recognition (r* = .518) than *Motivation to learn English* and *Interest in English classes*. A notable point is that the ability of English sound-letter recognition was the most predictive variable of the participants' *Self-evaluation of English abilities* as the multiple regression analysis showed (*β* = .344). When children understood sound-letter relationship, they evaluated their English abilities higher than when they scored well on the Vocabulary Test. Equally, children' motivation was not as high a predictor of self-evaluation of English abilities. On the contrary, *Interest in English classes* was the second to *Sound-Letter Recognition* (*β* = .283). Since the value of *R²* in the multiple regression analysis showed only 38.5%, the participants with both high scores on *Sound-letter Recognition* test and high points on a Likert scale for *Interest in English classes* may have contributed to higher points for *Self-evaluation of English abilities.*

The results indicated that children's sound-letter recognition knowledge predicted higher self-evaluation about their English abilities both in the 5th and 6th grades. Motivation is regarded to play an important role in language acquisition. However, in this study, it did not help children have high self-evaluation in their English abilities. Teaching English so that children can enjoy and be motivated to study English and helping them understand so that they feel that their English has improved are important determinants for children to be confident in their English abilities. The need for a good instruction is especially important for the 6th graders as their interests in English and English classes show a tendency to decline.

In conclusion, as the researchers mentioned earlier, children do want to learn to read and write as Item 8 (if they wanted to read simple English words) and Item 9 (if they wanted

to write simple English words) gained the highest mean scores. If children were able to read and write, especially in the 6th grade, they may have perceived that their English had improved more, considering that their sound-letter recognition knowledge predicted high self-evaluation of their English abilities, and their English may have actually improved more. Ministry of Education, as well as prefectural and municipal boards of education, and elementary schools are strongly advised to incorporate teaching of reading and writing systematically into the elementary school English education.

Acknowledgment

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Appendix A. The Vocabulary Test and the Sound-Letter Recognition Test

The Vocabulary Test

《パート A》
問題 これから、英語の単語を聞いてその意味に近いと思うものを、3 つの絵の中から 1 枚選んでその絵の下の番号に〇をつけてください。各問題の単語は 2 回ずつ読まれます。まずは例題からやってみましょう。
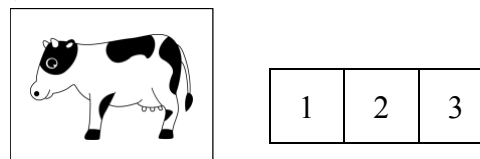
例題 :

1.	2.	3.
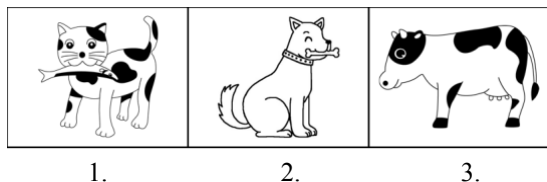
《パート B》
問題 これから問題の答え方を説明します。各問題にはひとつの絵が描かれています。その絵について 3 つの単語を聞いて、その絵に合っている単語の番号に〇をつけてください。3 つの番号は言われません。問題は 2 回くり返されます。まずは練習問題をやってみましょう。

例題 :

1	2	3

The Sound-Letter Recognition Test

問題1 放送を聞いて、絵を表す最初のアルファベットに〇をつけてください。問題は 2 回ずつ読まれます。まずは例題をやってみましょう。

例題 :

A	S	H	R

問題 2 放送を聞いて、絵を表す最初のアルファベットに〇をつけてください。問題は 2 回ずつ読まれます。まずは例題をやってみましょう。

例題 :

m	f	c	n

問題 3 放送を聞いて、絵を表す英語に〇をつけてください。問題は 2 回ずつ読まれます。まずは例題をやってみましょう。

例題 :

tog	bog
dog	pog

問題 4 聞こえてきたアルファベットに〇をつけてください。アルファベットは 2 回ずつ読まれます。まずは例題をやってみましょう。

例題	c	g	j	y

問題 5 これから何語でもない単語が聞こえてきます。最初の音を表すアルファベットに〇をつけてください。単語は 2 回ずつ読まれます。まずは例題をやってみましょう。

例題	s	f	z	h

154

Appendix B. The List of Vocabulary Used in the Vocabulary Test

Part A		Part B	
ambulance	fire station	bicycle	ruler
breakfast	headache	castle	sing
dentist	hungry	fifteen (15)	table tennis
eggplant	Social Studies	fly a kite	temple
elbow	triangle	giraffe	tired
eraser	Wednesday	glue	turn left
February	whale	hospital	wash my face

Selected Papers

Practitioner Report

Examination of Beneficial and Enjoyable Pronunciation Activities

Junko Chujo

Tokyo Denki University

Abstract

This study examines beneficial in-class, tailored pronunciation activities for Japanese university learners of English in a class setting with 30-40 students. In the first step of the study, 16 major course activities were designed and developed, placing a special focus on the learners' affective phase to promote and accelerate their acquisition. These activities had three types of step by step foci for the learners to acquire intelligible pronunciation: gain knowledge of articulation of selected consonants, articulate the target consonants, and stabilize the target consonants. These activities were then implemented in freshman English classes for one semester. Finally, the activities were evaluated via survey by the students after the pronunciation instruction based on two points of view: the activities the students felt most helped improve their pronunciation and the activities which students found most enjoyable and engaging. The student evaluation-based examination findings will help educators to select large classroom based pronunciation activities that help their students attain an intelligible level of pronunciation with world-wide interlocutors.

Keywords: pronunciation, instructional design, activity, affective phase

Introduction

As members of a globalized world, Japanese students need to be able to actively communicate with confidence in English without depending on interlocutors to infer what is meant from an unintelligible utterance. In Japanese English instruction, while researchers

have pointed out the lack of pronunciation instruction and identified it as a problem, instructional teaching strategies, procedures and actual material for pronunciation instruction have yet to be standardized.

A major component of standardized curriculum is the textbook. Sobkowaiak (2012) states that textbooks determine a major part of classroom teaching. Tergujeff (2015) also emphasizes the importance of textbooks in ELT, especially in teaching English pronunciation. Derwing, Diepenbroek, and Foote (2012) state that many teachers have limited training and confidence; therefore, they depend on the textbook when teaching pronunciation. This circumstance applies to the field of Japanese English education as well. Textbooks include a collection of pedagogically selected and organized activities. Because of this, a good first step in the development of a pronunciation textbook would be to design and develop pronunciation activities specifically for Japanese English learners which take into full consideration the English related traits of Japanese English.

This study examines beneficial in-class, tailored pronunciation activities for Japanese university learners of English in a class setting with 30-40 students. This is part of an instruction design which was conducted through the process of analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation from 2010 to 2015 (Chujo, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c, 2012a, 2012b, 2013a, 2013b, 2015a, 2015b, 2016a, 2016b, 2017a, 2017b). In this specific study, 16 major course activities were designed and developed based on a three step foci goals for the learners to be able to achieve intelligible pronunciation of selected target consonants. Using research literature from the field, target consonants were selected and prioritized based on those sounds which most compromise Japanese English learners' communication (Kenworthy 1987, Avery and Ehrlich 1992, Uchida 2008, Simizu, in Walker 2010, Rogerson Rewell 2011).

In this design and development, the learners' affective phase was given top priority. Designing and developing activities which lower the Japanese university English learners'

anxiety toward articulating the English sounds by creating a secure and comfortable class atmosphere is crucial in order to help students achieve intelligible pronunciation through the explicit approach.

These activities were implemented in non-English major freshman English classes for one semester. The activities were then evaluated via survey by the students at the end of the pronunciation instruction based on two points of view: the activities the students felt most helped improve their pronunciation, and the activities which students found most enjoyable and engaging.

Theoretical Background

In contrast to a 20-year-old comment indicating that a change towards including pronunciation instruction was already fairly advanced (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, Goodwin, & Griner, 2010), Setter and Jenkins (2005) take the view that pronunciation instruction still does not have a secure place in most language curriculums. That is, the late acceptance of pronunciation as a crucial element in language teaching has led to a delay in adopting approaches that reflect the new view. Naiman (1992), on the basis of practical experience teaching at the community college level, says that "[…] if pronunciation was not given a separate class it often did not get taught at all." He concludes that "it was often left to the end or totally neglected" (p. 164).

The reason for this neglect, Naiman claims, is that the teachers themselves are not secure in teaching pronunciation compared to other aspects of English because they lack technical knowledge about English sounds and are self-conscious. As a result, they "fe[el] extremely uncomfortable teaching pronunciation" (Naiman, 1992, p. 164) and think "it [is] safer not to do it" (Naiman, 1992, p. 164). Gilbert (2008) points out another misguided teaching approach, where "some teachers try hard to teach pronunciation as if it was a course in phonetics, and this also tends to discourage both teachers and students" (p. 43).

In the field of material development as well, the tendency has often been to set pronunciation instruction aside or to neglect it altogether. Marks (2006) reported that, even when pronunciation is included in course books, it is as a side note or afterthought. Although the message that pronunciation instruction is a key element for building communicative competence seems largely to have been received, teachers and material developers, on the whole, still have not capably put it into actual practice. Ohtaka (1996) states that the need for English pronunciation instruction in Japanese English education is widely recognized, but that it is rarely offered in actual classrooms.

Regarding instructional styles for pronunciation teaching, Naiman (1992) favors the idea of teaching pronunciation as a separate class or as its own section of a general English class. Naiman reports that when he provided instruction that was communicative, learners were engaged and felt that the instruction was fun. When they began to realize the importance of pronunciation through actual communication experiences, they were eager to learn more. Shizuka (2009) compares the current status of pronunciation within Japanese English education to that of other language skills. He claims that all ELT teachers should situate pronunciation at the core of their instruction from the beginning, since pronunciation is the base or root skill for English learning.

A nationwide survey on English teaching focusing on frequency of pronunciation practice was recently conducted by MEXT (2013); 218 high schools responded. Regarding frequency, 64% of administrators answered "frequently" and 25% "sometimes" for Oral Communication I classes. However, this data might need further analysis. On the basis of results like these, Arimoto (2005) identified three typical characteristics of so-called pronunciation instruction in the actual Japanese English classroom, namely that 1) there was no explicit, systematic teaching with the IPA; 2) teachers would play model sounds on a tape or CD to students (or speak themselves); and 3) students would repeat what they heard. Arimoto pointed out that what these students were typically doing did not amount to real

accent correction but simply the passive repetition of words, like parrots, with questionable results for learning.

As can be seen from Arimoto's points, pedagogical approaches to and priorities for English pronunciation are not well developed in Japan, even at the compulsory education level. This is one of the challenges for pronunciation instruction.

Another factor that inhibits L2 pronunciation learning in Japan is related to certain cultural traits of the Japanese people, such as shyness, a tendency to embarrassment, and adherence to a group mentality. Hughes (1999) states that these traits discourage Japanese English learners from venturing to practice their speaking. In teaching English oral communication (and EFL in general), the psychological domain represented by these cultural attributes needs consideration, especially in terms of classroom culture.

For optimal pedagogical outcomes, activities should take into consideration the sociocultural background and classroom culture of the students, as well as their emotions regarding, attitudes towards, and degree and type of motivation for English learning. As stated by Richard-Amarto (2010), the variables associated with the affective domain, depending on the context in which they operate, can have either a positive or a negative influence on L2 learning. Richard-Amarto (2010) states that "*attitudes*, *motivation*, and *level of anxiety* are central to the affective domain" (p. 153, italics in original). The affective domain is generally considered "very important in education and training" (Heinich, Molenda, & Russell, 1993, p. 104).

Design and Development

The first step in designing the material was to determine the instructional goals for the students. In terms of consideration of learnability and teachability in one semester, the focus was put on the following three progressive goals. Students should be able to 1) gain a practical basic knowledge of the manner of articulation for selected consonants; 2) articulate

the selected consonants; and 3) stabilize the practiced sounds to be able to apply them in varied environments using a reading script in a consciously controlled environment.

To effectively achieve these instructional goals for students, the pedagogical activities were designed and developed based on the following major five core guiding key principles.

1. Give high priority to consideration of learners' psychological orientation. Create a secure and comfortable environment to lower learners' anxiety level. Foster a confident and positive attitude toward communication in English.

2. Make a minimal selection of phonetic features. Give priority to the sounds that most commonly compromise learners' intelligibility (that is, sounds that receive the most negative influence from the target learners' L1, in this case Japanese).

3. Introduce and manage materials carefully and systemically (e.g., in terms of level of difficulty and phonetic target items). Repeat activities with small, incremental changes to help learners gain confidence and familiarity with them.

4. Focus on instilling applicable practical knowledge while limiting the use of technical jargon to only the most convenient and useful terms. Overuse of phonetic jargon is likely to reduce learner motivation; however, appropriate use of technical terms increases learner understanding (which terms are appropriate may vary with learners' age and cognitive development). Explicit explanations with appropriate use of phonetic jargon and concepts foster noticing and increase motivation to learn and to practice pronunciation. Use allotted instruction time for actual pronunciation and for phonetic theory.

5. Develop materials that will help learners become autonomous in their learning by developing self-monitoring skills. This is a very important goal, especially once learners leave the classroom. When intelligibility is compromised in a real-life conversation, learners will be able to repair the compromised utterance based on the knowledge they have acquired and practice they have undergone in class. To

realize this goal, use of the explicit approach is crucial, so that the learners can monitor their pronunciation based on their acquired knowledge and correction strategies.

On the basis of the principles and goals, presented above, based on the research literature presented in the introduction, the following ten consonants were selected as target phonemes for the design and development of the activities. Some classes present one sound and others multiple sounds, beginning with the notoriously and stereotypically difficult consonants that most compromise communication due to the L1 influence, namely /l/ and /r/, followed by /w/, /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/ and /ʃ/.

The pedagogical principles and the target phonetic features were identified and developed into activities which had three types of progressive goal foci for the learners to acquire intelligible pronunciation as stated in the beginning of this section. They were implemented in the classrooms throughout multiple semesters for formative evaluations. Evaluations were conducted to examine its effectiveness through data collection (recording performance evaluations, written surveys and classroom observations). The material level, organization of implementation process and activity amount was adjusted in the process.

The finalized in-class activities were as follows: 1) tongue twisters with rhythm (including marking and counting the target consonant(s)), 2) articulation (1): explanation of articulations in Japanese, 3) articulation (2): explanation of articulations using visual aids (presentation with photos and drawings), 4) self-pronunciation check with mirror, 5) practicing phonemes with background rhythm (see Appendix A), 6) dictation of words and phrases, 7) reading aloud with dictated words and phrases with background beat, 8) chants (produced by the author and extensively containing the target consonants), 9) minimal pair listening and reading aloud with rhythm, 10) confusing sentences with picture: listening exercises (see Appendix B), 11) topic dialogue (1): long, story based, fill in the blank type of dictation, listening comprehension and reading out loud, 12) topic dialogue (2): short, topic

based, fill in the blank type of dictation, listening comprehension and reading out loud, 13) discussing communication breakdown reasons (see Appendix C), 14) identifying the target features in pop songs and practicing the target sounds through singing, 15) accessing authentic information: obtaining authentic materials online that include the target phonetic sounds to identify and practice the target sounds in authentic context (see Appendix D), and 16) self- and peer-monitoring with a video recording. To aid in the retention of covered target materials and to reinforce the newly learned ability, take-home assignment activities were also designed and developed (activities 12, 14 and 15). All the activities and pronunciation sound models created (a total of 132 sound files) were downloadable from a password-protected website during the study.

Participants and Procedures

The developed 16 pedagogical activities were implemented in two freshman English classes at a national university in Japan for summative evaluation. Both classes were compulsory electives. The class sizes were 29 (12 male, 17 female) and 31 (10 male, 21 female), yielding a total of 60 students. Their majors were International Studies, Humanities, Law, Education, Economics, and Regional Development Studies. Among the 60 students, 59 agreed to participate in the research.

The target sound(s) were introduced to the students in the class in the order as described in Figure 1.

Note. Underline (__) = Explicit instruction, Dotted line (_ _) = Implicit instruction

Figure 1. Instruction schedule.

Each class session was completed as laid out in Figure 2. The allotted instruction time for each activity differed slightly depending on the difficulty of the target sounds.

IO	1		2		3		4		5
AT	6		4		10		3		8
A	Review	→	Tongue twister with rhythm	→	Articulation (1) and (2)	→	Self-pronunciation check with mirror	→	Rhythmic reading of phonemes with background rhythm

IO	6		7		8		9		10
AT	5		15		3		10		6
A	Tongue twister (marking and counting the target sound(s))	→	Dictation of words and phrases	→	Reading aloud with dictated words and phrases with background beat	→	Minimal pair listening and reading aloud with rhythm, confusing sentence with picture	→	Chants

IO	11		12
AT	17		3
A	Topic dialogue (1) Emi's story	→	Discussing communication breakdown reasons

Note. IO = instruction order, AT = activity time (in minutes), A = activity
Figure 2. Instruction schedule.

The class met once a week for 16 weeks for 90 minutes per session. The present author and developer served as instructor. The entire instruction process was held in English. Attendance rate for the course averaged 99.75%.

After the semester of instruction, the presented 16 activities were evaluated by participants from two points of view. First, participants were asked to choose which activities they felt most helped improve their pronunciation, and second, they were asked in which ones they were most interested and enjoyed engaging. All 16 activities were listed in the survey, and participants could select a maximum of six points, giving each selected activity one point.

Results

Table 1 presents the ranking of the activities felt by participants to be beneficial for

pronunciation improvement.

Table 1

Ranking of Activities in Terms of Benefit to Articulation

Ranking	Activities	Total Points ($n = 58$)
1	Articulation (2): Presentation with Photos and Drawings	54
2	Articulation (1): Explanation in Japanese	43
3	Self- and Peer-Monitoring	35
4	Dictation of Words and Phrases	32
5	Tongue Twisters	23
6	Chants	22
7	Self-Pronunciation Check with Mirror	21
7	Minimal Pair Listening and Reading Aloud with Rhythm	21
9	Topic Dialogue (2): Dialogue Dictation*	19
10	Rhythmic Reading of Phonemes	15
11	Topic Dialogue (1): Dialogue Dictation (Emi's Story)	14
12	Reading with Dictated Words and Phrases with Background Beat	13
12	Discussing Communication Breakdown Reasons	13
14	Pop Song with Finding Target Sounds*	8
15	Confusing Sentence Dictation with Picture	7
16	Accessing Internet Sources*	2

Note. * = Take-home assignment activities.

These results show that the activity regarded as most beneficial (with 54 points out of a possible 58) was the articulation (2) activity (explanation with presentation of photos and drawings). This activity was rated even more helpful than the articulation (1) activity (explanation in Japanese), which earned a total of 43 points and came in second. The monitoring activity (35 points) placed third, followed by dictation of words and phrases (32 points). Tongue twisters (23 points) and chants (22 points) were ranked fifth and sixth. The self-pronunciation check using the mirror (21 points) tied for seventh position with minimal pair listening and reading aloud with rhythm.

The second survey question investigated which pedagogical activities were the most interesting and enjoyable for participants. Table 2 presents the results by rank.

Table 2

Ranking of Activities in Terms of Interest and Enjoyment

Ranking	Activities	Total Points ($n = 58$)
1	Chants	48
2	Tongue Twisters	46
3	Topic Dialogue (1): Dialogues Dictation (Emi's Story)	34
4	Reading with Dictated Words and Phrases with Background Beat	27
5	Topic Dialogue (2): Dialogues Dictation*	21
6	Self- and Peer-Monitoring	20
7	Dictation of Words and Phrases	19
8	Articulation (2): Presentation with pictures and drawings	18

9	Articulation (1): Explanation in Japanese	16
9	Discussing Communication Breakdown Reasons	16
11	Rhythmic Reading of Phonemes	15
12	Minimal Pair Listening and Reading Aloud with Rhythm	13
13	Pop Song with Finding Target Sounds*	12
13	Accessing Internet Sources*	12
14	Self-Pronunciation Check with Mirror	7
14	Confusing Sentence Dictation with Picture	7

Note. * = Take-home assignment activities.

The activities regarded as most enjoyable and interesting were chants (48 points), tongue twisters (46 points), topic dialogue (1) (34 points), reading dictated words and phrases with a background beat (27 points), and dictation (21 points). The self- and peer-monitoring activity was ranked sixth. In other words, it was found that participants most enjoyed rhythmic activities and activities in which they could apply learned pronunciation knowledge and skills in dialogue in real-life situations.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this survey have five significant implications for classroom pronunciation instruction in Japanese university English learners. First, participants found images and detailed descriptions of how to form a sound extremely useful. Furthermore, among two explicit approaches, the learners found the visual presentations more helpful than a description with words even if it is in Japanese.

Second, the monitoring activity was ranked third in spite of the fact that it was held only twice during the instruction, indicating that it had a large impact on participant learning. Being able to hear and see their production gave participants a better indication of the sound

produced than merely imagining the outcome. In addition, even though the video recording required close-up-self performance and it was anticipated that seeing oneself and showing the recording to a classmate might be uncomfortable for the students, the activity ranked sixth in terms of interest and enjoyment.

The third notable outcome was the high ranking of chants and tongue twisters in both elements. It is helpful if chants and tongue twisters are intentionally designed to be phonetically challenging in order to help students master the target skill, allowing them to practice the target sounds intensively. The high rank of these activities indicates that they should play a crucial role in pronunciation instruction if it to be successful for Japanese university students.

The fourth notable finding is detected by examining the activities of topic dialogue (1) and topic dialogue (2) in each of the results. Both activities are fill-in-the-blank conversation style; one has parentheses in a longer story and the other has a very short communication between two people. However, from the students' work experience, it is clear that these similar activities give a different impression and feeling when they are asked to categorize the pronunciation activities. This finding is significant for the balance of beneficial and enjoyable activities.

The fifth finding is that even though the large variety of students' opinions was found in the survey, one should not ignore the students' feelings or the variety of reaction by refusing to look at the lower ranking activities. The point of this teaching report is to examine effective activities for a group; however, it also reveals a difference in interest among individual students. To take this point into account, it would be prudent to present a variety of activities in order to provide more opportunities for the learners to engage in learning with high motivation. Each learner's preferred learning style is different; therefore, a variety of activities should provide all or most learners with opportunities to employ their favored learning strategies.

Chujo, J.
Examination of Beneficial and Enjoyable Pronunciation Activities

Conclusion

This study revealed what kind of pedagogical strategies/activities are beneficial and/or enjoyable for Japanese university learners of English in large classroom based instruction. The activities were examined empirically through an actual semester long implementation. The data presented in this study have valuable implications for constructing effective materials for teaching pronunciation. Utilizing these findings for pronunciation curriculum and course design and material development should lead to more successful pronunciation instruction. Even in educational situations in which structured pronunciation teaching is under severe time constraints, utilizing these top-ranked activities is likely to bring about the best possible outcome. It is hoped that this research will contribute to the formulation of an optimal and systematic form of instruction in pronunciation within Japanese English education and ultimately promote the development of oral communication skills among Japanese English speakers.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix A

Practicing phonemes with background rhythm

Practice saying Part A below with the beat. Then, create B and model it for your partner. Exchange it with your partner and practice his/her Part B.

< Rhythmic Reading Aloud Practice >

A	/θ/ /θ/ /ð/ /θ/ / /ð/ /θ/ /ð/ /θ/ /ð/ /θ/ /θ/ /ð/ / /θ/ /ð/ /θ/ /ð/ / /θ/ /ð/ /θ/ /ð/ /ð/ /θ/ /θ/ /ð/ / /θ/ /θ/ /ð/ /θ/ / /ð/
B	

Appendix B

Confusing sentences with picture (listening exercises)

Listen to the two sets of four statements. Write down the four sentences for each question and then select the statement (from A to D) that best describes what you see in the pictures. Each sentence is repeated twice.

(A) Children are *washing a vase*.

(B) Children are *waiting for a bath*.

(C) Children are *waiting for a bus*.

(D) Children are *washing a bus*.

Answer: *C*

(Answers are written in *italics*.)

Appendix C

Discussing communication breakdown reasons

· · · **HELP NEEDED** · · ·

Emi ordered **vanilla** ice cream in a store. However, what she received was **banana** ice cream. Give her phonetic advice and help her order **vanilla** ice cream. Help Emi by making some pronunciation suggestions on how to improve her English pronunciation.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix D

Accessing authentic information

Here are some fast-food chains. **Visit their websites** and read their menus. Then, find and write down **two items** from the menus of **two restaurants** for both A and **B.** All of the selected items need to contain the sound **/l/** or **/r/**.

A. I'd like to try _____

_____ and

_____

at _____ .

B. I'd like to try _____

_____ and

_____

at _____ .

< STARBUCKS USA >
  http://www.starbucks.com

< YOSHINOYA USA >
  http://www.yoshinoyaamerica.com/

< PANDA EXPRESS USA >
  http://pandaexpress.com/

< DUNKIN' DONUTS >
  https://www.dunkindonuts.com/

< MCDONALDS USA >
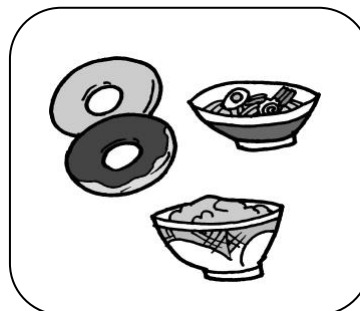   http://www.mcdonalds.com/us/en/home.html

Selected Papers

Symposium Paper

Person-in-Context Theory and Spirituality in the Japanese College EFL Contexts: Implications from Theory, Survey, and ELT Practice

Masao Kanaoka

Kagoshima University

Ema Ushioda

University of Warwick

Atsuko Watanabe

Bunkyo University

Chihiro Kato

Yokohama City University

Abstract

Self, identity, and context play a central role in guiding a new paradigm of L2 motivation research. In this regard, Ushioda's (2009) a person-in-context relational view (person-in-context theory: PICT) plays a pivotal part in guiding the new research perspective. Interestingly, PICT and spirituality (inner spiritual growth) resonate with each other: they both concern self-development, i.e., whole person development. Following Ushioda's theoretical guidance on the organic alignment of PICT and spirituality, three reports (on a survey and two contrasting examples of ELT practices at particular Japanese universities) were presented in a symposium at the JACET 56th International Convention in Tokyo. The reports concern the difficulty and the feasibility of PICT-spirituality-amalgamated ELT in the Japanese college context. In the survey, students from four universities (*N*=388) suggested an unclear message/response to PICT-spirituality ELT. In a public university's EFL program, it proves difficult to accommodate PICT and spirituality due to the school's educational policy targeting enhanced TOEFL scores. In contrast, the English for liberal arts (ELA) program at a

Tokyo-based Christian university underscores the essence of PICT and spirituality, thus tailoring ELT and language learning practices towards healthy self-development (i.e., well-rounded character formation as a global citizen).

Keywords: L2 motivation, PICT, spirituality, whole-person development, Japanese college context

Introduction

A Person-in-Context Approach to L2 Motivation: Towards Whole-Person Development

In many educational contexts in the 21st century including Japan, the motivational rationale for learning second or foreign languages is often framed in terms of the utility value of acquiring skills and certification in English or other important languages (Ushioda, 2017b). Utility value here is defined with reference to the competitive economic benefits that language skills can bring to the individual and society, through facilitating socio-economic mobility and access to desirable jobs, opportunities and resources. As Kubota (2016) critically comments, the "contemporary trend of language teaching and learning, which is influenced by a neoliberal focus on the pragmatic development of measurable skills, sidelines dispositional aspects of communication" (p. 468). In other words, the emphasis is on acquiring, testing and certifying language skills and knowledge for "human capital development" (p. 469) in today's globalized economies, rather than on fostering appropriate attitudes, ethical values and communicative dispositions for "mutual understanding and peaceful co-existence in a sustainable global society" (p. 478).

To some extent, prevailing theoretical accounts of L2 motivation may have unwittingly contributed to serving the above-noted largely instrumentalist emphasis in language education by defining L2 motivation with reference to the value of learning languages for personally, socially or professionally desirable ends. These desirable ends are encapsulated in

well-known theoretical concepts such as instrumental orientations (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), extrinsic motivation (Noels, 2001), investment and social capital (Norton, 2013), and ideal and ought-to L2 selves (Dörnyei, 2009).

The question posed in this symposium paper is whether, in the Japanese college context, it may be possible to promote an orientation to learning English that is not focused solely on the instrumentalist acquisition and certification of skills and competencies, but that connects more deeply with students' broader personal development and 'ethical self-formation' (Clarke & Hennig, 2013) as socially responsible and globally engaged citizens. In other words, can motivation for learning English be brought to connect with cultivating 'inner spiritual growth' (Astin, Astin & Lindholm, 2011) in college students, as young people who are looking to shape their lives with a sense of meaning and purpose and contribute to society?

Prevailing theoretical accounts of L2 motivation tend to focus rather narrowly on language learning in isolation from the broader context of human motivation and life in which it is embedded, and to define people in rather one-dimensional terms as 'L2 learners.' Consequently, theoretical attention is not readily drawn to the wider dimensions of whole-person development and inner spiritual growth in the analysis of L2 motivation.

In response to these limitations, Ushioda (2009) has advocated a more holistic 'person-in-context' approach to L2 motivation, where the focus is on language learners as real 'people' (rather than abstract bundles of variables) who are living their lives in particular social and cultural contexts. While Ushioda's person-in-context theory (PICT) was essentially developed as an alternative approach to conceptualizing and researching L2 motivation and not necessarily with educational applications in mind, this symposium paper takes the view that PICT may be relevant to pedagogical considerations for connecting students' L2 motivation with their personal development and spiritual growth.

As Ushioda (2009) describes, PICT focuses on the unique individuality of people, with particular histories, identities, and personalities, who are living their lives in specific social

and cultural contexts, and who continuously shape and are shaped by these contexts. These are people who are engaging with the world with various goals and motives, among which motivation for language learning constitutes just one small part. Taking such a critically authentic standpoint, the question for language educators is whether students' motivation for language learning can become meaningfully integrated with these broader life goals, values and priorities. With a PICT approach to L2 motivation, we are thus encouraged to take a holistic view of how motivation for language learning may shape and fit within a person's whole sense of being, values, and purpose in life.

From a pedagogical perspective, such a holistic view may help to focus students' attention on how learning English can connect with their broader motivations and aspirations to lead personally fulfilling, meaningful, and socially responsible lives, and not simply be equated with acquiring skills and competencies for their own economic advancement and employability.

If students' English learning experience brings them to see the development of English proficiency as a means of personal growth and self-expression, and as a means of enabling engagement with social and global issues of concern to them, their motivation for learning English may align more strongly and authentically with their aspired values and sense of purpose in life. In the reports to follow, we explore these perspectives and possibilities in relation to English language programs in three different university settings in Japan, and discuss the implications arising therefrom.

Student Perspectives from Four Universities: Desire for PICT-and-Spirituality-Involved ELT vis-à-vis Currently Engaged ELT at College

Noting PICT and its wider perspective of embracing spirituality towards whole-person development, as explained in the abstract, a questionnaire survey was conducted in 2014, targeting first-year college students (*N*=388) from four universities in Japan (2 national, 1

public, 1 private) in the second semester after the students' actual experience of college life and English classes in the first semester. The aim of this survey was two-fold: exploring the possible linkage of (1) college ELT and PICT and spirituality, and (2) L2 use capability and PICT and spirituality.

The first aim targets two types of college ELT style: the style desired by the students, and the style actually being administered in class as perceived and recognized in the students' eyes. Concerning the administered ELT, in the questionnaire, a note was added indicating that this style normally uses a textbook (a conventional model printed by publishing companies) as the main material in the classroom. To some extent, this method may be peculiar to traditional Japanese ELT including the college context. Approximately 90 percent of the students ($n = 347$) responded in this part. In other words, some students who suggested the use of an original textbook prepared by the instructor or the school, or use of other materials, were excluded as these teaching methods might correlate to PICT and spirituality, such as the English language program at International Christian University to be explained later in this article.

In the ELT-focused questionnaire, three target aspects were provided and labeled G1 – G3, for which two questions were given respectively, utilizing a Likert-type scale of five different levels (1 = not applied/true at all, 2 = not applied/true basically, 3 = neither/no idea, 4 = applied/true basically 5 = applied/true very much).

G1 (Instrumentalist Perspective) relates to instrumentalist emphasis, such as cramming knowledge and intensifying memorization practice for taking quizzes and exams. Broadly, this type of ELT has been prevailing in Japan, as seen in *Juken*-style ELT (Ushioda, 2013). There, functional and instrumental aspects are emphasized for the quest of numerically evidenced rigid learning outcomes (e.g., test scores). G2 (PICT Perspective), on the other hand, concerns themes aimed at whole person development by focusing on self-in-society contexts (Ushioda, 2009), such as a person as a college student put in the current academic

context; also a person as a prospective social citizen/being with a professional/occupational life after graduation. Relevantly, G3 (Spirituality Perspective) values tasks for the nurture of inner self (inner spiritual part), such as personal beliefs and sense of values in the college context (Astin, Astin & Lindholm, 2011), while taking career plans and life goals (real-life contexts) into account (Baker, 2003). In exemplifying these accounts, as stated above, two relevant questions were provided (six questions in total). They targeted ELT style aimed at having college students cram knowledge (Q1) and intensify memorization (Q2) for taking tests; working on themes for promoting critical thinking towards self-maturity (Q3) and for identifying crucial relations between themselves and real societies (Q4); engaging in tasks in order to establish their own beliefs and values (Q5) and to map out their career plan or goal after graduation (Q6). In examining the yielded responses for the two ELT styles on the questionnaire (desired ELT: α = .709) (administered ELT: α = .607), *t*-tests were applied (power (1-*β*) = 0.99) and presented the following results (Table 1).

Table 1
Responses for Desired ELT and Administered ELT

	Desired ELT *(N=388)*		Administered ELT *(n=347)*				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
G1 Instrumentalist							
(Q1-Q2 computed)	2.51	0.97	3.01	1.02	-6.71	.000*	0.50
Q1. CKTT	2.73	1.13	3.17	1.11	-5.35	.000*	0.88
Q2. MTT	2.29	1.23	2.84	1.33	-5.77	.000*	1.10
G2 PICT							
(Q3-Q4 computed)	3.08	1.03	2.71	1.04	4.77	.000*	0.35
Q3. TCTSM	3.06	1.11	2.74	1.15	3.75	.000*	0.64
Q4. TSS	3.10	1.14	2.68	1.13	4.94	.000*	0.84
G3 Spirituality							
(Q5-Q6 computed)	2.90	1.03	2.52	1.32	4.31	.000*	0.32
Q5. TBV	2.95	1.12	2.57	1.96	3.29	.001*	0.76
Q6. TLO	2.85	1.20	2.48	1.16	4.20	.000*	0.74

Note. CKTT: Cramming Knowledge for Taking Tests; MTT: Memorization for Taking Tests; TCTSM: Theme for Critical Thinking towards Self-Maturity; TSS: Theme for Self-in-Society; TBV: Tasks for Beliefs and Values; TLO: Tasks for Life-Orienting. Bonferroni adjustment was applied for six tests (*p* = .008: *p* < .005*).

Several salient results are observed from the table. In G1, while not in a positive range, administered ELT is more likely to be connected with the instrumentalist perspective as compared to the desired ELT. In G2, although at a neutral/unclear level, the curiosity for PICT

(in desired ELT) was found stronger than the reality of currently employed ELT (in administered ELT). A similar orientation also emerges in G3, with the results remaining at a slightly negative level. Broadly, it can be suggested that the administered ELT tends to be more connected with the instrumentalist perspective, rather than the PICT- spirituality orientation. In contrast, while still in a neutral position or a slightly negative level, the introduction of PICT and spirituality has been more supported in the desired ELT as compared to the administered ELT.

Following the first aim, the second research focused on exploration of the students' self-rated L2 use capability to describe who they really are and what they will and ought to be. Accordingly, the questionnaire survey adopts a comprehensive stance of investigating from a surface/introductory level to an inner/spiritual one. Eight questions (levels) were provided, using a similar scale (1 = I can never do it at all, 2 = I cannot do it basically, 3 = neither/no idea, 4 = I can do it basically, 5 = I can do it very well). Level [1] asks about gender, age, birthplace, hometown, high school name (alma mater) [Personal Profile]. [2] asks whether the students can state their college name, faculty and department in English [Affiliation and Major]. [3] concerns specific information, asking whether they can explain their academic interests or research areas in their major [Interested Academic Field in Major]. [4] pertains to possible self, that is, a concrete career plan or goal after graduation [Career Goal after Graduation]. [5] relates to the explanation of idealistic self-image in the context of college life [Idealistic, Ought-To-Be Self-Image]. [6] focuses on the inner spiritual part [Personal Beliefs and Sense of Values]. [7] asks whether the students personally cherish an important message in English towards whole-person development, specifically in the form of an aphorism or proverb from a speech address, autobiography, and other textual messages created by historically prominent persons [Cherished Aphorism for Self-Development]. Following [7], the last [8] asks whether they have a self-created aphorism for inner spiritual growth [Self-Created Aphorism for Self-Development].

To recapitulate, [1]-[8] concerns *who I am*, *what I will be*, *what I ought to be*. This self and identity-focused aspect is substantially valued in a new perspective of L2 motivation and L2 learner autonomy (e.g., Ushioda, 2011), as well as in spirituality-involved good character education at a tertiary level (e.g., Arthur, 2010). It is therefore worthwhile to emphasize the authentic or the ultimate aim of L2 use in association with better knowing the true meaning and purpose of living in this world (i.e., ontology with attention on *raison d'être*), as well as in crystalizing and enriching the necessarily important inner spirit (i.e., axiology with focus on personal beliefs and sense of values). Table 2 exhibits the yielded responses (α = .881).

Table 2
8 Levels of Self-Rated L2 Use Competence: Focusing on Self and Identity (N=388)

Levels	*M*	*SD*	Skewness (*SE*)	Kurtosis (*SE*)
[1] Personal Profile	3.77	1.12	-.94 (.12)	.20 (.24)
[2] Affiliation and Major	3.11	1.27	-.19 (.12)	-1.09 (.24)
[3] Interested Academic Field in Major	2.52	1.17	.44 (.12)	- .67 (.24)
[4] Career Goal after Graduation	2.49	1.18	.43 (.12)	- .81 (.24)
[5] Idealistic, Ought-To-Be Self-Image	2.30	1.13	.59 (.12)	- .44 (.24)
[6] Personal Beliefs and Sense of Values	2.21	1.12	.66 (.12)	- .42 (.24)
[7] Cherished Aphorism	1.91	1.04	1.18 (.12)	.91 (.24)
[8] Self-Created Aphorism	1.80	0.98	1.28 (.12)	1.34 (.24)

As witnessed from the numerical results and relevant configuration, in terms of self-perceived L2 use capability, there emerge no positive responses (i.e., learning outcomes) in fully describing the whole person from a surface/explicit level to an inner/spiritual level. Except for the first two introductory levels (which are neutral), the other levels gradually became lower, and this negative orientation has become more evident in the deeper level of self-expressiveness (i.e., truly associated with the underpinnings of PICT and spirituality).

Implications for College ELT and L2 Use Competence

As witnessed from the students' response, ELT styles (both desired and administered) pertaining to PICT and spirituality were not positively accepted nor fully implemented, and a

lower/insufficient level of L2 use capability became evident as it came closer to the essential part of PICT and spirituality. Despite good academic standards in *hensachi* (deviation value) and good school reputation, the students have difficulty explaining who they really are and what they ought to be as *a whole person*. Noting this reality, it essentially needs to underscore *ontology* (*raison d'être* in a wider life context) and *axiology* (crystallization of solid beliefs and values towards personally fulfilling, meaningful, and socially responsible lives) in L2 motivational development. By doing so, *authentic* rationales for L2 motivation and L2 learner identity will be convincingly and conceivably exemplified and substantiated through the college learners' eyes.

Mission and Dilemma at YCU: TOEFL 500 as a Compulsory Requirement vs. Critical Consideration for Introducing PICT and Spirituality

Yokohama City University (YCU) provides a unique EFL program called Practical English (PE), which requires all students to reach TOEFL 500 before advancing to the third year. Currently more than 95 % of the students pass the course in two years. Many of them move on to the next step: Advanced Practical English (APE). Some students have shown outstanding performances at events such as at the National Presentation Contest and the Law Moot Court Competition, winning the highest awards. Thanks to the successful results indicated by the TOEFL passing rate and achievements by distinguished students, the university has a very good reputation among high school students and corporate recruiters. However, the English program has both advantages and disadvantages, both of which are linked to the issue of L2 motivation, in particular related to PICT and spirituality.

Goals and Features of PE

YCU is a small-sized public university located in Yokohama. The school mission is to contribute to society, the international city of Yokohama, and to produce graduates who can work actively with a global vision and mindset. To this end, the goal of PE program is "to

develop the practical skills necessary to function effectively in English in college level liberal arts classes at YCU." The features of the current PE curriculum are as follows: 80% attendance policy; 3 lessons per week plus e-Learning; lessons conducted entirely in English; small class size; focus on using English; class levels based on proficiency test scores; instructors with M.A. in TESOL; unified syllabus and textbooks; TOEFL-ITP and speaking tests as end-of-semester exams.

When the PE program was initiated in 2005, no clear goal was presented to students and teachers, and the focus in the class was primarily on test taking strategies. Therefore, misdirected students sought only scores of TOEFL or TOEIC to pass PE and their study style was indistinguishable from that utilized during high school days in order to pass entrance exams for university. From the outset, the PE program was exam-oriented, and students' attitudes towards English study were relatively negative. Consequently, the passing rate of the first students of this program was only 70.4%, which meant many students could not advance to the third year. Then YCU established the Practical English Center to manage the whole program and revise the curriculum from an exam-oriented to a communication-oriented one. Since the establishment of the PE Center, students have been very active in class under the pedagogical policy of 'communicative approach.' In this regard, YCU has successfully enhanced the classroom setting not only as a 'place to learn,' but also as a 'place to *use*' English.

Effects vs. Issues on PE program in Relation to Developing L2 Motivation

When the PE Center investigated the correlation between L2 motivation of PE/APE students and their TOEFL scores, it was revealed that APE students in general were more motivated than PE students; however, improvement of APE students' TOEFL scores was much lower than that of PE students. This result arises from the fact that PE is a required subject and every student must take the credit for promotion to the third year; meanwhile, APE is an elective subject and grades and TOEFL scores are not counted for the promotion.

Because of this, PE students study hard out of fear of repeating the second year; however, such pressure provides negative impacts on their L2 motivation. On the other hand, APE students, who don't study so hard and are released from the pressure of exam scores or repeating the same grade, show a positive L2 motivation. Based on this fact, it is fair to say that the PE program has been achieving good results owing to the harsh requirement of TOEFL 500, whereas the APE program has been yielding less desirable results, probably because of its irrelevancy to such a requirement.

Although YCU has successfully enhanced the pedagogical approach in EFL curriculum from exam-oriented to student-centered and communication-focused, the learners' L2 motivation—especially in PE students—still remains exam-oriented. Most PE students learn English driven by extrinsic motivation, such as test scores and promotion to the third year, while lacking intrinsic motivation—for instance, self-fulfillment and self-development. This is true of APE students as well. Most APE students continue to study English to obtain good scores on TOEFL, IELTS, and TOEIC for purposes of studying abroad and job hunting, which essentially corresponds to extrinsic motivation. Indeed, they lack a conception of what they want to do after improving their English skills and how they want to make use of those skills after coming back from study abroad programs, or after finishing university. Furthermore, they lack a perspective of how they want to develop themselves (i.e., whole-person development including inner spiritual growth) through studying English. This motivational issue might be applicable not only to YCU students but also to other Japanese college students whose main concern is to gain good scores on certified tests.

Implications for Introducing PICT and Spirituality in PE/APE

In language education, authentication and enhancement of college learners' L2 motivation must be as significant a concern as curriculum design and ELT methodology. In this regard, Ushioda (2008) points out that "externally regulated motivation (the traditional 'carrot and stick' approach) can have short-term benefits only" (p. 22), insisting that the real

educational aim is to generate each learner's own motivation 'from within the self.' This notion exactly applies to YCU's EFL curriculum, which lacks a perspective of life-long education. The Council of Europe's (2001) *Common European Framework of References for Languages* (CEFR) asserts "language learning is a lifelong task" (p. 5), essentially resonating with the perspective of PICT. Hence, YCU students should not stop studying English after obtaining target scores on tests or getting required credits at their universities. Scores or credits should not be the main goals for students, but rather transit points to them. In other words, their ultimate goal should be personal development and spiritual growth as globally engaged citizens.

The PE and APE programs of YCU follow the philosophy of the CEFR in consideration of action-oriented approach and communicative language teaching. With respect to long-term goals and intrinsic motivation, however, the programs have never escaped from the traditional mode of L2 teaching and learning strategies in Japan. This is a dilemma. The mission of YCU, as mentioned earlier, lies in fostering future global human resources; not principally in helping students achieve the immediate goal of a good TOEFL score. Reflecting on this mission, YCU needs to modify the EFL curriculum so that English as the target language can be employed not only as a tool for communication, but also as a vital agent for human development, including fostering real global citizens from YCU.

Seeking Tangible Impacts of PICT and Spirituality: Pedagogical Challenge at ICU Through ELA Program

International Christian University (ICU), a private liberal arts university in Tokyo, offers the English language program *English for Liberal Arts (ELA).* Including ELT, this program essentially values the underpinnings of PICT and spirituality, mindful of ICU's solid mission of fostering well-matured and well-rounded college students. That is, students are encouraged to develop as 'true' global citizens acting beyond geographical borders and complex

ideological and sociocultural disparities arising from evolving global communities.

The ELA is a program for new students enrolling in ICU in April. In other words, before the students embark on their studies in College of Liberal Arts, the ELA serves as a prerequisite learning experience in the university. The ELA aims at equipping students with skills necessary for their study in College of Liberal Arts as well as enhancing their English proficiency. In this milieu, the mission of the university is emphasized in tune with the learning goals of ELA.

ICU articulates its mission as "the establishment of an academic tradition of freedom, and reverence based on Christian ideals, and the education of individuals of conscience, internationally cultured and with a strong sense of citizenship in a democratic society" (see ICU webpage: https://www.icu.ac.jp/en/about/commitment.html). The university engages in realizing this mission through three different commitments as manifested in the school motto: academic (university), Christian, and international.

The academic commitment is a mission to pursue truth, to preserve academic freedom, and to enrich inner freedom. The commitment contends that the university has a responsibility to defend the academic community from external constraint and coercion. Following this emphasis, students are encouraged to "think, critique and make reasonable judgments as individuals serving truth and freedom, against any external restraint and coercion" (see ICU webpage: https://www.icu.ac.jp/en/).

The Christian commitment is engaged in the belief that a Christian institution in higher education has a distinct contribution and responsibility to the world. Anchored in this belief, ICU cherishes this aphorism: "Knowledge that is discovered and taught is not an end in itself but carries with it certain implications, such as the responsibility for improving society" (see ICU webpage: https://www.icu.ac.jp/en/about/commitment.html).

The third commitment, international, reflects the founding sprit of the university. ICU was established in 1953 shortly after the end of WWII. Based on reflections on the war,

together with the importance of dialogue for mutual understanding of different views, notions, ideologies, and perspectives, this commitment urges ICU students to encounter and appreciate diverse backgrounds through dialogue. For this end, language proficiency is dispensable and Japanese and English are both official languages at the university.

In exemplifying the definition of L2 learner and L2 use in the ELA, the ELA READER, an ICU original textbook, plays a vital role. The collected readings in this book, essentially reflecting the essence of PICT and tailored for ICU students' spiritual growth, are allocated into three progressive stages: 'Discovery,' 'Inward Bound,' and 'Outward Bound,' i.e., truly designed for the process of self-development. In collaboration with this constructive stage, a trajectory of L2 use practice called 'ELA Journey' is provided for the students[1]. In each stage of self-development, prepared reading materials (themes and contents) are compiled into a sequentially progressive/developmental order so that productive arguments and dialogues can be fostered through higher order thinking (see Figure 1).

In other words, the themes in each stage are aimed at 'one big, important story as a whole,' while facilitating the accumulation of cognitive and linguistic skills through intensive reading and follow-up negotiation of meanings with peer learners. As witnessed from these accounts, the ELA journey is in concert with PICT and spirituality: rendering students as 'self-reflective intentional agents, with goals and motives, engaging with the world and living their lives' (Ushioda, 2017b). In fact, prepared readings encourage ICU students to reflect on themselves in the journey of self-development, while encouraging a solid sense of *a learner of English*.

In 'Discovery,' the main theme is *the critical and creative mind: educational values*. In one of the readings, "What Every Yale Freshman Should Know," for instance, the students learn the differences of studying at high school and university. They recognize that university is a place where curiosity should be encouraged and communication must be expected. They also understand that university is a place where any pursuit of truth needs to be appraised.

Thus, they develop academic and scholarly minds then try to communicate to the world through what they have found out in solid conviction.

In 'Inward Bound,' the main topic is *identity and patterns of humanity: culture, perception and communication*. Here, the students engage in an exploration into themselves, asking questions such as: what it means to have a certain nationality, and what it means to be born and brought up in a particular context. Motivated by these authentic questions, they look into themselves inwardly (i.e., spiritually) through a metaphysical lens. Through the readings, they ponder upon how perception and recognition of differences among people can be generated, while becoming more attentive to the role and function of dialogue in diverse backgrounds.

In 'Outward Bound,' the students grapple with ethical and socio-philosophical issues, while reflecting on the crucial meaning of being a human and social being. The main theme is *ethics and idealism*. To illustrate, through a reading topic "Human Security—Protecting and Empowering the People," the students must discuss what it means to be a global citizen, i.e., a person who assumes responsibility for the well-being of other people. To this end, the students' thoughts, minds, beliefs, and values are fixed onto the immediate context, such as their family members and classmates. Such spirituality is also directed towards geographical and geopolitical borders in the world, and towards chronological constraints such as time, history, and era. With such a thought-provoking context, and using English as an arguable communicative tool, the students endeavor to envision a highly promising human society.

Stages	Discovery	Inward Bound	Outward Bound
Themes	The critical and creative mind: educational values	Identity and patterns of humanity: culture, perception, and communication	Ethics and idealism
Readings	● College thinking ● Yale freshman ● Propaganda ● Introduction to argumentation ● Introduction to literature	● Intercultural communication ● Perception of self ● Charged language ● Nonverbal communication ● Issues of race	● Introduction to ethics ● Bioethics ● Euthanasia ● Visions of the future ● Human security

Figure 1. Outline of the ELA READER: Complied by ICU ELA (2014).

ELA manifests English not as a foreign language, but as a language through which ICU students should become able to achieve healthy personal development. Indeed, English is the language to better know the self and develop a good sense of identity. It is an organic agent by which the students can learn more about important truths through deeper discussion and dialogue. In extracurricular activities, they use English to communicate with ICU teachers in out-of-class periods. Thus, they 'shape and are shaped by the context and this takes place through the use of English' (Ushioda, 2017b).

Implications: Importance of Organic Integration of Christianity, ELA, PICT, and Spirituality

To recapitulate, ELA is an English language program, whose aim is to improve students' English proficiency as well as enticing L2 learners with the study of liberal arts. It is underpinned by the holistic educational principles of promoting whole person development, as discussed in the introduction.

As can be seen from the construction of the ELA READER, and through the ELA journey, the academic duty of ICU students is to achieve inner spiritual growth and form a well-conceived self-identity as college L2 learners. Hence, the importance of mutual understanding and dialogue is emphasized not only for the quest of ethical humanity, which

should be kindled by the spirit of public philosophy, but also to nurture social responsibility and commitment as a global citizen. To this aim, ELA does value the enhancement of L2 communicability, and self-development as well. Consequently, for ICU students, developing L2 motivation is equivalent to becoming *a person* living in socially, globally, and educationally thought-provoking contexts.

Conclusion

Traditional L2 motivation research concerns the utility value and instrumentalist aspects of developing language skills, while recognizing native speakers of English society as an idealistic target language community and external reference group. However, in the new perspective of language learning motivation for both English and languages other than English (LOTEs), "more humanist educational values of self-development, linguistic enrichment" (Ushioda, 2017a, p. 474) need to be underscored. In this regard, it is suggested that PICT and spirituality have a grave mission of trying to redress the balance of the prevailing power struggle in our ever-expanding global society (e.g., socio-political-and-economic vs. socio-philosophical) and in higher education (e.g., utilitarian and instrumental vs. humanitarian and spiritual in tune with ontology and axiology). Paulo Freire, a world-renowned historical educator, once said: "the teacher's thinking is authenticated only by the authenticity of the students' thinking" (Freire, 2000, p. 77).

Traditional paper-based college entrance exams rarely evaluate students' L2 proficiency in relation to the expression of beliefs, values, and philosophy of life from a wider/holistic viewpoint extended to the realm of ethics, humanism, civic virtues, and public philosophy. Unfortunately, such an unbalanced foreign language education seems to remain prevalent in the Japanese college context, as partially and fully exemplified in the first two reports in this paper. However, as elaborated in the third report, there are possibilities for engaging Japanese students in a more holistic approach to language learning, personal growth, and spiritual

development as well-rounded global citizens, in keeping with the principles of PICT and spirituality thoroughly discussed in this paper.

As long as language concerns logos, pathos, and ethos, it is imperative to take a multi-layered view of L2 learning and L2 motivation. Accordingly, we highlight an emergent ELT agenda in the Japanese college context anchored in the following research perspective: How motivation for learning English should become integrated within each college learner's sense of being, values, beliefs, and purpose in life. Our view is that this is a critical mission in the Japanese college context, if our aim as educators is to help foster globally responsible, mature and reflective citizens with a sense of spiritual purpose in life. *Nosce te ipsum* (know yourself), and *Cito maturum, cito putridum* (soon ripe, soon rotten)—these Latin sayings, or aphorisms, remind us of the importance of this aim in higher education, no matter what historic era we live in.

Note

[1] Concerning the ELA Journey and its three stages, the idea and utilized terms were created by Mr. Michael Kleindl, ELA Instructor of ICU.

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Submission Guidelines

JACET International Convention Selected Papers, Vol. 5

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3. All submissions to JACET Selected Papers must conform to the requirements of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 6th edition.

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   3.4 Do not justify right margins.

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